ED 011 101   AC 000 146

ANNUAL LABORATORIES IN COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP TRAINING, 1966,
READING BOOK.
NATIONAL TRAINING LABS., WASHINGTON, D.C.

                                        PUB DATE   66

EDRS PRICE   MF-$0.09 HC-$2.00   50P.

DESCRIPTORS- *COMMUNITY CHANGE, *LEADERSHIP TRAINING,
*TRAINING LABORATORIES, *CHANGE AGENTS, *RESOURCE MATERIALS,
ROLE THEORY, SOCIAL STRUCTURE, PROBLEM SOLVING, EVALUATION
TECHNIQUES, WORKBOOKS, MANUALS, NATIONAL TRAINING
LABORATORIES, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, BETHEL, MAINE, CEDAR
CITY, UTAH

        THESE READINGS ON COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP TRAINING APPLY
ELEMENTS OF LABORATORY TRAINING TO NEEDS AND ROLE DEMANDS OF
COMMUNITY CHANGE AGENTS. THE COMMUNITY IS SEEN AS A SOCIAL
SYSTEM CHARACTERIZED BY DISTINCT PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR AND
INTERACTION, AND SUBJECT TO ACCELERATING SOCIAL, ECONOMIC,
POLITICAL, AND TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE. THE AUTHOR DISCUSSES
PRINCIPLES OF POWER AND ITS USE, PROBLEMS AND METHODS OF ROLE
DEFINITION, THE DYNAMICS OF COMMUNITY CHANGE ANALYSIS, AND
METHODS AND TECHNIQUES USEFUL IN COMMUNITY ACTION RESEARCH
AND EVALUATION. THE PROBLEM ANALYSIS WORKBOOK, INCLUDED AS
THE SECOND PART OF THE DOCUMENT, FURNISHES GUIDELINES FOR (1)
CLARIFYING GOALS, NORMS AND STANDARDS, RELEVANT ROLES OF
CHANGE AGENTS, AND PATTERNS OF POWER AND INFLUENCE, (2)
ORGANIZING FOR ACTION, AND (3) CONDUCTING CONTINUING AND
FINAL EVALUATION. THE DOCUMENT INCLUDES CHARTS, FOOTNOTES,
AND CHAPTER REFERENCES. (LY)

READING BOOK

ANNUAL LABORATORIES

IN

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP TRAINING

1 9 6 6

Bethel, Maine   Cedar City, Utah

N T L   I L G D

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFATORY NOTE

Since 1960, the National Training Laboratories has conducted training
programs designed especially for those who are engaged in community work,
both volunteers and professionals, and who want to be more effective.
These programs employ the laboratory methods NTL has pioneered since 1947,
with an emphasis on training for self-understanding, for interpersonal
sensitivity, for skill in group processes, and for skill in processes of
change. The Community Laboratories attempt a "new mix" which the basic
elements of laboratory training are related specifically to the needs and
role demands of community change agents and in which theory about learning,
about individual and group behavior, about organizations, is combined with
theory about community processes and community change.

This book of readings on the community thus supplements readings on
individual and small-group behavior. It also supplements materials developed
for another major element of the laboratory design -- the problem analysis
sessions in which participants work intensively on their own community and
organizational problems. The problem analysis sessions are designed to
give practical help on actual problems but, in the process, to help partici-
pants develop their skill in giving and receiving help.

NATURE OF TODAY'S COMMUNITY

I. American communities and American society always have been in transition, but the __rate__ of change is accelerating at the present time and threatening the ability of present techniques to cope with the consequences of change. Powerful social, economic, and technical forces are making and remaking American communities. These forces have produced an enormously complex, highly specialized community which is intricately interdependent with the larger society.

__Some major forces are --__

1. The growth of science and technology
2. Continuing industrialization and automation
3. Specialization and professionalization
4. The specialization, mechanization, and automation of agriculture
5. Population explosion, movements, and concentration
6. The increasing percentage of older people in our society
7. Urbanization and suburbanization and their interrelationship with the style or mode of living
8. Changes in transportation, communication, and sources of power
9. Rising levels of living and public service demands.

1. Administrative units of all kinds -- political, economic, and organizational -- have become somewhat of a shambles. They are unrealistic in relation to the functions to be performed. However, for a variety of reasons we have not, as yet, devised satisfactory new patterns. Before many years have passed -- some say by the 1970's -- most cities will have worked out methods for securing taxes and other aids from their suburbs; Detroit, New York, and other cities are now pointing the way. This will force the development of new political forms. In some cities, death by strangulation of the central city is well advanced. It is increasingly obvious that new forms for the organization of administrative units are not in evidence today in relation to communities. The techniques that have been tried -- metropolitan government, the expansion of the functions of county government, the disincorporation of city and townships, and the reincorporation of new and larger areas -- none of these patterns has as yet, proved an answer to the problems confronted. Perhaps the basis of a solution to the problem may be developed out of a combination of elements involved in these four general approaches.

2. Rapid growth in industry and rapid increases in population have created serious problems in developing realistic present and projected patterns of land use, including the location of highways and other such facilities. Industry's greatly increased demand for space, for land, intensifies the competition among various alternative uses of land. The location of industry obviously has far-reaching implications. In metropolitan areas the acquisition of open space to meet the recreational needs of future generations has already become a major problem.

3. A large number of communities continue to be engulfed in a tide of population. Increases in the number of people have seriously strained public services and facilities and, along with other factors, have made it more difficult to make decisions on problems which confront communities.

4. Rural, suburban, and urban communities have become more complex. Increases in the number of organizations, and particularly special-interest types of organizations have complicated the problem of arriving at consensus and achieving concerted action. Increases in the size of organizations have increased the distance between the leadership and the followship, have decreased face-to-face relationships, and have retarded the formation of informed public opinion.

5. High mobility has resulted in increased diversity in counties and communities, including the rural communities. New residents have different experiences and different backgrounds from those of old residents. They do not know local ways, local leadership patterns, and frequently they want more and better facilities and services than the community presently provides. These new residents are perceived in some cases as a threat to established arrangements. Communication problems are multiplied.

6. The separation of place of residence, place of work, place of shopping and recreation, and sometimes place of the education of one's children, creates divided loyalties and aggravates the problem of providing various public services. The problem of divided loyalties is somewhat intensified in the case of part-time farming. If a farmer accepts part-time employment in order to increase the family income, it has many implications for his commitment to and his involvement in agriculture.

7. Increases in numbers and mobility have reduced some of the buffers that previously existed between groups. Tension and conflict produced by increased contact make it difficult for the individual to comprehend the total environment, internal and external, to which he must react. It multiplies the number of problems requiring solution through intragroup and intergroup conferences. Adequate mechanisms for mediating differences are not being developed rapidly enough. A case in point is the inadequate understanding in many cases between farmer and non-farmer, between management and labor, between commuter and non-commuter, and other such cleavages which exist throughout our population.

8. In almost every state, a sizeable number of communities and counties continue to lose population. They face serious problems in providing, let alone enriching, the human services demanded of the community and organizations.

9. Rapid growth in the industry and the total economy tends to increase the concern in counties and communities about building and/or stabilizing the economic base. This again poses problems in making decisions about industry and its location and in carrying out these decisions. It raises problems about the development of the total resources of the community or the county through various resource development programs such as are being developed by the Cooperative Extension Service and the Area Redevelopment Administration.

10. Conflicts have developed in communities over the demands for public services and in the willingness of various groups to pay taxes to support these services. Very frequently, questions are raised not only about the services but also about assessment, equalization, and tax rates. Arriving at equitable decisions in this field is always difficult.

11. The development of special-interest organizations as contrasted with general-interest organizations has been accentuated. The inclusive organization based on kinship and residence of the traditional community has been largely replaced by many special-interest organizations. And the relations of the individual to the larger community are now mediated through organizations.

12. High mobility and highly specialized types of organizations, together with other forces, have greatly reduced the number of stable groups and have made membership in many organizations highly unstable.

13. Status relationships both for individuals and organizations within the community have shifted and will continue to shift. Large-scale, centralized, bureaucratic organizations have come to play an increasingly important role in decisions affecting the community.

14. Serious communications problems have arisen in many communities. Generally, people may be well informed about what is going on, but they have difficulty in getting specific current information about community, neighborhood, or school affairs. This is particularly true in the new communities growing up on the fringes of older ones.

15. Serious conflicts in attitudes and values have developed. People holding different attitudes toward labor and labor unions; toward government and political parties; toward racial, religious, and ethnic groups; and other basic attitudes and values are in contention and occasionally in conflict. Methods long used by some groups to work toward their ends are shifting. For example, some farm organizations have adopted or seem to be adopting the techniques and methods of organized labor in order to gain a fair price for the commodities they produce. The recent doctors' strike in Saskatchewan and a school teachers' strike in New York City further illustrate the trend.

16. The metropolitan area is emerging as a major new unit in our society which has not yet developed and made stable all elements of a system, but which is blurring our ability to discern community at the local level. The proliferation of cities, towns, and villages in the same metropolitan area increases the difficulty in defining community in metropolitan areas.

17. Several results of current forces operating in our society interlock to pose especially grave problems for many of the older cities. These include: the concentration of lower income and minority groups in the decaying portions of the inner city; the development of single class city neighborhoods and suburbs; the division of political party affiliation along the boundary line separating city and suburbs.

18. The development of national systems in business and industry, labor, the mass media, and other activities poses grave problems for community integration and self-control.

19. The development of a mass society within which national systems are not subject to control by the local community, tends to replace local culture and unique characteristics with patterns and forms in many fields that originate in only one or two centers (New York, Los Angeles, etc.)

20. The ability to establish and maintain linkages among various specializations and systems has become more difficult as the number of specializations increases, the scope and complexity of systems increase, and the rate of change accelerates.

21. Automation and accompanying changes in our society are generating an increasing need for continuing education. The continuing educational need is geared not only to vocational training issues but to the entire range of needs of a changing society. It affects the entire public school system as well as the specialized educational services in the community.

22. Industrialization and urbanization are bringing our society into closer relations with the developing nations of the world and underlining the increasing interdependence of all societies and people in the modern world.

II. The Community -- A Social System

A. What is a community? The problem of definition.

1. Although there is no general accepted definition of community, for practical purposes we may characterize it as a group of people who have a sense of common identification through their development and/or joint use of some institutions and a physical environment.

   The "sense of belonging" implies some kind of commitment to the community, a kind of "emotional investment," an identification. It implies also that under certain conditions the community can command the loyalties and the support of its members. In a sense, the ability to act on its common problems.

2. The important parts of this rather rough definition are:

   a. People and their patterned relations
   b. A network of institutions and organizations
   c. Space.

3. An illustration -- Crestwood Heights 1/

Although Crestwood Heights is officially a separate municipa-
lity within a greater metropolitan area, it is also something
else. It exists as a community because of the relationships
that exist among people -- relationships revealed in the
functioning of the institutions which they have created:
family, school, church, community center, club, association,
summer camp, and other more peripheral institutions and
services.

This complex network of human relationships which is the
community exists from the viewpoint of the participants for a
definite purpose. In Crestwood Heights the major institutional
focus is upon child-rearing. How is a Crestwood Heights adult
to be made? How will he grow and mature into manhood and
womanhood? What ideals are to be placed before him? What are
the pressures to be laid upon him for conformity? What are
the obstacles to orderly, predictable growth? What are to be
the stages of maturation? What is to be understood by
"maturity" itself, and how is it finally to be achieved? Here
are eminent local preoccupations.

B. The community as a social system.

1. The concept of the social system is helpful in understanding
organizations, groups, and the community. It gets at the
totality and at the same time stresses certain basic
elements and processes.

a. System is observable, if one looks closely -- that is,
patterns of behavior and interaction.

b. One also observes that human systems have these
characteristics:

1) Unity or cohesion
2) Boundaries
3) Resistance to external forces
4) Continuity through time.

1/ Seeley, John R.; Sim, Alexander; and Loosely, W.E.; Crestwood Heights: A
Study of the Culture of Suburban Life. New York: Basic Books, Inc.,
1956. See the first few pages for a concept of and approach to the
study of community.

2. Elements of social systems. 2/

    a. The basic elements of organization are the same as in any other social system:

        1) Common body of values, beliefs, sentiments -- criteria which determine a choice of ends and means.

        2) Goals -- ends toward which behavior is directed.

        3) Norms - standards -- expected and prescribed ways of acting in relation to the goals.

        4) Position-roles -- behavior expected of individuals in given situations.

        5) Status -- ordering or ranking of individuals.

        6) Power-authority -- ability or right to influence the behavior of people.

        7) Sanctions -- patterns of rewards and punishment which encourage behavior that conforms to the norms.

C. Processes in social systems.

In addition to these elements there are a number of processes at work. These processes mesh, stabilize, and alter relationships between the elements through time and give the system a dynamic functioning continuity. Among the more important processes are:

1. Communication
2. Socialization
3. Problem solving, including decision making
4. Systemic linkage
5. Evaluation
6. Boundary maintenance.

D. The character of the system -- the individuality of community.

1. Community comes into being in the acceptance of common or like definitions in situations that confront people in living, working, and playing. A social system emerges.

2. The building up of these definitions gives content to the elements of this system.

2/ Loomis, Charles P. Social Systems -- Essays on their Persistence and Change. Princeton: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1960, 349 pp. This is the best analysis available of elements and processes in social systems.

3. The content and patterning of these elements and the
nature of the processes, such as communication and
problem solving, in turn give a certain uniqueness,
a character, and individuality to the community

4. The case of communities "x" and "y" -- an illustration
of the consequences of different value orientations. 3/

    a. Communities "x" and "y" are adjacent and competing
    communities similar in geography, resources, and
    demographic characteristics of their population, such
    as age, ethnic background, occupation. From 1800
    to 1811 they were part of the same town, but they
    separated in 1811 due to basic differences in values
    or things thought to be important.

    b. Some differences in "x" and "y" in the 1950's:

	"x"	"y"
1)	Controled sardine industry in state.	
2)	"x"'ers owned three or four sardine factories in "y"; also owned fish meal factory in "y"; owned ferry between "x" and "y".	
3)	Public-owned electric plant and water works.	Private-owned electric plant and water works.
4)	Used little WPA money.	Used about ten times as much WPA money as "x".
5)	Seems less prosperous; smaller houses than "y"; no library; tiny town hall; ramshackle high school.	Seems more prosperous; big houses; brick library; high school, and city hall.

3/ Du Wors, Richard. "Persistence and Change in Local Values in Two New
England Communities. Rural Sociology, Vol. 17, September 1952.
pp. 207-217.

c. Some other differences:

1) <u>Reaction to debt.</u> "x"'ers' reaction to debt has been to pay it off as soon as possible. "y" has refunded and refunded its debt even in prosperous times to avoid or postpone cutting down various public services.

2) <u>Public services and public expenditures.</u> "y" has appropriate money for more different public services and for a higher quality of services. Of some 16 types of public service, "y" appropriated money before "x" for 12 of these services. Differences exist not only in services but in the way they have been provided. "x", in providing water and power, argued (a) that the money for such projects should be raised at home by selling public bonds to private investors; (b) that the profits should be kept at home. "x" then set up and managed the enterprise. "y" subsidized private gas, electric, and water companies out of tax funds, but would not itself set up and manage such a service.

"y" spends public money to attract other businesses. Public funds have been invested in hotel and railroad projects. "x" will invest public funds only when there is public management.

3) <u>The railroad.</u> "x" refused to subsidize the railroad. Local people still say the refusal was due to fear that the railroad would bring new values and new ideas. "y"favored the railroad for this reason.

4) <u>Education.</u> "y" has expressed real concern over its school system. It places high value on education. It has turned out regionally and nationally recognized historians, artists, and writers. Differences in attitudes toward education are indicated in that "x" has a domestic science teacher in their school, but no music teacher. "y" has a music teacher, but no domestic science teacher.

5) <u>Community celebrations.</u> Both communities have experienced pressures to have community celebrations, such as the Fourth of July, to attract trade. "x" has opposed such celebrations because of liquor and conduct opposed to the community's values. "y", on the other hand, has gone all out. It wants to make its Fourth of July celebration a kind of Mardi Gras of the North.

6) <u>Change,</u> The things said above and much other evidence indicate "x" resists change. "y" accepts and promotes it whether in public services or in

things, such as conveniences in the home or changes in the way of doing business.

d. One could go on, but this gives us a picture and points out the critical nature of values in the total social system. After years of study, the value system of "y" has shown an emphasis on consumptive spending; while "x"'s values have shown an emphasis on saving and profit-producing capital investments. "y"'s constellation of values included high respect for education, the arts, and learning. In the extreme, one may say its community values do involve a measure of irresponsible hedonism. "x"'s values, on the other hand, included a high sense of responsibility of community and financial stability. At the worst, these values involved a narrowness identified with Puritanism in popular thinking.

E. Differences between the system of organization and community.

1. The community is a system of systems, and includes organizations within it.

2. The community is not structurally and functionally centralized in the same sense as formal organization.

3. The community is implicit in nature -- organizations tend to be explicit. The goals, roles, etc., of organizations are written down in constitutions, by-laws, job descriptions, tables of organization, etc.

F. The problem of compatibility between systems.

1. The distinctive patterns of elements such as goals, values, roles in communities are likely to be different, or may be different, from those of particular groups and organizations.

2. Significant instances of incompatibility are observed between organizations and communities as totalities and also between important elements in organizations and communities such as goals and power:

    a. Differences between local and extra-local (state, regional, metropolitan, or national levels of organization)

    b. Lack of public understanding and support, membership apathy, and indifference

    c. Lack of cooperation (between professional staff and "volunteers")

    d. Ineffective communication

    e. Difficulty in recruiting and holding leadership.

POWER AND ITS USES IN THE COMMUNITY

OBJECTIVES:

1. To examine concepts of the nature of power.
2. To review theories about its distribution and operation in the community.
3. To review forces that change the power structure.

WAYS OF LOOKING AT POWER:

1. <u>Authority</u> -- the legitimate right to influence the behavior of others inherent in a position.

2. <u>Influence</u> -- the actual or potential capacity to affect the behavior of others through control of allocation and use of resources, rewards, and punishment; may be constructive or coercive.

   <u>Influentials may be of two types</u>: 1) the <u>top</u> influentials are persons from whom particular members are drawn into various systems of power relations according to the issue at stake. Second-line managers, etc. 2) <u>key</u> influentials are the leaders among the top influentials, i.e., those who appear in relation to several issues -- or decisions.

3. <u>Capacity to Influence Decision Making</u> is viewed as the essence of power in the community -- as contrasted with social prominence, reputation, or position, which may be "decision-facilitating" influences, or help legitimize decisions.

<u>POWER</u> must be viewed as a function of <u>the person,</u> and as a function of a <u>social system.</u>

<u>POWER</u> must be channeled through organization or part of a sub-system. Power is expressed in concrete acts: to work on committees or not; to accept leadership or not; to support or oppose propositions or not; to contribute or withhold funds.

<u>POWER</u> is exercised continuously in the community to maintain arrangements, to prevent the rise of issues, to resist change. It is sharply focused when the established relationships are challenged, when position or allocation of resources must be defined.

One definition: "Power is the chance of a man or a number of men to realize their own will in a communal action against the restraint of others participating in the action."[1]

TYPES OF POWER

   Reward -- ability to reward
   Coercive -- ability to punish, coerce
   Expertness -- knowledge, skill, etc.
   Referent -- people refer to - defer to
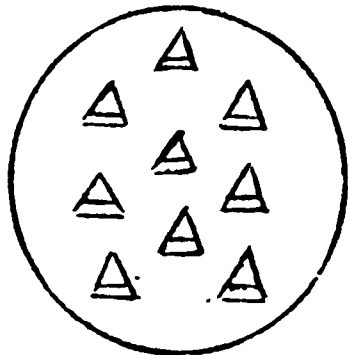   Legitimate -- right to influence - authority.

[1] Gerth and Mills. <u>From Max Weber</u>: <u>Essays in Sociology</u>. New York: Oxford University Press, 1946, p. 190.

THE STRUCTURE OF POWER

1. As a _single_ pyramid system

DECISION MAKERS

DECISION FACILITATORS
(Help to legitimize decisions)
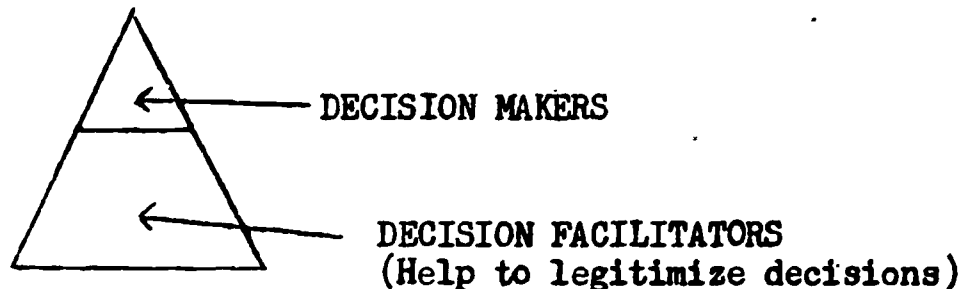
2. As a _multi_-pyramid system

Separate pyramids in a multi-pyramid system tend to be content- or issue-oriented. Sociometric analysis may show a decision maker in more than one of the pyramids, and a "facilitator," too -- but not sufficiently concentrated as to form a single pyramid.

Decision facilitators may contribute to the decision by supplying data, by creating "climate" and conditions for decision making, and by helping to legitimize the decision. This distinction between the roles of decision makers and facilitators in many respects is similar to the division of labor between boards and policy-making committees in voluntary organizations and the staffs of the organization. Staffs tend to be decision facilitators, and directors and committeemen tend to be decision makers. Also, within staffs there is a role distinction that places some closer to the decision-making process (boards, etc.); while the others remain almost exclusively in a decision-facilitating role.

ANALYSIS OF POWER

Some of the methods by which power can be examined are:

- Panels of knowledgeable people to help identify

- Organizational membership lists

- Interviews with those thought to have influence -- why they work with and their ideas about persons with power

- Analysis of specific community decisions on issues to see who made them or influenced them

- Organizational decisions to see who was involved

- Observation

- Sociometric analysis of contacts and interactions

- Study of pyramids of power and their relations with one another.

ACCESS TO POWER STRUCTURE -- DECISION MAKERS

Persons who appear in the power structure may be classified in such terms as these:

1. Public Sector -- formal authorities elected or appointed to offices in government. Tend to be the upwardly mobile from ethnic, lower socio-economic groups, and long-time residents.

2. Private Sector -- the technical or managerial specialists, such as engineers, physicians, attorneys, and the top managers of middle-sized firms, or just below the top managers in large firms. Tend to be highly mobile and short-term residents.

3. Public and Private Sectors -- the top managers of the largest firms and old-line aristocrats.

In the Syracuse study, "the old family aristocracy and the newer industrial management" were reported to be united and "developing rapport and coordination with local government. Other professional and organizational sectors and interests showed little such breadth of impact or apparent depth of resources."[1]

Studies reported by D'Antonio, et al, for several cities of varying sizes and types, show a high concentration of top and key influentials in the business sector.[2] Each of several occupational areas, with the proportion of leaders they provided, are shown in the accompanying table.

PROPORTION OF LEADERS IN EACH OCCUPATIONAL AREA

Occupational Categories	Top Influentials (N=426) 10 cities	Key Influentials (N=132) 11 cities
Business	52%	63%
Government	13	11
Professions	10	7
Education	5	5
Communication	5	7
Labor	4	1
Religion	4	3
Welfare and Cultural	4	2
Society and Wealth	3	-
Agriculture	1	2
Totals	101	101

---

[1] Freeman, L. C. et al. Metropolitan Decision Making, University College Publications, No. 28, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.

[2] D'Antonio, et al. "Institutional and Occupational Representatives in Eleven Community Influence Systems," American Sociological Review Vol. 26, June 1961, pp. 440-446.

The heavy concentrations in the business sector include the new "professional" managers in business and industry in spite of their high mobility.

SOME GENERALIZATIONS ABOUT POWER AND ITS USE

1. The exercise of power is a necessary function in organizations and communities.

2. Power (and leadership) functions within the limitations of the organization or community.

3. Power is a relatively constant factor, and policies and programs are influenced by the exercise of power.

4. Shifts in power among organizations and groups within the community affect the total community.

5. The power of an individual must be channeled through some group or organization to be of maximal effectiveness. If it is so channeled an individual may have more power than he thinks he has. It is always difficult for him to know how much power he has.

   a. The community is a small unit of organized power relationships in which individuals can operate.

   b. The democratic pattern offers the maximum assurance of the individual having a voice in policy and program development and implementation.

REFERENCES

William J. D'Antonio, et al. "Institutional and Occupational Representatives in Eleven Community Influence Systems," American Sociological Review, Vol. 26, June 1961, pp. 440-446.

L. C. Freeman, et al. Metropolitan Decision Making, University College Publications, No. 28, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.

Robert C. Hanson. "Predicting a Community Decision," American Sociological Review, Vol. 24, No. 5, October 1959.

Floyd Hunter. Community Power Structure: a Study of Decision Makers. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1953.

Charles P. Loomis and J. Allan Beegle. Rural Sociology: The Strategy of Change. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1957.

Delbert C. Miller. "The Prediction of Outcome in Community Decision Making." Proceedings of the Pacific Sociological Society ("Research Studies of the State College of Washington," 25 June 1957. pp. 137-147.

John R. Seeley, R. Alexander Sim, and W. E. Loosley. Crestwood Heights: A Study of the Culture of Suburban Life. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1956.

Roland L. Warren. Studying Your Community. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1956.

Robin M. Williams, Jr. American Society: A Sociological Interpretation. New York: Alfred Knopf, 1951.

MY ROLE IN THE COMMUNITY

In a sense we never see the community but only the outward evidences of community effort - in the slums or lack of slums, the way traffic is handled, the kinds of schools built, etc. "Community" as we are concerned with it here is the network of human interaction through which communities are built. This makes it important for us as members of this human interaction network to ask --

Who am I in the community?

In this session we look at roles - my role, my multiple roles, in working in the community. We can locate these roles along certain dimensions.

The concept of role - If we did not share expectations about how we should behave in given positions, we probably could not have organizations or communities. Roles may be defined as a set of commonly understood and accepted expectations. If we filled only roles which were in sympathy or accord with our personality, we would not have so many role problems. And if the various roles we play were consistent with each other, we would have less conflict about the roles we play. But what is the situation?

We may personally lean toward democracy but find ourselves in roles where others expect us to be firmly authoritarian (or the converse).

And we may fill numbers of roles with each making contradictory demands. (A lab participant once listed 23 roles he filled. His reaction was, "My God. No wonder I'm conflicted.")

As people working in communities where we are trying to motivate others to do things, we have not only to deal with our own role conflicts but also the role conflicts of others. A community volunteer is many things besides being a chairman of a committee. He is surrounded by "invisible committees" personifying demands of different roles he plays. The concept of roles and of potential role conflict is important in community work.

Some sources of difficulty in filling roles

1. We may be dissatisfied with what others expect of us. (Sometimes we accept this but grow frustrated. Sometimes we fight to change. And as a result we have people like Ghandi or we have Freedom Riders or we have rebels against the accepted order.)

2. We may play two roles that make conflicting demands. (The community may expect Daddy to play with Johnny but at the same time expect him to spend all his spare time on community activities. Or the demands of making a living may come in conflict with religious or ethical demands. Or a mother may be expected to help make the living but still bake cookies as grandmother did.)

3. We may disagree with others as to what role behavior should be. (Parents may have one set of expectations for teen-age daughter and her contemporaries another set.)

4. We may be in inner conflict as to what role we want to take. (We may want to be a "good fellow" but also to be a strong leader.)

5. Conditions may change and make role expectations inappropriate. (Paternalistic management may no longer suit social conditions.)

6. We may make it difficult for people to get out of familiar roles even when their abilities or training or desires may make other roles possible. (Children may find it difficult to convince parents they are growing up. New members may find it difficult to convince oldtimers that they can be useful in significant roles.)

7. Roles may not be clearly defined. Or communications about roles may not be effective. (Newcomers may make initial mistakes it is difficult to overcome.)

8. The influence or power inherent in a role may not be clear. (We may underestimate power - or overestimate it.)

And so forth. (For longer discussion of role difficulties, see Howard Baumgartel's "The Concept of Role" in THE PLANNING OF CHANGE by Benne, Bennis, and Chin.)

Dimensions for Defining Roles

In small group sessions we may want to develop different sets of dimensions. Here are a few dimensions we may want to consider as we consider Who am I.

1. Professional or volunteer status

   Most of us here are professionals in some sense in community work. Some of us turned professional after years of hard successful work as volunteers. Most of us are both volunteers and professionals in different situations. We may be staff in one organization, board member in another, etc.

   Most of us are aware of the potential conflict between these roles and of the need to link the two. This is particularly important in our culture where on the one hand we value highly volunteerism and on the other we have complex problems demanding highly trained professional competence.

2. Focus of work - specific community problem or broad general community building or improvement

   Some of us are here because of roles related to some primary interest - urban renewal, or mental health, or school improvement, or intergroup relations, or youth problems, or the aging. Others of us are broadly concerned with the community in many inter-related aspects.

3. Duration of service

   Some of us may be here because we seek help in new roles. Others have played present role over many years. Maybe our concern is in reassessing this role, or taking a new look at needed skills.

4. Influence - Some of us may have title to influence, while we know that in fact influence is lodged elsewhere. Others of us may have actual influence without title.

5. Decision-making - We may participate actively in decisions affecting the work we do or decisions may be made elsewhere - at headquarters, or in some other office, or by external forces. We may make the little decisions while someone else makes the big ones -- or the converse.

Assumptions about human behavior and values held which affect role behavior

For example, we may accept the carrot-and-stick approach as the way to organize for action. First you hold out some tangible reward and if this doesn't work you whack the worker.

Men work for concrete rewards. The higher or different order of needs (for belonging, for serving, for being creative, for expressing one's self, for being recognized, for achieving) are unimportant. We may act out this assumption.

Yet there is research today that indicates that the higher motives are even more responsible for behavior than the lower order of needs. This is particularly true in our culture where we have largely succeeded in meeting the lower survival needs. Studies (at University of Michigan) of business and industry find the higher needs of critical importance. The same studies have looked at voluntary organizations and find that when the economic motive is removed or made less important, the higher needs become even more important in motivating action.

At issue here is how successful we are - how successful we can be in given conditions - in making our values explicit in action. This means in the roles we play in the community. This is important if we believe that mental health depends in part on congruence between what we profess to believe and what we do.

We are concerned here with community action choice points. The roles we play, the values we express, the goals we set, the assumptions we make, operate in making these choices. These choices - taken along with the potential of the roles we fill - determine how we organize for action, how widely we share responsibility, how ready we are to use new talent, how willing we are to risk people's responsiveness.

GRID CHART ON ROLE DIMENSIONS

Type of organ.	VOLUNTEER		PROFESSIONAL		OTHER
	Specific problem oriented	General problem oriented	Specific problem oriented	General problem oriented	
Local - public					
Local - private					
Non local - public					
Non local - private					
Influence:					
Organizational Position: High					
Medium					
Low					
Actual: High					
Medium					
Low					
Involvement in Decision making: Great					
Modest					
Little					
Length of Service: Long-standing					
Not so long					
Very recent					

THE DYNAMICS OF COMMUNITY CHANGE ANALYSIS

I. A community is an implicit and often vague system of allocation of roles, resources, and rewards in an attempt to meet the needs of a collection of people.

    1. Because it is implicit and vague (like a T group) rather than explicit and codified (like a military post), a community presents a frustrating picture to an outsider.

        a. With fast migration, there are more and more newcomers and more and more vagueness.

        b. The individual may be quite dissatisfied with the allocation of roles, resources, or rewards, but may find the organization very vague about how such allocations are made.

    2. Because the availability of resources is constantly changing--new people, new ideas, new objects, new skills, new feelings--the community social organization is constantly changing in response to the felt needs or demands for such resources. The underlying forces for change are felt needs--real or unreal.

II. The first step in community change analysis is the identification of the changes currently in progress.

    1. How were resources allocated five, ten years ago as compared to now? Formally? Informally? Functionally?

        a. Change in allocation of people to community occupations? The felt needs underlying?
        b. Change in allocation of objects to persons and groups? The felt needs underlying?
        c. Change in new ideas introduced and change in their availability to persons and groups? The felt needs underlying?
        d. Change skills available and allocated? The felt needs?
        e. Change in feelings about the community organization and their availability to persons and groups.

    2. How are roles allocated now as compared to five, ten years ago? Formally? Informally? Functionally?

        a. Decision making roles?
        b. Disciplinary roles?
        c. Prestige roles?
        d. Leadership roles?
        e. Socialization roles?

    3. How are rewards allocated now compared to five, ten years ago?

        a. Money?
        b. Property?
        c. Prestige?
        d. Respect?
        e. Loyalty?

4. What people or groups have attempted to guide, modify, or stimulate the current changes? How were their roles, resources, and rewards affected?

III. Have the changes increased the driving forces toward change or reduced the restraining forces against change?

IV. Planned change involves intervention into the ongoing process of community change.

   1. Resistance is not just to change—it is resistance to modifying current change.
   2. Change which is <u>perceived</u> as bringing about more gratifying new allocations of roles, resources, and rewards to an individual or a group is seldom resisted by that particular individual or group.
   3. The change agent can reduce restraining forces if he can enter the system at a point at which the proposed change in resource, role, and reward allocation is most gratifying to the persons or groups involved.

V. The mere analysis of the community changes and certainly the proposal of change introduces new resources (people, objects, ideas, skills, feelings), new roles (at least the change agent role), and new rewards (at least the support of, or attack on, the proposal).

VI. When one undertakes to intervene into an orgoing social process, he ought to learn as much as he can about what is already going on.

ANALYSIS OF COMMUNITY CHANGE

I. In today's world changes are occurring at a rapid rate. Technological developments and population expansions are requiring almost continuous examination of the means whereby communities identify and solve a broad range of problems.

   1. The ever-shifting situation poses dangers as well as opportunities:

      a. Among the dangers we may list such things as:

         (1) The real or imagined disenfranchisement of larger and larger segments of our citizens who no longer feel in touch with the sources of power, influence, and decision making

         (2) Piecemeal problem-solving which may sacrifice or interfere with effective procedures and resources in related areas

         (3) Development of action programs based on inadequate knowledge of relevant facts, especially those facts having to do with peoples' needs, attitudes, and feelings

         (4) Inadvertent destruction of well-established problem-solving and coordinating structures without their replacement by other suitable means

b. Among the opportunities we may list such things as:

(1) The possible enlargement of participation of groups in the population whose needs in the past were not determined, and whose resources were not used

(2) The invention of new means for citizen participation by the use of improved technologies in mass communication and in human relations areas

(3) A coordinated attempt to deal with major or underlying factors, rather than reliance upon piecemeal approaches

(4) Experimentation with improved structures and procedures for community coordination and problem solving

2. In short, we are already in an exciting new era where, because of the necessity to deal with continuous change and because of improved technical skills, it becomes possible to establish improved skills for developing planned change.

a. Unplanned change: Changes which are spontaneous or fortuitous, rather than planned attempts to initiate, to innovate, or move towards defined objectives

Examples: a) A rising birth rate, lowered death rate, or influx of newcomers may bring about many changes, mostly of the unplanned variety

b) A business concern moves into the community, shuts down an operation, or expands into new lines—on its own initiative. This results in many and often far reaching changes in the community. There is no conscious and deliberate decision by the community.

b. Planned change: Changes which are based upon conscious deliberate decisions to accomplish certain objectives.

Examples: a) A crisis, like a flood, may require coordinated planning and action.

b) One or more citizens identify a special need or problem they face (e.g. parents of retarded children) and seek to mobilize existing resources or enlist support for new programs.

c) A professional worker observes a need or possibility for change (sometimes because new knowledge, skills, or financial resources are available) - e.g. encouragement of local planning for county-wide development programs in depressed areas.

II. Efforts towards orderly change to meet and anticipate new conditions, however, are often met by impassioned opposition or apathy. How can we account for this?

1. The era of rapid change produces uncertainty, tension, and a sense of citizen impotence. This may be manifested by:

a. apathy
b. suspicion and mistrust between groups
c. polarization of issues, divisions into warring camps, and overly intense investment of feelings where citizen control becomes possible

2. <u>Resistance</u>. Freud discovered that even distressed individuals, seeking help, resisted the therapist's efforts to analyze the problem.

    a. Resistance to change of individuals and groups in communities is not wholly irrational. It "makes sense" psychologically as a means of avoiding threat to individual or group. It may promote sense of (1) stability; (2) worth; (3) effectiveness.

    b. Resistance to change, therefore, is part of a complex set of forces tending to maintain any current situation.

III. As we must try to understand the factors involved in maintaining status quo and in inducing change, it is helpful to have some framework whereby we can begin to look at the <u>interplay</u> <u>of</u> <u>forces</u>. This discussion focusses our attention on two ways of looking at the forces involved in planned change. The <u>first</u> is a way of viewing the dynamic field of forces which acts to maintain a situation at a point in time; the second is a way of viewing the interplay of people involved in a change situation over time, looking at the actions of people in terms of their informal social roles as they relate to change.

IV. The status quo can be viewed as a dynamic balance or equilibrium between opposing forces.

    1. <u>Driving forces</u> working toward a certain objective

    2. <u>Restraining forces</u> working toward opposing goals or otherwise working against movement toward the objective

V. Examples for analysis: Forces involved in maintaining a majority of citizens opposed to fluoridation (analyzed from both pro and anti-fluoridation points of view)

    1. Forces may be derived from various sources:

        a. Personal needs and motivations

        b. Role disagreements, conflicts, and confusions

        c. Value differences

        d. Communication blocks or other problems

        e. Problems of power and influence

        f. Interorganizational or intergroup conflicts and competition

VI. The logic of the force field model suggests three change strategies:

    1. Increasing driving forces

    2. Decreasing restraining forces

    3. Combination of both

VII. Shifting patterns of driving and restraining forces are reflected function-
ally in the ways in which individuals and groups relate to the changing
situation

1. Informal change roles - patterned behaviors in relation to the change
process over time

a. Innovators - those permitted to express dissatisfaction with some
aspect of status quo

b. Experimenters - those able to risk trying out new ideas

c. Adapters - those in a position to reconcile the change with basic
community needs and values

d. Defenders - those who force critical appraisal of innovations
by resisting change

e. Facilitators - those able to mediate, reconcile opposing camps,
get necessary facts, assess community needs, act as communication
channels etc.

2. Some important assumptions of the informal change role notion:

a. "Selection" of individuals for the roles is a function of in-
dividual's needs and place in the community.

b. All the roles are needed for orderly, planned change to occur.

c. Some kind of community sanction is needed for the successful
playing out of any of the change roles.

d. We all may play different roles on different occasions.

Suggested Readings for
Analysis of Community Change

Cartwright. D., "Achieving Change in People," Human Relations, 4, 1957,
381-392.
Jenkins, D., "Force Field Analysis Applied to a School Situation." In Benne &
Muntyan (Eds), Human Relations in Curriculum Change New York: Dryden
Press, 1951, P. 44-52.
Lippitt, R., Watson, J. Westley, B., The Dynamics of Planned Change.
New York: Harcourt, Bra Co., 1958. (Chapters 1, 2, and 3.)
North Central Rural Sociology Committee, Adopters of New Farm Ideas.
North Central Regional Bulletin, Michigan State University, Oct., 1961.

RESEARCH AND EVALUATION IN COMMUNITY ACTION

In any problem-solving model, high priority should be given to fact-finding leading to an assessment or diagnosis as the basis for action.

During this lab we are concerned repeatedly with the factors to be taken into account in developing a diagnosis. We also have opened up the possibility of using certain methods for checking progress and planning future action along the way.

Examples:
1) Problem statement questionnaires at the beginning and end of the experience
2) Rating scales focussing on components of a community problem
3) Post meeting reaction sheets
4) The Observer role
5) Evaluation through pooling the data of participant-observers
6) Use of feedback
7) Use of tape recorders

As we work in communities it is equally important that we develop and apply appropriate methods for getting at three things:

1) The right questions which need to be asked (that is, those questions which are appropriate at each of the choice points in a community action situation.)
2) The facts which are needed if we are to understand the factors at work
3) The assessment of the action implications of these facts

There are a variety of methods for doing such research in the community. We are limited primarily by two factors: a. The time we are willing or able to give to evaluation; b. Our own inventiveness. We are able to draw upon a number of approaches which have proved useful in a variety of situations:

1) Individual interviews - either broad, open-ended in nature or highly specific and structured
2) Group interviews - which may be carried on with ad-hoc groups in order to make it possible for one person to stimulate another's thinking - or which may be carried on over a period of time with the same group chosen for its relevance to the problem and which meets as a kind of "reaction panel"
3) Questionnaires designed for specific purposes, for example, the use of post-meeting reaction sheets following public meetings or committee sessions; and   the use of opinion surveys, which are often technical and may require the help of professionals in the field (e.g. The U. of Washington Community Development Division has made good use of the expertise of public opinion researchers.)
4) Simple rating scales and check sheets which can be filled out quickly and without much briefing by large numbers of people. (e.g. The Mial Scoreboard and Comparator)
5) The use of group observers (e.g. at large meetings, meetings of public bodies, etc.) in situations where those observed can be helped to understand and accept the value to the community of such a process

6) The use of available data from public records, census material, planners maps, etc. (e.g. A mental health agency made use of maps in planning its educational program. The question was whether to place major reliance upon women's clubs, the schools, or special neighborhood meetings. As part of its assessment it mapped the distribution in the community of the members and leaders of the major women's organizations.)

The community action model presented in an earlier theory session consists of a number of steps, the last of which is Evaluation. The kind of "action research" we have been discussing has relevance, however, for each step. Diagrammatically, we think of research as a spiral and feed-back process at each step along the way, with the final evaluation step as being a larger spiral which feeds back to the total action sequence.

Examples of research at the various phases of the action model which might be relevant: 1. Convergence--open-ended interviews to determine most important concerns of certain individuals and groups; 2. Initiation - administration of the Scoreboard to pin down priorities of perceived community needs in major segments of the population; 3. Legitimation--study of organizational goals to determine points at which goals may be held in common; 4. Action execution--setting of goals and criteria so that it will be possible to assess degree of success along the way, and using post-meeting reaction sheets or reaction panel approach; 5. Evaluation--careful consideration by those involved of the steps which have been taken and possible implications for the future, perhaps using well developed questionnaires and interviews.

There are a number of problems and pitfalls involved in carrying on community action research, some of which are:

(1) Questions may not be carefully thought out and worded.
(2) Comparable information may not be gathered.
(3) Relevant groups may not be tapped (e.g. administering questionnaires only to those present at a meeting.).
(4) Relevant information may not be given to those whose opinions are sought, (e.g. A Co-op whose members were asked to accept or reject a trading stamp plan without having relevant information about the finances of the business.).
(5) Research results may not be made available to relevant groups in a way they can use it. (Examples of successful "feedback"; Bennis use of human relations training as part of research reporting to OPD nurses; Poston's feedback in a town-wide meeting of information highlighting mutual mistrust.).

In order to avoid some of the above pitfalls, as well as others, many workers seek to stimulate community self-study: the process whereby interested citizens (often with professional consultation and guidance) carry out their own fact-finding and study of resources, needs, and attitudes within their own community.

Through community self-study:

a. The planners are required to critically examine areas where information is needed, thus sharpening up the understanding of basic objectives.
b. Other participants gain understanding of the problem.

c. Those doing the study develop an investment in the problem and the meaning of the research results.

d. The "feedback" problem is greatly lessened.

e. There is greater commitment to the solution of the problem and, therefore, often less difficulty in implementing desired action.

Such community self-study sometimes results in a recognition of the need for more thorough and precise professional research, the results of which may then be more acceptable and better used.

However, it is clear by now that self-study is no panacea; it does not guarantee that community action will result. Much attention must be paid to the ways in which the research is related to an over-all action plan at every step a long the way.

* * * * * * * * * *

Some references:

Mial, Curtis and Dorothy (Editors). Our Community. New York: New York University Press. 1960.

Poston, Richard, Democracy is You. New York: Harper Brothers.

Sower, C., et. al. Community Involvement. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957.

Warren, Roland. Studying Your Community, New York: Russell Sage, 1955.

PROBLEM ANALYSIS WORKBOOK

Designed for Use at

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP TRAINING LABORATORIES

In Conjunction With

READING BOOK FOR ANNUAL LABORATORIES IN
COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP TRAINING

and

READING BOOK FOR ANNUAL LABORATORIES IN
HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

Introduction

The Problem Analysis group is one of the primary units in the Community Leadership Training Laboratory. These sessions will be very different in their methods and from the sensitivity training (ST) group. The learning goals and the anticipated outcomes, while different in many respects, will overlap and be mutually supportive.

The Problem Analysis sessions are designed to provide opportunities to identify and analyze the kinds of community problems we face in our respective jobs, to relate theory to these problems, and to experiment with various ways of constructively attacking the problems.

Each of the sessions will include discussion and review of some materials (see Reading Books for Community Leadership Laboratories and for 17th Annual Laboratories in Human Relations Training). There will be opportunity to experience and work through the basic ideas and concepts as a total group. This will be done generally in the theory sessions. Following the theory sessions, the Problem Analysis Groups will work on specific problems which members face at home; and around these specific problems, we will bring together ideas, other experiences, and research findings to help get some perspective and greater skill in what we do.

The Workbook is designed specifically for the Laboratory but it is hoped that participants will find it -- or adaptations of it -- useful in continuing work on organizational and community problems at home.

The Role of the Trainer

The trainer will play a very active role in the Problem Analysis sessions. He may suggest problems to be worked on. He will set up a procedure for the identification and analysis of participants' problems, for the development of action alternatives, and for the assessment of the consequences of various action-alternatives. The role of the trainer will thus be quite different from that in the sensitivity training group.

About the First Session on Problem Identification

Objectives: 1) To identify a problem in our own work situation as a referent for the work of the Laboratory

2) To gain practice in problem identification with particular emphasis on the prior social situation

3) To gain practice in the consultant role in helping another person begin to define a problem

Procedure: 1) Elaborate on the objectives.

2) What do we mean by a community problem? The problem should be a significant one currently faced in whatever you do in the community. It should be something that concerns you and your community. It should be something that concerns you, something that you may like to see changed, and something in which you are involved. It may be a problem in which you are involved through an organization, or a committee of which you are a member, or through a council, club, neighborhood group, board, etc. The problem should be one that can be delimited or reduced to concrete, manageable proportions. Some suggested guide lines will be provided.

3) Develop triads or three-member teams to work on the task.

4) Describe the roles of the team members.

> The person with the problem - He is to define his problem, getting as much help as he can from the consultant.

> The consultant - The consultant is to help the person with the problem get an accurate and clear description of it. The consultant may use the suggested guide lines for describing the problem. He is to be as skillful and as help-ful as he can be.

> Recorder - Observer - The recorder-observer is to write down a description of the problem. At the conclusion of the interview he is to re-state the problem as he understands it.

> He should also:
> a) Point out ways in which the interviewer was helpful.
> b) Point out instances where the interviewer was not helpful, if such occur.

> If there are points that are not clear, he is to try to get them clarified.

5) Each member of the team of three is to be the person with a problem, consultant, and recorder-observer. Each team will determine the order in which to work.

6) Time: Each person will have about twenty minutes to describe his problem with the help of the consultant and the recorder-observer.

7) Problem analysis groups reconvene as total group at about
_____.

8) Recorder-observers give brief description of the problems.

9) Trainer summarizes. (He asks for copies of the problem descriptions before the group breaks up.)

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

I. Some Guide Lines for Redefining a Community Problem

    A. Describe the problem in as much detail as possible. (Blank sheets are available.)

        1. What does the difficulty seem to be - the concern - the problem?

            a. Who sees this as a problem?

            b. Who is affected by it?

            c. How are they affected?

            d. Are there differences in goals toward which individuals or groups are working in this situation?

            e. What are your feelings about the situation?

        2. What significant events or typical incidents illustrate the problem?

            a. Who does what?

            b. What seems to happen?

            c. In what ways are the things that happen affected by past experience?

3. What is your role in the situation? How are you involved? With whom? As you refer to other people, specify what the relationships are between you and them?

Who seems to support whatever you are trying to do? Why? Who seems to oppose you? Why?

Include a diagram if you feel this would help clarify relationships.

4. What are you trying to do about the problem? <u>List</u> what you have tried to do about it within the past half year or so.

<u>Include as many specific actions as you can.</u>

5. What do you think you might try to do about the problem? <u>List</u> what you might try to do within the next half year or so.

<u>Include as many specific actions as you can.</u>

6. What other significant factors affect the problem: factors within the community, factors outside, inter-community relationships, historical factors, etc.?

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

II. Some Guide Lines for Clarifying Goals as an Aspect of Problem Definition

A. The clarification of the goals operative in a situation is an important aspect of problem definition. Questions such as the following are helpful in further clarifying a problem.

1. What differences exist in the goals toward which individuals and groups are working with reference to this problem?

a. What seem to be the relevant goals of individuals in the community who are directly affected by the problem?

b. What seem to be the relevant goals of groups and organizations in the community that are affected by it?

c. What are the relevant goals of other individuals or groups which are or which would have to be involved in working on the problem:

(1) Those inside the community?

(2) Those outside the community?

d. What are your own relevant personal goals as they relate to the problem?

e. What are the goals of your colleagues or your work group?

In what ways do they differ from your goals?

f. What are the relevant goals of your organization?

(1) In what ways do they differ from those of your colleagues or those of your work group?

(2) In what ways do they differ from your own?

2. How would you define:

a. The immediate operational goals in the problem situation?

b. The intermediate or long-range goals operative in this situation?

   Do the operational goals grow out of the intermediate goals?

c. The broad basic goals that affect the problem?

   Do the operational and intermediate goals grow out of the broad basic goals?

3. What are the priorities among the operational goals?

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

III. Some Guide Lines for Clarifying Norms and Standards as an Aspect of Problem Definition, and as a Basis for Developing an Effective Action Program

    A. What are the relevant norms or standards held by people affected by the problem?

    B. What are the relevant norms or standards of groups and organizations affected by the problem?

    C. What are the relevant norms or standards in the community which relate to the problem?

    D. What are the relevant norms and standards of groups and organizations attempting to do something about the problem?

    E. Among the norms identified above, which ones tend to support action on the problem and which ones tend to impede action?

	Support Action	Impede Action
1. Norms held by people affected		
2. Norms held by groups and organizations.		
3. Norms operative in the community as a whole		

F. In what way could you attempt to modify the norms which tend to impede action on the problem?

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

IV. Some Guidelines for Clarifying Relevant <u>Roles</u> as an Aspect of Problem Definition and as a Basis for Developing an Effective Action Program

A. How do the people affected by the problem define your role?

What do they tend to expect from you?

B. How do groups and organizations affected by the problem see your role?

What do they tend to expect from you?

C. What does the community at large expect from you in relation to this problem?

D. How do groups and organizations trying to do something about the problem tend to see your role?

1. Those inside the community:

2. Those outside the community:

E. How is your role in this problem defined by:

1. Yourself
   a. How do you define it in practice?

   b. How would you <u>like</u> to see it defined?

2. Your Colleagues

3. Your Organizations - (especially the administrators of the organization)

F. What are the major role conflicts that you see emerging out of the problem in relation to the questions raised above?

G. In what way could your role be defined in this problem so that:

1. Conflict would be reduced?

2. Support would be gained for effective action on the problem?

H. Another way of gaining perspective on one's roles is by using the grid chart on role dimensions.

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

V. Some Guidelines for Clarifying Power, Authority, and Influence as an Aspect
Problem Definition and as a Basis for Developing an Effective Action Program

    A. What influence or authority do you have in relation to groups or
organizations directly affected by the problem?

        1. Direct influence or administrative authority:

        2. Indirect influence:

    B. What influence or authority do the individuals or groups affected by
the problem perceive that you have with reference to it?

        1. Direct influence or authority:

        2. Indirect influence:

    C. What influence or authority does the community at large perceive that
you have in relation to this problem?

    D. What authority or influence do organizations and groups who may also
be trying to do something about the problem perceive that you have?

        1. Those inside the community:

        2. Those outside the community:

E. What authority or influence relevant to the solution of this problem
is exerted by:

   1. Colleagues?

   2. Your organization?

   3. Other groups or organizations?

   4. Other individuals?

F. How are relevant individuals, groups, or organizations with authority
or influence aligned with reference to the problem?

Individual groups or organizations	Support			Oppose			Uncom-mitted	Relative Influence		
	Strong	Medium	Little	Strong	Medium	Little		High	Medium	Low
1.										
2.										
3.										
4.										
5.										
6.										

G. How can influential individuals, groups, and organizations be encouraged
to bring their authority or influence to bear on the problem?

H. How can people who believe themselves powerless to affect the decision
be involved in a constructive manner?

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

VI. Some Guidelines for Clarifying <u>Initiation</u> and <u>Legitimation</u> as Phases of the Socialization Process

INITIATION

A. What individuals, groups, or organizations have the <u>socially defined</u> right to <u>initiate</u> action for the solution of the problem?

What role and influence do you have with these individuals and organizations?

B. Are the initiators able to give their full (1) approval, (2) sponsorship, to the proposed action for the solution of the problem?

1. What appropriate means do the initiators see as available for the solution of this problem?

2. Are these means available as you see it?

C. Which ideas for action proposed by the initiator may be viewed as:

1. Compatible with existing definitions of "community good"?

2. Incompatible with existing definitions of "community good"?

LEGITIMATION

D. What individuals, groups, or organizations have the socially defined right to legitimize or to give approval to the proposed action for the solution of the problem?

What role and influence do you have with these individuals, groups, or organizations?

E. Of the potential individuals, groups, and organizations that could help legitimize the proposed action, which are likely to be neutral or to oppose the action?

1. What is the basis for their opposition or neutrality?

2. In what ways does it appear possible to gain support for the proposed action from appropriate individuals, groups, and organizations?

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

VII. Some Guidelines in Organizing for Action

Assuming that a problem has been identified and defined, that some action
is proposed, and that some kind of action has been made legitimate in the
community through appropriate sponsorship, one then confronts the problem
of organizing for action. At this stage, it is likely that very few
people understand the problem or see the need for action and that fewer
still are committed to any kind of action. Some way must be found to
help people explore the problem, the need for action, and the ways in
which some kind of alternative solution to the problem might be accepted.
These guidelines might be helpful:

A. What kind of organization seems to be needed to move ahead from the
legitimation stage to the involvement of people in the community in
the implementation of action?

1. How well is the problem understood by people generally? How
widely is the need for action recognized? How committed are
people to some kind of action?

2. What would be the specific objectives in organizing? Or the
"organization" group, committee, board, or council, etc.?

3. What specific resources are needed to achieve these objectives?

4. Could the objectives of organizing for action be met best by:

a. Having some existing organization or group of organizations
take responsibility for action? (If so, which?) or

b. Creating some new temporary organization? (If so, what?) or

c. Creating some more or less continuing organization to guide
action? (if so, what?)

B. What kind of structure is needed to achieve the objectives defined in "A" above?

    1. Accepting the principle that the organizational structure should emerge out of the work to be done, what would seem to be a simple, efficient, over-all structure?

    2. What specific position-roles are appropriate and needed? How would they be defined?

    3. What satisfactions will these position-roles provide to the persons filling them?

C. What kind of procedures need to be established to facilitate:

    1. Mobilization of needed resources, support?

    2. Accomplishment of work, including the development and modification of plans of work?

    3. Continuing communication?

    4. Participative decision-making?

5. Appropriate and mutually supportive relationships with other groups and organizations?

6. Continuing evaluation and realistic assessment of resources needed, accomplishments, processes?

D. How will the action program be launched in the community?

PROBLEM ANALYSIS

VIII. Some Guidelines for Continuing and Final Evaluation of Action Programs

Accepting the principle that evaluation is more effective and more useful
when it is a planned, built-in, and a continuing part of the action
process, these guidelines may be helpful:

A. Continuing Evaluation

1. What kinds of data are needed at this point to carefully
    assess where we are and how we are moving in relation to
    the objectives set as seen by:

    a. Those who are immediately involved?

    b. Those who are affected by the program but not immediately
        involved?

2. What methods and procedures are most appropriate for gathering
    this information?

3. Who should be involved in collecting the information? Who
    should get the information once it is collected?

4. How will the information actually be used?

B. The Final Evaluation

What kinds of data need to be collected and how should they be
collected to determine:

1. The extent to which the goals of the action program have been
    achieved?

2. The relative effectiveness of the methods and procedures used?

3. The relative effectiveness of the way resources were used?

4. In what ways one can account for the success or lack of success in the program?

5. What should be done differently if the program were to be repeated? Why?

6. What has been learned from this experience about action programs in the community?

7. What are the next steps?