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Abstract

This Canadian annotated bibliography provides 41 items on community planning, community action, community services, and participation, followed by eight related publications on aspects of communities and of social change. Manpower development, human services, dimensions of poverty, and strategies for change are emphasized. Also included are a reading list on community organization, 14 relevant periodicals, and an author index. (ly)

Prior to 1967

SURVEY OF LITERATURE ON THE COMMUNITY WITH SELECTED ANNOTATIONS, READING LISTS AND PERIODICALS

Experimental Projects Branch
Department of Forestry and Rural Development
Ottawa, October 1968

TABLE OF CONTENTS

OCTOBER 1968

FOREWORD

There are several specialized bibliographies available in community organization and community development, however, this publication attempts to report on a more general field of community relations. The intent of this survey is to assist persons engaged in community work by providing some useful reference material and to acquaint the reader with reference sources on several aspects of community study.

There is a constant output of new writings, particularly in professional journals and periodicals which are the avant-garde of developments and approaches in a discipline. In addition there is the excellent abstract service now available in most professional fields. It would be impossible to duplicate or effectively report on all of these types of writing.

In Section 1, there are annotated references on Community Planning, Community Services, Community Action, Community Participation and a miscellaneous group which seemed important. Section 2 is a Reading list in Community Organization. Section 3 presents a listing of some periodicals which are useful and Section 4 an Index of Authors referring back to their publications.

The data has been gathered from a search of the National Library, federal government libraries, the two Universities in Ottawa, and the Canadian Welfare Council Library. In addition, material has been gathered over the past 18 months from Reading lists and bibliographies prepared for National and International meetings and conferences.

During the summer of 1968, Mr. Douglas McKercher, a student at Carle on University, assisted in the project by surveying the library sources and preparing abstracts of relevant documents. M. Jean Yves LeBlanc, a post graduate student in community organization at Laval University, assisted in the review of journals and classifying the material in the summer of 1968. The development and direction of the project in 1967 was under the guidance of my fellow consultant, Maurice Saulnier.

One problem which may account for the absence of many Canadian community studies recorded in the survey is the tendency to restrict distribution or to mark the report confidential. The author is aware of a number of comprehensive community studies in Canada which are so classified and are not available for general study.

The loose leaf format is designed to allow the reader to add further references under the appropriate sections.

I express my appreciation to those who have assisted in the preparation of this survey.

GEORGE CALDWELL
COMMUNITY RELATIONS CONSULTANT
EXPERIMENTAL PROJECTS BRANCH

I. ANNOTATED REFERENCES

A. Community Planning

1. Dyckman, John W. (University of California, Berkeley)
SOCIAL PLANNING, SOCIAL PLANNERS, AND PLANNED SOCIETIES
Journal of the American Institute of Planners,
(Vol. 32, No. 2, March 1966, pages 66-76).

An analysis of social planning must distinguish societal planning, programming for selected social goals, and the deliberate introduction of social values into economic or political processes. The choice of social ideology guides social plans and relates them to societal plans.

We can distinguish three operational meanings of "social planning" and three levels of action:

(1) At the societal planning level, social planning means the selection of the social goals of the nation and setting targets for their achievement. It requires ranking these goals, assessing the cost (in terms of other objectives) of achieving them, and judging the feasibility of such programs.

(2) Social planning involves the application of social values and action criteria to the assessment of programs undertaken in the pursuit of economic or political goals. It can mean testing the consequences, in terms of intergroup or interpersonal relations, of everything from broad economic development programs to specific redevelopment projects.

(3) Social planning can mean specifically "social" programming arising from the broad social goals of the community.

The traditional welfare activities of public and private agencies, which have been the principal focus of the third level in the United States, have developed in a variety of directions without adequately specified objectives at the first and second levels. Our social planning is primarily defensive and arises from crises which are the by-products of government action programs.

Proponents of social planning are impeded from developing a coherent plan of action by the ideological strictures of the society in which they operate. Elites and electorates are constantly in tension over the proper ends of society and appropriate participation in decision-making. Our pragmatic, conservative, democratic ideology holds that the power structure cannot be changed from below and that behavior and taste cannot be changed from above.

Planning as an activity is independent of the issue of centralization, but those organizational forces that press for planning also press for the efficiencies realizable by central control. Administrative social planners accept the power distribution and attempt to make the behavior of their wards conform to the tastes of their guardians. Radical social planners want to change the distribution of power and maximize individual choice. Both push for social change. But the closer one gets to the client, the more acute the problems of individual liberty and choice become.

The democratic social planner resists being made a recruiting officer for the Establishment. He wants his client to be arbiter of his own values and may even attempt to protect his life styles when they are illegal. But in direct confrontation of authority and the frustrated aspirations of his client, he has no function since he cannot curb his doctrine of self-determination or speed up the transfer of power.

The broad participation by citizens sought in community social planning is frustrated by the lack of basic social democracy. The social democracy which is a precondition to collective social planning in a political democracy depends on social gains which will be engineered mainly from Washington. But the societal plan which will set the targets against which all the ad hoc programs will be measured does not exist.

Social scientists cannot supplant the goal-making role of ideology or relieve the political decision-makers of their responsibility for setting the public preference scale and the targets to be embodied in a societal plan. The protection of the citizen against arbitrariness in social planning, the abuse of administrators, the bias of planners, and the condescension of "caretakers" depends upon the articulation of coherent national social goals and public acceptance of social planning targets.

References.

2. Kahn, Alfred J.
SOCIAL SCIENCE AND THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION RESEARCH
In Leonard Kogan, ed., Social Science Theory and Social Work Research (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1960).

Kahn's paper, "Social Science and the Conceptual Framework for Community Organization Research," was the first critical review of community organization formulations based on a comprehensive knowledge of contemporary behavioral science concepts and research studies. He directed community organization analysts to social science sources and raised a host of relevant questions for research:

With what size unit is the Ross process formulation effective? Are there objective indicators to measure the changes in the community's capacity to deal with its problems? Does successful work on one community project or problem affect the community's capacity to deal with other matters? What are the role confusions and conflicts of the practitioner when he deals with the geographic and/or functional community? What light can existing small group studies throw upon committee process? With a given community power structure are all the community organization roles, projected in the literature, possible? What research can be done on voluntary associations, an entity which absorbs major attention in community organization practice? What are the consequences of the Ross roles of guide, enabler, expert, and therapist in a variety of situations?

3. Kane, Roslyn (Office of Economic Opportunity)
THE COMMUNITY ACTION AGENCY'S ROLE IN COMPREHENSIVE MANPOWER PROGRAMS -- PLANNING AND PROBLEMS
(Youth-Work Institute, New York University, Graduate School of Social Work, Center for the Study of Unemployed Youth, February 1966, 35 pages.) With the concerted effort which is possible under the CAA, the youth who considers himself a failure at sixteen can become a confident and independent adult.

The primary objectives of comprehensive manpower programs are to establish employability as the individual's goal and to assist the individual in attaining that goal. Community Action Agency (CAA), new and flexible, is best equipped to coordinate existing service agencies in encouraging self help and in breaking the dependency cycle.

A Community Manpower Program (CMP), should include the following elements: (1) recruitment of both interested and unmotivated youth; (2) intake -- making applicants participants and informing applicants of their basic situations; (3) assessment of services required for each applicant; (4) basic education; (5) prevocational training in the meaning of employment; (6) skill training; (7) supporting services (health, counseling, social casework, vocational rehabilitation, day care, legal service, consumer education, fiscal management, and transportation; (8) job placement in a local community; (9) job development, requiring the assistance of local industry, labor, and civil service; (10) follow-up for at least six months.

In order to establish these services efficiently one must determine the characteristics of the youth, the characteristics of the labor market, and the nature of existing agencies and institutions. Information on local youth is available from the 1960 U.S. Census Detailed Characteristics, the U.S. Census Economic and Social Characteristics, schools, juvenile courts and police records, Work Permit Reports, and Boards of Education. Labor market information is recorded by State Employment Service Area Surveys, Federal Reserve Banks, Boards of Trade, Chambers of Commerce, utilities, Economic Development Agencies, and the U.S. Census Detailed Characteristics; a good labor economist is valuable here as a consultant. Employment services, schools, rehabilitation agencies, and private agencies should be studied. All of this information is important in determining how best to adapt the CMP to the local community.

A detailed proposal should be written for the Manpower Program, including such considerations as funding, OEO assistance in coordination and legislative information, and administrative organization, for which detailed charts are helpful. Good communications between program and evaluation staffs can be established with weekly and monthly meetings that include all personnel associated with the CMP.

It is important to keep all local, state and federal agencies informed of programs pursued by the CMP. As more CMP's are established, more assistance will be available at the federal level.

Funding planning must include projected size of staff, the possible use of subprofessionals, medical and legal services, and transportation. All funding sources should be explored.

4. Macgregor, Gordon
   THE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL COMMUNITY HEALTH SERVICES
   Human Organization, (Vol. 25, No. 1, Spring 1966, The Society for Applied Anthropology, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, pp. 16-19.) A description of the social systems of a New England community, the organization and functioning of the State Health Department and the nature of their relationships. The concept of the social system can be used in developing effective health services and obtaining broader community acceptance.

Differences in the perception of health affect the organization and delivery of public health services and create conflict in gaining acceptance of these services among consumers.

Gaining community acceptance is the specific problem public health workers most frequently bring to the social scientist. Social science theory, particularly the concept of the social system and system linkage, has a fundamental contribution to make in resolving this problem.

When research was undertaken to analyze the social systems of a small rural New England community and the system of the State Health Department, it became apparent that: (1) the health department's primary interest was the health protection of the state population while the study community's primary interest was curing and caring for the sick; (2) department orientation was toward preventive medicine and controls while the townspeople were primarily anxious about the availability of medical practitioners; (3) the department's activity for the community's welfare was opposed by community efforts toward independent responsibility; and (4) the department's awareness of the social and economic changes in the area was limited while community leaders were intensely concerned with these changes.

Community social action for health was generated through the leadership of lay persons usually of high social status and carried out by a network of organizations acting as a health system. The physician who was Town Health Officer took little advantage of his position to become a leader in social actions for community health. The Health Committee of the Parent-Teachers Association was led by a former registered nurse who had directed her association in active campaigns for immunization, dental health, nutrition, recreation and health education programs.

The essential function of the State Health Department is the detection of causes of communicable disease and actions to eliminate or control them. As a functionally divided organization, the department lacked capacity for internal and external cooperation for community action. Although the department had to build many services on the cooperation of local physicians, it had been hesitant to build strong ties with the state or county medical societies. Personal relationships between the commissioner and his division directors with the study community occurred infrequently. The continuing interrelationship with the community was maintained through the county public health nurse. Since much of her work was with individual patients in the lower economic class and among welfare clients, the community considered her a medical welfare worker and there was a general view that all personal services of the public health department were a form of welfare.

The research indicated that: (1) The authorized duties of the health department require legitimization from the community; legal authority alone is insufficient. (2) Full community acceptance of health services begins with knowledge that a health problem affects the population. (3) Initiation of social action and acceptance of a service are most effectively achieved by leaders in the network of systems, sanctioned by the community. (4) The accepted leadership brings the membership of the relevant social groups or systems into participation. (5) Failure of social action comes when the health network is not tapped for participation. (6) Contradicting accepted beliefs associated with health, for example fluoridation of the water system, may lead to rejection of scientifically sound health measures. (7) Involvement of department members in a community's health system is fundamental to successful continuance of community health work. (8) Leadership by an outside public health official requires involvement with the social network and status appropriate by community standards. (9) Social process is a fundamental instrument for bringing about planned changes. (10) The theoretical concepts of the social system should be interpreted by social scientists in schools of public health and applied by health workers.

5. Morris, Robert and Martin Rein
GOALS, STRUCTURES AND STRATEGIES FOR COMMUNITY CHANGE,
Social Welfare Forum, 1962, Proceedings of the National Conference on Social Welfare (New York: Columbia University Press, 1962).

Rein and Morris, in "Goals, Structures and Strategies for Community Change," explored the idea that organizations and agencies in social welfare can pursue one of two orientations, either community integration or achieving predetermined objectives. They did not view the two orientations as compatible in one agency or organization. They expressed the idea that both orientations were socially useful but could not be combined in one operation. If this was attempted, it led to dysfunctioning of the agency or organization with consequent social loss to society. They elaborated the different strategies and structures suited to each kind of orientation: "co-operative rationality" as the strategy and federated type of organization (for example, a community welfare council) as the structure suitable for the community integration orientation; "individual rationality" as the strategy and single membership-type of organization (for example, Planned Parenthood) as the structure suitable for achievement of predetermined objectives. The former was viewed as placing a high value on consensus, of conformity to common values, and the latter as placing a high value on pluralistic values competing for dominance of a special cause.

The authors suggested different methods for these ideal types. They assumed that either orientation with different goals, strategies, structures, methods was compatible with the social work practice of community organization.

6. Nelson, Lowry; Charles E. Ramsey and Coolie Verner
COMMUNITY STRUCTURE AND CHANGE. (New York, Macmillan, 1960, 464 pp.)

This book seeks to provide a meaningful theoretical framework for community analysis and to demonstrate its practical application to community development. It is designed for "citizens participating in local community affairs", professional workers in health, education, recreation, social welfare, and related fields; and students.

The 21 chapters are grouped under four parts: (I) The community and its setting. (II) Dimensions of the community. (III) Elements of the community. (IV) Community change. Part IV is made up of chapters on Social Change, Community Development, and The Future Outlook.

7. Perloff, Harvey S. (Resources for the Future, Inc.)
SOCIAL PLANNING IN THE METROPOLIS
Duhl, Leonard J., Editor
The Urban Condition, (Basic Books, 1963, 395 pages pp. 331-347)
The field of social policy and human services can benefit by the application of planning ideas and techniques. A framework for social planning is suggested.

The application of planning to human services and social policy mobilizes ideas and techniques already widely used in physical city planning, natural resources development, and business activities. An organized process is involved which clarifies objectives, points up alternative approaches, and evaluates results as a way of improving strategy.

Social planning to date, however, has covered only a part of the total and has not encompassed the governmental services or many relevant private activities. This has made the coordination aspects so partial that some objectives have been lost. Without looking at the total spectrum of human services, it is impossible to determine priorities, spot duplication or gaps, or achieve full organizational effectiveness. Social planning has not had the strength to build a genuine research base for social policy and programs.

Widespread agreement exists in the larger metropolitan regions on certain social objectives: (1) to maximize the proportion of families who are self-supporting, (2) to increase the lifetime earning power of individuals, (3) to provide at least minimum support for those who cannot provide it for themselves, (4) to make human services as effective and as economical as possible, and (5) to enlarge the scope for individual and small group decision and action. These objectives provide criteria against which diverse policies and programs can be judged.

The following major activities would seem to be needed for a broad-based, well-supported social planning effort: (1) metering and reporting, (2) developing common strategies for human service

activities, (3) integrating social planning with physical planning activities, (4) strengthening the research base of human services, (5) long-range programming of human services activities, and (6) enlisting grass roots participation.

It is essential that the activities of social planning be sharply focused. This calls for a conceptual framework which can provide guidance to all major planning activities, including data collection, reporting, projections, design of study and research, and the design of general and specific plans and programs. Three kinds of "elements" are involved: (1) those reflecting directly the major community objectives, (2) those reflecting socio-economic forces which influence the achievement of the objectives, and (3) the policies and programs required to influence the various forces in the desired directions.

A social planning framework or model would have as "core" items "Households" and "Personal Development" submodels. These would interlock with an "Institutional Support" component and a "Manpower" component. Other submodels in the framework would focus on the "Regional Economy", the "Metropolitan Ecology", "Neighborhoods and Districts," and "Policies and Programs." The components within such submodel and the direct and indirect impact of the circling submodels on the core submodels create a complicated framework, but one that can be applied for all the major functions involved in social planning. A large part of its usefulness stems from the consistent pattern which it would bring to the forefront as a basis for decision-making and action.

The establishment of broadly based social planning in metropolitan areas challenges urban communities to organize themselves to consciously create conditions in which all persons can achieve their fullest potentialities.

8. Rose, A.
A CHANGED CITY AND SERVICES FOR A CHANGED CITY
Canadian Welfare, (39:1, January-February 1963, pp. 6-11 and 39:2, March-April 1963, pp. 64-70.)

Two articles in which the author describes recent changes in and around Toronto. In "A Changed City", he suggests factors that should be taken into account in examining the growth of any city, i.e. described changes that have taken place in the "conurbation" which is now metropolitan Toronto. In "Services for a Changed City", the author discusses problems in the planning of services that are posed by the changes. Based on his paper entitled "Fundamental Issues in Planning the Patterns of Service in a Metropolitan Area," presented last year to a workshop for the Toronto Study on Needs and Resources for Community-Supported Welfare, Health and Recreation Services.

9. United Community Funds and Councils of America, Inc.
PROCEEDINGS OF THE WORKSHOP ON COMMUNITY PLANNING, LOS ANGELES, 1964 SELECTED PAPERS
(New York, 1964, 10 p., mimeo.)

Two papers; Genevieve Carter, "Community Planning Implications of the Proposed War on Poverty". The author defines the poor by layers - the welfare group, the employed poor, by family characteristics - aged, head of household, non-white families, etc. Makes plea for new perspectives - the homemaker as teacher, group work with mothers, literary training, day care and pre-school centers. Richard M. Sax, "Concerted Services Project". A discussion of the Pittsburg (California) Conserted Services approach, to combine the resources of the Department of National Health, Education and Welfare and Housing and Home Finance Agency in reducing social problems. Seven specific goals are outlined: (1) reduced incidence of dependency on social welfare; (2) increase family and per capita incomes; (3) reduce percentage of unemployment; (4) reduce number of 6-18 years-olds not in school; (5) reduce the incidence of health problems; (6) reduce the incidence of illegitimate births; (7) reduce the amount of juvenile delinquency.

10. United Nations, Economic and Social Council, United Nations Children's Fund,
REPORT OF THE PROGRAMME COMMITTEE ON ITS SESSION HELD JUNE 7-11, 1965 (57 p.)

Contents include recommendations from the programme committee to the executive board for programme assistance in the categories of education, vocational training, family and child welfare, nutrition, health services, disease control, children and youth in national development and emergency aid. Tables included demonstrate the commitment and allocation in U.S. dollars by category and area for the June 1965 session. The report notes the increasing interest, in the Americas, "in the role of social services in national development planning, an interest which has been stimulated by a seminar for Central America and Panama on planning for social welfare .., held in 1964". The training of personnel to fit the needs of the country and project cut across most of the categories in the recommendations. Emphasis was placed on the need for applied nutrition - to promote changes in food habits, as well as on food supply itself. An increase in nationally-conceived plans for extending health services, particularly to the rural areas, was noted. A recommendation was made to support a study on the integration of the younger generation in national development plans, to be undertaken on behalf of UNICEF by the U.N. Research Institute for Social Development. This would allow consultants to draw some conclusions about a methodology of planning for young people. The director of planning emphasized the need for systematic attention to all aspects of development planning which affect the welfare of children and youth, "for reaching children through the family and community . . . (through) more simple and practical methods".

11. Warren, Roland L.,
THE COMMUNITY IN AMERICA
(Chicago: Rand McNally Co., 1963)

Warren, in "Toward a Reformulation of Community Theory" and "Patterns of Community Action," suggested that a conceptualization of the community elaborated later in a book, "The Community in America".

Warren noted, as others before him, that the community as a geographically based solidarity unit had been disrupted by social and technological changes. Specifically, he developed the concept of the community as composed of a multitude of systems, many of which were more influenced by their vertical relationships to extra-community systems than to their horizontal relationships, that is, between locally based units in geographically based systems. Community organization practitioners readily recognized this concept in the affiliation of locally based organizations and agencies to national bodies. In a more general sense, there was recognition that the locally based units take their cues for what they can and cannot do and will or will not do from units outside the local scene, and that it is this relationship which frequently gives a clue to the dynamics of community life and action.

With the dominance of vertical system relationships has come, Warren suggested, an increase in specialization, systematization, and bureaucratization of functions, since more frequently than not the extra-community system imposed a specialized external task goal on a local horizontal system relationship. Warren noted that the community as a social system, whatever the vertical and horizontal relationships, allocates to different units in a system the same locality-relevant functions. Thus, these units are placed under different degrees of accessibility and control by community groups. He suggested that there is a need to create linkage systems between locality-relevant functions which are dispersed in multiple units of community action.

Warren postulated that a new action system had to be built up for each episode of interunit co-operation. Unlike Lippitt and his associates, Warren did not assume that a client system pre-existed and the change agent need only contract with a subpart to work with. He thought that actually it had to be created de novo for each episode of community action.

A community action model based on his conceptual analytical schema was posited by Warren. He proposed that an action model be based on the system set up within the community for accomplishing the action. His model called for special action systems which were conceptualized under the categories: (1) initial systemic environment, (2) inception of the action system, (3) expansion of the action system, (4) operation of the action system, (5) transformation of the action system.

B. COMMUNITY SERVICES

1. Back, Edith B.
PUBLIC WELFARE, VOLUNTEERS, AND THE WAR ON POVERTY.
(North Carolina Fund, 1966, 118 pp.)

The North Carolina Fund sent a team of professional and volunteer social workers to Durham County, North Carolina in an attempt to aid multi-problem families with a comprehensive approach, using the coordinated efforts of many resources, medical, dental, educational, social, religious, legal aid, employment services, and housing. The programme included an evaluation of its success.

Tables, appendices, bibliographies.

2. Canadian Welfare Council,
AN INTEGRATED APPROACH TO WELFARE,
(Ottawa: 1963, multilith, 68 p.)

Papers presented at the Annual Meeting and Conference of the Canadian Welfare Council, Ottawa, May, 1963. Comprises: "An Integrated Approach to Welfare: Introducing the Conference Theme", by Malcolm G. Taylor; "The Role of Welfare in the Economy", by John J. Madden; "Social Dynamies and Patterns of Education", by M.-Adélard Tremblay; "Co-ordination of Health and Welfare Programs", by G.H. Hatcher; "The Road Ahead for the Voluntary Agency", by C.F. McNeil; and "Poverty in Our Midst", by Gérard Pelletier.

3. Canadian Welfare Council, Public Welfare Division,
COMPUTERS AND PUBLIC WELFARE ADMINISTRATION
(Ottawa: Public Welfare XI:1, Supplement, October 1964, viii p. plus data sheet and flow chart.)

An account of the experience of the Saskatchewan Department of Social Welfare in converting its public assistance program to electronic data processing.

4. Dion, Léon
EDUCATION DES ADULTES: CHOIX DES BUTS.
(ADULT EDUCATION: CHOICE OF GOALS).
(Cité Libre janvier 1962, pp. 6-13 incl.)

In his introduction, Mr. Dion sums up the fundamentals problem of adult education, the relation between instruction and the rate of unemployment is not directly proportional; mobility is

a principal effect of the instruction; and unemployment is a direct tie to internal mechanism of the economy.

In the principal part of his article, he expresses in sociological language the objective of adult education, "the adaption of the man to the structures and the structures to the man", to help him to understand the complex world which is his own, to make an evaluation of himself for transforming it, by a concerted action. Finally, he suggests a philosophical approach, a functionalist philosophy of adult education which would revolutionize his living experience in acting on the man with a view to ensure him to act on the situation....

He concluded: Education is a richness...and not a motivation.

5. Hallowitz, Emanuel and Frank Riessman
PROGRESS REPORT: NEIGHBORHOOD SERVICE CENTER PROGRAM
(September, 1965. 16 pp.
Lincoln Hospital Mental Health Services, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, 333 Southern Boulevard, New York 10454).

A description of the Neighborhood Service Center Program, a network of comprehensive community mental health services for providing a more effective approach to low income disadvantaged people. Unique features include use of indigenous nonprofessionals, a mental health orientation, and uniting service and community action in a carefully phased sequence.

The Neighborhood Service Center Program at Lincoln Hospital was designed to develop a network of comprehensive community mental health services for the 350,000 residents of the Southeast Bronx. Each of the four centers, which are located in storefronts, serves approximately 25,000 people in a five block area. Each is staffed by five indigenous nonprofessionals, Mental Health Aides from the neighborhood and one professional mental health specialist who serves as Director.

The program has four major goals: (1) to connect the person and the service; (2) transform "clients" into helpers and active citizens through use of the helper therapy principle; (3) to develop neighborhood pride through group activity and community action; (4) to serve as a hub around which various existing services can be coordinated.

The centers serve Information and Service clients. Information clients are those whose requests for help can be answered in the initial interview. Service clients are those with more complex problems which require continuous action and intervention on the part of the Aide. The program is also directed toward the developing community participation through a series of

tasks of increasing complexity, beginning with individual service and moving toward involvement in large scale community action. Periodically, all clients are invited to the Center for community meetings planned by the Aides, and subcommittees are formed to work on specific neighborhood problems.

Indigenous nonprofessionals are used as Mental Health Aides for two reasons: (1) the shortage of professional personnel requires new sources of manpower; and (2) indigenous nonprofessionals have special attributes that can be used to advance program goals. Most Aides are Puerto Ricans and Negroes with little formal education; their manner, dress, and linguistic habits are similar to others in the neighborhood. Although they are not sophisticated about mental health problems, they have the know how that comes from their own experience in learning how to survive. The locally-based nonprofessional can intervene directly in the lives of clients on a peer level without resentment. Professional consultation and supervision are always available.

Aides are carefully selected through group interviews for ten applicants at a time which ascertain candidates' attitudes toward the neighborhood, people on welfare, discrimination, minority groups, and disturbed people. Four judges (a psychologist, a social worker, a psychiatrist, and a nurse) sitting behind a one-way screen, observe the interviews as they are conducted by the co-directors of the program and rate applicants with regard to their attitude toward authority, ability to communicate, empathy and flexibility, capacity for selfawareness, reaction to stress and relevant experiences. Aides must be able to communicate with the professionals and the people in the neighborhood.

The training program is divided into three phases: (1) a pre-job period of three weeks at the hospital clinic: emphasis is on operational tasks; job simulation and role playing are central features; (2) a two week period at the center: half the time is devoted to specific service to clients; half is spent in further training based on job experiences; (3) ongoing training is provided through weekly seminars and staff meetings to refine interviewing skills, teach new skills such as group interviewing and community organization and deep understanding of individual and group dynamics.

The program may help to resolve a number of theoretical and administrative issues for community mental health services. It provides a convenient method for studying informal community organization in zones of deprivation. The program's potential for reversing decay in areas like the South Bronx is unlimited. Self help brings the power of the community to bear on the deep rooted and complex variety of problems which bitter experience has proved cannot be handled by professionals or nonprofessionals alone.

6. Harrington, Michael (League for Industrial Democracy)
THE POLITICS OF POVERTY
(L.I.D. Pamphlet, 1965, $.30, reprinted from The Radical Papers, to be published by Doubleday & Co., March 1966).

An analysis of the economic and philosophic basis for coping with the problem of the "new poverty" which is a consequence of automation. Accumulated American knowledge about how to abolish poverty applies less and less every day. A radical liberalism is required, one that would involve the assignment of economic planning to a "Council of Economic Advisors", massive social investments, the creation of a new human care sector of the economy. This is necessary if we are to begin to catch up with the increasing effects of automation on our society. But at the same time, these reforms will lead to others, more radical, which will be needed to make our revolutionary technology humane. The driving force of the war on poverty will eventually be a new political coalition composed of those who seek to democratize economic and social power -- the poor, the unions, religious movements, liberals, radicals.

The need for a "Third New Deal" rests on the difference today in the nature of poverty from what it was a generation ago, and in its causes. "In absolute terms and objective indices, the impoverished today are better off than their predecessors in misery; but relatively speaking, in terms of hope and economic opportunity, their plight is much worse....because of their peculiarly underprivileged place in history and the economy, the new poor have fewer internal resources with which to combat their degradation and to seize chances when they appear".

The new poor are, to an extraordinary degree, youthful. Over 40 percent of those defined as poor by the Council of Economic Advisors are young people. This pattern increases as population becomes increasingly youthful, and the new poverty, it appears, tends to be hereditary.

The new poverty makes obsolescent much of President Johnson's current program. Its decisive factor, and terrible novelty, is that it takes place in a time of automation. The systematically undereducated and undertrained are justifiably pessimistic. The government has offered further education and training, but not the expectation of enough decent jobs. We have predicted chronic high unemployment; but, leaving this prophecy to come true, the Johnson administration still proposes to abolish poverty.

Instead, we could move to a more radical liberalism, as now advocated by the labor and liberal movements. The first New Deal was business-dominated, the second operated on the principle of Keynsian intervention to stimulate the private

economy. The third should be a conscious and political allocation of resources to meet public needs. This "social investment" approach assumes that gross national product can and should be a subject for political debate and determination.

"...a program of social investments in the public sector is a liberal, politically possible proposal with radical implications. At the outset, it leaves the corporate domination of the economy intact, but it also introduces the counter-principle of social usefulness into our economic affairs." For this principle to develop as the bases of fundamental economic decision depends on the emergency of a new coalition dedicated to extending such planning in a democratic way. This has radical implications. But this has application to a redefinition of work for the society as a whole, for someday, advancing technology could further drastically curtail the need for human labor.

7. Morgan, John S.,
WELFARE,
Canadian Annual Review for 1962,
(Toronto: University of Toronto Press, pp. 321-329.)

The proportionate distribution of health and social welfare expenditures is now approximately 70% federal, 27% provincial and 3% municipal. Very few people have any comprehensive grasp of the whole ramshackle edifice which paid benefits in 1962 to at least 750,000 recipients in the four assistance programs, in addition to the allowances paid to 2,170,000 families in respect of six and a half million children and nearly one million old age pensioners. The chapter reviews development in old age pensions, the general welfare training and research grants instituted in 1962, the National Council of Welfare, corrections, international social work, unemployment and labour in which the report of the Gill Committee on Unemployment Insurance is discussed as well as the Vocational Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons Act (1961). The author sees one trend in a continual transfer of financial responsibility for income maintenance programs from the provincial to the broader fiscal resources of the federal government, another in substantial advances in regional organization in provincial welfare, and a third in the development of essential elements of a balanced public welfare program.

8. Riessman, Frank (New York University)
PROGRESS AND THE UNDERCLASS
(Mimeographed, May 1966, 4 pages.)

The underclass and professionals can help each other in working to improve unhealthy practices and institutions which serve society as a whole inadequately.

The active, protesting poor provide essential impetus toward progress and change in our society. Basic difficulties exist in the areas of education, service, legal rights, and central bureaucracies. These institutional problems are unhealthy for all classes. However, the poor act and critize with more vigor than do those who belong within the system. Because they are outside the system, they have more perspective. They have nothing to lose, so they demand a change.

The professionals and the poor need each other. The poor can contribute their vitality, criticism, and activism. They can help the professional to make his techniques more appropriate and meaningful.

Moyniban and others in the antipoverty movement stress changing the poor to fit the institutions. On the contrary institutions should be changed to fit people. One lever for effecting this structural change is to use the positive elements in the traditions, style, and culture of the poor. New social technology has been developed by building on the traditions of the poor. These techniques have implications for change within some of our major institutions such as education, mental health, and services.

In the mental health area, psychiatry has failed to treat severe mental illness effectively. Even the middle-class neurotic who has used psychiatry most extensively has not been cured by it. New mental health approaches for low-income people have been developed. These include peer interventions, as in the various forms of self-help groups or group therapy. Sociotherapy proposes indirect models as an added tool for improving mental health. These developments may result in better treatment for all classes.

Changes in education for the disadvantaged which would revitalize the entire educational system include use of nonprofessionals to aid all teachers and development of a teaching technology which uses more styles of learning.

Services have become decentralized and community-based. This may have an antibureaucratic effect on provision of services for the entire population. The new emphasis on rights and participation has wide implications for service delivery. Further, the development of manpower through providing jobs with built-in training has national importance for manpower development with an accompanying release of professional creativity.

Such change does not simply come about through decree or legislation. It frequently requires technology to implement it or even to trigger it. Professional and government social

scientists should unite with the forces of change: the demands of the racial integration movement and the upsurge of youth and the underclass. These groups reflect more sharply the alienation and difficulties which exist in the larger society. These groups will enter the society, changing and adjusting to it, but, in the process, they will also have a tremendous impact on the society, changing and adjusting it to themselves.

9. Tuttle, Mary E. (Vocational Advisory Service, N.Y.)
COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE,
The American Child, (Vol. 42, No. 4, November 1960, pp. 13-16).

There is a lack of guidance services in the high schools and outside. Placement services are also inadequate. The White House Conference recommends strengthening services, increasing personnel, studying occupational trends and requirements, expanding cooperative school-state employment service activities, and increasing communication and cooperation between the various groups concerned with counseling. Community involvement is essential.

10. White, Gladys O. (Division of Welfare Services)
YARDSTICK FOR NEED
(U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1963, 26 pages, 15 cents.)

Describes the process by which need is determined in federal assistance programs. The ways in which the states set "standards" and measure income and resources are discussed. The respective roles of state and national government are clarified. Seven examples of typical assistance cases are presented.

C. COMMUNITY ACTION

1. American Jewish Committee
THE POOR AMONG US -- CHALLENGE AND OPPORTUNITY.
(Prepared for the Leadership Development Institute of the National Council of Women, December 8-10, 1965, six typed pages.)

This paper discusses the scope of poverty and examines the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. It proposes community programs to provide education of citizens concerning poverty, establishment of action programs and ways to deal with long-range economic problems.

2. Bagnell, Kenneth
THE TOUGH LINE ON POVERTY
The United Church Observer,
(New Series, Vol. 27, No. 22, February 15, 1966, pp. 14-17.)

An interview with Saul Alinsky whose Chicago-based operation, the Industrial Areas Foundation, has helped the poor to organize in dozens of American slums. The churches, moving forward in the area of social change, can help the poor to organize.

3. Cebotarev, Eleonara A. (Pennsylvania State University) and King, Gary W.
ATTITUDES TOWARD ANTI-POVERTY PROGRAMS IN THE EXTENSION SERVICE: A CASE STUDY
(Paper prepared for the meetings of the Rural Sociological Society in Miami Beach, Florida, 1966 mimeographed, 17 pages.)
Cooperative Extension Service work with the poor is deterred by widely held attitudes about the poor and the causes of poverty.

What factors encourage or discourage the adoption of antipoverty programs within a typical County Extension Service? Staff members of Pennsylvania State University researched this question in a case study of the Cooperative Extension Service in Mifflin County, Pennsylvania. Forty percent of Mifflin County's population is rural. Twenty-four percent of its families earn a net income of less than $3,000. The county is within the federally designated Appalachian region.

Interviews were conducted with the County Extension staff and members of county support groups such as the Extension executive committee and its advisory group. These local people determine the programs which are adopted within their County Extension Unit. The local staff receives teaching materials and

administrative support from the state level, and they receive financial support cooperatively from the national, state, and county levels of the organization. However, the county program is determined locally.

Personal interviews sought to learn each individual's conception of the Extension Service's goals, role, subject matter, and clientele. Questions probed the individual's attitudes toward poverty, its causes and possible remedies.

In general, two divergent groups of opinions were found among those interviewed. The majority were change opposing and the minority change favoring. The change opposing group generally felt that the present Extension programs were satisfactory. They saw Extensions as educational, serving those who want to attend its program. The major obstacle to extensive work with the poor would be limited staff and money. The attitude of the poor themselves was seen as a second obstacle. They were characterized as people who are poor because they lack the initiative to improve themselves, and as being lazy and indifferent toward programs designed to help them. These opinions reflect a strong Extension tradition which holds that individuals are responsible for and can control their environment.

The change favoring group saw the cause of poverty as being the circumstances in which the poor find themselves. They believe the poor cannot overcome these circumstances without outside help. Further, Extension programs appeal to the middle class and require modification to be relevant and attractive to the poor. The main obstacle to the adoption of antipoverty work was the undecided attitude of state and local staff. The staff should acknowledge the Extension Service's responsibility to work with the poor and allot time and funds to such work.

Mifflin County has some families who earn below $3,000 net income, but who participate in community life and Extensions programs. However, very little Extension work reaches other people who are mired in hard-core poverty and live apart from the middle-class community. Occasional programs are organized by an interested staff member on the basis of this group's characteristics and interests. Such occasional programs will probably be the Extension's only work with the poor unless firm action is taken by Extension personnel and intensive educational programs are directed toward county support groups.

Traditional values of Extension stress equal opportunity for all citizens and the human capacity for progress and change. On the foundation of this group of values, programs to serve the poor can be encouraged.

4. COMMUNITY ACTION ASSEMBLY
(National Urban League, 13 East 48th Street, New York, N.Y. 10017, December 9-11, 1964, 31 pages.)

In December 1964, 350 leaders of national Negro organizations met in a Community Action Assembly. Their purpose was to discuss with government officials ways in which community action plus expanded legislation could advance the war on poverty.

The conference is a testimony to the Negro's concern about his people and his desire to concentrate on the serious problems. Unless Negroes meet and plan with the government, later generations will have to face even greater problems. After committing themselves to taking action against the paradox of poverty in a land of wealth, the Assembly can determine some community guidelines for the Negro and white poor. As the Negroes shake off apathy, leaders can take the opportunity to encourage self-help to bridge the discrimination gap.

Robert C. Weaver, Administrator, Housing and Home Finance Agency, discusses the efforts that have been made to provide a larger supply of housing to low income, nonwhite groups and to establish stable interracial neighborhoods at various income levels. But there is often a dichotomy of interest in the nonwhite community because people want housing which they can afford and enjoy. Therefore the attack on housing problems must center on incomes and earnings by making available an equal opportunity to participate in the American market. People also need help in conditioning themselves to urban living without having all their values altered.

Sargent Shriver, Director of the Office of Economic Opportunity, emphasizes that time is the poor's biggest enemy. Civil rights leaders can help agencies by encouraging the poor to be responsive to new programs and by teaching them how to take advantage of new opportunities. Local organizations can help the poor to help themselves.

Anthony J. Celebrezze, Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, outlines new advances made in the attack on poverty. Two new forces are: (1) a comprehensive and coordinated assault on the root causes of poverty; and (2) the fact that we are not distributing charity, but are creating opportunities for self-help. The government needs the coordinated efforts of state, city, and neighborhood resources to provide services to the poor so that they can grow and achieve for themselves.

Francis Keppel, U.S. Commissioner of Education, is concerned with closing the gap between ideals and the reality of a quality education. He discusses the specific responsibilities of the Office of Education. To achieve quality education we must: (1) lower the age limits of public schools to include three and four-years-olds; (2) change our assumptions about the level of interest and exposure which disadvantaged children have;

(3) use existing facilities longer during the day and year; (4) achieve an alliance between school and home; and (5) select and train better teachers.

Willard W. Wirtz, Secretary of Labor, cities figures which show that more efforts are needed for the unemployment problem. Three areas for future concern are: (1) present employment opportunities; (2) training and education for the future; and (3) relationship between unemployment and some aspects of the family. There is a definite correlation between size of families and unemployment. Automation requires that more workers have skills. The Urban League is the Negroes' organization for speaking out on these areas of poverty.

5. Craig, Carl E. (Arizona State Employment Service). MINORITY PROGRAM CALLS FOR COMMUNITY ACTION, Employment Service Review, (Vol. 2, No. 8, August 1965, pp. 10-12)

Full community acceptance cannot be achieved without having the Employment Service engage in an aggressive community action program. In Arizona one-fourth of the population of 1.3 million is composed of minority groups. The many efforts of the Arizona State Employment Service to engage in community action are outlined. The establishment of a Committee on Inter-Group Relations (CIRO) is pointed out. The Arizona State Employment Service has developed many lines of communication that reach deep into the minority communities. They expose the minorities to opportunities for growth and development.

6. Gerholz, Robert P. (Chamber of Commerce of the United States), THE CHALLENGE OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT Michigan Business Review, (Vol. 17, No. 4, July 1965, pp. 1-6.)

The job of community development is growing steadily because of four deepset trends: (1) the rapid rise in population; (2) the sharp gain in the proportion of young people in the total; (3) the shift in the population from rural and urban areas; and (4) the technological revolution which is bringing swift changes in products in worker environment and in job opportunities. People and technology are combining to create a tremendous demand for community development and renewal. Essential to community development are organized local action and determination to see the job through. The four-way effort of the National Chamber consists of (1) Community Development Management Seminars, (2) Community development teams, (3) a Task Force on Economic Growth and Opportunity, and (4) research programs on community development by university groups. Community

development is a local problem which can best be managed by local leaders who know the problem best.

7. Hayden, Tom (ERAP) and Whittman, Carl
AN INTERRACIAL MOVEMENT OF THE POOR?
(Students for a Democratic Society, Economic Research and Action Project, 1100 East Washington Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan, mimeographed, 26 pages.)

Concerns the problems inherent in an interracial movement of the lower-income groups. It discusses the Negro Freedom movement and possible allies of the Negro movement--group characterized by ethnic identity, age, place, or occupational status. Thoughts on the role of the Students for a Democratic Society are included.

8. Minicler, Louis
SOCIAL GROUP WORK IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS
In Community Organization, 1960, Papers presented at the 87th Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare
(New York, Columbia University Press, 1960, pp. 117-127.)

Points out that "community development is broader than social work as it has evolved and is practiced in the United States" and that "United States social work has barely touched the fringe of community development". Describes some of the aspects of community development. Notes some differences between community development and social work, but points out that "social work and community development share the same basic philosophy. They are both concerned with the worth of the individual in a democratic society. The ability to understand social conditions, understand psychology, work with people, and get people to work with each other is fundamental in both cases."

9. Specht, Harry (Contro Costa Council of Community Services)
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN LOW-INCOME AREAS: ITS RELEVANCE TO PROBLEMS OF THE NEGRO COMMUNITY
(Publication No. 104, Contra Costa Council of Community Services, 2717 N. Main Street, Suite 9, Walnut Creek, California 94596, February 1966, 49 pages, $1.00).

A description of the Richmond Community Development Project in Richmond, California. The project aims to help Negroes develop a sense of community as well as to help them in the areas of employment and education.

The low-income Negro population lacks all of the social mechanisms which are required for survival in contemporary urban society. The Negro community has no social roles, agencies, organizations, or leadership. With the exception of the church and civil rights groups, the development of institutions within the Negro community has lagged behind that of every other American minority group. Welfare programs presently in operation deal with external problems of Negro isolation such as employment and education. Attention must also focus on means for restoring the internal social structure of the Negro community, for the degree of strength among primary groups determines the ability of a community to deal with its problems.

The Negro church remains the most prominent institution involving significant numbers of lower-class Negroes. It is the only indigenous institution of the Negro community that also has its own personnel, facilities and established means of communication. Because they are not "grass roots" in structure, civil rights groups, another powerful segment in Negro communities, have failed to involve masses of low-income persons. The Negro struggle for freedom and equality would be meaningless if it were to conclude with desegregation and increased esprit. When hard-won legal rights cannot be used effectively for lack of other skills, Negroes can become more apathetic and alienated.

With these difficulties in mind, the Contra Costa Community Services began the Richmond (California) Community Development Demonstration Project. The aims of its community development program are to develop social roles, service programs and organizational devices within a low-income, deprived community to enable residents to deal more effectively with their own social problems. According to their plan, community development will be accomplished by the stimulation of resources within the community and close cooperation with governmental agencies to aid development of internal community strength.

The Richmond Project has two major programs: "new careers" and "community organization." The "new careers" program aims to establish new, salaried jobs for low-income persons in some of the established community agencies, such as the police department and the schools. The "community organization" program seeks (1) to strengthen the influence and competence of indigenous organizations such as church groups; (2) to increase the participation of deprived persons in self-help, communal, and civic activities. By paying indigenous personnel trained to work directly with existing community groups, both aspects of the Richmond Project can be incorporated to work toward helping these deprived persons gain a realistic equal footing.

How the pilot Richmond Project may become institutionalized is not yet clear. The volatile character of community

action programs leaves a question as to whether this is a viable arrangement for community development program activities. Other possibilities include welfare councils and governmental departments of human relations. Only through experimentation can the strengths and weaknesses of each of these arrangements be assessed.

References.

10. Winters, Stanley B. (Newark College of Engineering)
URBAN RENEWAL AND CIVIL RIGHTS,
(Students for a Democratic Society, Economic Research and Action Project, 1100 E. Washington, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 13 pages. Reprinted for Studies on the Left, Vol. 4, No. 2, 1964.)

Urban renewal is a civil rights problem because large proportions of Negroes are affected. Community organization and political action are proposed as possible solutions. References.

11. Ylvisaker, Paul N. (Ford Foundation),
COMMUNITY ACTION: A RESPONSE TO SOME UNFINISHED BUSINESS
(The Ford Foundation, 477 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.)

This pamphlet contains the major excerpts from an address by the author before the Citizen's Conference on Community Planning in Indianapolis, Indiana, on January 11, 1963. Since our society is becoming basically urban, it suggests viewing our cities as systems. The critical element of community organization is the awakening of self-respect. The following are discussed: related foundation grants; comprehensive community grants, Halfway Houses; and the new approaches. Stimulating local philanthropy, local political leadership, and the inventiveness of existing social agencies were presented as desirable goals.

D. COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

1. A CITY SLUM -- POOR PEOPLE AND PROBLEMS
(Southern Regional Council, 5 Forsyth Street, N.W., Atlanta 3, Georgia, 22 pages.)

A report of the beginnings of a community action group in a slum of Atlanta, Georgia. The pamphlet describes the physical setting, the people, the problems encountered and the progress made in a grass roots effort to organize a community to help itself.

A group of six interested people, four Negro and two white, assessed the problems of Vine City, a slum of 1,550 families in Atlanta. One, a resident of Vine City, criticized the War on Poverty for not attacking the real problems of the slum: housing, jobs, streets, welfare. It was decided not to use the Alinsky approach, but to enlist the help of Vine City residents, interviewing them house by house on what needed doing. Priority was given to a playground for the children. Other problems mentioned were police brutality, insurance collectors, landlords, unpaved streets, lack of cultural opportunities, poor jobs, or no jobs at all.

The group of six successfully piloted the creation of a playground. Thereafter, a Vine City Improvement Association emerged, with a core of about 15 people. Working in committees with specific jobs seemed most successful.

Some of the positive steps taken in Vine City have been: the formation of a newspaper put out by Vine City Council (a group started in opposition to the original group of six); a thrift shop where used clothing is sold, the profits going into an emergency fund for loans to Vine City people. Also, new ideas are being explored with regard to cooperatives and neighborhood enterprises. Tutorial services for the children of the community are planned to start soon. The Council on Human Relations of Greater Atlanta is now providing information and assistance with regard to Social Security, Medicare, Workman's Compensation, etc. Picketing of slum housing has brought substandard housing to public attention.

Suggestions are made: (1) Outsiders going into a community should not expect automatic trust of the community; trust is earned. (2) Rather than using a survey questionnaire to gain access to a community, one should try to be invited by a community group. (3) The raising and spending of money demands accurate bookkeeping and keeping people informed of the current and on-going financial situation. (4) Public praise and credit should be reserved for the group rather than specific individuals. (5) Organizers must learn to delegate authority. (6) The beginning of community action calls for small achievements at regular intervals to encourage the participants.

Conclusions were that poor people know what the problems are. Community action is possible in low-income communities. Community organization can be quite inexpensive. Leadership is relatively easy to find in low-income communities.

Unanswered questions remain: What methods and techniques are most successfully employed with poor people? How does one know when a community is organized? Should self-improvement programs which don't face the central issues of inferior schools, for example, be included in organization efforts? Should the necessity for conflict be emphasized by organizers in order that the group realizes its power? Is there a possiblity of coalition among the poor, the civil rights movement and labor movements?

Bibliography.

2. Kreitlow, Burton W.; Aiton, E.W.; and Torrence, Andrew P.
LEADERSHIP FOR ACTION IN RURAL COMMUNITIES
(Danville, Illinois, The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1960, 340 pp.)

Directed toward leaders "searching for more effective ways to serve", particularly in rural communities. The 20 chapters are grouped under four parts: the setting for leadership and action; principles and practices of leadership; programs of action; and the leader, the community and the action.

3. Leagans, J. Paul
THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT
(Comparative Extension Seminar, Mimeo Release No. 6, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. 1961, 26 pp.)

Considers the nature and importance of communication, its component parts, communication problems and critical factors. Discusses the key elements in communication: the communicator, message or content, channels of communication, treatment of messages, the audience, and audience response.

4. Mial, Dorothy and Curtis
OUR COMMUNITY
(New York, New York University Press, 1960, 269 pp.)

"A course in community citizenship" intended to help citizens understand the nature of their community and to become better equipped to work with others in developing solutions to its problems. Each chapter contains some introductory material by the editors, followed by selected readings from various authors. Chapter headings include: What is our community; how did our community get the way it is; what kind of community do we want; what kind of community do we have; participation and leadership; resources in our community; community conflict and cooperation; how does our community relate to other communities; reassessment of our community; where do we go from here? A community "comparator" and "opinion-finder" are appended.

5. POVERTY FIGHTERS MUST CHOOSE AMONG TYPES OF POOR WHERE TO FOCUS HELP Journal of Housing (Vol. 22, No. 7, July, 1965. pp. 367-370.)

A presentation of lessons learned from a church-sponsored neighborhood block project about working among people of differing degrees of poverty. Those interested and not interested in participating in community development are described.

A city-block community project cannot try to include all people in need of help: certain groups must be selected so efforts and resources can be efficiently directed. Several groups have been proved to be inaccessible to a community organization drive. The elderly white group is not likely to integrate not to spend time on community projects for their means and energies are limited and their understanding is clouded by fear and prejudice. People with special problems, such as drug addiction, alcoholism, homosexuality and prostitution, are not interested in community development. The best that can be done is to try to get help for them from social agencies. The people of the Negro middle-class came to the neighborhood when it was stable, middle-class and predominantly white. They consider themselves a separate group and feel their stay is a temporary one. Aiding them would be giving help to those already partially successful.

One group worked with that was receptive to help can be called the poor with middle-class aspirations. The group presents different problems and potentials. The people are poor because they lack sufficient education, they suffer racial discrimination, they are exploited and they are unable to construct a meaningful life. They have middle-class aspirations and values and employment potential. They are little by little losing as they strive to attain their goals under the circumstances in which they live. With their children they attempt to achieve by fear and punishment what they cannot achieve by example. The urban church doesn't provide for the younger people what the community church gave to their parents.

A fallacy in social work adages is that the major objective of the social worker is to give people the will to accomplish a task. These people receptive to aid were found to have the will to accomplish a task but face insurmountable obstacles. Public agencies don't help many. The point is made that the Salvation Army helps only those eligible for public welfare who are not, for one reason or another receiving aid. A lack of public facilities means help is limited. A second fallacy lies in the adage that half the battle is in motivating people to help themselves. It was found that motivation existed but the test is whether it can produce any realistic, practical means for improvement. The people are aware of the pressures but need a social worker whose function is to give ideas and informed opinions to help beat the system. Of primary importance is the need for the worker to identify with the people and be committed to working for them.

The poor do not need a deeper understanding of their oppressions or explanations of their reactions. They need a clearly marked road toward achievement.

6. Riessman, Frank
SELF-HELP AMONG THE POOR: NEW STYLES OF SOCIAL ACTION
Trans-action, (2:6, September-October 1965, p. 32 forward.)

The author evaluates some strategies of change which have been advocated to produce major institutional change with particular emphasis on the increasingly popular strategy of social action. An analysis of Saul Alinsky's community "self-help" projects among the poor demonstrates that social action can be successful in what is commonly interpreted as an apathetic population, that representatives of all religions and classes can be united in community action groups, and that it is relatively easy to find indigenous leadership in poor communities. However, Alinsky is criticized for a lack of understanding of the need for action on the national level. His projects may change the local situation, but "they have no influence on national issues of unemployment, housing . . . " This author contends that a careful examination of other factors contributing to social change is needed before assessment of the role of social action could be complete.

7. Specht, Harry (Contra Costa Council of Community Services)
THE ROLE OF THE POOR IN THE WAR ON POVERTY
(Publication No. 101, Contra Costa Council of Community Services, 2717 N. Main Street, Suite 9, Walnut Creek, California, 1965, 32 pages, 50 cents.)

A pamphlet describing the problems of activating an effective citizen participation program. The plans currently being used fall short of the desired results.

Increasing the participation of the poor in the war on poverty has been one of the major problems faced by social workers and planners of community action programs. Citizen participation, gradually abandoned when social work was transformed into a highly organized bureaucracy with no need for volunteers, was officially revived in the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. While the Economic Opportunity Act gave citizen participation legal emphasis, it did not automatically implement this participation. Poverty fighters everywhere recognize the value of citizen participation but are undecided as to the approach to take to gain the maximum benefits.

More than any other institution, social welfare would be best able to bring the low-income elements of the community into planning organizations. But it is highly unlikely that the poor can be propelled into planning and policy making with community agencies and organizations which have excluded them for generations. Disregarding money, the poor lack the knowledge and organizational ability required for planning social welfare programs. Simply offering the poor the opportunity to help does not give them the ability to do so. Today's poor will plan a part in achieving social change when they have a voice in politics at the local level.

Several observations have led to the development of new methods for involving the poor in welfare programs. First, it has been noted that when residents in a community feel they are able to control their

destiny they exert greater control over their environment. When low-income people take action against the causes of their social problems they are provided with a new definition of themselves and their community.

The first social action approach which lends an ear to the voice of the poor is the "social brokerage" approach. The social worker fulfills the function of broker between the poor and the social agencies. Projects center on solution of concrete problems such as exorbitant rents and heating problems. Beyond the solution of immediate problems, however, these groups exhibit little unity because of lack of experienced and aggressive leadership.

The "subprofessional" plan is another means of achieving the participation of the poor. Low-income residents are hired and trained to undertake services ordinarily performed by professionals or volunteers, such as teaching assistants, homemakers, and police aides. The possibility that paying people for doing jobs formerly done by volunteers might destroy the spirit of voluntarism is a serious drawback to the subprofessional plan.

In many communities, then, social agencies are baffled about how to implement citizen participation.

References.

8. von Hoffman, Nicholas (Industrial Areas Foundation, Chicago, Illinois)
REORGANIZATION IN THE CASBAH
Social Progress, (April 1962, pp. 33-44.)

Contrary to public opinion, there are no disorganized or leaderless communities. Instead political activity by nonprofessionals to bring about reorganization is needed in lower-class Negro communities.

When academics and other professionals speak of community organization, they assume that there are communities which are not organized. If organization is defined as relations between people that are frequent, recognized by all, and able to be anticipated by anyone mobile and knowledgeable within the community, then there are no disorganized communities. Communities such as Skid Row or Bohemia, usually classified as disorganized, in reality are "anti-communities" with values and interests representing the antithesis of the dominant world around them. Unfortunately, this myth of community disorganization has resulted in the government's education, welfare, housing, and law enforcement policies being based on this false premise. Yet men do not, or never did, live in a state of anarchy.

Within the lower-class Negro community political groups abound. Whether formal or simple, legal or illegal, societies such as trade associations of tavern owners, or beauticians, sororities, gambling clubs, some churches, etc. flourish as centers of community organization. In contrast the Y.M.C.A., welfare agencies, and other "branch office"

organizations are frequently cut off from the people they supposedly serve. Yet the failure of these "respectable" groups reinforces the middle-class belief in disorganization.

Just as there are no disorganized communities, there are no leaderless ones. A leader is simply anyone with a following, although an A.D.C. client, a barber, or a janitor with a following is not an acceptable leader to middle-class whites. The "Uncle Tom" leaders recognized by outsiders are either hated or unknown by their ostensible followers, while the true leaders exert great influence within organizations that sociologists have empirically proven are non existent.

These unrecognized leaders attribute their community's plight to discrimination, which they insist is maintained by great money and power interests. They demand basic changes in the fabric of society. Changing society is the proper purpose of politics, and the true leader is politically aware. He scoffs at the respectable P.T.A. as the creation of a system that does not educate his children. He fears these standardized institutions exist to stifle his leadership and his people. As a result, in lower-class Negro neighborhoods resistance to supposedly beneficial programs is common, and the middle class perceives this resistance as antisocial behaviour.

Since the true leaders cannot achieve recognition from outsiders, they have built a separate world. Although they have foiled middle-class attempts to impose policy upon their communities, they are unable to institute their own programs. What is needed is community reorganization. These indigenous leaders of small enclaves must band together to demand outside recognition. With outside recognition will come the political power so important in creating and implementing specific programs.

Reorganization, then, is concerned with the politics of change. Mistakenly, we believe that change is evolutionary and without conflict. When change occurs it is not gradual and it is always resisted by some. A decision has been made and, although long after the fact it might become well accepted, at the beginning there is always dissension. Community organization can then be defined as the "political activity of helping to reorganize a society so that it can change to meet the wishes of its people in a manner that is not without conflict, but that is orderly."

This orderly revolution should not happen within every community although all communities have their problems. Urgency is the sole criterion for reorganization only in those communities where the democratic process has never begun or has broken down.

Finally, who should undertake the political job or reorganization? Certainly not the professionals, since a profession that enjoys the rights of others and does the duties of others becomes a paid ruling class which has no place within a democracy. The reorganizers must be those for whom the welfare and excellence of the community has the most relevance.

9. WHERE WERE THE POOR ON ELECTION DAY?
U.S. News and World Report, (Vol. 60, No. 12, March 21, 1966, p. 94.)

In order to achieve "maximum feasible participation," seven cities across the country gave the poor an opportunity to choose their own leaders by direct election for the war on poverty. The final results of the voting in these elections show that fewer than 3 percent of the eligibles voted. Table.

E. OTHER PUBLICATIONS ON COMMUNITY

1. Adrian, Charles R.; Peter H. Rossi; Robert A. Dahl and Lloyd Rodwin
SOCIAL SCIENCE AND COMMUNITY ACTION
(East Lansing: University of Michigan, 1960, 55 pp.)

Four papers: (1) "The Community Setting", by Charles R. Adrian; (2) "Theory, Research, and Practice in Community Organization", by Peter H. Rossi; (3) "The Analysis of Influence in Local Communities", by Robert A. Dahl; (4) "The Roles of the Planner in the Community", by Lloyd Rodwin, deal mainly with community structure and its influence on social change.

2. Brager, George (Mobilization for Youth, Inc., New York City)
ORGANIZING THE UNAFFILIATED IN A LOW-INCOME AREA
Social Work, (Vol. 8, No. 2, April 1963, pp. 34-40).

Deals with community organization. The three broad objectives of community organization effort are: reform, coordination of services, and citizen involvement. Barriers to community organization are discussed. Suggestions for stimulating participation are given. Special attention is directed towards the use of indigenous organizers.

3. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION
(An International Workshop. New York, National Association of Social Workers, 1961, 40 pp.)

Report of a workshop held at Brandeis University, Waltham, Massachusetts, April 1960, sponsored by the Florence Heller Graduate School for Advanced Studies in Social Welfare and the National Association of Social Workers. Reported by Kenneth W. Kindelsperger.

The discussions of the workshop centered on three topics: (1) What is community development? This included presentations on points of view of the United Nations, the U.S. International Cooperation Administration, the United Kingdom, Pakistan, Indonesia, the Netherlands, Panama, and the Philippines. (2) The American Community. (3) Relationship of community development to community organization. This last topic included consideration of: common elements, differences, role of the worker, and need for further study.

4. Coulombe, G.; F. Poulin; J.C. Lebel et G. Lemieux
DIMENSIONS DE L'AMENAGEMENT
(Mont-Joli, P.Q.: Bureau d'aménagement de l'est du Québec, Section d'aménagement, document I, juin 1964, annexe bibliographique.)

This report treats successively the problems of research participation and action and for each problem the authors explain basic principles which guide their effort and present the guidelines in methodology of their work, referring constantly to the experience secured during a year by the B.A.E.Q.

5. Desroches, J.M.
THE CREATION OF NEW ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURES: THE FEDERAL DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRY
(Canadian Public Administration, VIII:3, September, 1965.)

The author outlines the problems of structuring a new department within the federal government stemming from the facts that the public service lacks a unified general management giving attention to the service at large rather than the needs of specific departments with no effective mechanism for determining overall priorities. The lending of staff to a new department arouses fear of loss of capable and qualified staff. The author describes how despite these difficulties, the new Department of Industry was established and staffed by combining the approaches to industrial development as well as personnel from the Department of Defence Production and the Department of Trade and Commerce.

6. Dinsmore, James F. (Texas Social Welfare Association)
COMMUNITIES HAVE SOCIAL RESOURCES NEEDED IN RELOCATION
Journal of Housing, (Vol. 23, No. 3, March 1966, pp. 142-145.)

Emphasizes the importance of "the urban renewal agency realizing the need to use community resources in an effective manner by calling on agencies in the community." The urban renewal agency must accept primary responsibility for the relocation of displaced families. Chart.

7. Mendes, Richard H.P.
BIBLIOGRAPHY ON COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR CITIZEN PARTICIPATION IN VOLUNTARY DEMOCRATIC ASSOCIATIONS
(Washington: President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, June 1965.)

Part I: Community Organization as Technique - social problems; the social welfare and how to obtain it; the field of community organization;

Part II: Theoretical and Empirical Foundations - aspects of social structure; cultural contexts; social psychological factors;

Part III: On Citizen Participation in Voluntary Democratic Associations - on voluntary associations; on citizen participation.

A short discussion of subject at the beginning of each section.

8. Rothman, Jack
AN ANALYSIS OF GOALS AND ROLES IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION PRACTICE
Social Work (Vol. 9; No. 2 April 1964, pp. 24-31.)

In his paper, "An Analysis of Goals and Roles in Community Organization Practice," Rothman tackled afresh the dual goals of community organization practice, using different terminology but suggesting fresh insights. Rothman named process goals or integration goals as "goals related to gross functional capacity" and selected social goals or task goals as "goals related to delimited functional problems." The former was seen as broad, pervasive, transcendental, non-time-bound, developmental, and constantly emerging - analogous to the casework idea of developing ego functioning. The latter was viewed as discrete, segmented, concrete, time-bound - analogous to the presenting problems of individuals, as in casework. Both goal attainments, Rothman indicated, could be measured by objective indicators. The goal related to gross functional capacity, Rothman noted, was associated in community organization literature with the practitioner nondirective role. Thereupon, Rothman undertook to demonstrate that on logical and factual grounds either goal could be associated with nondirective and directive roles on the part of the practitioner.

He rejected the all-purpose invariant "enabler" role model and suggested an array of interventive roles for the practitioner, all of which were compatible with the social work practice of community organization, based on the democratic credo. Moreover, Rothman demonstrated with examples from practice that either goal category might serve as an instrumentality for the indirect attainment of the other goal category. Unlike Rein and Morris, Rothman did not posit the latent incompatibility of dual goals as performed in one agency or operation. He saw the two goals as equally legitimate, interlocking, but noted that the question of which goal to stress temporarily, under what given conditions, had no theoretical foundation to date, and that practitioners had to rely upon rule-of-thumb guidance.

9. United Nations
SELECTIVE BOOK LIST ON COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
United Nations Series on Community Development, (St/SOA/SER. 0/33, New York, 1960, 15 pp.)

Items are classified under the headings: broad national programmes; specialized national programmes; local projects and case studies; non-directed local change; methods and principles of social surveys, social change, and community organization; periodicals; UN series on community development; other UN documents.

10. University of Saskatchewan, (Center for Community Studies)
KEY TO COMMUNITY SERIES,
(Saskatoon, Sask: 1962.)

A series of pamphlets based on an experiment in development through voluntary community councils in five small Prairie communities. Also reflected in these pamphlets are several research studies on community change; (1) "Community and Development", by P. Stensland; (2) "Community Program Planning", by H.R. Baker; (3) "The Self-Survey in Saskatchewan Communities", by V.W. Larsen; (4) "Organization for Co-ordinated Effort in Communities", by V.W. Larsen; (5) "Evaluating Community Programs", by D.D. Soloman.

II READING LIST IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

1. Bennis, Warren G.; Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chinn (eds.).
THE PLANNING OF CHANGE
(New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.)

2. Brager, George; and Francis Purcell, eds.
COMMUNITY ACTION AGAINST POVERTY
(New Haven: College and University Press, 1967, in press.)

3. Bredemeier, Harry C.
SUGGESTIONS TO COMMUNITIES FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE WAR ON POVERTY
(New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers State University, Urban Studies Center, August 1964. 28 p.)

4. King, Clarence
WORKING WITH PEOPLE IN COMMUNITY ACTION
(new York. Association Press, 1965.)

An international casebook for trained community workers and volunteer community leaders.

5. Kuenstler, Peter
COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION IN GREAT BRITAIN
(London. Faber, 1961, 100 pp.)

One of the first major studies of community organization in England. Eight papers:

"Community Organization", by Peter Kuenstler;
"Needs of Old Urban Areas", by John Barron Mays;
"New Estates" (i.e., housing developments), by Muriel Smith;
"Social Problems of New Towns", by Gerard Brooke Taylor;
"Councils of Social Service", (Community Councils), by Elizabeth Littlewood and Richard Clements;
"Community Associations and Centres", by Frank Milligan;
"Community and Sociology", by Norman Dennis;
"Conclusions", by George Goetschius.

Bibliographies.

6. Laskin, Richard
LEADERSHIP OF VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS IN A SASKATCHEWAN TOWN
(University of Saskatchewan, Centre for Community Studies Saskatoon: 1962.)

Based upon the partial findings of two surveys conducted in Biggar, Sask., in 1960-61. References in community leadership, pp. 47-48.

7. Leaper, R.A.B.
THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION
(No. 2 of a series, London: National Council of Social Service, January 1966, 8 pp.)

A brief survey of community organization and community development in Britain.

8. Presthus, Robert
MEN AT THE TOP, A STUDY IN COMMUNITY POWER
(New York: Oxford, 1964, 476 pp.)

An experimental study of influential opinion and its sources in two small American towns.

III PERIODICALS

1. ADULT LEADERSHIP
(Published monthly, except July and August. Chicago, Adult Education Association of the United States of America.)

Contains much material regarding conference, group dynamics, group leadership, meetings, committees, evaluation, consultation, social action, and related topics.

2. COMMUNITY
(Bulletin of United Community Funds and Councils of America. Monthly except July, August, and October.)

Contains articles on topics of interest to chests and councils; includes a department, "The Council Hopper."

3. INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
(Published semi-annually by International Federation of Settlements and Neighborhood Centres, Plazza Cavalieri di Malta, 2, Rome.)

Issue number 1 deals with community centers, urban and rural; 2, "field studies", primarily studies of specific communities or areas; 3, training local leaders; 4, community development in the United States of America; 5, theories and values; 6, community development in Europe.

4. INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL WORK
(Published quarterly by the International Conference of Social Work and the International Association of Schools of Social Work.)

5. NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK, PROCEEDINGS (NCSW).
(Annually 1874 to date.)

(Published by Columbia University Press, New York, since 1939; by the University of Chicago Press, 1920-1938; earlier, by the Conference itself.) The best single stream-record of social welfare experience and ideas in the United States. Beginning with 1950 the main volume of the Proceedings has had the title, the Social Welfare Forum, and there have been various subsidiary volumes. In 1956, the name of the Conference was changed to National Conference on Social Welfare.

6. RURAL SOCIOLOGY
(Rural Sociological Society, Office of Publication -- Department of Rural Sociology, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.)

7. Schwartz, Meyer
COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION,
in Encyclopedia of Social Work.
(New York National Association of Social Workers, 1965.)

A short history of community organization theory in the form of a review of some of the major books and papers of the last fifty years.

8. SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW
(Quarterly)

"Devoted to the scientific and professional interests of social work." (Edited by the faculty of the University of Chicago, School of Social Service Administration.)

9. SOCIAL WORK
(Journal of the National Association of Social Workers).

Quarterly. Established January 1956. Succeeded Social Work Journal (earlier, The Compass), published by the American Association of Social Workers.)

10. SOCIAL WORK YEAR BOOK, 1960.
(Editor, Russel H. Kurtz. New York, National Association of Social Workers, 1960, 767 pp.)

Essentially an encyclopedia with alphabetically arranged articles regarding the various aspects of social work and social welfare in the United States of America. Includes articles on Community Development (by Arthur Dunham), Community Organization for Social Welfare (Campbell G. Murphy), International Social Welfare (Dorothy Lally), Social Work as a Profession (John C. Kidneigh), etc. Each article has a selective bibliography.

11. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
(Organ of the National Association for Community Development, 1832 Jefferson Place, N.W., Washington, D.C. Monthly.)

12. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT JOURNAL
(Published quarterly by Oxford University Press, Press Road, Neasden, London, N.W. 10. Quarterly. $4.50 per year.)

13. INTERNATIONAL REVIEW OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
(International issue of Centro Sociale. Published at Piazza Cavalieri de Malta, 2, Rome. Quarterly.)

14. INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT, JOURNAL.
(Published at irregular intervals by the Society, 345 East 46th Street, New York.)

INDEX OF AUTHORS