

## **Chapter One**

### **1.1. Introduction**

In this chapter you will learn why we need social intervention and what its specific benefits to enhance social functioning are. We begin the chapter by defining the concept of life task and the resource systems available for individuals to meet their aspirations. A conscience review of systems involved in intervention process will be followed.

Social functioning

### **1.2. The Need for Social Intervention**

The focus of social work practice is on the interaction between people and systems in the social environment. People are dependant on systems for help in obtaining the material, emotional, or spiritual resources and the services and opportunities they need to realize their aspirations and to help them cope with their life tasks.

The concept of life task was elaborated by Herriet Bartlett (1970:96), who describes it as follows:

*As used in social work, the task concept is the way of describing the demands made up on people by various life situations. These have to do with daily living, such as growing up in the family, learning in school, entering the world of work, marrying and rearing a family, and also with the common traumatic situations of life such as bereavement, separation, illness, or financial difficulties. These tasks call for responses in the form of attitude or action from the people involved in the situation. They are common problems that confront many (or all) people. These responses may differ but most people must deal with the problems in some way or other.*

In early societies, the family was the major system to provide people with the resources they need to help them cope with their life tasks. Following industrialization, urbanization, and bureaucratization, the family has given up many of its former functions. People have become increasingly dependant for help from extra familial resources such as places of work, schools, and units of government. At the same time, these systems have become increasingly complex and difficult to negotiate.

People today can find help from three kinds of resource systems: informal or natural, formal or membership, and societal. Informal or natural systems consist of family, friends, neighbors, co-workers, bartenders, and other helpers. The aid given by such

informal relationships includes emotional support and affection, advice and information, and concrete services or resources such as buy-setting or loan of money. Such systems can also assist in gaining access to and using formal and societal resources systems by providing help in locating appropriate resources or filling out application forms and using influence to cut red tape.

Formal resource systems are membership organizations or formal associations which promote the interest of their members. These systems may supply resources directly to members or help them negotiate with different societal systems. For example, labor unions may provide recreational and social activities for their members as well as help them to deal with employers.

Through public activities and voluntary citizen action, society has established a great variety of societal resource systems. People become linked to several of these systems. Some, such as hospitals, adoption agencies, vocational training programs, and legal services are designed to meet short-term or special needs. People become linked to other societal resource systems such as schools, day-care centers, place of employment, and social security programs by virtue of their age or some ongoing social role (work role, student role) they perform. In their role as citizens and members of a community, people are linked to numerous other governmental agencies and services as public libraries, police agencies, recreation departments, and housing authorities.

Despite the help potentially available from the network of informal, formal, and societal systems, there are situations in which people are unable to obtain the resources, services, or opportunities they need to cope with their life tasks and realize their aspirations. Existing systems may prove to be inadequate for a number of reasons.

#### **A. Inadequacies of Informal Resource Systems**

There are several reasons why informal systems may not provide the help people need. First, a person may lack an informal helping system. A young couple may be new to a community and not have any relatives nearby; an elderly widow may have survived all her friends and family.

Second, a person might be reluctant to turn to friends, relatives, or neighbors for help. A young mother whose child is having difficulty in school may fear loss of face; an elderly woman may not want her adult children to perceive her as a burden.

Third, even if a person does turn to an informal helping system, it may be unable to meet his needs. People often receive conflicting, ineffective, or unacceptable advice when they turn to confidants among their friends and relatives. The natural informal system also may lack the resources necessary for help. If a mother has to spend some time in a hospital, her friends might not be able to look after her children while she is gone or attend to her needs while she recuperates at home. Although the informal helping system may be adequate for meeting small every day needs, its resources may be overtaxed in extraordinary or crisis situations such as a death in the family or the loss of a job.

### **B. Inadequacies of Formal Resource Systems**

There are many factors that prevent people from receiving the help they need from the network of formal groups or organizations which provide resources to their members and help them negotiate with societal systems. These include:

1. Such groups may not exist.
2. People may be reluctant to join membership organization, for different reasons including they may not think the organizations can help them, disagree with some of its goals and activities, believe they will not be welcomed by other members or they may think they lack the skills to participate.
3. People may be unaware of the existence of a formal resource system.
4. An existing organization may not have the necessary resources and influence to provide services to its members or to negotiate on their behalf with a social resource system.

### **C. Inadequacies of Societal Resource Systems**

People often encounter difficulties in obtaining help from societal resource systems at the local community level. First, needed resources may not exist, or may not exist in sufficient quantity, to provide adequate services for all who need them. A community may not have, for instance, comprehensive mental health services or a sufficient number of day-care centers. Second, a needed resource or service may exist but not be geographically, psychologically, or culturally available to those who need it. Third, a needed resource may exist but people may not know about it or how to use it, especially if obtaining help requires dealing with complicated bureaucracies.

Fourth, even if people are using one or more societal resources systems, the vary operation of these systems can create new problems or aggravate existing ones. For example, a public welfare system could encourage dependency by following a policy of reducing welfare payments by the full amount that a receipt earns from a part-time job. Lastly, when people are linked to more than one resource system, the systems may work at cross-purposes, trapping the individual in a web of conflicting demands and contradictory messages.

In addition to these inadequacies any one of the systems may not be functioning properly because of internal problems that hamper its effectiveness. The internal functioning of the systems established to help people meet their life tasks and realize their values and aspirations may be the cause of problems for people within the systems. It may also keep the systems from aiding people who come to them for help. Further, individuals unable to cope with their life tasks may find themselves overwhelmed by physical emotional, economic, or social conditions. Such people may unable to achieve satisfying relationships within a natural system or to take advantage of existing formal and societal systems.

### **1.3. Social Intervention a Response to these Inadequacies**

Social intervention is, thus, a mechanism to draw food transactional relation between individuals and the resource systems. It is concerned, at least in its social work form, with the interaction between people and their social environment which affect the ability of people to accomplish their life tasks, alleviate distress, and realize their aspirations and values.

The need for social intervention, therefore, emanates from the need for enhanced well-being for every person as expression of the chief values of personal dignity and worth as well as social justice by avoiding or minimizing the impacts of the above inadequacies of resource systems. To this end, social interveners may accomplish one or more of the following functions:

1. Help people enhance and more effectively utilize their own problem-solving and coping capacities.
2. Establish initial linkage between people and resource systems.

3. Facilitate interaction and modify and build relationships between people within resource systems.
4. Facilitate interaction and modify and build relationships between people within resource systems.
5. Contribute to the development and modification of social policy.
6. Dispense material resources.
7. Serve as agents of social control.

In practice, a given activity might be performed to achieve several of these functions at the same time. Further, because of the Interact ional (or transactional) nature of linkages that exist within, between, and among people and their resource systems, a specific activity or task of the worker that creates a change in the nature of one linkage may set off reciprocal changes in several of the other linkages and thus accomplish other functions.

In the process of executing the above functions of social intervention, change agents or practitioners work will involve four basic systems including:

1. **Change Agent System:** the change agent and the people who are parts of his agency or employing organization.
2. **Client System:** people who sanction or ask for the change agent's services, who are the expected beneficiaries of services, and who have a working agreement or contract with the change agent.
3. **Target System:** people who need to be changed to accomplish the goals of the agent. This is the system where
4. **Action System:** the change agent and the people he works with and through to accomplish his goals and influence the target system.

#### **1.4. Social Functioning: As A Goal of Social Intervention**

Social work is an enabling profession that helps with problems of living and human relationships and with the dysfunctional complexities of various social institutions. Social work assumes humanity's worth and pre-eminence takes the position that people inherently have the potential for dealing with their problems. However, at times and under stressful circumstances, people often need help. Social work addresses it self to this

need and has systematically developed a helping philosophy and the knowledge and skill to implement this philosophy.

Generally, people struggle successfully, often with imagination and ingenuity, with everyday concerns. Many persons learn to cope with stress and to take minor crises in stride. Some, spurred on by handicaps, rise to great heights. In other situations, however, people are faced with problems they cannot solve by themselves. Some of these are personal, resulting from weak egos or poor native endowment; some are family induced and conditioned; and others result from community pressures and failures. Abandoned, neglected, and deprived children may be incapable of functioning independently. As people grow old, many rely on their families or society to meet their basic needs. No age group, economic class, or society is ever completely free of difficulties that interfere with the role performance of some of its members.

In general, problems can be classified as personal, family, or community. The problems of society that enlist the knowledge and skill of social work under these categories are many. Among them are: family disorganization and child neglect, problems of aging, mental illness, crime and delinquency, substance abuse, poverty, problems of minorities, homelessness, school failures and rape.

Although problems can be challenges to greater effort and achievement, they often contribute to the breakdown of social functioning. Social problems affect social functioning in a number of aspects of individuals' lives, including physical and mental health, employment and education, financial security, housing, recreation and family and community integrity. Social work has the challenge to understand these problems and to help prevent and reduce them.

Social workers direct their interventions currently toward restoring client systems' social functioning and toward realigning opportunities by reforming social conditions. Here, of course, social work is not antiseptic. It does not aim to make life free from stress producing problems or to relieve people of their responsibilities. Problems can be building blocks. Crises are frequently the main spring of adaptive behavior.

The intervention and aid of social work are indicated when people unaided cannot cope with social obligations and commitments and when problems interfere with relationships

that exist within the family, at school, on the job or in other social groupings. *The aim of social work intervention is to improve and enhance social functioning.*

### **1.5. Meaning and Definition of Social Functioning**

Although people all have basic needs in common, they also develop their own unique needs. Like wise, there is considerable variation in their abilities and their access to opportunities to meet these needs. Why is there this variation? Psychologists argue that the variation is due to individual differences. Sociologists examine social structure and its effect on individuals. Social work theory suggests that the answer lies in the interface and transactions between individuals and their environment.

In the social work view, social functioning relates to fulfilling one's own roles in society in general, to those in the immediate environment, and to one self. These functions include meeting one's own basic needs and those of one's dependants and making positive contributions to society. Human needs include physical aspects (food, shelter, safety, health and protection); personal fulfillment (education, recreation, mutual caring, and companionship) and an adequate self-concept (self-confidence, self-esteem, and identity).

During the history of social work many attempts have been made to describe its nature and purpose and to differentiate social work from other helping professions. Most Curriculums of the past has determined "social functioning" to be a central purpose of social work and "intervention" was seen as the enhancement of social functioning.

The council on social work education curriculum (CSWE), for instance, states that social work is concerned with the interaction between people and their environments with consequences that (1) affect the ability of people to cope with life's problems and tasks, (2) eliminate or lessen the negative consequence of stress,(3) contribute to the achievement of personal aspirations and goals, and (4) embrace those values that promote the general welfare and social justice. Accepted social objectives give prominence to the restoration, promotion, and enhancement of social functioning fro individuals, families, groups, and associations with in communities.

Social functioning is enhanced when individuals feel basic satisfied with themselves, their roles in life, and their relationships to others.

Role performance and the reciprocal interaction between the individual and his or her fellow human beings are the aspects of social functioning that are the vital concerns of social work.

For individuals, social functioning encompasses striving toward a life cycle that meets its basic needs, establishing positive relationships and accentuating personal growth and adjustment. Many individuals seek supportive assistance from the social service delivery system to enhance their social functioning.

Other human systems, such as groups, organizations and communities, enhance their capacity for social functioning by developing resources, promoting harmony among members and creating dynamic opportunities for growth and change. For all human systems, the source of improvement of social functioning may be within the system itself or it may lay in creating changes in other social structures.

Generalist social workers consider social functioning in the context of the larger social structure, as both problems and solutions may be located there. Too often, victims of social problems are blamed and held accountable for the problems and their solutions. However, what people label as maladaptive in one human system may actually be a response to a social problem in the larger social structure.

#### **1.4.1 .Types of Social Functioning**

From the interaction between people and their social and physical environments, different types of social functioning can be identified which requires different social service responses. These are; effective, at risk and difficult social functioning.

1. **Effective social functioning:** understandably, competent systems activities personal, interpersonal and institutional resources to deal with problems, issues and needs. Also these resources are relatively available and accessible to these systems in the social structure. Adaptive systems recognize their problems and take the necessary steps to resolve them. For example, individuals who are able to adjust successfully to stress resulting from life transitions such as marrying

and divorce, parenting the death of a loved one or retirement. When concerns arise, these people are able to cope with the stresses associated with the problem, adopt to change and make adjustments in their immediate environment; they may or may not access social work services depending up on whether they identify a need and whether resources are available.

2. **At-risk social Functioning:** some populations or social systems are at risk of difficulties in social functioning. This means that they are valuable to specific problems although such problems have yet to surface. In other words, identifiable conditions exist that could have a negative impact on social functioning. For example, research indicates that certain conditions such as unemployment, alcohol and drug abuse and illness, place children at risk for abuse and neglect. People with disabilities are at- risk of underemployment. The elderly are vulnerable to early and unnecessary institutionalization. Some community may be at-risk of declining educational and economic opportunities.

3. **Difficulties in social functioning:** in some human systems, problems become so exacerbated that the ability to cope with diminished or the systems are immobilized and unable to initiate a change process. In some situations, systems may themselves recognize serious problem that inhibit their ability to function. Individuals may experience depression and loneliness, families may identify communication problem or intra familial conflict or an industry may recognize high levels of worker stress that threaten productivity.

### **1.5. The Generalist Intervention Model**

The training of social workers and their practice models have passed through different stages. Traditionally they have been trained to deal with exclusively either with individuals, families, groups, or communities. A social worker trained in practicing with families has no professional capacity to intervene with other systems like, individuals, groups, and communities. But this approach result in segmentation and disorganization among the works of social workers. The motivation among the practitioner to intervene at more than one level with different kinds clients led them to attend training in more than one method of social work, for example a single social worker, trained in practice with

individuals and groups. This is called multi method approach. A specialization within either method of the above was also been possible.

But in all of the above methods, the workers were trained to serve only a distinctive type of population; either individuals, or families, groups, communities or a combination of two or more of them, but not all of them. The clients should fit the training of the worker to receive help from the worker. But as time passes social workers emphasis the need to be capable to serve all types of population. They need to be capable to intervene with all their potential clients that include an individual, a group, an organization, and communities. For this they emphasized the need to make the training of social workers generalist. By this they aspire to see social workers responding to the need for help to any system whether individuals, groups, communities or organizations.

Generalist social work fosters a comprehensive, "wide-angle lens" view of the problem. Generalist practitioners acknowledge the interplay of personal and collective issues, prompting them to work with a variety human systems- societies, communities, neighborhoods, complex organizations, formal groups, families, individuals- to create changes which maximize human system functioning. This means that generalist social workers work directly with client systems at all levels, connect clients to available resources, intervene with organizations to enhance the responsiveness of resource systems, advocate just social policies to ensure the equitable distribution of resources, and research all aspects of social work practice.

The generalist approach to social work practice rests on four major premises. First human behavior is inextricably connected to the social and physical environment. Second, based on this linkage among persons and environments, opportunities for enhancing the functioning of any human system include changing the system it self, modifying its interaction with the environment, and altering other systems in the environment. Generalist practitioners implement multi level assessments and multi-method interventions in response to these possible avenues for change. Third, work with any level of human system –from individual to society- uses similar social work processes (the planned change processes discussed latter). Finally, generalist practitioners have responsibilities beyond direct practice to work toward just social policies as well as to conduct and apply research.

Thus, as you can understand from the above discussions, generalist approach is more broader than it can be considered as perspective, in which contemporary social workers view clients, their situations and define principles to serve as guidelines in practice. But more specifically, as many writers call it, the contemporary model for social work intervention is called **generalist intervention model**. Some simply use generalist approach, equating it with generalist intervention model, but yet many writers use generalist intervention model to refer to intervention conducted using the generalist intervention model arguing the generalist approach is more perspective oriented.

Generalist intervention model (GIM) is a practice model providing step-by-step direction concerning how to undertake the planned change process, which is generally directed at addressing problems. Selamawit Abebe (2008) has identified the three major features that characterize GIM as follows:

- First GIM assumes that workers acquire an *eclectic* knowledge base, a wide range of skills to target any size system, and a professional value base. The term *eclectic* refers to selecting concepts, theories, and ideas from a wide range of perspectives and practice approaches.
- GIM's second major feature is its core seven-step planning change process that emphasizes the assessment of client strengths. The steps are engagement, assessment, planning implementation, evaluation, termination and follow-up.
- GIM's third major feature is its generalist approach, which means that virtually any problem may be analyzed and addressed from multiple levels of intervention. GIM is oriented towards addressing problems and issues that involve not only individuals but also groups, organizations, and even major social policies. In other words, the model involves micro, mezzo, and macro systems as targets of change. Target of change or target system is one that social workers need to change or influence in order to accomplish (their) goals.

Targets of change are not limited to individuals, families, or groups. Sometimes, services are unavailable or exclusively difficult to obtain, social policies are unfair, or people are oppressed by other people. Administrators and people in power do not always have the motivation or insight to initiate needed change.

## **1.6. Levels of Intervention**

Generalist social workers look at issues in context and find solutions within the interaction between people and their environments. The generalist approach moves beyond the confines of individually focused practice to the expansive sphere of intervention at multiple system levels. Social clients may be at any level in the social systems continuum – at the micro level, individuals, families, and small groups; formal groups and organizations; at the macro level; community, society, or even the world community; and event the professional system of social work.

### **Micro level intervention**

Micro level intervention involves working with individuals-separately; in families or in small groups- to facilitate changes in individual behavior or in relationships. Individuals often seek social work services because they experience difficulties with personal adjustment, interpersonal relationships, or environmental stresses. Changes at this level focus on creating changes in individuals' social functioning. As discussed above, there are many options for change. While micro level interventions create changes in individual functioning, social workers do not necessarily direct all efforts at changing individuals themselves. Oftentimes, workers target changes in the social and physical environments, to facilitate improvement in an individual's or family's social functioning.

To work with micro level clients, social workers need to know about individual, interpersonal, family, and group dynamics. Dubois (2000) stated that " social workers draw on the knowledge and skills of clinical practice, including strategies such as crisis intervention, family therapy, linkage and referral, and the use of group processes" (p.11)

### **Mid level intervention**

The midlevel of social work intervention represents interactions with formal groups and complex organizations. Examples of complex organizations include social service agencies, health care organizations, educational systems, and correctional facilities. Practice with formal groups includes work with teams, work groups, interdisciplinary task forces, and self –help groups.

With midlevel interventions, the focus of change is on the groups or organizations themselves, including their structures, goals, or functions. Effective change at midlevel

requires an understanding of group process, skills in facilitating decision-making and conflict negotiation, and a proficiency in organizational planning.

### **Macro level intervention**

Macro level intervention includes working with neighborhoods, communities, and societies to achieve social change. Macro systems practice reflects social work's heritage of social reform- the pursuit of social change to improve the quality of life. Traditionally, social workers participated in social reform to work on behalf of people who are oppressed, or powerless. At this level interveners work to achieve social change through community organizing, community planning, locality of development.

The historical thrust for social advocacy continues to energize efforts to promote social justice through community or societal change. At this level of intervention, the client system is the community or society. Examples of macro level clients include neighborhoods; cities; rural areas; communities; and local and national governments. The primary target of change is the community or society it self; however; because of the transactional nature of change, changes at the macro level also affects changes at all other system levels.

In their work at macro level, social workers help resolve inter-group tensions and community problems by initiating social action and social change. Their work includes activities community organizing, economic development, legislative action, and policy formulation.

Macro level practice requires knowledge of community standards and values, and skills in mobilizing the community are needed for problems-solving initiatives with regard to interventions at the societal level.

## **Chapter Two**

### **II. Social Intervention with Individuals**

#### **2.1. Introduction**

Being able to work with individuals is the first step in learning how to practice generalist social work. Establishing interpersonal relationship between a social worker and a client is especially important for beginner practitioners like you.

Social work with individual (case work) is one of the main parts of generalist approach to social work practice. Its main focus is to help individual to help them selves. It is individualized scientific and artistic method of helping individuals through a relationship that taps personal and other environmental resources for coping with problems. Assessment, interviewing, understanding nonverbal behavior, and counseling are major tools of case work.

#### **2.2. Case work process**

Case work is not unorganized, unplanned, and occasional thing that you do halfhazardly. Rather it is a systematic, deliberate process aimed at helping individuals on a one-to-one basis to meet personal and social problems. This process involves a major four stages that are summarized as follows.

**A) Engagement:** in this phase, the client is engaged in presenting problems. Clients make the important decision of whether to enter treatment. The emphasis is on the interaction and on the problem, not as might be perceived by the worker, but as experienced at the moment by the client. The data gathering and history taking concentrate on relevance. Contacts during the initial phase may be among the most dynamic of the entire process. Client is most likely to feel most helpless and vulnerable and most available to the helping process. Sympathetic listening, demonstrating acceptance, and confidence in professional ability are powerful tools and can be highly therapeutic.

## **B) Assessment**

Assessment is the process of gathering, analyzing and synthesizing salient data into a formulation that encompasses the following dimensions:

1. The nature of client's problem, including special attention to the roles that clients and significant others play in the difficulties.
2. The functioning (strengths, limitations, personalities and deficiencies) of client's and significant others.
3. Motivation of clients to work on the problem.
4. Relevant environmental factors that contribute to the problems.
5. Resources that are available or are required to ameliorate the clients' difficulties.

In a closely related definition, Barker (1999) defines assessment as; the process of determining the nature, cause, progression and prognosis of a problem and the personalities and situations involved there in : the social work function of acquiring an understanding of a problem, what causes it and what can be changed to minimize or resolve it.

Assessment includes not only what is wrong with the client, but also the resources, strengths, motivation, functional components and other positive factors that can be used to resolve difficulties, to enhance functioning and to promote growth. In fact, assessment in its broadest sense is the base for the development of an intervention plan.

The nature of the assessment takes place and varies significantly with the setting in which the social worker practices, but the process is similar in all settings.

Assessment is sometimes a product and sometimes an ongoing process. As a product, an assessment is a formulation at a point in time regarding the nature of a client's difficulties and resources. An example is a mental status assessment at a psychiatric hospital. Such an assessment is first focused on determining whether the client is sane and psychotic. If the client is assessed as psychotic, a psychotic label is assigned and a recommended treatment approach is then stated. As time passes the client may change and so will environmental factors. Such change requires the assessment to be periodically updated and revised.

Assessment can also be an ongoing process, from the initial interview to the termination of the case. In the early stages of client contact, the focus is primarily on gathering information to assess the clients' problems and resources. Once these are tentatively specified, problem solving is emphasized, as resolution strategies are suggested, analyzed and then one or more strategies selected and implemented. But even in the problem solving phase, new information related to the clients' difficulties and resources is apt to emerge, necessitating the revision of assessment. In fact, as contact between the professional and the client continues, the client may disclose additional problems that need to be assessed and then resolved.

It is essential that social workers include client's strengths in the assessment process. Thus the strengths perspective could help in the process of assessing strengths. Strengths perspective tells that

- Every individual, group, family, and community has strengths.
- Trauma, abuse, illness, and struggle can be injurious, but they can also be sources of challenges and opportunity.
- Assumes that you don't know the upper limits of the capacity to grow and change and take individual, group and community aspirations as serious.
- We serve clients best collaborating with them.
- Every environment is full of resources.

### **Sources of Information**

Information used in making an assessment comes from a variety of sources. The following are the primary sources:

- the client verbal resource
- Assessment forms to be filled out by clients before or after interview.
- Collateral sources; friends, relatives, neighbors, physicians and teachers may be able to provide relevant information.
- Nonverbal behavior
- Interaction with significant others and home visits.
- Workers conclusion from direct interactions.

## **Assessing problems**

As indicated earlier, assessments focus on evaluating the clients' needs and problems, but not restricted to them. In assessing needs and problems it is helpful to use the concept problem system. Help worth and Larsen (1986) have identified a problem system: "The configuration of the client(s), other people, and elements of the environment that interact to produce the problematic situation are designed as problem system". The problem system revolves around the client's concerns and limited to those persons and factors directly involved in the client's ecological context.

Assessment provides a differential approach to treatment based on individual differences and needs. Results of assessment of individual strengths identified and utilized as part of the change process. Hence it guides treatment planning and treatment it self.

Assessment ends with goal setting. Goals must be congruent with the client's needs and the availability of services. As well there should be mutual agreement on goals among the worker and the client.

**C) Intervention:** actually treatment begins with the first contact. The relationship established at the first phase is the mainspring of social work intervention. Here you engage yourself with the actual implementation of activities planned to bring the desired change. While you do so the following are basic implementation of intervention principles.

- Clients have the right to determine their own course of action with in the limits of their capacity to make sound choices.
- Acceptance of client as is implying acceptance in their capacity to change.
- Relate to strength rather than pathology.
- Knowledge about the client's family and its situation is used responsibly and professional; responsibility for the welfare of the total family.
- Responsibility is not only to the client but to oneself, the agency, the community, and the profession. In other words you should not do some thing detrimental to the family, community, and agency with an intention to benefit your client.
- Innovation of professional activities must be consistent with case work goals.

## **D) Termination**

Termination is the ending or limiting of a process that was commenced when the agency agreed to enter in to the intervention process aimed at delivering a service to a client with a problem. It is a time when the client can look back with satisfaction on what has been accomplished. It signals that the worker has confidence in the client's ability to learn to cope with situations and grow.

Termination is preceded by evaluation. This kind of evaluation assists you in deciding when to terminate; the process to revamp your action plans.

Indeed, there is some flow and interrelationship between these four stages. In other words, all parts of these stages are present through out the helping process, although not the same degree of emphasis. As Waehler and Lenox (1994) point out --- participants do not go through a discrete state of relationship building and then "graduate" to undertaking assessment as stages models imply (p.19). Each stage is interconnected to the others so that during the intervention phase, for example, the relationship process still intended to, and termination may be discussed early in the relationship, and assessment is an activity conducted from the beginning to the end.

## **2.3. Understanding Non-Verbal Behavior**

Non verbal behavior plays an important role in our communication and relationship with others. In communication we need to emphasize the spoken world. Yet much of the meaning of a message, 65 percent or more, is conveyed by our non-verbal behavior (Bird Whistell, 1970). Non verbal behavior is an important part of helping because of the large amount of information it communicates.

Knapp and Hall (1997; 32) define nonverbal behavior as "all human communication that transcended spoken or written words". Of course many nonverbal behaviors are interpreted by verbal symbols. Separating nonverbal from verbal behavior is some what artificial because in real life those two dimensions of communication are inseparable.

Clients from some cultural groups may place more emphasis on their own nonverbal behavior and that of workers. One of the primary kinds of client's verbal messages – the

effective message- is highly dependant on nonverbal communication. Much of the information that can be gleaned from the words of clients is derived from their nonverbal behavior. Five dimensions of non verbal behavior with significant effects on communication are kinesics, paralinguistic, proxemics, environmental factors, and time.

### **2.3.1. Client Non Verbal Behavior**

An important part of working with individual is the capacity to discriminate various nonverbal behaviors of clients and their possible meanings. Recognizing and exploring client nonverbal cues are important in counseling for several reasons. First, clients' nonverbal behaviors are clues about their emotions. Even more generally, nonverbal behaviors are part client's expression of themselves. Every thing the patient does, obvious or concealed, is an expression of the self. Passions (1975: 102) points out that most clients are more aware of their words than of their nonverbal behavior. Exploring nonverbal communication may give clients a more complete understanding of their behavior.

Nonverbal client clues may represent more "leakage" than client verbal message do (Ekman and Friesen, 1969). Leakage is the communication of messages that are valid yet not sent intentionally. Because of this leakage, client nonverbal behavior may often portray the A client more accurately than verbal messages. A client may come and tell you one story and in nonverbal language convey a completely different story (Ibid).

1. As Knapp and Hull 1997: 32) points out that nonverbal and verbal behavior are interrelated to such a degree that considering each of them as separate facet of communication is difficult since both are involved in sending messages and receiving and interpreting the meaning of messages. Recognizing the way nonverbal cues support verbal message can be helpful.

Identifying the relationship between the client's verbal and nonverbal communication may yield a more accurate picture of the client, the client's feelings and the concerns that have lead the client to seek the help. In addition the worker can detect the extent to which the client's verbal behavior and nonverbal behavior are congruent. Frequent discrepancies between the client's expressions may indicate ambivalence.

## **Kinesics**

Kinesis involves eyes, head, gestures, touch, body expressions, and movements.

### **Eyes**

Workers who are sensitive to the eye area of clients may detect various client emotions, such as the following:

*Surprise:* eyebrows are raised so that they appear curved and high.

*Fear;* brows are raised and drawn together.

*Anger:* brows are lowered and drawn together. Vertical lines shown up between the brows. The eyes may appear to have a “cold stare”.

*Sadness:* inner corners of the eyebrow are drawn up until the inner corners of the upper eyelids are raised.

Also significant to the worker is eye contact (also called “direct mutual gaze). Eye contact may indicate expression of feeling, willingness for interpersonal exchange, or desire to continue or stop talking.

Lack of eye contact or looking away may signal withdrawal, embracement, or discomfort (Exline and winters: 1965). Excessive blinking may be related to anxiety. Eye shifts -from the worker to a wall, for example- may indicate that the client is processing or recalling material (singer, 1975). Pupil dilation, which is an automatic (involuntary) response, may indicate emotional arousal, attentiveness, and interest.

### **Mouth**

Smiles can be associated with the emotions of happiness and joy. Light lips may mean stress, frustration hostility, or anger. When a person has a quivering lower lip or is biting the lips, these signs may connate anxiety or sadness. An open mouth without speech may indicate surprise or difficulty in talking. But as a general, remark, the connotation of every non verbal cue is different fro one culture to anther.

### **Facial Expressions:**

The face of the other person may be most important stimulus in an interaction because it is the primary communicators of emotional information (Ekman: 1982). Facial expressions are used to initiate or terminate conversations, provide feedback on the

comments of others, underline or support verbal communication and convey multiple emotions. For example one emotion may be conveyed in one part of the face and another in different area. It is rare for one's express only a single emotion at a time.

Different facial areas express different emotions. Happiness, surprise, and disgust may be conveyed through the lower face (mouth and jaw region) and the eye area, where as sadness is conveyed with the eyes. The lower face and brows express anger; fear is usually indicated by the eyes. Although "reading" someone by facial cues alone is difficult, these cues may support other nonverbal indexes of emotion with in the context of an interview.

Facial expressions conveying the basic emotions described above do not seem to vary much among cultures. In other words, primary or basic emotion such as surprise, anger, disgust, fear, sadness, and happiness do seem to be represented by the same facial expressions a cross cultures, although individual culture norms may influence how much and how often such emotions are expressed. (Mesquite &Frijda, 1992).

### **Head**

The movements of the head can be a rich source for interpreting a person's emotional or affective state. When a person holds his or her head erect, facing the other person in a relaxed way, this posture indicates receptivity to interpersonal communication. Nodding the head up and down conveys conformation and agreement. Holding the head rigidly may mean anxiety or anger, and hanging the head down toward the chest may reflect disapproval or sadness.

### **Shoulders**

The orientation of the shoulders may give clues to a person's attitude about interpersonal exchanges. Shoulders leaning forward may indicate eagerness, attentiveness, or receptivity to interpersonal communication. Slouched, stooped, rounded, or turned away shoulders may mean that the person is not receptive to interpersonal exchanges. The posture may reflect sadness or ambivalence. Shrugging shoulders may mean uncertainty, puzzlement, ambivalence, or frustration.

### **Arms and Hands**

The arms and hands can be very expressive of an individual's emotion state. Arms folded across the chest can signal avoidance of interpersonal exchange or reluctance to disclose. Relaxed, unfolded arms and hand gesturing during conversation can signal openness to interpersonal involvement or accentuation of points in conversation. The automatic response of perspirations of the palms can reflect anxiety and arousal. Anger or anxiety may also be reflected in trembling and fidgety hands or clenching fists.

### **Legs and feet**

If the legs and feet appear comfortable and relaxed, the person may be signaling openness to interpersonal exchange. Shuffling feet or a tapping foot may mean the person is experiencing some anxiety or impatience, or wants to make a point. Repeatedly crossing and uncrossing legs may indicate anxiety or impatience. A person who appears to be very "controlled" or have to "stiff" legs and feet may be uptight, anxious, or closed to an extensive interpersonal exchange.

### **Total body and body movements**

Most body movements do not have precise social meanings. Body movements are learned and culture specific. Body movements are not produced randomly. Instead they appear to be linked to human speech. One of the most important functions of body movement is regulation. Various body movements regulate or maintain interpersonal interaction. For example, important body movements that accompany the workers verbal greeting of a client include eye gaze, smiling, use of hand gestures and a vertical or side ways motion of the head (Krivanos & Knapp; 1975).

**Paralinguistic:** includes extra linguistic variables as voice level (volume), pitch (intonation), rate of speech, and fluency of speech. Pauses and silence also belong to this category. Paralinguistic cues are those pertaining to how a message is delivered, although occasionally these vocal cues represent what is said as well.

Vocal cues are important in helping interaction for several reasons. First, they help to manage the interaction by playing an important role in the exchange of speaker and listener roles- that is turn taking. Second, vocal characteristics convey data about a client's emotional states. You can identify the presence of basic emotions from a client's vocal

cues if you are able to make auditory discriminations. In recognizing emotions from vocal cues, it is also important to be knowledgeable about various vocal characteristics of basic emotions. For example, a client who speaks slowly and softly may be feeling sad or may be reluctant to discuss a sensitive topic. Increased volume and rate of speech are usually signs of anger or happiness. Or simply reflect cultural norms.- for example “many Arabs like to be bathed in sounds”(Sue and Sue ; 1999 :81). Changes in voice level and pitch should be interpreted along with accompanying changes in other nonverbal behaviors. Vocal cues in the form of speech disturbances or aspects of fluency in speech also convey important information for workers, for client anxiety or discomfort is often detected by identifying the type and frequency of client’s speech errors. Most speech errors become more frequent as anxiety and discomfort increase (Knapp & Hull, 1997). Pause and silence are another part of paralinguistic that can give the helper clues about the client. Unfilled pauses, or periods of silence, serve various functions in a helping interview. The purpose of silence often depends on whether the pause is initiated by the helper or the client. Clients use silence to express emotions, to reflect on an issue, to recall an idea or feeling, to avoid a topic or to catch up on the progress of the moment. Helper initiated silences are more effective when used with a particular purpose in the mind, such as reducing the helper’s level of activity, slowing down the pace of the session, giving the client to think, or transferring some responsibility to the client through turn denying. An example of when silence would not be useful is when a client discloses something very precious and significant, often revealing some thing that takes greater vulnerability on the client’s part.

### **Proxemics**

Concerns the concept of environmental and personal space (hall: 1966). As it applies to a helping interaction, proxemics include use of space relative to the interviewing room, arrangement of the furniture, seating arrangement, distancing between helper and the client. In helping interviews, a distance of three to four feet between helper and client seems to be the least anxiety producing.

### **How to work with client nonverbal behavior**

Generally, irrespective of a particular theoretical orientation, there are several ways to respond to and work with clients' nonverbal behavior in a helping interview. These include the following:

1. Note or respond to discrepancies, or mixed verbal and nonverbal message.
2. Respond to or note nonverbal behaviors when the client is silent or not speaking.
3. Use nonverbal behavior to change the focus of the interview.
4. Work with changes in client nonverbal behavior that have occurred in an interview or over a series of sessions.

Nonverbal communication is also a useful way for helpers to note something about the appropriateness of a client's communication style and to observe how something is said, not just what is said. (Sue & Sue; 1999:80). Such observations may be especially important in working with clients belonging to various ethnic/ cultural groups.

#### **2.3.2. Helper non verbal behavior**

As a helper it is very important for you to pay attention to your nonverbal behavior for several reasons. First some kinds of helper nonverbal behavior seem to contribute to a facilitative relationship; other nonverbal behaviors may detract from the relationship. In addition, the degree to which clients perceive you as interpersonally attractive and as having some expertise is associated with effective nonverbal skills. (Gazda et al; 1999).

In addition to the use of effective nonverbal behavior, there are other important aspects of a worker nonverbal demeanor that affect a helping relationship: sensitivity, congruence, and synchrony.

#### **Sensitivity**

Presumably, skilled interviewers are better able to send effective nonverbal messages (encoding) and more aware of client nonverbal messages (decoding) than are ineffective interviewers. There is some evidence that females are better decoders – that is, more sensitive to other persons' nonverbal cues- than are males. Male practitioners may need to ensure that they are not overlooking important client cues. All of us can increase our

nonverbal sensitivity by opening up all our sensory channels. For example, people who tend to process information through auditory channels can learn to pay closer attention to visual cues, and those who process visually can sensitize themselves to voice cues.

### **Congruence**

Non verbal behaviors in conjunction with verbal messages also have some consequence in the relationship, particularly if these messages are mixed, or incongruent. Mixed messages can be confusing to the client. For example, suppose a practitioner says to the client “I am really interested in how you feel about your parents” while the practitioner body is turned away from the client with arms folded across the chest. The effect of this inconsistency message on the client could be quite potent. In fact a negative verbal message mixed with positive verbal one have greater effects than the opposite (positive nonverbal and negative verbal). As Gazda and colleagues (1999:85) pointed out, when verbal and nonverbal messages are in contradiction, we usually believe the nonverbal message. Incongruence will make the client to lose confidence on the professional; quality of the helper and make him to far a way from the helper.

In contrast, congruence, between helper verbal and nonverbal messages is related to both client and helper ratings of helper effectiveness (Hill et al; 1981). The importance of helper congruence, or consistency, among various verbal, kinesics, and paralinguistic behaviors can not be over emphasized. A useful aspect of congruence involves learning to match the intensity of your nonverbal behaviors with those of the client.

### **Synchrony**

Synchrony is the degree of harmony between the practitioner’s and clients’ nonverbal behavior. In helping interaction, especially initial ones, it is important to match, or pace; the clients nonverbal behaviors. Mirroring of body posture and other client nonverbal behavior contributes to rapport and builds empathy (Maurer & Tindall; 1983). Synchrony does not mean that the helper mimics every move and sound the client makes. It does mean that the practitioner overall demeanor is closely aligned with or very similar to the client’s. For example, if the client is sitting back in a relaxed position with crossed legs, the helpers matches and displays similar body posture and leg movements. Dissynchrony, or lack of pacing, is evident when, for example, a client is leaning back, very relaxed and

the helper is leaning forward, very intently, or when the client has a very sad look on her face and the helper smiles, or when the client speaks in low, soft voice and the helper responds in a strong powerful voice. The more nonverbal behavior patterns you can pace, the more powerful the effect will be. However when learning this skill, it is too overwhelming to try to match many aspects of a client's nonverbal behavior simultaneously. Find an aspect of a client's demeanor, such as voice, body posture, or gestures that feels natural and comfortable for you to match, and concentrate on synchronizing this one aspect at a time.

#### **2.4. Skills to work with individuals**

The process of working with individual requires micro skills like, relationship building, the effective use of verbal and nonverbal behavior, proficiency in interviewing, and counseling. Micro skills focus on your ability to relate other individuals and communicate effectively.

Micro skills form the basis for working with groups (Mezzo systems) and organizations and communities (macro system). You must effectively interact with individuals in groups, organizations, and communities in order to get any thing done. Micro skills are used through each phase of the planned change process whether you are pursuing micro, mezzo or macro change. The next part of this chapter introduces you with basic micro skills.

##### **2.4.1. Interviewing**

Communication with client is obviously necessary to work with clients and helps them. Interviewing provide the basis for such communication and is a key skill in micro practice. Interviewing is the exchange of information in order to eliminate and solve problems, promote growth and plan strategies or actions aimed at improving people's quality of life.

Most social work interviews can be classified as either informational, assessment, or therapeutic. Informational interviews are designed to obtain background or life history material related to the client's personal or social problem. The purpose of such interview is to seek information that will enable the worker to better understand the client so that decisions can be made regarding the kind of services that should be provided. Such information includes both objective facts and objective feelings and

attitudes. In addition to the client, others interview or contacted may include parents, friends, other relative employees and other agencies having contact with the client.

From informational interview workers produce a social history consisting of information on name, age occupation, early child hood experiences and development, family background, school performance, dating and marital history, employment history, contact with other agencies, general impressions and information about the presenting question or problem.

The second type, assessment, or decision making interviews are more focused in purpose than informational interviews. The questions asked in assessment interviews are aimed at making specific decisions involving human service. For example a protective service worker investigates a child abuse complaint to determine whether abuse is occurring. A public assistance worker interviews an unmarried woman who is pregnant to determine eligibility for financial assistance.

The purpose of therapeutic interviews, the third type, is to help clients make changes, or to change the social environment to help clients function better or both. These includes interviews with persons important in clients life, where the social worker act as a broker or advocate in the client's behalf. The worker may interview people in strategic position in an attempt to influence them on behalf of the client. The purpose of the interview is to change the balance of forces in the social environment in the clients favor. For example, a school social worker may interview a teacher in order to influence him/her to show more accepting understanding of a client. A social worker may interview the housing authority or authority at the local department of public welfare in order to obtain full entitlement to housing rights or assistance. These examples are where clients work to change the social environment, but social workers also conduct therapeutic interview to bring behavioral change among clients themselves.

### **2.4.1.1. The Interviewing process**

#### **A. The place of interview**

Social work interviews can take place any where – in the office, in the client’s home, on the street corners, in restaurants, and in institutions. The point is that each place offers its own advantages and disadvantages.

Office interviews, for instance, permit control of the physical setting, usually make the interviewer comfortable and can usually arranged to assure privacy. Office interviews have also another advantage for the worker by reducing the travel time between interviews. Home visits have in helping the interviewer better understand the living conditions of the interviewee. Family interactions can also be observed. While some clients like people with disabilities, find it difficult to go worker’s offices other clients find an office “foreign” to them and therefore are more comfortable in their home or in other settings. Yet a home visit may create discomfort up on family members and may also have noise on the process from other family members. In such a case it is the skill of the interviewer to decide where to conduct interview. For instance, he may suggest that they go to restaurant and have a soft drink & talk with out interruption from other family members. The interviewers skills are always more important than the setting in determining the productivity of an interview.

#### **B. Opening the interview**

If some one has asked to see a social worker and has come, it is better to let that person state just what he or she is concerned about. The worker should of course open the interview with greeting. It is helpful if the interviewer greet the client’s name. Also it is helpful, particularly, at the beginning and the end of the contact, to make general conversation rather than engage in an interview. You talk about whether, high cost of living, facility problem. This socializing is not a waste of time. It eases the client’s transition from the familiar mode of conversational mode of interaction in to a new and unfamiliar mode of role which demands responses for which he has a little experience. You may begin saying ‘hi I am Epheson, and I am counselor / social worker/ at the agency.

### **C. Issues and hurdles in interviewing**

I) Minimal response in the interview: minimal Responses are made to demonstrate the practitioner's attentiveness and understanding of what s said and also to encourage the client to continue. Minimal encouragements convey interest. Minimal responses include:

- Mm, Uh-huh
- Nodding
- Using one word such as "so" and "then"
- Repeating one or few words the client has used.
- Silence is another form of minimal response that allows the client time to think, feel, and find expression.

II) Silence in the interview

Allowing silence gives the client space to reflect. You may experience awkwardness at handling a silence as a new practitioner but you threshold of silence will increase with experience and you will be to discern between different types.

Silence can be client initiated or worker initiated. In client initiated silence the reasons for the silence can be client may come to a point where s/he needs time to organize thoughts; clients may be trying to pressure the worker to give some answer or solution to a problem or a client may be resisting. In negative worker initiated silence a worker demonstrates a quite, non-involved, non-assertive personality, style, and workers mind becomes blank and s/he can think of nothing to say.

**III) Confronting clients**

A confrontation is interpersonal process of describing an other person's behavior so, he/she can see the consequence of his / her behavior and possibly change this behavior. Confrontation in almost in any situation is difficult for many people. To confront means to disagree with another person and make a point stating that disagreement. An effective confrontation helps the individual better understand how behaviors are perceived and how they affect the rest of the community. Confrontation also involves risking a negative or hostile reaction from the person you are confronting.

Nevertheless, confrontation is an important tool in problem solving process of intervention. Confrontation involves facing clients with some aspect of their thoughts, feelings, or behaviors that is contributing to or maintaining their difficulties. It involves identifying, examining participants' issues, needs, and emotions. A confrontation in social work practice often involves pointing out to clients' incongruence or inconsistencies between what they say and what they do. Any confrontation first involves clearly identifying the existing discrepancies and then working to ward some resolution. In other words confrontations are necessary to help client face factors that block progress toward attaining goals and thus, heighten their motivation to make possible change.

There are at least four types of discrepancies that practitioners frequently target for confrontation including those; "between statements; between what one says and what one does; between statements and nonverbal behaviors and between two or more people". The following are examples of discrepancies;

- A Client state "I want to stay here and work on the problem. I really want to go home now"
- after having gone out to" hanging one on a big way' the prior evening, a client says " I don't drink any more"
- while chewing her fingernails, tipping her foot and grimacing, a client says" I feel so at eased here talking to you"
- A worker is interviewing two parents. The focus is on child behavior techniques. One parent states" I really am responsible for all disciplining of the children". The other parent replies "you're all talk and no action. I'm the one who does all the disciplining around here".

There are a number of reasons for these discrepancies. Sometimes, confrontations are necessary when clients are trying to resist intervention for a certain reasons. At other times, clients may not be certain whether or not they want to be helped are hesitant to cooperate. Still other times, for reasons of their own, clients will not want to follow through on recommendations. Sometimes clients will find making actual changes in their behavior too difficult. Clients may also make excuses for behaviors that you feel are

unacceptable. Finally, clients may be behaving in ways that are contrary to their own best interests.

#### **D. Terminating the interview**

Termination is the ending of an interview. Preparation for termination should begin with the first session. It is important to think that the relationship between worker and the client eventually come to an end. Clients should be informed about the termination to be prepared themselves. It is important to mention exactly how much time is left in the interview before the interview termination time. Workers should encourage clients to share ending feelings and reach those feelings. It is also necessary to ask for clients a review of learning and the progress made.

#### **2.4.2. Reflecting Skills**

Reflecting skills are basic skills at its most simple involves reflecting the content of the other person's utterances back to them. The purpose is to give the message; "I am listening carefully to what you are saying and I am trying to understand. I will demonstrate this to you by letting you know that I am heard what you just said, did I get it right?"

Paraphrasing, clarifying and summarizing are ways of reflecting back the client's thoughts and feelings. They are methods of retiring client expressions in order that:

- The client can re (hear) what they are saying.
- The clients get a sense of them selves- i.e. how they are expressing themselves- as if a mirror were being held to them.
- The practitioner checks what they are understanding (meanings, thoughts and feelings) is correct.
- There is clarification of certain points with out asking interview questions.
- There is ongoing communication between two parties.

**A. Paraphrasing:** is summarizing in few words what the speaker is saying. It involves reflecting back the content and feelings of what the client is saying by drawing out the salient parts. Paraphrasing is best used at natural intervals or when it seems appropriate to reiterate what is being conveyed. It lets the client know that you

are following what they say, that you are attentive to their personal details and understanding of their feelings and meanings.

To recap, paraphrasing has the following aspects. It

- Gives the client an opportunity to hear what they are saying, in a slightly different format which can lead to new insight.
- Is a way of reflecting the content and feeling of what the client is saying?
- Entails content and feelings being reflected back in the practitioner's own words.
- Demonstrate the practitioner's attentiveness.
- Give the client an opportunity to clarify anything the practitioner is misunderstanding and for the practitioner an opportunity to check that they are getting right.
- Is a way of keeping contact with the client

**B. Clarifying:** is not quite as obvious as it sounds. It doesn't mean that you clarify the client's muddled thinking or can see more sense in the client's world than they can. Rather it means seeking clarification of your own understanding of the client's world.

This can have a number of helpful effects including;

- The client will feel that you are trying really hard to understand.
- You will get a better more accurate understanding of the clients' world.
- The client may come to understand themselves better as a consequence of having to explain something in more detail or in a different way.
- Sometimes when a client is in a muddled or fog, you may pick up by feeling muddled yourself. If you ask for clarification for yourself, it can help your client clarify their own thoughts and feelings.

For example in the message "my husband is cruel to me", the word cruel may have different meanings to the social worker and client. Before establishing what this term means to a particular client, a social worker cannot be certain whether the client is reflecting to physical abuse, criticism, nagging, withholding affections, or other possibilities. Therefore the precise meaning can be clarified by employing one of the following responses:

- “In what way is he cruel?”
- “I am not sure what you mean by cruel, could you clarify that for me?”
- I can tell that is painful for you, could you give me some examples of times he has been cruel?”

Generally many other adjectives also lack precision and it is therefore important to avoid assuming that the client means the same thing you mean when you employ a given term. Exact meanings are best determined by asking clarification or for examples of events in which the behavior alluded to actually occurred.

**C. Summarizing:** is similar to paraphrasing, but it requires the putting together of large chunk of information when a client has talked for a length of time. While paraphrasing is relevant to one statement of what ever length, summarizing puts together a few or many statements. Summarizing is the way of keeping contact with a client, showing that you are following what they are saying and that you have an understanding of their underlying feelings. Another purpose of summarizing is that it brings together the different threads in what has been expressed, providing overview which enables the client to make connections. The point of both paraphrasing and summarizing is to assist in further exploration of troubling issues, to help the client reach new insights in to their problems. It is especially important when summarizing a lot of received information to conclude with an enquiring about the accuracy of your understanding. You can check this out by saying “is that you feel” or does that sum it up”, or simply “am I getting this right”, after you state your summarizing statement. Other wise you may be going off on an agenda of your own.

To sum up the uses of summarizing;

1. It is useful at intervals in the session to give a sense of connection between threads or themes of what the client has been saying.
2. It gives the client an overview of their situation or expressions and moves the session a long.
3. It is useful towards the end of an interviewing session, to highlight central concerns.

### 2.4.3. Emphasizing client strengths

As social workers deal with the most difficult human problems, sometimes, identifying clients' strengths will be quite difficult because their problems will seem so insurmountable. In the planned change process emphasizing clients' strengths is critical throughout implementation and helps in several ways.

1. It reinforces a clients' sense of self respect and self value.
2. It provides rays of hope even in "tunnels of darkness"
3. It helps identify ways to solve problems by relying on the specified strengths.

Client strengths may be found in three major areas: the first involves behaviors and accomplishments, the second concerns personal qualities and characteristics and finally, the third revolves around the client's material and social resources. The following examples are statements workers might use to emphasize clients strengths in three areas:

Client behaviors

e.g. "you have done a nice job of following those suggestions look what you've accomplished".

Personal qualities;

E.g. :

- "you are bright and easy to talk"
- "I think you're very motivated to work on this goal"
- "it's nice to work with you. You're so cooperative"
- you look very nice today"

Client resources

- "It's really good that you have close friends ( or a minister or a relative) to talk to. It helps"
- Your family is very supportive. That's really good"
- There are several resources available to you here at the agency that can get you off to a good start".

## **Chapter Three**

### **Group –Work: Intervention with Groups**

#### **III. Introduction**

One of the most distinctive aspects of human beings is that we are social. We each are affected by the presence of other people, we form relationship with other people, we join groups, with other people, and we behave in certain ways towards members of our own and other groups. The groups in which we are a member offer a lot of benefits to us ranging from psychological to economical, and social.

#### **3.1. What is group?**

When most people say "group" they mean any number of persons who happen to be together. Sociologically speaking, however, a group has different meaning differentiated from other collectives. A social group consists of a number of people who define themselves as members of a group; who interact frequently according to established and enduring patterns; who expect certain behavior from other members that they do not expect from outsiders; and who are defined by both fellow members and nonmembers as belonging to a group on the basis of some shared characteristics.

#### **What motivates people to join groups?**

People will be motivated to join groups for the following reasons.

- 1. Social need:** humans need interaction with other humans and need to be loved and understand. Groups provide warmth and support for individuals. When individuals lack that warmth and support, they suffer from loneliness and insecurity.
- 2. Need for security:** groups help individuals coping with their environment. For example employees join groups (unions) to protect their own interests.
- 3. Esteem:** groups give recognition and esteem for individuals. Individual's sense of esteem is enhanced when they relate with others. Members self definition and self worth is enhanced as they experience positive relationships with others in the group. Group membership provides opportunities for recognition and praise that are not available outside the group. Members feel accepted and understood. A girl who experienced sexual abuse develops her esteem when she learns from other girls in the group that she is not the only one experiencing such kind of situation and her feeling and experience is not unique.

4. **Economic:** individuals join groups because they believe they can get economic benefits by forming or joining groups.
5. **Proximity:** the degree of physical distance between employees performing a job and the degree to which people are drawn to each other because of similarity is another important factor in formation of group. The closeness creates opportunity for people to learn about the character of others, make possible exchange of ideas, thoughts, experiences, and feelings about different things. This helps the group members to get information as well as to relieve from boredom.
6. **Achievement of goals:** individuals join groups to achieve goals which are other wise difficult to achieve individually. Members in the group assist individuals in realizing their goals.

### 3.3. Definition of Group Work

Over the years social workers have understood the power of the group process in helping individuals improve their functioning. People can't exist by themselves and they are not islands. Their welfare is tied to the success or failure of other humans and a number of group associations. Human beings are strongly dependent on the interaction with other humans. And almost every thing done in life is done in the context of group and group interaction. Social work practice with groups builds on the important impact of groups on individuals and utilizes group process to accomplish individual and group goals.

Group work is a method and a process developed to assist people to improve the qualities of their lives and to maximize the potentials. It is a method for engaging a group as a whole and its several members in a relation process with the worker and each other to facilitate use of group experience for achieving individuals and group processes with in the purpose of an agency or service program.

Tosland & Rivas (2001) define group work as “a method of working with people in groups (two or more people) for the enhancement of social functioning and for the achievement of socially desirable goals. Group work is a method of reducing or eliminating roadblocks to social interaction.

Group work is based on the knowledge of people need for each other and their interdependence. It is directed towards helping members to use the group for coping with and

resolving existing problems in psychosocial functions, towards anticipating problems or maintaining a current level of functioning in situations where there is a danger of deterioration. Almost all social service agencies use group work. The social group worker uses their knowledge of group organization and functioning to influence the performance and adjustment of the individual. The individual remains the focus of concern and the group vehicle of growth and change. Enhancement of social functioning through the use of group is the primary aim of group work.

What distinguishes group work from case work is not its purpose for the individual. In all social work practice methods the individual purpose is self-actualizing human relation development. Group work is different from the other methods because of its additional purpose of being responsible for social change and the pattern of relationships through which these purposes are realized- member to group, member to member, worker to group, worker to member; Additionally compared with case workers, who relied on insight developed from psychodynamic approaches, on the provision of concrete resources, group workers relied on program activities to spur members to action. Program activities (like camping, group discussion, games, and arts and crafts) are the media through which groups attain their goals of recreation, socialization, education, support, and rehabilitation.

Differences between case work and group work can also be clearly seen in the helping relationship. Case workers sought out the most underprivileged victims of industrialization and other contemporary developments and diagnosed and treated worthy clients by providing them with resources and acting as examples of virtuous, hard working citizens. Although group workers also worked with the poor and impaired, they did not solely focus on the poorest people or on those with the most problems. They also prefer the word *members* than *clients* (Bowman; 1935). They emphasized members' strengths rather than their weaknesses. Additionally shared interaction, shared power, and shared decision making placed demands on group workers that are not experienced by case workers.

Group work also helps in achieving desirable change for individuals experiencing personal, family, and occupational and adjustment problems. By using a combination of treatment, self enhancement, and personal fulfillment, group work helps to enhance social functioning as a whole and as an individual being member of the group.

### 3.4. Types of groups

To understand the breadth of intervention with groups, it is helpful to become familiar with a variety of groups in practice settings. Because there are so many kinds of groups that workers may be called on to lead; it is helpful to distinguish among them. In the following section, distinction among groups is made on the basis of whether they are formed or occur naturally and whether they are treatment or task oriented.

#### 1. Formed and natural groups

Formed groups are those that come together through some outside influence or intervention. They usually have some sponsorship or affiliation and are convened for a particular purpose. Some examples of formed groups are therapy groups, educational groups, committees, and teams.

Natural groups come together spontaneously on the basis of naturally occurring events, interpersonal attraction, or the mutually perceived needs of the members. Natural groups include family groups, peer groups, friendship networks, street gangs, and cliques.

#### 2. Treatment and task groups

*Treatment groups* are groups formed to serve the purpose of meeting member's socio-emotional needs. This may include meeting members' need for support, education, therapy, growth, and socialization. In contrast the term *task group* is used to signify any group in which the overriding purpose is to accomplish a goal that is neither intrinsically nor immediately linked to the needs of the members of the group. Although the work of the task group may ultimately affect the members of the group, the primary purpose of task groups is to accomplish a goal that will affect a broader constituency, not just the members of the group.

In classifying groups as either treatment or task oriented, it is important to consider how the two types differ. These include the following:

- The bond present in a group is based on the purpose for which it is convened. Thus, members of treatment groups are bonded by their common needs in common situations. Task group members create a common bond by working together to accomplish a task, carry out the mandate, or produce the product. In both types of groups, common cultural, gender, racial, or ethnic characteristics can also help to form bond among themselves.
- In treatment groups, roles are not set before the group forms, but developed through interaction among members. In task groups, members take on roles through a process of interaction and

also are frequently assigned roles by the group. Roles that may be assigned include chair or team leader, secretary and fact finder.

- Communication patterns in treatment groups are open. Members are encouraged to interact with one another. Task group members are more likely to address their communication to the leader. And to keep their communication to focus on a particular group task.
- Treatment groups often have flexible procedure for meetings, including a warm-up time, a period for working on members' concerns, and a period for summarizing the group's work. Task groups are more likely to have formalized rules such as parliamentary procedure that govern how members conduct group business and reach decisions.
- Treatment groups are often composed of members with similar concerns, problems and abilities. Task groups are often composed of members with the necessary resources and expertise to accomplish the group's mission.
- In treatment groups, members are expected to disclose their own concerns and problems. Therefore self-disclosures may contain emotionally charged, personal concerns. In task groups, member self disclosure is relatively infrequent. It is generally expected that members will confine themselves to discussions about accomplishing the group's task and will not share intimate, personal concerns.
- Treatment groups meetings are always confidential. Some task group meetings, such as meetings of treatment conferences and cabinets, may be confidential, but the meeting of other task groups, such as committees and delegate councils, are often described in minutes that are circulated to interested persons and organizations.
- The criteria for evaluating success differ between treatment and task groups. Treatment groups are successful to the extent to which individual treatment goals are achieved. Task groups are successful when they accomplish group goals, such as generating solutions to problems and mankind decisions, or when they develop group products, such as a report, a set of regulations, or a series of recommendations concerning a particular community issue.

#### **3.4.1. A Typology of Treatment and Task groups**

The broad distinction between formed and natural groups and between treatment and task groups can be further refined and developed in to classification system of the many types of groups workers may encounter in practice settings. One way to develop a classification system

is to categorize treatment and task groups according to their primary purpose. Although groups with only one purpose rarely exist in practice, developing pure categories - that is, groups with a single purpose - is useful in illustrating differences between groups and in demonstrating the many ways that groups can be used in practice settings.

#### **3.4.1.1. Treatment groups**

Groups that primarily focus on the emotional and social needs of members are called treatment groups. They are designed to bring change in individual group members. There are five primary purposes for treatment groups, and then five types of treatment groups, including:

1. Support groups
2. educational groups
3. Growth groups
4. Therapy groups
5. Socialization

For better understanding of these groups, now let's have a detailed discussion of each of these typologies.

##### **1. Support groups**

The description of the treatment typology begins with support groups because support is a common ingredient of many successful treatment groups. Support groups can be distinguished from other groups using supportive intervention strategies as their primary goal: to foster mutual aid, to help members cope with stressful life events, and to revitalize and enhance members' coping abilities so they can effectively adapt to and cope with future stressful life events. Examples of support groups include the following.

- A group of children meeting at school to discuss the effects of divorce on their lives.
- A group of people diagnosed with cancer, and their families, discussing their adjustment to community living.
- A group of single parents sharing the difficulties of raising children alone.

##### **2. Educational groups**

The primary purpose of educational groups is to help members learn new information and skills. The purpose of the group is to teach members about some issues or skills. The teaching method might be role playing, activities, discussions, and presentations. For example, a practitioner may teach care providers of mentally ill about mental illness related issues. In an

educational group, social intervener often serves both as a teacher and as facilitator of members' interaction with one another. Educational groups are used in a variety of settings, including treatment agencies, schools, nursing homes, correctional institutions, and hospitals. Examples of educational groups include the following:

- An adolescent sexuality group sponsored by a family planning agency.
- A wellness-in-the workplace group designed by a social worker directing an employee assistance program
- A group sponsored by a community planning agency to help members become more effective.

### **3. Growth groups**

Growth groups are designed to assist and promote the growth of individual members in the group. Growth oriented groups offer opportunities for members to become aware of, expand, and change their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors regarding themselves and others. The group is used as a vehicle to develop members' capabilities to the fullest. Growth groups focus on promoting socioemotional health rather than remediation of socioemotional illness. Examples of growth groups include the following:

- An encounter group for married couples designed to help couples learn to communicate better
- A value clarification group for adolescents designed to help them discuss and hold clear understanding of values of a community and develop confidence, communication, and negotiating skills.
- A consciousness raising group sponsored by a women's community center.

The focus of growth groups is building the strength of individuals to realize their potential. Members in this group may not necessarily have problems. And the role of social intervener is facilitation, helping the group members to accomplish their goals.

### **4. Therapy Groups**

Therapy groups help members change their behavior, cope with and ameliorate personal problems, or rehabilitate themselves after physical, psychological, or social trauma. Such types of groups are designed to have clients who have an identified problem and concerns. In therapy groups, members come together to solve their problems. Members meet regularly to talk, interact, and discuss problems with each other and the leader.

Examples of therapy groups include the following:

- A psychotherapy group for outpatients at a community mental health.

- A group, sponsored by a voluntary health association, for people who want to stop smoking.
- A hospital –sponsored group for people addicted to drug designed to help members relive from drug addiction.

Although there is often emphasis on support, therapy groups are distinguished from support groups by their focus on remediation and rehabilitation. Additionally while support groups place greater emphasis on members supporting and helping each other, in therapy groups the focus is on the leader assisting members in solving serious personal problems. The group leader is often viewed as an expert, an authority figure, and a change agent

Members of therapy groups may be homogenous or heterogeneous. Homogenous groups have members with similar problem. Heterogeneous groups have a mix of individuals with different issues. Therapy groups focus on helping group members to gain better understanding of themselves, improve their interpersonal relationships and coping skills through the group process. Members of therapy groups have much to gain: relief from symptom, loss of emotional pain, or resolution of a problem, when assisted by professional social interveners.

### **5. Socialization groups**

Socialization refers to the process through which a person acquire the necessary values, norms and skills that enable him/ or her to function as a member of society. Hence, socialization groups help members learn social skills and socially accepted behavior patterns so they can function effectively in the community. Socialization groups frequently use program activities such as games, role plays, or outings to help members accomplish individual goals.

The personal needs of members and the goals of the group are often meet via activities rather than member to member discussion as a way of change. Thus socialization groups use learning –by- doing approach to help members improve their interpersonal skills by participating in program activities.

Examples of socialization groups include the following:

- A Christian youth organization activity group designed to socialize youths with Christianity religion.
- A social club for out patients of a psychiatric center.

Intervention with socialization groups include designing programs, leading group members through the process and exercise and serving as expert or director.

### 3.4.1.2. Task Groups

Task groups are common in most agencies and organizations. The majorities of students have already participated in a task group, but may not have called it by name. If you have participated in educational planning meeting, being a member of a committee, being elected to student representative, or joined a social movement group, you have already experienced a task group in action.

Task groups can have three primary purposes: (1) meeting client needs, (2) meeting organizational needs, and (3) meeting community needs.

#### A) Groups to meet client needs

I) **Teams:** although empirical evidence for the effectiveness of interdisciplinary teams is limited, team work is often considered as the most effective method of delivering comprehensive social and health services to those in need. A team, according to Tosland, Palmer-Geneles, and Chapman (1986; 46), is " a number of individual staff members, each of whom possesses particular knowledge and skills, who come together to share their expertise with one another for a specific purpose."

Team members coordinate their efforts and work together on the behalf of a particular client group. Examples of teams include the following:

- A group of professionals working with stroke victims and their family members in a rehabilitation hospital.
- A group of professionals who deliver home based care for children with disabilities.
- A group of students learning in the residents of community members about how to asses the major problems and working to their solutions.

II. **Treatment conferences:** meet for the purpose of developing, monitoring, and coordinating treatment plans for a particular client or client system. Examples of treatment conferences include the following:

- An interdisciplinary group of professionals planning the discharge of a patient in a mental health facility
- A group of child –care workers, social workers, nurses, and a psychiatrist determining a treatment plan for a child in residential treatment.

- A group of community mental health professionals considering treatment methods for a young man experiencing severe depression.

### **III. Staff Development Groups**

The purpose of staff development groups is to improve services to clients by developing, updating, and refreshing worker's skills. Staff development groups provide workers with an opportunity to learn about new treatment approaches, resources, and community services; to practice new skills; and to review and learn from their previous work with clients. Examples of staff development groups include:

- A group of professional who attend a series of seminars about HIV/AIDS offered by a regional HIV/AIDS Center.
- Group supervision offered by an experienced social worker for social workers who work in schools in which there are no supervisors
- A program coordinator who conducts a weekly supervisory group for paraprofessionals who work in a community outreach program for isolated elderly people.

Ideally, leaders of staff development groups are often experts in a particular field. Often they also possess extensive experience and knowledge gathered through specialized training, study and reflection on difficult practice issues.

### **B) Groups to Meet Organizational Needs**

**I. Committees:** are the most common of task groups. Committees are groups designed to deal with a particular issue or task. A committee is made up of people who are appointed or elected to the group. Committees may be temporary creations (ad hoc committees) or more permanent parts of the structure of an organization (standing committees). Examples of committees may include:

- A group of employees assigned the task of studying and recommending changes in the agencies personnel policy.
- A group of social workers considering ways to improve service delivery.
- A group of instructors assigned to develop curriculum for summer undergraduate program in sociology.

**II. Cabinets:** are designed to provide advice and expertise about policy issues to chief executive officers or other high-level administrators. Policies, procedures, and practices are

discussed, developed, or modified in cabinets before being announced by a senior administrative officer. Examples of cabinet groups include the following:

- A meeting of department heads in a university faculty.
- A weekly meeting of supervisory social work staff and the director of social services in a large municipal hospital.
- A regular meeting of sector heads of government officials in Gondar city at the Gondar municipal.

Unlike committee members, who may be elected or appointed, cabinet members are often appointed by the chief executive director. Cabinet members are typically supervisors, department heads, or senior managers with powerful positions in the organization.

### **III. Board of Directors**

A board of director is a governing body responsible for setting policy that governs organization. There are two primary types of boards: the governing board and advisory board. Governing boards- also called board of trustees- are legally and financially responsible for the conduct of the organization. The primary functions of board of directors are policy making, oversight of agency operation, ensuring the financial integrity and stability of the organization, and public-relations. Board of directors, however, can't manage the day to day activity of the organization so they hire and supervise the organization top executive (might be called manager, chancellor, president or director). Therefore, the most important decision a board makes is the selection of the organizations' managers. But yet since top level officials will not be able to engage in day to day activities of specific activities, boards usually establish subcommittees.

Examples of board of directors include the following:

- Trustees of a large public hospital
- Members of the governing board of a family service agency
- Individuals on the citizens advisory board to a country department of social services
- Boards of national universities

### **C) Groups to Meet Community Needs**

**I) Social Action Groups:** empower members to engage in collective action and planned change efforts to alter some aspect of their social or physical environment. Participation in collective action to bring change in the social environment or large systems, to correct injustice or enhance the quality of human life, is the target of social action groups. They are often referred

to as "grass roots" organizations because they arise from the concerns of individuals in the community who may have little individual power or status.

Examples of social action groups include:

- a citizen's group advocating increased police protection on behalf of the elderly population in a neighborhood
- A group of social workers lobbying for increased funding for social services.
- A group of community leaders working to increase the access of Africa Americans to a mental health agency.

## **II) Delegated Councils**

Delegated councils are composed for the purpose of facilitating interagency communication and cooperation, studying community wide social issues or social problems, engaging in collective social action, and governing large organizations. Representation is an important issue in delegate councils. The members' primary function is to represent the interest of their sponsoring unit during council meetings. Examples of delegate councils include the following:

- A number of agency representatives who meet monthly to improve interagency communication.
- A group of elected representatives from local chapters of a professional organization who meet to approve the organization's budget.
- A yearly meeting of representatives from family service agencies through out the country.

### **3.5. Understanding Group Dynamics**

Now that we have surveyed the definitions and types of groups, let's look at what happens within groups, especially the ways in which individuals affect groups and the ways in which groups affect individuals. The forces that result from these reciprocal interactions of group members are often referred to as group dynamics. Because group dynamics influence the behavior of both individual group members and the group as a whole; they have been of considerable interest to group workers for many years. A thorough understanding of group dynamics is useful for practicing with any type of group.

Groups can unleash both harmful and helpful forces. One of the worker's most important tasks is to help groups develop dynamics that promote the satisfaction of members' socio-emotional needs while facilitating the accomplishment of group tasks.

In this case, there are four dimensions of group dynamics are of particular importance to group workers in understanding and working effectively with all types of task and treatment groups:

1. Communication and interaction patterns.
2. Cohesion
3. Social control mechanisms
4. Group culture

### **3.5.1. Communication and Interaction Patterns**

According to Northern (1969), "social interaction is a term used to refer to the dynamic interplay of forces in which contact between persons results in a modification of the behavior and attitudes of the participants"(p.17). Verbal and nonverbal communications are the components of social interaction. Communication is a process by which people convey meanings to each other by using symbols. Communication entails (1) the encoding of a persons perceptions, thoughts, and feelings in to language and other symbols, (2) the transmission of these symbols or languages, and (3) the decoding of the transmission by another person.

As members of a group communicate to one another, a reciprocal pattern of interaction emerges. The interaction pattern that develops can be beneficial or harmful to the group. A group worker who is knowledgeable about helpful communications and interactions can intervene in the patterns that are established to help the group achieve desired goals and to ensure the socioemotional satisfaction of members.

### **Communication as a Process**

The first step in understanding and intervening in interaction patterns is for the worker to be aware that, whenever people are together in a group, they are communicating. All communications are intended to convey a message. In addition to meanings transmitted in every communication; however, the worker should also be aware that messages are often received selectively. Selective perception refers to the screening of messages so they are congruent with one's belief system. Such selecting or screening sometimes results in blocking of messages so that they are not decoded and received. A lot of factors may cause selective

perception including, life positions that result from experiences in early childhood, stereotypes, the status and position of the communicator, previous experiences, and assumptions and values. Thus what might appear to a naïve observer as a simple, straightforward, and objective social interaction might have hidden meaning for both the sender and the receiver.

Communications can also be distorted in transmission. Among the most common transmission problems are language barriers. Interference with effective communication can also come from noise and other distortions inside or outside meeting room. Similarly, learning or eyesight problems can create difficulties in receiving messages. Thus, when working with groups, the practitioner should be alert to physical problems that may impair communication.

Generally, to prevent distortions in communications from causing misunderstandings and conflict, it is important that members receive feedback about their communications. Feedback is a way of checking that the meanings of the communicated message are understood correctly. For feedback to be used appropriately it should:

- Describe the content of the communication or the behavior as it is perceived by the group member.
- Be given to the member who sent the message as soon as the message is received.
- Be expressed in tentative manner so that those who sent the messages understand that the feedback is designed to check for distortions rather than to confront or attack them.

### **Interaction patterns**

In addition to becoming aware of communication process, the worker must also consider patterns of interaction that developed in a group. A variety of interaction patterns have been identified in social work literature (Middlemann, 1980). These could be described as follows.

1. **Maypole**, in which the leader is the central figure and communication occurs from leader to member or from member to leader.
2. **Round robin**, in which members take turns talking.
3. **Hot seat**, in which there is an extended back and forth exchange between the leader and a member as the other members watch.
4. **Free floating** in which all members take responsibility for communicating according to what is being said and not said in the group.

The first three patterns are leader centered because the leader structures them. The fourth pattern is group centered because it emerges from the initiative of group members.

In most situations, workers should strive to facilitate the development of group centered rather than leader-centered interaction patterns. In group centered patterns, members interact with each other freely. Communications between members are open. In leader –centered patterns, communication patterns are directed from members to the worker or from the worker to group members, thereby reducing members' opportunities to communicate freely with each other.

Group centered interaction patterns tend to increase social interaction, group morale, members commitment to group goals and innovative decision making. However, such patterns can be less efficient than leader-centered patterns because communication may be superfluous or extraneous to group tasks (Shaw, 1964). Sorting out useful communication can take a tremendous amount of group time. Therefore, in task groups that are making routine decisions, when time constraints are important and when there is little need for creative problem solving, the worker may deliberately choose to encourage leader-centered rather than group-centered interaction patterns.

To establish and maintain appropriate interaction patterns, the worker should be familiar with the factors that influence them. Patterns of interaction are influenced by:

- The cues and reinforcement that members receive for specific interaction exchanges. Cues such as words or gestures can act as signals to group members to talk more or less frequently to one another or to the worker.
- The emotional bond that develop between members. Positive emotional bonds such as interpersonal liking and attraction increase interpersonal interaction, and negative emotional bonds reduce solidarity between members and result in decreased interpersonal interaction.
- The subgroups that develop in the group. Subgroups form from the emotional bonds and interest alliances or similarities. They occur naturally in the group. There are a variety of subgroups, including dyad, Triad, clique, and isolates. The practitioner should not view sub-groups as a threat to the integrity of the group unless the attraction of members within a subgroup becomes greater than their attraction to the group as a whole. The worker may also encourage sub group formation especially in tasks groups that are too large and cumbersome for detailed work to be accomplished, such as committees, and delegate councils to help the group task is divided among different subgroups and approved by the group as a whole. The formation of intense

subgroups, however, can be a problem. They may substitute their own goals and methods of attaining them for the goals of the larger group. They can disturb the group by communicating among themselves while others are speaking. Subgroup members may fail to listen to members who are not a part of the subgroup. Ultimately, intense and consistent subgroup formation can negatively affect the performance of the group as a whole.

- The size and physical arrangement of the group. As the size of the group increases, the possibilities for potential relationships increase dramatically. As groups grow larger, each member has more social relationships to be aware of and to maintain, but less opportunity to maintain them. If you take a comparison of dyad and triad; in dyad the relationship is only between two individuals making the relationship very intense. But in dyad the addition of one more individual to the dyad significantly changes the interaction pattern. Triad, as compared to dyad, involves less intense interaction. In dyad the relationship is very unstable. If one individual becomes not interested in the group, the whole group relationship will deconstruct. But in triad, the group can continue with the left two individuals. The triad can also be divided into dyad and an isolate. Still the triad may involve a person playing a role of mediator or an arbitrator between the other two individuals whenever a conflict arises. Look how much the interaction may change significantly because of the addition of one person. As a general rule here we can say (1) as the size of the group increases, the intensity of interaction will be less but the probability of stability of the group increases, (2) as the size of the group increases, a reduced chance to participate leads to dissatisfaction and a lack of commitment to decision made by the group, (3) increased group size also tends to lead to subgroup formation as members strive to get to know those seated near to them.

The physical arrangement of group members also influences interaction patterns. For example members who sit in circles have an easier time communicating with each other than do members who sit in rows. Thus, because circular seating arrangements promote face-to-face interaction they are preferred from other arrangements. There may be times, however, when the group leader prefers a different arrangement. For example, the leader of

a task group may wish to sit at the head of a rectangular table to convey his or her status or power.

- The power and status relationships in the group. Two other factors affecting communication and interaction patterns are the relative power and status on the basis of their position and prestige in the community, their physical attributes, and their position in the agency sponsoring the group. As group develops, members' status and power change, depending on how important a member is in helping the group accomplish its tasks or in helping other members meet their socioemotional needs. When members carry out roles that are important to the group, their power and status increase. When a member enjoys high status and power, other members are likely to direct their communications to that member.

### **Principles for practice**

With basic information about the nature of communication and interaction patterns in groups, workers can intervene in any group to modify or change the patterns that develop. Workers may find the following principle about communication and interaction patterns helpful:

1. Members of the group are always communicating. Workers should assess communication processes continually and help members communicate effectively through out the life of a group.
2. Communication patterns can be changed. Strategies for doing this start with identifying patterns during the group or at the end of group meetings during a brief time set aside to discuss group process. Workers then can reinforce desired interaction patterns; increase or decrease emotional bonds between members; change subgroups, group size, or group structure; or alter the power or status relationships in a group.
3. Members communicate for a purpose. Workers should help members understand each other's intentions by clarifying them through group discussion.
4. There is meaning in all communication. Workers should help members understand and appreciate the meanings of different communications.
5. Messages are often perceived selectively. Workers should help members listen to what others are communicating.

6. Messages may be distorted in transmission. Workers should help members clarify verbal and nonverbal communications that are unclear or ambiguous.
7. Feedback and clarification enhances accurate understanding of communications. The worker should educate members about how to give and receive effective feedback and model these methods in the group.
8. Open, group- centered communications are often, but not always, the preferred pattern of interaction. The worker should encourage communication patterns that are appropriate to the purpose of the group.

### 3.5.2. Group Cohesion

Group cohesion is the sum of all variables influencing members to stay on the group. It occurs when the positive attractions of a group outweigh negative implications a member may encounter. The word cohesion is derived from Latin and can be translated in literary as the "act of sticking together". A group's level of cohesion is constantly changing as events alter each member's feelings and attitudes about the group. People are attracted to groups for a variety of reasons. According to Cartwright (1968), four interacting sets of variables determine a member's attraction to a group:

- The need for affiliation, recognition, and security
- The resources and prestige available through group participation
- Expectations of the beneficial and detrimental consequence of the group.
- The comparison of the group with other group experiences.

The extent of a member's attraction to and involvement in a group can be measured by his or her perceptions of the payoffs and costs. They are infinite because they vary from individual to individual, but the following lists offer a brief indication of possibilities:

<b>Pay offs</b>	<b>Costs</b>
Companionship	being with people one dislikes
Attaining personal goals	expanding time and effort
Prestige	criticism
Enjoyment	distasteful tasks
Emotional support	boring meetings

The higher the level of attraction (payoffs), the greater the attractive qualities of cohesion. Therefore group leaders should constantly try to increase attractive qualities of a group.

Cohesive groups satisfy members' need for affiliation. Some members have a need to socialize because their relationships outside the group are unsatisfactory or nonexistent. Cohesive groups also recognize members' accomplishments, and promote members sense of competence. Members are attracted to the group when they feel that their participation is valued and when they feel they are well-liked.

Members reason for being attracted to a group affect how they perform in the group. For example, Back(1951) found that members who were attracted to a group primarily because they perceived other members as similar or as potential friends related on a personal level in the group and more frequently engaged in conversations not focused on the group's task. Members attracted by the group's task wanted to complete it quickly and efficiently and maintained task-relevant conversations. Members attracted by the prestige of group membership will be cautious not to risk their status in the group. They initiated few controversial topics and focused on their own actions rather than on those of other group members.

Cohesion can affect the functioning of individual members and the group as a whole in many ways. Research and clinical observations have documented that cohesion tends to increase

- Expression of positive and negative feelings
- Willingness to listen
- Effective use of other members' feedback and evaluations
- Members' influence over each other
- Feelings of self confidence and self-esteem, and personal adjustment.
- Satisfaction with the group experience.
- Perseverance toward goals
- Willingness to take responsibility for group functioning
- Goal attainment , individual and group performance, and organizational commitment
- Attendance, membership maintenance, and length of participation.

It also should be pointed out that cohesion can have some negative effects on the functioning of a group. Cohesion is a necessary, but not sufficient, ingredient in the development of "group

think". According to Janis (1972;9), group think is " a mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when the members' strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative course of action". In addition to encouraging pathological conformity, cohesion can lead to dependence on the group. This can be particularly vexing problem in intensive therapy groups with members who started the group experience with severe problems and poor self-images. Thus, while promoting the development of cohesion in groups, the worker should ensure that members' individuality is not sacrificed. Members should be encouraged to express divergent opinions and to respect divergent opinions expressed by other group members. It is also important to adequately prepare members for group termination and independent functioning.

### **Principles for practice**

Because cohesion has many benefits, workers should strive for make groups attractive to members. Workers may find the following principles helpful when trying to enhance a group's cohesiveness:

1. A high level of open interaction promotes cohesiveness. The worker should use group discussions and program activities to encourage interaction among members.
2. When members' needs are met, they want to continue participating. Therefore, the worker should help members identify their needs and how they can be met in the group.
3. Achieving group goals makes the group more attractive to its members. The worker should help members focus on and achieve goals.
4. Noncompetitive intra group relationships that affirm members' perceptions and points of view increase group cohesion. The worker should help group members to cooperate rather than compete with each other.
5. Competitive inter group relationships help to define a group's identity and purpose, there by heightening members' cohesion. The worker can use naturally occurring inter group competition to build intra group bonds.
6. A group that is too large can decrease members' attraction to the group by obstructing their full participation. The worker should compose a group that gives all members the opportunity to be fully involved.

7. When members' expectations are understood and addressed, members feel as if they are part of the group. The worker should help members clarify their expectations, and should strive for congruence between members' expectations and the purpose of the group.
8. Groups that offer rewards, resources, status, or prestige that members would not obtain by themselves tend to be attractive. Therefore, workers should help groups to be rewarding experiences for members.
9. Pride in being a member of a group can increase cohesion. The worker should help the group develop pride in its identity and purpose.

If the costs of participation in a group exceed the benefits, members may stop attending (Thibaut & Kelley, 1954). Although workers can not ensure that all factors that are present in every group, they should strive to make sure that the group is as attractive as possible to each member who participates.

### 3.5.3. Social Control Dynamics

Without a certain amount of conformity and compliance, group interaction becomes chaotic and unpredictable, and the group is unable to function effectively. Social control is a term used to describe the processes by which the group as a whole gains sufficient compliance and conformity from its members to enable it to function in an orderly manner. Social control results from forces generated by several interrelated factors, including the norms that develop in the group and the roles and status of individual group members. Social control can be used by workers and members to gain compliance from deviant group members. Yet social controls that are too stringent can reduce group attraction and lead to intra group conflict and dissatisfaction.

The extent of social controls varies from group to group. In groups with strong social controls, members must give up a great deal of their freedom and individuality. In some groups this is necessary for effective functioning. For example, in a delegate council in which members are representing the views of their organization, there may be little room for individual preference and viewpoints. In other groups, however, members may have a great deal of freedom within a broad range of acceptable behavior. The following section describes how norms, roles, status, and other social control mechanisms can satisfy members' socio-emotional needs while simultaneously promoting efficient and effective group functioning.

## Norms

Norms are shared expectations and beliefs about appropriate ways to act in social situation such as a group. They refer to specific member behaviors and to the overall pattern of in a group. Norms are generally the unwritten, unstated rules that govern the behavior of a group. Norms often just evolve and are socially enforced through social sanctioning. Norms are often passed down through time by a culture or society. Norms are intended to provide stability to a group and only a few in a group will refuse to abide by the norms. A group may hold onto norms that are no longer needed, similar to holding on to bad habits just because they have always been part of the group. Some norms are unhealthy and cause a poor communication among people. Often groups are not aware of the unwritten norms that exist. New people to the group have to discover these norms on their own over a period of time and may face sanction just because they did not know a norm existed.

Norms stabilize and regulate behavior in groups. By providing guidelines for acceptable and appropriate behavior, norms increase predictability, stability, and security for members and help to encourage organized and coordinated action to reach goal.

Norms vary in important ways. Norms may be overt or covert. Overt norms are those that can be articulated by the leader and the members. In contrast, covert norms exert important influences on the way members behave and interact without ever talked about or discussed. Norms also vary according to the extent that people consider them binding. Some norms are strictly enforced where as others are rarely enforced. Some norms are more elastic than others; that is some permit a great deal of leeway in behavior, but others prescribe narrow and specific behaviors. Norms also have various degrees of saliency for group members. For some members, a particular norm may exert great influence, but for others it may exert little influence.

Group norms tend to cluster a round the following types of activity:

**Participation :** For example norms determine whether or not quite members are encouraged to talk, whether monopolies are tolerated, whether there is a value placed on only one person talking at a time, and whether members are expected let someone know if they can't attend.

**Decision making:** for example norms govern whether decisions are made by consensus, by voting, by who ever shouts the loudest, or by every one going along with what task leader suggests.

**Mutual aid:** group norms may encourage the development of mutual aid and support, or they may discourage this development.

**Affective expression:** norms may encourage or discourage members expressing feelings about the group; this kind of expression may even be a taboo

Because norms are developed through the interactions of group members, they discourage the capricious use of power by the leader or by any one group members. They also reduce the need for excessive control to be imposed on the group from external forces.

Deviations from group norms are not necessarily harmful to a group. Deviations can often help groups move in a new directions or challenge old ways of accomplishing tasks that are no longer functional. Norms may be dysfunctional or unethical, and it may be beneficial for members to deviate from them. For example, in a treatment group, norms develop that make it difficult for members to express intense emotions. Members who deviate from this norm help the group re-examine its norms and enable members to deepen their level of communication. The worker should try to understand the meaning of deviations from group norms and the implications for group functioning. It can also be helpful to point out covert norms and to help groups examine whether these contribute to the effective functioning of the group. Because norms are so pervasive and powerful, norms are somewhat more difficult to change than role expectations or status hierarchies. The worker should strive to ensure that the developing norms are beneficial for the group. Recognizing the difficulty of changing norms, Lewin (1947) suggested that three stages are necessary for changing the equilibrium and the status quo that hold norms constant. There must be first be disequilibrium or unfreezing caused by a crisis or other tension-producing situation. During this period, group members re-examine the current group norms. Some times a crisis may be induced by the worker through discussion or demonstration of how current norms will affect the group in the future. In other cases, dysfunctional norms lead to a crisis.

New norms become the recognized and accepted rules by which the group functions. Napier and Gershened (1993) have suggested ways that norms can be changed, including the following:

1. Discussing, diagnosing, and making explicit decisions about group norms.
2. Directly intervening in the group to change.
3. deviating from a norm and helping a group to adapt a new response
4. Helping the group become aware of external influences and their effect on the group's norms
5. Hiring a consultant to work with the group to change its norms.

### **Roles**

Like norms, roles can also be an important influence on group members. Roles are closely related to norms. Where as norms are shared expectations, held, to some extent, by every one in the group. Unlike norms, which define behavior in a wide range of situations, roles define behavior in relation to a specific function or task that the group member is expected to perform. Roles continue to emerge and evolve as the work of the group changes over time.

Roles are important for groups because they allow for division of labor and appropriate use of power. They ensure that some one will be designed to take care of vital group functions. Roles provide social control in groups by prescribing how members should behave in certain situations. Performing in a certain role not only prescribes certain behavior but also limits members' freedom to deviate from the expected behavior of someone who performs that role. For example, it would be viewed as in appropriate for an educational group leader to express feelings and emotional reactions about a personal issue that was not relevant to the topic.

Change or modifications of roles are best undertaken by discussing members' roles, clarifying the responsibilities and the privilege of existing roles, asking members to assume new roles, or adding new roles according to preferences expressed during the group's discussion.

### **Status**

Along with norms and role expectations, social controls are also exerted through members' status in a group. Status refers to an evaluation and ranking of each member's position in the group relative to all other members. A person's status with in a group is partially determined by his or her prestige, position, and recognized expertise out side the group. To some extent, however, status is also dependant on the situation. In one group, status may be determined by a member's position sponsoring the group. In another group, status may be determined by how well a member is liked by other group members, how much the group relies on the members' expertise, or how much responsibility the member has in the group. It is also determined by how a person acts once he or she becomes a member of a group. Because status is defined

relative to other group members, a person status in a group is also affected by the other members who compose the group.

Status serves a social control function in a rather complex manner. Low status members are the least likely to conform to group norms because they have little to lose by deviating. This behavior is less likely if they have hopes of gaining a higher status. Medium status group members tend to conform to group norms so that they can retain their status and perhaps gain a higher status. High status members perform many valued services for the group and generally conform to valued group norms when they are establishing their position. However, because of their position, high status members have more freedom to deviate from accepted norms. They are often expected to do something special and creative when the group is in crisis situation. If medium or low-status members consistently deviate from group norms, their status in the group is diminished, but they are rarely threatened with severe sanctions or forced to leave the group.

Status hierarchies are most easily changed by the addition or removal of group members. If this is not possible, group discussion may help members express their opinions and feelings about the effects of the current status hierarchy and how to modify it. Changing members' role in the group and helping them to achieve a more visible or responsible position within the group can also increase members' status.

### **Principle for Practice**

Norms, roles and status are interrelated concepts that affect the social controls exerted on individuals in the group. Social controls limit individual freedom, and independence. At the same time, social controls stabilize and regulate the operation of groups by helping them to function efficiently and effectively. Therefore, in working with task and treatment groups, workers should balance the needs of individuals and of the group as a whole, managing conformity and deviation, while ensuring that social controls are working to benefit rather than hinder limit individual members and the whole group. Workers may find the following principles about social control dynamics helpful when facilitating a group.

1. Social controls dynamics help regulate and stabilize group functioning so that members can accomplish individual and group goals. The worker should help group members' assess the extent to which norms, roles, and status hierarchies are helping the group accomplish its goals.

2. Group structure helps ensure the development of social control dynamics. The worker should provide sufficient structure so that a group functioning does not become, chaotic, disorganized, unsafe, or unduly anxiety provoking.
3. Too much structure can produce social control dynamics that restrict members' ability to exercise their own judgment and free will, and to accomplish agreed-on-goals. The worker should ensure that there is freedom and independence within the range of acceptable behaviors agreed to by the group.
4. Members choose to adhere to social control dynamics when they consider the group's goals important and meaningful. Therefore, workers should emphasize the importance of the group's work and the meaningfulness of each member's contributions.
5. Members choose to adhere to social control dynamics in groups that are attractive and cohesive. Workers should help make the group a satisfying experience for members.
6. Members choose to adhere to social control dynamics when they desire continued membership because of their own needs or because of pressure from sources within or outside the group. Therefore, workers should consider the incentives for members to participate in a group.
7. Rewards and sanctions can help members comply with norms, status, and role expectations. The worker should assess whether rewards and sanctions are being used to help members comply with fair and equitable social control dynamics agreed on by the group.
- 8.

#### **3.5.4. Group culture**

All groups have a culture consists of traditions, customs, values and norms shared by group members. Culture affects how members react and interact with one another and the leader, typical coping styles used, how work is done, and how status and power are distributed. This culture either exists prior to the worker's involvement with groups or after group formation.

When the membership of a group is diverse, group culture emerges slowly. Group culture refers to values, beliefs, customs, and or traditions held in common by group members (Olmsted, 1959). When members share common life experience and similar set of values, their unique perspectives blend more quickly in to a group culture.

Once established, culture is also influenced by the environment in which a group functions. Groups that address community needs often have much interaction with their environment. When analyzing a change opportunity, building a constituency, or deciding how to implement

an action plan, groups set out to address community needs must carefully consider dominant community values and traditions. The receptivity of powerful individuals within a community will be determined to some extent by how consistent a group's actions are with the values and traditions they hold in high regard. Whenever possible, groups attempting to address community needs should frame their efforts within the context of dominant community values. The practitioner can help by attempting to find the common ground in the values of the community and the group. When a group's actions are perceived to be in conflict with community values, it is unlikely to receive the support of influential community leaders.

### **Principles for practice**

The culture that a group has a powerful influence on its ability to achieve its goals while satisfying members' socio-emotional needs. A culture that emphasizes values of self-determination, openness, fairness, and diversity of opinion can do much to facilitate the achievement of group and individual goals. Sometimes members bring ethnic, cultural, or social stereotypes to the group and thus inhibit the group's development and effective functioning. Through interaction and discussion, workers can help members confront stereotypes and learn to understand appreciate persons who bring different values and cultural and ethnic heritages to the group.

In helping the group build a positive culture, the worker should consider the following principles:

1. Group culture emerges from the mix of values that members bring to the group. The worker should help members examine, compare, and respect each other's value systems.
2. Group culture is also affected by the values of the agency, the community, and the society that sponsor and sanction the group. The worker should help members' identity and understand these values.
3. Group workers and members hold stereotypes that interfere with their ability to interact with each other. Workers should help members eliminate stereotypical ways of relating to each other and develop an awareness of their own stereotypes.
4. Value conflicts can reduce group cohesion and, in extreme case, lead to demise of the group. The worker should mediate value conflicts among members and the larger society.

5. Group culture can exert a powerful influence on members' values. The worker should model values such as openness, self-determination, fairness, and acceptance of difference, which are fundamental to intervention with social work.
6. Groups are most satisfying when they meet members' socioemotional and instrumental needs. Therefore, the worker should balance members' needs for emotional expressiveness with their needs to accomplish specific goals.

### **3.5.5. Stages of Group Development**

According to Northern (1969), a stage is a differentiable period or a discernible degree in the process of growth and development. Most groups proceed through identifiable stages of development in their progression toward full maturity, varying only in tempo and in complexity of issues in each stage. A group's entire social structure, its communication and interaction patterns, cohesion, social controls, and culture evolve as it develops. Without knowledge of stages, leaders are prone to make errors, such as expecting group members to begin in-depth explorations in initial sessions or concluding that they have failed in their role when groups manifest the turmoil and discord typical of early development. Further, they may not intervene at critical periods in a group's development to assist groups, for example, to "stay on task", to "count in" all members in decision making, to foster free expression of feelings, or to adopt many other behaviors that are hallmarks of a seasoned group. Therefore, an in-depth understanding of development is essential for the effective practice with groups.

Though many of the models contain similar stages, many writers have developed different types of group development models (Bales, 1950; Northern, 1969, Klein, 1972; Hartford, 1971; Trecker, 1972 E.t.c). But Tuckman stages of group development are commonly used to describe the stages of group development. According to him group develops in five stages: forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning.

#### **Stage -1- Forming (orientation and initiation)**

Forming is the stage when the group first comes together. Groups strongly depend on the worker for guidance and direction. Since the group is new, members tend to be more reserved to participate actively. Group members have a desire for acceptance by the group and they want to know that the group is safe. Conflict is not apparent in this stage. There is highly anxiety and little trust. The major task function is orientation. Members attempt to become oriented to the group goals and procedures of the group as well as to one another. To grow from this stage to the next, each member must relinquish the comfort of non-threatening topics and risk the possibility of conflict.

The leader role is to assist members by encouraging participation, supporting positive group norms (informal rules of behavior), and helping members rely more on one another.

## **Stage 2- storming (Redefinition)**

The storming stage is characterized by resistance, competition, and conflict. There exist conflicts over leadership, structure, power, and authority. Roles become defined and different levels of motivation become apparent. The challenge of this group stage is to make individuals to express their feeling productivity. They may be disagreement over goals agreed up on in the pervious stage. The leader should provide clarification about roles and encourage open discussion of conflict. Eventually, it is important to make the group become responsible for its decision. Recognizing that conflict is expected, acceptable, and often even healthy is also important.

## **Stage 3-Norming (setting the rules)**

This stage is characterized by cohesion and integration with in the group. The group members work out an agreement about how the group operates. People begin to experience a feeling of group belongingness. Members begin to feel secure in expressing their ideas and develop trust in the process of working together. Anxiety diminished among most members since they know the rule of the group. Groups in this stage understand the goals and tasks more thoroughly and are willing to work hard to achieve these goals. The leader role is to support members in doing their activities productively. Besides the leader should focus on making the group members less dependant on his/her own leadership.

## **Stage -4 Performing (Getting the job done)**

This stage is the "working" phase of the group. It is characterized by productivity, autonomy, unity, and commitment within the group. The group focuses on achieving its goals. Group members will assume roles that are necessary to achieve goals and learn independency with dependency. Trust becomes high. The leader takes a less active role by allowing the group members to run the work of the group. The role of the worker is more likely to consult and advice the group.

## **Stage 5: Adjourning (Termination)**

This is the stage in which group members disengage from relationship and terminate their work together. Termination is a difficult stage for members who have invested heavily in the group; have experienced intensive support, encouragement, and understanding; and have received effective aid for problems. In this phase, there are often feelings of loss when the

group ends, but there also may be angry feelings. Preparation for termination begins within the first session. The worker should expect and realize that members may need help to accept and discuss their feelings. The worker role is to help members deal with their feelings associated with the termination of the group; in addition, the worker helps participants plan on ways to maintain and generalize the gains each member has made.

Groups are terminated when the purpose for which they were established are achieved. Some groups are initiated with a predetermined termination date, while termination for other groups is related to meeting group and personal goals of the members.

It is beneficial to realize that the stages described above are ideal. Individual groups may not proceed exactly as outlined earlier. Some groups will seem to skip a stage or move backward instead of forward from time to time. For example, some groups may try to jump from forming to performing to immediately accomplish a task; others may consistently revert to storming after once being norming. Remember, failure to proceed in the precise manner described earlier is neither unhealthy sign nor necessarily problematic.

As described earlier, the role of the leader shifts and changes with the development of the group. The shifting role of leader is cast along a continuum from primarily to facilitative, depending on the needs, capacities, and characteristics of the group's members and stage of group development. The social worker must be flexible and adaptable when working with groups because they vary so drastically in purpose, composition, and dynamics.

### **Principles for Practice**

If group development is a process then the worker can work to affect it in a way that promotes effective and efficient accomplishment of the group's goals. This professional intervention should also be guided principles for its meaningful accomplishment. The following practice principles are derived from an understanding about of group development.

1. Close membership groups develop in discernible and predictable stages. The worker should use systematic methods of observing and assessing the development of the group and should teach group members about the predictable stages of group development.
2. The development of open membership groups depends on member turnover. The worker should help open-membership groups develop a simple structure and a clear culture to help new members integrate rapidly in to the group.

3. Groups generally begin with members exploring the purpose of the group and the roles of the worker and each member. The worker should provide a safe and positive group environment so that members can fully explore the group's purpose and the resources available to accomplish the group's goals.
4. After, the initial stage of development, groups often experience a period of norm development, role testing, and status awareness that results in expressions of difference among members and the leader. The worker should help members understand that these expressions of difference are normal part of group development.
5. Structure has been demonstrated to increase member satisfaction, increase feelings of safety, and reduce conflict in early group meetings. A lack of structure can lead to feelings of an anxiety, insecurity, and can lead to acting out and projection. Therefore, the worker should provide sufficient structure for group interaction, particularly in early group meetings.
6. Tension or conflict sometimes develops from difference among members. The worker should help the group resolve the conflict by helping the group develop norms emphasizing the importance of respect and tolerance and by mediating the differences and finding a common ground for productive work together.
7. Groups enter the middle stage characterized by increased group cohesion and a focus on task accomplishment. To encourage movement toward this stage, the worker should help members stay focused on the purpose of the group, challenge members to develop an appropriate culture for work, and help the group overcome obstacles to goal achievement.

### **3.6. Group Work Models**

Although there are divergent approaches to group work with in the social work profession and allied disciplines, a generalist approach suggest that each approach has its merits and particular practice application. As well Group goals and objectives, will determine the group model employed. Wilson (1976) writes " the nature of the framework for the practice of group work depends on the purpose of the group {that is} served. Three group work models have been developed in the literature. These include: Social goals, remedial, and reciprocal.

### **3.6.1. Social Goals Approach**

The social goals approach for work with groups has derived from a variety of sources. Early contributors were Gracy Coyle, Gisela Konopka, and Gertrude Wilson and Gads Ryland. Recent theoretical contributions have come from Alan Klein and those at the Boston university school of social work.

The major hypothesis of this theory is: if a group and its members are influenced by its members to establish a common cause and convert self-seeking behavior in to a social contribution in group process, then members will develop their skills for meaningful and responsible social participation. Groups serving the social goals are formed, and continue, because of socially determined interests, which if attained, bring about important social gains for the group. This model is closely identified with the group interest and effort.

#### **Goals**

The overriding goal for the group experience is to develop each member's social competence<sup>s</sup>. The primary theoretical base is developmental psychology, (specially the work of Erik Erickson) and social system theory.

#### **Focus**

The social goals model focuses on socializing members to democratic societal values. It values cultural diversity and the power of group action. The worker uses program activities, such as camping, discussions, and instructions about democratic process, to socialize members. He or she acts to empower members by helping them make collective decisions and use their collective strength to make society more responsive to their needs.

The workers influence on group process is focused on interpersonal communication skills, the group as evolving social systems, International problems, and potential with in the system, and the development of members' self-disclosure and self concept. The workers basic main roles include influencer, enabler, or guide- one who uses self and a variety of programming skills to promote to development of inter member closeness and the group's awareness of its needs, goals, and resources in relation to members' tasks inside and outside the group.

#### **Intervention**

Since the group's purpose informs its composition, the worker should think about its purpose before establishment of the group. Before a group begins, members are seen in a brief interview to clarify the groups purpose, to begin a contract of mutual expectations for the

purpose and to decide about joining the group. The first meeting of the group is marked by feeling out and testing the social situation. Anxiety is paramount. Behavior reflects this anxiety as members are cautious of one another and of close interpersonal relations. The climate is tense, reserved, and hostile; fearing rejection themselves, members often reject other members. While the atmosphere often seems accepting and sociable, it is not.

The themes in the first phase are anxiety, a desire for fear of closeness, a desire to reveal one self and be known but a fear of being vulnerable, a desire to be helped but reluctance to pay the price. The worker must be responsible to these feelings as he conducts himself and as he considers the program. This phase may last for several weeks or it may go on for a long time depending up on how mistrusting the people are and also how trustworthy the situation proves to be.

As members develop trust in one another, moving the second phase, and a feeling of security about the group experience the focus shifts to the evolving power structure in the group. Conscious (stated), unviewed (conscious but unstated), and unconscious (neither conscious nor stated) goals of the group and its members are sought in the context of testing who is going to control the group. But it is through the worker's establishment of a democratic climate that group experience will move from the anxious prime stage to this phase when members find their niche in the group. In fact "the principles of democratic group process that are fundamental to this model have become the hall mark of all social group practice" Papell & Rothman (1999) cited in <sup>A</sup>. Every practitioner tends to work toward the adoption and institutionalization of democratic procedures in small group. With in the democratic climate, group members learn that they truly are free and that what happens in the group is up to them. Then they start to recommit to the group's purpose and goals, which helps members to develop social competence.

The next phase will be a time when group members become relieved of the struggle for power. This is a time to clarify their purpose and of planning group events. This period is characterized by the establishment of direction and motivation. A unique group culture is now visible. The collection of people has become a group, ready to work on its tasks. Members can accept and trust each other and the worker; personal involvement can increase. There is a strengthening of cohesion and a desire to achieve group goals. It is towards the end of the third

phase of group development that the question of what members are really there for is raised even though the purpose has been discussed before a contract negotiated.

Helping members to resolve the conflicts of earlier phases of the group development requires the worker's calmness and perceptiveness. It also requires the worker's feedback to the group about its evolving structure and process. All members are validated in the workers interaction with the group. The worker supports mutual aid and interpersonal closeness, ignores non-productive contributions, and teaches members to perform in ways that benefit the entire group. The worker personally reinforces egalitarianism, person to person relationships (rather than power and domination), and mutuality and intimacy.

A major aspect of this approach is feedback. Feedback helps members to be aware of their conflicts and tactics, to compare their behavior with their contract for the group and their desire to help, and to become empathic to the needs and hurts of others. Another major part of the approach is the worker's personal demonstration of how one behaves to others and especially how people in positions of authority can act in behalf of others. The problems of the group, for instance, are made group problems, and the group is expected to deal with them.

At the point the group establishes its own purpose and assumes responsibility for achieving it, the group can mobilize its own resources in behalf of its needs.

### **Social Treatment / Remedial Model**

The primary theorist for the social treatment approach to group work is Robert Vinter. Other leading theorists are Charles Garvin and Paul Glasser. The basic hypothesis for this model is: if a worker can use his or her expertise to direct group process and dynamics for the specific behavioral change of individual members, then members can become re-educated in areas of social dysfunction.

#### **Goals**

The overriding goal is individual emotional re-education or remedial behavior change.

The remedial model, a model of treatment, tends to be clinically oriented. The group is used as an agent of change. The group worker facilitates the interaction among members of the group to achieve change for the individual.

## **Focus**

The remedial model focuses on restoring or rehabilitating individuals by helping them change their behavior. The worker acts as a change agent and intervenes in group to achieve specific purposes determined by group members, the group worker, and society. The remedial model uses a leader centered approach to group work, with the worker actively intervening in the group's process, often using step-by step problem solving and task centered or behavioral methods. With the increased attention to time-limited, goal –directed practice and measurement treatment outcomes, this model has received increasing attention in the group work literature in recent years. It is used in patient and community-based setting with individuals who have severe behavioral problems and social skills deficits.

In practice, the group members' intra psychic, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions are tapped by focusing on personal and interpersonal conflicts and defense mechanisms related to the structural components of group process. The worker is a teacher and helper- an agent whose interventions are directed to specific goals for individual members through group discussion and program activities.

The social treatment approach is built on two levels of analysis: (1) the sequential arrangement of tasks confronting the worker and (2) the levels of social organization the worker seeks to affect in order to accomplish these tasks. The worker's activities and tasks can be expressed in outline form:

1. study and diagnosis
  - a. preliminary diagnosis and intake
  - b. working diagnosis
  - c. intervention goals
  - d. intervention plan
  - e. the helping contract
2. Intervention
  - a. direct means of influence
  - b. indirect means of influence
  - c. extra group means of influence
3. Evaluation and termination

Preliminary diagnosis is based on the remedial determination of problem behavior translated in to specific goals for change. Information on the problem, the circumstances, and the environmental responses it evokes are sought through discussion and observation at the intake stage. Particular attention is given group composition. The primary questions for this composition are: what composition will enhance the attainment of individual goals and establish a group purpose consistence with these goals? Given a specific group composition, what purposes can evolve that is consistent with individual goals?

The focus through out the work is on the individual and his or her goals. The group is only the backdrop. The early part of the group experience continues the study and diagnosis process as members are helped to their individual goals in precise terms. ("I want to cut my drinking down to one drink per evening"). These individual goals, translated in to group goals, becomes the terms of contract for group service. ("We will help each member decrease his or her addictive behavior."). The treatment group is widely used in mental hospitals, correctional institutions, family service organizations, counseling services, schools, healthcare facilities and in many other agencies.

### **Intervention**

*Using direct means of influence*, the worker maintains certain group positions, roles, and statuses through out the process. These roles include

- A) As "**central person**" (object of identification and drives), the worker act as model, responds to members feelings, and verbally supports goal-directed activity.
- B) In the role of "**symbol and spokes man**" (agent of legitimate norms and values) the worker is continually involved in clarifying policy, setting limits for different activates (people need to come on time, for instance), creating group rules, and confronting members with the long – range consequence of their behavior.
- C) As "**motivator and stimulator**" (definer of individual goals and tasks), the worker helps members find new ways of handling problems by giving advice, exhorting, structuring new opportunities, providing psychological interpretations and giving behavior assignments.
- D) As "**executive**" (controller of member roles) the worker assigns responsibilities and alters relations roles, statuses, positions in the group.

*Using indirect means of influence*, the worker's focus is on creating and modifying conditions with in the group system. The workers major indirect tasks involve the use of selected program

activities, behavior modification, the logic of problem solving, the addition or subtraction of members in the group, and group development especially cohesion and interrelated .

The third part of intervention is environmental modification using **extra group means of influence**. Here the worker focuses on social systems outside the group and works with persons, groups, or institutions in behalf of one or more group members. The worker seeks environmental changes in order to modify behavior or to support changes achieved in the group.

A group of over weight adults wanted to lose weight. The treatment approach, implemented by a worker, that proved effective in bringing lasting results for most members consisted of medical information, diet, exercise, a system of rewards and punishments, greater self-awareness, and the support from the group. Similar results can be obtained by using treatment approach for alcohol addicted persons or cardiac patients.

### **The Interact ional or Reciprocal Model**

This approach has been called integrationist, mediating, and reciprocal. The model derives its name from the emphasis on the reciprocal relationship that exists between group members and society. Members both influence and are influenced by the environment. It is primarily the work of one person \_William Schwartz. The major practice hypothesis is; if a worker can engage group members with each other and the worker and with the performance of selected tasks as independent actors in an organic mutual aid system, then members can accomplish their goals in a manner that increases their skills for mutual aid transactions in the various systems through which they carry on their relationships with society.

### **Goal**

The overriding goal is non specified social competence, reflected in increased mutual aid relationships with other. Unlike the remedial model, the reciprocal model doesn't begin with a priority prescription of desired outcomes. However, it does conceive of an ideal group state, namely a system in mutual aid. Such a system is not dependant up on specific problem to be resolved by the group but is a necessary condition for problem solving. To state it in still another way, the reciprocal model has no therapeutic ends, no political or social change programs to which it is addressed. Emphasis is placed on engagement in the process of interpersonal relationships. It is from this state involvement that members may call up on each other in their own or common cause.

## **Focus**

Emphasis is on communication skills and group problem solving in International and self-concept- building experiences. Intervention with any client system is based on a two-client concept for the integrationist: the individual and the social system. Then if each system (the group in this case) is regarded as a small version of the –individual –society relationship, the worker's skills are fashioned by two interrelated responsibilities: he must help each individual (member) negotiate the system (group) immediately crucial to his problem and he must help the system (group) system incorporate the member., deliver its services, and thus carry out its functions in the community.

The reciprocal model serves both the individual and society. It sees the individual largely as an abstraction that can be studied, understood, and treated only in relation to the many systems and subsystems of which he or she is a part. It views the individual as being created, influenced, and modified by his or her relationships, social institutions, and the interdependency between society and the individual. It presupposes an organic, systematic relationship between the individual and society. This interdependence is the focus for intervention and the small group is the field in which individual and societal functioning can be nourished and mediated.

The image of the practitioner projected by this model is that of a mediator or enabler to the needs system converging in the group. The practitioner is viewed as a part of the worker-client system both influencing and being influenced by it. In the terminology of social work, he neither does to the client nor for him, but with him.

## **Intervention**

Intervention under this model involves four major phases. The first is called *preparation phase* which is a "tuning in" period marked by the use of a variety of emphatic skills. The preliminary empathy is getting in touch with the imagined life process of group process and anticipating their needs, resources, and obstacles for engagement with each other and the worker. Human behavior hypothesis suggested that the worker consider coded communication, increased wishes, and fears related to new experiences, and the need for clarity of purpose and function. Other skills include connecting and partial zing data- organizing bits of information in to pattern of expectations and breaking down one's knowledge in to smaller propositions that are

relevant both to the class of clients (for instance, "the aged") and the individual members (these aged).

In this early phase there is no prior prescription for group composition. This practice model asserts that only one criterion is useful for forming a group: common tasks in relation to service needs.

The *beginning phase*, the second phase, of group work is the formation of a working contract. This phase requires a clear understanding of the conditions of work together and consensus about the members' needs and the agency's stake in offering the service. The worker must understand the members' needs and the agency's service in order to make a simple statement of their connection. The worker's skills also demand ability to elicit responses and encourage specific communication. The worker should refuse to allow comfortable yet vague formulations to rest undisturbed. Moreover, the worker challenges members to abandon their timidity and express their problems and desires directly without disguising them in euphemisms. In this stage, the worker prepares to monitor the terms of the contract; later the worker may have occasion to ask both group and agency to renegotiate this contract as they pass through the various stages of the work.

The *Work Phase* deals with the main problems and tasks of helping process. Full use is made of the common mediating tasks. First is the search for the common ground between members' needs and the needs of the systems, inside and outside the group, they are required to negotiate. Second is the process of challenging the obstacles that come between members and their social tasks, both outside and inside the group. Third, the worker contributes ideas, facts, and values to members'. Fourth, the worker shares his or her own vision, feelings about the process, and faith in the members' mutual aid relationships. Fifth, the worker continually defines the limits and requirements of the situation for the group, including contract renegotiation when warranted.

The *transition or ending phase* is marked by evasion and intensification of individual members' authority (their use of the worker) and intimacy (their use of each other). The worker needs to hold the group to its ending work and encourage the expression of ambivalence regarding dependence and separation. The demand for work is made throughout, and there is emphasis on preparation for future commitments and tasks.

### **3.7. Skills Necessary to Work in Groups**

A variety of skills important for micro or one –to- one practice , such as relationship building skills with clients ( warmth, empathy, and genuineness) and attending skills(including eye contact, active listening , facial expressions, and body position) are applicable in groups as they are with individuals. Various interviewing skills like encouragement, reflecting responding, paraphrasing, clarification, interpretation, summarizing, and self-disclosure are also applied in groups as they are in one-on-one interviews. In therapeutic or growth oriented groups, the worker is less likely to use these skills and to encourage group members to do the same. Part of the worker's function, indeed, may be to teach these skills to members of the group. For example, members of parenting skills group will benefit from learning how to listen actively to their children. Members of drug addicts' treatment groups will need to engage in self – disclosure; modeling this behavior is expected from the leader.

Task groups typically have less emphasis on such matters as self-disclosure because it is not usually related to the purpose of the group. Listening skills and the ability to summarize, clarify, and provide information are , however, just as important as they are in one-on- one interviews and in treatment oriented groups. Viewing the development of skills as a contributing process is important. Some skills essential for one-to-one situations must be used in small groups and when working with large system levels such as an agency or large governmental organization. At the same time, a worker with a group must use additional skills that include task and group maintenance roles and using and nominal group and brainstorming techniques.

The following is a summary of the major skills that help to make the group experience is a positive and productive one.

#### **3.7.1. Conflict resolution Skills**

Conflict is a clash of interest, values, actions, views, and directions. Because there will be differences between people and groups, in terms of values, philosophies and power structures, it is inevitable in real life situation. Communication breakdowns or / styles also may cause conflicts. Such differences may create serious conflicts, stimulate a search for new facts or resolutions, increase group cohesion and performance, and demonstrate the power or ability of the conflicting parties. Hence, conflicts can have positive or negative consequence depending on how it is dealt with. Conflict could hinder smooth working or the decision making process,

or create competing coalitions or reduce productivity. If we work to understand and manage it effectively, however, we can improve both the satisfaction and productivity of our social relationships.

Conflict can have negative consequence if it is not resolved or managed properly. The emphasis must be on managed properly. The emphasis must be on managing it with a goal of increasing the acceptance of difference between individuals and groups. Friesen (1987) has suggested applying a four –step problem solving framework to problem of conflict management. The four steps include recognition of actual or potential conflict, assessment of the confliction situation, choosing a strategy, and intervening.

### **Recognizing Conflict**

Recognizing conflict is easy when people do not talk to one another or are openly hostile, unnecessary polite, or outright rude. Ideas suggested by one side may be routinely rejected by the other. The conflict may be between individuals or groups. It may be created by jealousy and other personal reactions, confusion, or misunderstanding.

### **Assessing Conflict**

Assessing conflict usually requires talking directly to the parties involved. Often, the source becomes clear during this process. Sometimes the source can easily be identified while other times other problems may mask the source. Miscommunication between message sender and listener cause conflict situations. Creating a problem does not take much effort.

### **Choosing a strategy and intervening**

Identifying the source of conflict is an important step in resolving it. Once the source is identified, appropriate strategies can be considered and devised. These include bargaining or negotiating, problem solving and other methods designed to separate those in conflict. Negotiating is compromising, in which two or more people interact face- to- face in order to reach mutually agreed upon decision. Problem solving involves identifying causes of conflict and removing them. When a structural problem (one related top agency design or organization) is causing the conflict, the solution must be also structural. For example, a disagreement over assignments may be resolved by modifying the assignment system or redistributing an unfair workload. Sometimes, an interpersonal problem can be resolved through structural means.

### **3.7.2. Modeling and Coaching:**

Modeling is watching others while doing. Watching others has immense effect on our behavior. Modeling is useful for social workers in a number of situations, including teaching new skills, showing clients alternative methods for resolving problems, and helping clients develop a repertoire of responses to problematic situations.

**Coaching** is a skill that includes giving the client specific information as well as corrective feedback. For example, a social worker may suggest a new way of approaching a difficult coworker, ask the client to play it, and then provide feedback about ways to improve. In coaching the worker may choose to intervene immediately after a client has engaged in a behavior. If the behavior to be changed includes verbal communication, the worker may wish to ignore the focus and focus on the process. Describing the group member's behavior, instead of evaluating it, is always appropriate. Evaluative comments typically exacerbate problems instead of assisting communication skills. People often resent direct criticism.

Coaching also involve encouraging members to try new behavior. A common barrier to behaving differently is fear that one will look stupid or perform poorly. The worker can help overcome this fear by encouraging and supporting the member. This technique is especially effective if the behavior is to be copied has already been modeled. Assertiveness training typically uses a combination of modeling and coaching to help group members develop and use new skills. When used by the worker in tandem, these skills can increase the likelihood that the members will adopt and continue the new behavior or communication pattern.

One approach to coaching would be to ask a group member to speak directly to another member, rather than the group as a whole or to the worker. This method is especially helpful if the group involves family members or others with whom the speaker frequently interacts. For example, in the couples group Alemu tells the social worker that he would like his wife to become more affectionate. The social worker asks Alemu to turn directly to his wife, who is ultimately the only person who can solve this problem. This approach forces Alemu to be more specific, because "being more affectionate" has many meanings.

### **3.7.3. Communication Skills**

Competence in communication is important in any practice. However, when you work with client systems more than one individual such skill becomes very indispensable. Communication in groups is very complex as the pattern of interaction is also complex process,

calling the worker to ensure whether is adequate understanding between, not only he/she and the members but between members themselves. Here our clients are not merely individuals, as the case for case work. Rather we have two clients: the individual and the group. , putting their emphasis beyond the individual, social workers often look for the transaction between the individual person and the environment; in this case between the member and group. Thus your will continuously shift focus and redirect communication from individual to the group and from the group to the individual. These connecting processes occur over and over again throughout the life of the group. In such complex context, accurate reception and understanding of messages require close observation and careful listening. Similarly mutual understanding via accurate transmission of messages is to the several potential recipients requires well developed skills in direct and clear communication.

Skills to aid in mutual understanding include the following

- A. **Clarifying** : are you saying-----
- B. **Rephrasing** : so what you are saying is ----
- C. **Framing** : I think the larger issue this group has identified is -----
- D. **Focusing**: Wait a minute. We seem to be losing what we were talking about.
- E. **Reflecting** : it sounds as if you are saying ----
- F. **Reality testing** – what other people are hearing Abebe say?
- G. **Confronting**: every time we talk about parents, aster, you change the topic.
- H. **Interpreting** : it seems that the group is saying -----
- I. **Setting limits** : we are not allowed to hit each other here---
- J. **Exploration**: could you tell us more about that?

#### 3.7.4. Affective skills

- A. Reaching for and exploring feelings: how has the week been for you
- B. Reaching for feedback: what are others in the group feeling about this.
- C. Staying with the resistance- I think it's hard for us to talk about this.
- D. staying with the resistance- I know it is difficult, but let's try to talk about this a little bit longer.
- E. Identifying nonverbal cues- I noticed that we are all very quiet today.
- F. connecting behavior to feelings – when we talk about
- G. Validation of feeling: it must be very rough for you---

H. Scanning (worker looks at individual members during the group interaction), a part of active listening

I. Listening, identifying conflict and feelings- it seems people want to tell Aster something but are having difficulty.

J. Confronting affects – I wonder what is so funny

K. Identifying specific feelings- you seem very sad.

L. Active listening – a group member expresses her anger at her father. The worker responds, "So you are saying you are anger with him".

M. Staying with Feeling- I know this is very difficult, but let's try to explore it a little more. So you are really sad.

N. Translating the message- I think that what Abebe is trying to tell you is that he is very anger with this group.

### **3.7.5. Cohesion building and contractual skills**

1. Limiting setting – people need to come on time.
2. Making Connections – what Abebe is saying is a lot like what you are saying, Aster.
3. Reaching for commonalities – I guess we can all relate to that.
4. Recognition of difference – that sounds similar , except---
5. summarizing – so, to day we talked about several things-----
6. Bridging – it sounds as if you are saying something like what we spoke about last week
7. Using words of inclusion- "we" are saying, "our group" feels---
8. Establishing structure - so we will be meeting every Monday at 9:00?
9. Establishing purpose and goals- I think we have decided, we are here to ---
10. Clarification of needs- so you want to get X, Y, and Z out of this group.
11. Definition of roles- my job will be to keep things safe in here, and you take responsibility for bringing up the issues that are important to you.
12. Reaching for consensus – are we all in agreement that----?
13. Identifying process: the group seems quite whenever the subject of the group's summer break comes up.
14. Making the problem a group issue: it seems this is not only Aster's problem, but the group's problem as well.
15. Mobilizing the group as a therapeutic agent- how can we help Aster with this problem?

16. Holding the group responsible for sharing information – is there any one who has any additional information that needs to be shared?

17. Making a member a part of the group- aster, we haven't heard from you. What do you think?

### 3.7.6. Problem –Solving skills

1. Identifying need for a decision and assisting implementation- we need to figure out how we will get to the museum. Any ideas?

2. clarifying – the issues on the table seem to be----

3. suggesting alternatives- we might try ----

4. Asking for feedback- what do others think?

5. Focusing – can we get back to business?

6. Demand for work- we have to address this problem.

7. Partial zing and prioritize – what's the most important part of this problem, The thing we should focus on \_ \_ \_

8. Mediating – let's see if we can't look at both sides.

9. Negotiating – do you think you could agree to ---?

10. Identifying areas for work- it sounds like we need to struggle some more with aster's leaving the group.

11. Confronting the problem- like it or not, the reality is -----

Admittedly, this little exercise in listing skills and examples is limited. Workers must find their own language for communicating with their groups. To be open, receptive, and comfortable with your own style is surly the most useful skill.

## **Chapter Four**

### **Intervention with the Community**

#### **IV. Introduction**

Intervention with community is a macro level practice intended to bring social change. The intervention might be to develop a program to meet the need for a particular service, to change discriminatory practices or oppression with the community or to help community members solve their problems collectively. What ever form it takes, intervention with community is an artistic, professional activity that requires knowledge about community nature and culture, alternative ways of bringing the desired change, along with each approaches advantages and limitations.

In the previous chapter you have learned about how to conduct successful intervention with groups. In this module we will discuss about how to do the same at community level. So the firs part of the chapter will introduce you the concept of community. The second will deal about what factors determine the level of participation among community members in community practice. In the third part, we will discuss abut models of community change and how to practice them finally the basic techniques indispensable for community practice will be discussed.

#### **4.1. The Concept of Community**

The concept of community has always occupied an important place in the development of social work as well as in its contemporary theory and practice. Although as we will later see the term may be considered as contested and contradictory, there is no doubt that in relation to social work, community has enjoyed a position of some significance. Many writers, For example Ellien Young husband's (1959) report on the role of social workers, Seebohm report(19680), Barclay committee (1982) and Wagner (1988), identified community work as one of the three key constituents of social work. The other two approaches were acknowledged as case work and group work.

Defining the concept of community has never been straight forward. However, it is important to consider the concept in a little more detail as it provides us with key indicators as to why it has retained such a significant influence in social work and the basic input for effective change strategies.

#### **4.1.1 A Review of Definitions**

Despite the lack of consensus on the definition of community, there have been many definitions provided for the term. The following are some definitions that have evolved overtime.

Communities are natural human associations based on ties of intimate personal relationships and shared experiences in which each of us mutually provide meaning in our lives, meet our needs for affiliation and accomplish interpersonal goals (Brueggemann:2006:117).

The word "community" is commonly used to refer to a locality where people live, as well as to all the people who live there. A community can also refer to a group of people that identifies itself as a community because of shared experiences, backgrounds, values, religion, or culture (Rabinowitz:2004).

Community is a group of people, who have something in common with each other, which distinguishes them in a significant way from other groups (Anthony Cohen cited in action and research open web, retrieved on 18<sup>th</sup> of February, 2010).

A community is that group of people sharing a common understanding who reveal themselves by using the same language, manners, customs and law, which is their tradition (Atkinson:2004)

Community is a way of relating to other persons as brothers and sisters who share a common origin, a common dignity, and a common destiny. Community involves learning to live in terms of an interconnected "we" more than an isolated "I". It involves making choices which reinforce the experience of relatedness and foster the sense of belonging and interdependence. Community begins, but does not end, in our face to face relationships with the persons who are closest to us. (Margaret Betz cited in Hampton: 2004).

A community is best defined as a group of people who, regardless of the diversity of their backgrounds, have been able to accept and transcended their differences, enabling them to communicate effectively and openly and to work together towards goals identified as being for their common good ( foundation for community encouragement:2005).

Community implies those inside are similar to each other and different from others. It creates a bond between some people and excludes others. Thus community implies and

creates a boundary between us and them, inside group and outside group (Action and research open web, retrieved on 18<sup>th</sup> of February, 2010).

The word community ---- can refer to a specific group of people (a geographical community, a church congregation) or it can describe a quality of relationship based on certain values and principles (Hampton: 2004).

In line with the last definition, Brueggemann (2006) stated that "When we talk about community, we talk about two things simultaneously. Community is a locality in space and time, but community also exists as a form of relationships." (Page117). Brueggemann identified two views about community which we shall review, since it helps us to understand community better, as follows:

#### **A) Community as a Locality**

When we think about communities most people think about a particular place, a geographical location for the community, such as the Gondar Community or the Addis Ababa Community. Community needs to be embodied to have existence. To have permanence; communities often become identified with a physical space the community claims as its own. This could be a territory that we can provide with a name and that includes homes, schools, and shops. Therefore a geographical community is an aggregation of families and individuals settled in a fairly compact and contiguous geographic area, with significant elements of common life as shown by manners, customs, traditions and models of speech.

For other communities, the locality is a structure such as church or temple. The visible, formal structure or building symbolizes the community for its members. Sociologists and social workers have often stressed the importance of "territorial" factor, the place, or locality in which communities said to exist. Prell and Newby (1971) assert that "when sociologists talk about community they almost always mean a place in which people have some, if not complete solidarity relations. Thus it is appropriate to talk about community as a neighborhood or a building that exists in space and time and that has permanence and structure.

Macro social workers engage themselves with several different kinds of community localities. The geographical community can be a town, a suburb, or even a small section

of a suburb. There might be a few communities in the same town. There are other times when a town might be only part of a community, such as when the community involves the rural areas outside town, or two towns are closely linked.

### **B) Relational (Functional) community**

Are all communities linked to specific geographical areas? Don't we think also about ethnic communities? We also talk about communities of interest. We talk about the Christian community, the legal community, the gay community, and so on. Thus, Community is also a form of relationships that transcends time, structure, and location. It is a form of social action and we relationships in which people take others in to account. But it is also a means by which compassion and caring are shared. Community also creates public goods and social capital.

**Community as a form of relationship:** although a community can be found in a locality or be embodied by a structure, community is never a mere collection of people gathered in some locality. Rather a community exists because of values, sentiments, and feelings of identification and commitment that are held in common by a collective of individuals. This can occur in a locality, such as a town or rural village, but also occurs independently of locale. People also possess feelings and sentiments to individuals, who view as a member of their community despite how long they far live. Thus the defining quality is that the members share common sentiments that unite them.

Community relationships transcend location. Community relationships also transcend time and structure. A community existed before we were born and will live on after we die. We develop a shared memory and obtain a sense of ourselves by means of our common history together. The symbols and meaning that community incorporates, while originating in time, becomes timeless. There is not just one model of community or one community ideal. Each community is a unique blending of the people of which it is composed. The many communities those come in to being added to shape and texture of human existence. The more communities that develop and diversify, therefore, the more opportunities there are to explore alternative ways of being in the world and different ways of achieving richness of character.

**Community and social action:** in its purest sense, community is the act by which we engage one another, experience close personal relationships, and become a people. Max Weber (1864-1920) defined social action as "action based on mutual understanding". Action, said Weber, is "social in so far as , by virtue of the subjective meaning attached to it by acting individual (or individuals), it takes account of the behavior of others and is there by oriented in its course". Not all action is social: if it is not oriented to the behavior of others, it is not social.

**Community is also characterized by we relations:** as Alfred Schutz- a phenomenologist- stated- in the pure we relationship I create my social life with others who have intentions similar to mine- which are/will be member's of one's community. Communities are also accompanied by compassion and caring which draws from the sense of belongingness in the 'we relationship". In exemplary communities we do more than simply take others in to account, however. We engage in loving friendly, compassionate, and caring relationships. We engage others in providing support, healing, and helping to those in difficulty and trouble. Our humanity is extended when we offer a milieu of safety and protection to those least able to care for themselves. Exemplary communities become warm, nurturing, and supportive environments in which personal growth and development takes place. A person as a fully developed individual self is impossible without other fully developed individual selves; says Paul Tillich, Cited in Brueggemann: 2006)

**Community Produces Social Capital<sup>1</sup> and Social Goods:** the product of the economy is monetary and physical capital. The product of a community is social capital. The social capital of a society includes the institution, the relationships, the attitudes, and values that govern the interaction among people and contribute to the economic and social development. Some also define it as the stock of formal and informal social networks that individuals use to produce or allocate goods and services. Common to all definitions for social capital is they emphasize that social capital is about recurring relationships between individuals. Friendship, for example, is a form of social capital that comes in to

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<sup>1</sup> Social capital refers to those features of social structures-such as levels of interpersonal trust and norms of reciprocity and mutual aid –which act as resources for individuals and facilitate collective action.(Putnam :1993a)

being as a result of relationships that are formed in groups and communities. Community produces many kinds of social capital in addition to friendship, including public spirit, social engagement, intimacy, nurture, and support without which people would live shallow and lonely existences. Via such social capital, it was obvious that people not only helped one another and enjoyed one another's company but also participated mutually in enterprises that furthered the common good.

The concept of social capital captured attention when Harvard political scientist, Robert Putnam applied social capital theory to the relationship between levels of civic engagement in public life and the economic wellbeing of communities and nations. Drawing on a study of civic life in Italy, Putnam observed that functional communities have high levels of social capital and generate new social capital for members through their participation in voluntary associations.

Similarly, while the bases of the economic sector is private goods that can be priced, brought and sold, divided and consumed and from which people can be excluded. Social goods, on the other hand, are created exclusively in the social sector where communities exist. Social goods, such as communal relationships, can not be priced, bought, and sold. Community relationships can not be divided, for instance.

## **4.2. Community Functions**

From this short summary of definitions provided for 'community' we can go to explore the actual functions that communities carry out. Although there are several ways to think about this, we will look first at a traditional, familiar scheme for organizing functions that makes intuitive sense.

### **4.2.1. Traditional Framework for Community Functions**

Five functions that communities serve for their members are often cited in the literature (Warren, 1978, cited in Dewees; 2005). These include: socialization; social control; mutual support; participation of residents; and production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. In addition to its benefit in the producing social capital and social goods the following table is a summary for the traditional function of communities.

	Function	Focus
1	Socialization	Transmission of values, beliefs, culture, and patterns of relationship from community residents to community residents.
2	Production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services.	Tangible services such as food, housing, clothing, and intangible services such as banking, transportation and recreation
3	Social control	Enforcement of laws and formal codes
4	Mutual support	Formal or informal community or religious supports.
5	Participation of residents	Opportunities to exercise preferences in religious activities, political party affiliation, and governance extends to recreation and education.

Table 4.1 Traditional Community Functions (Deweese: 2005)

#### 4.2.2. Social Constructionist Ideas about Community functions

Consistent with the ideas of social construction- that is people both shape and are shaped by social processes- we can explore the relationships of the self and the community. Through this lens, community functions are seen not as external systems that are applied to community members, but rather as interactive mechanisms or process that contributes to, and then reflect, the formation and substance of members. This contemporary perspective identifies three functions (Brueggemann; 2002 cited in Dewees: 2005).

- Community as a "source of self"
- Community as the "bearer of the self"
- Community as a "creator of humanity"

As you read this perspective on the functions of community, you will notice that the same functions (like the traditional perspectives are taken up- socialization, production of goods and services, social control, mutual support, and participation - in a contemporary context. However, this view articulates a more interactive pattern: that is, it explores the interrelationship between individuals and the function of community rather than a separate listing of functional provisions.

**Community as a source of self:** this idea asserts that none of us is a unitary, indivisible self composed entirely of our own perceptions, feelings, and attitudes. Nor are we passively embedded with in a machine like system that shapes us in whatever way suits its whim while we try valiantly to adapt. Rather we are always social selves with the capacity to shape who we are and choose who we want to be. Although each of us is anchored in a biological and genetic organism, we do not become distinctive selves except through our social interchanges with others. This is developed and confirmed through our relationships; first with significant others or family, and then through the group, and community. With in these constellations, we take on different roles in different situations. We learn then, that we are leader in this situation and follower in that. We shape our selves to meet the needs of our community roles. The significance of this message for social intervention practitioners is in the belief that people have the capacity to influence as well as be influenced. Workers don't encourage clients to give up or adjust because they see any particular course as inevitable; they see clients as people with agency and capacity to work toward making their worlds what they want them to be.

**Community as a Bearer of self:** here the individual is seen as embedded with in the public "mega structures" of modern communities that produce the economic goods and services and dominate a large part of our lives with concerns for money or possessions. This creates a situation in which we tend to have separate private lives, in addition to our lives, which requires us to juggle both. This often creates alienation on personal, social and political lives, as we find ourselves increasingly isolated. On a personal level, we may find little connection and no satisfactory meaning in our work, which may seem demeaning or irrelevant and which we try to counter act through a joyless consumption of more and more things. On a social level, we struggle to find the time to support our most meaningful structures, such as family and friendship; and on a community level, we feel estranged from the centers of power and cynically unable to influence the matters that are most important to us- witness the decreasing rate of voting in many countries.

The implication for practice lies in the critical need for community. Community, as an ideal, has the capacity to mediate these forms of alienation, so that individuals can live, work and participates in affirming, communal ways. Strong communities restore personal connections through opportunities to develop and live out our own commitments. They

restore social connections through valuing others as people (rather than commodities that can be bought and sold); and they restore political connection by developing empowerment through coalitions and organizations that help us, as ordinary people, to reengage in political process and decision making.

**Community as creator of Humanity:** in this function, the community expands social relationships to assume broader arenas of public concern or the public good. As community members recognize that they have shared concerns, they begin to see that these are not just personal issues but rather are socially instituted. For example, child abuse as an issue has evolved from a private concern for how some people beat their children to a public offense against all of us as citizens. From this illumination, we believe that some collective response will lead to social change. This belief is part of what inspires people to open their doors to the terminally ill, abused children or newly arrived refugees. It is also the way in which human rights gives meaning to social work and ground it. This in turn is what community practice is about in the profession.

#### **4.3. Discovering and Understanding the life of a community**

No matter what your position, as a social intervention practitioner, you will have to make some sense of your community. There are at least two general ways to approach this task. One way is to look at your community of locality with the purpose of discovering its unique characteristics, including the strengths, skills, stories, problems and concerns of its members. This allows you to put your clients' experience in to context and know what dynamics you are likely to experience in your work. This is called community inquiry or community assessment.

Another way to study a community is to start by narrowing the concern to a particular community of identity or population believed to need specialized or different services and to assess the degree to which the human service system meets those needs (or does not). This process is sharply focused to consider specific social work intervention. Because of its precision, it is sometimes considered more practical than comprehensive studies and is called a need assessment. Ideally, these methods are integrated rather than constituting an either/or choice.

### **4.3.1. Community Inquiry / Assessment.**

In general you want to begin your inquiry from the perspective of the whole community (or a subset of a very large community) and then move to smaller and more specific units like neighborhoods or particular populations. Getting your bearings might be the initial step. You can start by walking around city hall, picking up news papers; you may want to attend popular community events. The idea here is to see it all- the poverty and the prosperity, the empowered and estranged, the "high life" and the low "low life". You will also want to engage in participant observation, and cultivate relationships with key informants. This initial endeavor is will be followed by your trail of digging deeper. When you have an idea (which remains flexible) of the community feels like and how it goes about its business. You can take on a more systematic method for analyzing its various dimensions.

#### **Frameworks for Analyzing a Community**

A Varsity of frame works have been developed for analyzing a community. The following framework presents an elementary approach.

1. **Community Members:** who are the members of this community of this community; how many members are there? What unique or distinct characteristics do these members have? What is the age composition? Do the members have pride in their community? If "yes" what aspects do the residents have pride in?
2. **Economic characteristics:** what are the principal economic characteristics of the community? What are the principal types of employment and unemployment? What is the unemployment rate? What are the major occupations?
3. **Community values:** does the community has a set of values? What are they? Who set the values and why were they selected; or how did they develop? Have there been changes in these values over time? If "yes", what changes have occurred and for what reason?
4. **Needs and social problems:** what do the members perceive as their most critical needs? Why are these needs perceived as critical? How effectively do the members perceive that their community is responding to their needs? Closely related to the above questions are the following: what major social problems affect their members? Are

subgroups of the population experiencing social problems of critical proportions? What data is available on the identified social problems? And what are the sources of this data?

5. **Oppression and discrimination:** are some groups of the population being victimized by oppression and discrimination? (Oppression can be defined as the unjust or cruel use authority or power). If "yes", the following questions are important: why are oppression and discrimination occurring? How is the power structure? How is the power structure in the community responding to the oppression and discrimination? What efforts are being made to combat this oppression and discrimination? What are the leaders in these efforts?

6. **Power structure:** who holds the power in the community? What is the nature of the power –such as financial, military, or police strength, election processes? How the power structure does maintain its power? Is the power evenly distributed among the members, or is the power in the hands of a small segment of the members? What are the attitudes of the power structure towards those in the community with little or no power?

7. **Human services:** what existing human service agencies and organizations are seen as the major service providers in the community? What primarily human services are provided? Who are the major beneficiaries of these services? Are subgroups with critical needs being ignored? If "yes", why are their needs being ignored? What is the image of helping professions in the community?

8. **Educational services:** what are the major educational resources in the community? What educational services are being provided? Who are the major beneficiaries of these services? Are there subgroups whose educational needs are being ignored? If yes why are these needs being ignored?

In general, In order to gain as comprehensive an understanding as possible, you will want to address most or all of the following dimensions of community (Deweese 2005).

- History, geography, and boundaries.
- Demographics , including subgroups
- Values , beliefs, traditions
- Evidence of oppression and discrimination
- Political structure and power arrangements/ relationships.
- Strength of the community, resources, talents of members.
- Institutions relating to economics, major employers.

- Institutions relating to religion, education, and social welfare.
- Structures related to housing, transportation, and recreation.

#### **4.3.2. Assessing specific population needs (Conducting Need Assessment.)**

In practice agencies social workers often know there is a population of community members that is vulnerable, at risk, or other wise in need of particular services. This population, for example, might be composed of runaway adolescents who are homeless, people with HIV and their families or formerly hospitalized psychiatric patients. The important areas for examination in these cases are the specific parameters of the population it self and the extent to which the human service system at large is meeting it needs. In the effort to narrow the focus from community analysis to particular social problems, workers will work to ward understanding the characteristics of that population, profile their problems, and identity patterns of resource availability, among other things. The tool for conducting this examination is called a need assessment.

The goal of a need assessment is to identify the assets of a community and a potential concerns that it faces, in relevance to the targeted group or population. Straight forward way to estimate the needs is to simply ask residents their opinions about the development of services with in the community, their satisfaction with services and what particular services are needed. Hence need assessment often take the form of surveys, and they are frequently required in order to provide a systematic rationale to founders or organizations.

#### **The process of conducting Community need assessment**

Sharma, Lanum and Balcazar (2000) in their "A community needs Assessment guide" have identified the following major phases involved in conducting needs assessment.

1. The planning and organizing phase
2. The needs assessment methodology
3. the needs Assessment survey data collection
4. Summarizing and Disseminating the needs assessment survey results.
5. Writing the final report

## 1. The Planning and Organizing Phase

The planning phase begins with establishing a partnership between those parties that are likely to be involved in the needs assessment. During this first phase, partners working together should have the opportunity to get to know each other and develop specific goals and objectives for the need assessment process.

The first step in this phase is **information gathering** where you

- identify the relevant stake holders
- learn more about the community , the organization serves and its residents
- Review already existing material related to program development and history.
- Share your expectations and approaches regarding the need assessment with the other partners.
- Discuss and identify potential users of the agenda likely to be generated by the need assessment process.

The second step will be to learn about the organization and the program that is being assessed. Partners outside the sponsoring agency need to

- Learn about the organizational culture and its philosophy by interviewing staff, review any existing material, touring the community and learning more about the target population that the organization serves.
- Conduct a literature review to see what the recent research has to offer(e.g. methodology) , review relevant archival information and what previous needs assessments by the organization has found?
- Where is the program in terms of implementation and development of service delivery?
- What current resources do the organization and its program offer?
- Identify and learn about the program that would most benefit from a need assessment.

The last step of this phase will be about identifying goals and objectives for the need assessment. At this time you will;

- Identify your strategy to conduct a need assessment
- Define goals for the needs assessment
- Discuss roles and expectations for each partner

- Answer "what is the specific purpose of the needs assessment? What is the time schedule for the need assessment?"
- Identify the target population, how will a sample from the population be chosen?

## **2. The Need Assessment Methodology**

This phase is all about deciding on the methodology of your assessment, this means identifying the participants, determining the type of measure that you will use to collect your information - this will include using focus groups, developing and using need assessment survey, and information gathered at community public forums.

You must define the population, before developing the survey, you are targeting so that you can determine whom the need assessment will be focused on (e.g. community residents, small business owners, teachers within a certain district, or all people within certain geographic boundaries. Another thing that should be noted is that the current resources within the community should also be acknowledged. The need assessment should not just focus on the concerns or weakness of the community but should also recognize the strengths and existing resources of a community. This can be done in the next several phases by allowing community members to voice their opinions on the strength of their community and this can be subsequently included as items in the need assessment survey. In addition, community strengths can also be used in the need assessment process (for example, grass root organizations like Idir, and Ekub could assist with data collection or sponsor a public forum).

The above preparation will be followed by your effort of developing a needs assessment survey. There are many phases when developing a needs assessment survey that must be followed in order to accurately represent the concerns and strengths of a community.

The first of these phases is the focus group to discuss and reflect on issues surrounding their community which is a better way to start compiling a list of issues that will be included on the needs assessment survey. The focus group shall consist of people who share a common situation to some degree. To assure the voices of diverse groups are entertained, you can conduct more than one focus groups in which that participants are similar to each other (e.g. a – Youth only focus group on time,

and an elderly only focus group another time or one with political leaders, another with business owners or community leaders.).

The need assessment should be guided to know each group's participants' view of the major concerns in the community, its strengths, and their evaluation of their community. The facilitator of the discussion is charged to keep the discussion to focus on these issues. After the discussion ends, all answers will be compiled around these above major focuses. Thus, the focus group discussion will guide you on which things to emphasize in developing the survey questionnaire. In creating the survey, items on the survey will be based on information provided in the several focus groups and is also adapted from several other community needs assessment surveys, if any.

### **3. Needs Assessment survey data collection**

Once you have developed your needs assessment survey, you can now begin data collection. You can do this door-to-door survey. In door-to-door survey, if the survey is relevant to all community residents then the community should be randomly sampled in order to obtain a true representation of the community.

As will be discussed later, the public forums are held so community residents can discuss the findings of the needs assessment survey. It is important that you give survey respondents the information pertaining to the public forum when they are doing the survey so that they know fully intend to bring the findings back in to the community. Prior to data collection date confirm the location, time, and time in order to make flyers that will be handed out while collecting data.

### **4. Summarizing and Disseminating the needs assessment survey results**

Summarize the results of the collected data. This usually is in the form of a "top five" list of concerns and strengths. Such one page summary will be what you present to the needs assessment committee as the main findings and it will also be part of the agenda for the public forum. The public forum, unlike the focus group is open to any one who is interested in attending. The purposes for the public forums are to: (a) discuss the major issues brought forth by the respondents in the needs assessment survey and (b) provide public forum participants the opportunity to discuss possible solutions to the issues of concern.

## **5. Writing the Final Report.**

An overall report of the needs assessment findings is necessary in order to provide written proof that an assessment was carried out and the report can serve to answer any questions regarding the process or findings of the needs assessment. The report may take various forms but it should have contents of, executive summary, description of the study and the participants, results from survey responses and form discussion, and recommendations. Once the report is completed conduct planning sessions with all interested partners to discuss the needs assessment process and results and disseminate the report to all who could benefit or might address the issues discussed such as advisory boards, block clubs, or other grassroots organizations. Additionally you may provide assistance in planning and action taking.

### **4.4. Dynamics of Community Participation<sup>1</sup>**

Community participation in development is advocated for various noble reasons and is often rhetorical and permeated with lofty sentiments. As a concept 'community participation', is one of the most overused, but least understood concepts in developing countries with out a serious attempt to critically analyze the different forms that participation could take place. More over, we need an understanding of dynamics of community participation; what factors promote or obstacle community participation.

There are a wide range of factors that could hinder and indeed constrain the promotion of participatory development, and these often lead to the emergency of non-participatory approaches. Such obstacles prohibiting participation abound, ranging from institutional to socio-cultural, to technology, to logistics. They may be internal, external or combination of both. External obstacles refer to those factors outside the end beneficiary community that prevent true communication participation taking place. Internal obstacles refer to conflicting interest in becoming involved.

The following is a summary of the factors that are impediment community participation.

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<sup>1</sup> This part has take many ideas from Njoh (2002), and Lucious Botes & van Rensburg (2000)

### **1. The paternalistic role of developmental professionals**

The majority of development projects are initiated by outsiders. They are rarely founded spontaneously by the community itself. Often, professional experts dominate decision – making and manipulate, instead of facilitate, development process. The trade mark of "development experts" is often they know best and therefore, their prime function is to transfer knowledge to communities whom by definition "know less". The reason for this is because developmental professional trained in a way that disempowered local communities and undervalue the capacities of them. Such projects are often doomed to fail, partly because of the many erroneous assumptions they make about local conditions and needs. Perhaps the most dishearting aspect of externally induced projects is the tendency for experts and bureaucrats to dominate the decision making process.

2. The Inhabiting and Prescriptive Role Of State
3. Selective participation
4. Hard –Issue Bias
5. Conflicting interest groups with in end-beneficiaries communities
6. Get-keeping by local elites
7. Excessive pressure for immediate results
8. Disinterest within beneficiary community
9. Population size
10. Belief System

### **4.5. Models of Community Intervention**

We have explored some ways of discovering what makes a community what it is, how it contributes to the development of civic life, and how a number of factors affect members participation in different community intervention projects. We have also considered some how detail ideals about studying a community. From here, let's move more directly into the process of community change, first theoretical orientation, and then practice.

A variety of approaches have been developed to bring about community change.. Although community intervention began in the 1800s, three models of community intervention began to emerge in the late 1940s and were described in the literature as locality development, social planning, and social action (Rothman & Tropman, 1980). These models are "ideal

types." Actual approaches (or the practice of these approaches) tend to blend characteristics of all three models. For analytical purpose, however, we will take a brief look at these models to consider the ways they are distinguished from each other, and some of the assumptions and implications they have for contemporary community practice. All of these models are largely directed to communities of locality.

#### **A) Locality Development Model**

The locality development (also called community development) model asserts that community change can best be brought about through broad-based participation by a wide spectrum of people at the local community level. The model seeks to involve a cross section of individuals (including the disadvantaged and the power structure) in identifying problems. Some themes emphasized in this model are democratic procedures, a consensus approach, voluntary cooperation, development of indigenous leadership, and self-help. The basic theme of this model is "together we can figure out what to do and then do it." The locality development uses discussion and communication among different factions to reach consensus on which problems to focus on and which strategies and actions to use to resolve these problems.

#### **B) Social Planning Model**

The social planning model emphasizes problem solving. It assumes that community change in a complex industrial environment requires highly trained and skilled planners who can guide complex change processes. The expert is crucial to identifying and resolving social problems. Because social planners are employed by the power structure, they tend to serve the interests of the structure, such as urban or rural planning department, area planning agency, or mental health center. Marshaling community resources and facilitating radical social change are generally not emphasized in this approach. Much of the focus of the social-planning model is on identifying needs and on arranging and delivering goods and services to people who need them. In effect, the philosophy is, "Let's get the facts and take the next rational steps."

#### **C) Social Action Model**

The social action model assumes that a disadvantaged (often oppressed) segment of the population needs to be organized, perhaps in alliance with others, to pressure the power structure to increase resources or for social justice. Social action models seek basic changes in major institutions or in basic policies of formal organizations. The objective is

redistribution of power and resources. Where as locality developers envision a unified community, social action advocates see the power structure as the opposition- the target of action. "Perhaps the best-known social activist was Saul Alinsky, who advised: 'pick the target, freeze it, personalize it, and polarize it.' "(Zastrow 2000:230)

#### **4.5.1 Practice Variables and Community Intervention Models**

Rothman (1980) has analyzed the above three distinctive model of community practice by distinguishing among them using a number of variables. In order to proceed with the analysis, we will specify a set of practice variables that help decrease and compare each of the approaches when seen in ideal form. Each of the orientations makes assumptions about the nature of the community situation, goal categories of action, concepts of the general welfare, appropriate tactics, and so on. A set of twelve variables will be treated in the following essay.

1. **Goal Categories.** Three main goals, for each approach, have been discussed recurrently in the community intervention literature.

**Locality development:** the writers/ advocators of locality development, including Arthur Dunham and Charles Grosser, William and Biddle, and Murry Ross, place great emphasis on process goals. The central focus is on the community's capacity to become functionally integrated, to engage in community problem solving on a self-help basis, and to use its democratic process for decision making and action. The intent is to develop the community's inherent self-actualization processes.

**Social Planning:** the primary theorist for this approach include Robert Morries and Robert Binstock, Alfard khan, and Robert Perlman and Arnold Gurin. They stress task goals oriented toward the solution of substantive social problems. Social planning is the application of a social problem-solving process to achieve particular goals.

**Social Action:** Saul Alinsky, warren Haggstorm, Roland Warren, Daniel Thursaz, and Charles Grosser have contributed to the development of this model. The primary goals in this approach include the shifting of power, resources, and decision making in the community or society as well as, on a short term basis, changing the policies of formal organizations. The major objective is system change and is more the building local power and decision –making centers that the solution of a specific problem.

## 2. Assumptions Concerning problem conditions/ view of community.

**Locality Development:** The Local community is seen to overshadow by the larger society, lacking in fruitful human relationships and problem solving skills and peopled by isolated individuals suffering from anomie, alienation, disillusionment, and often mental illness. Technological change, it is believed, has pressed society toward greater industrialization and urbanization with little consideration of the effect on social relations. Henderson and Tomas (1987) stated, as cited in (, 36)

Not only are people set apart from each other by conflicts and scapegoat, but we may wonder whether people know how much manage their relationships with each other. This state of affairs may have come about partly because social skills involved in neighboring and networking may have atrophied (p.4).

Alternatively, especially in third world international projects, the community is often seen as tradition-bound, ruled by a small group of autocratic elite, and composed of an educationally deprived population who lack skills in problem solving or understanding of democratic methods.

**Social Planning:** the community is viewed as burdened by concrete social problem conditions. It is apparent that certain types of "problems" are broadly characteristic of contemporary American communities. They appear in such forms as the increasing indebtedness of central cities, the spread of urban blight and slums, the lack of adequate housing which people can afford, the economic dependence of large numbers of people in the population, poorly financed and staffed schools, high delinquency and crime rates, inadequate provision of care for the mentally ill, the problem of aged, the need for industrial development and the problem of downtown traffic congestion. This list is almost endless, and each of the problems mentioned could be subdivided into numerous problematic aspects.

**Social Action:** The community comprises a hierarchy of privilege and power in the eyes of those with a militant advocacy stance. There exist islands of oppressed, deprived, ignored, or powerless populations suffering social injustice or exploitation at the hand of oppressors such as the "power structure", big government, corporations, deprivation or psychological dehumanization. Khan (1982) states the social action position succinctly: today power is concentrated in the hands of a small number of well organized individuals and organizations.

These corporations and the individuals involved in them have extraordinary power to make decisions that affect our lives regardless of the suffering that it has caused people.

Again, we caution that these are dominant motifs rather than discrete categories. Many social actions are greatly concerned about apathy and substantive problems, even as some social planners are deeply concerned about the quality of social relations. We are defined tendencies in thinking rather than mutually exclusive cognitive compartments.

### 3. Basic Change Strategies :

**Locality Development:** the basic change strategy may be expressed as "let's all get together and talk this over". This involves a concerted effort to bring range of community people in to determining their "felt" needs and solving their own problems. Locality initiative and shared decision making are key.

**Social planning:** the basic change strategy is "let's get the fact and think through the logical next-steps". Planners and policy practitioners in this framework focus on gathering pertinent data about the problem and then deciding on an empirically supported and feasible course of action. The practitioner plays a central part in assembling and analyzing facts, establishing goals or policy frameworks, and determining appropriate services, programs and actions. This may or may not be done with the participation of others, depends on the planners' sense of utility of participation in the given situation and the organizational context with in which he or she functions.

**Social Action:** the change strategy is expressed though "let's organize to over power our oppressor and change the system," that is crystallizing issues so that people know who their legitimate enemy is and mobilizing them to bring pressure on selected targets. Such targets may include, an organization such as the welfare department; a person such as the mayor; or an aggregate of persons, such as slum landlords.

### 4. Characterizing Change Tactics and Techniques

**Locality development:** tactics of consensus are stressed, including discussion and communication among a wide range of different individuals, groups, and factions. Development specialists attempt with in the conflict situation to place the stress on problem solving as opposed to wine-lose strategies.

**Social planning:** fact finding and analytical skills are of central concern. Tactics of conflict or consensus may be employed, depending up on the practitioner's analysis of situation.

Hence they may emphasize the value of cooperative participation on they may seek allies from one or another faction to support a preferred legislative initiative, as necessary.

**Social Action:** conflict tactics are emphasized in the militant advocacy modality, including methods of confrontation and direct action. The ability to mobilize relatively large number of people is necessary to carry out rallies, marches, boycotts, and picketing. Success of social action groups is base on: "their ability to empreses the target or their ability to cause the target politician harm if the target is political official, or financial harm if it is a business"(Bobo, Kendall, and Max, 1991:29).

#### 5. Practitioner Roles and Medium of Change

**Locality Development:** the practitioner's character role is that of an "enabler" or, as suggested by Biddle and Biddle (1965), "encourager". The role has been described by Henderson and Thomas:

*At a very basic level, locality development is about putting people in touch with one another, and of promoting their membership in groups and network. It seeks to develop people's sense of power and significance in acts of association with others that may also achieve an improvement in their social and material well-being.*

The practitioner employs as a major medium of change the creation and guidance of small task- oriented groups, requiring skill in fostering collaborative problem founding and solving.

**Social planning:** more technical or 'expert' roles are emphasized. As Ross (1955) identified, the expert role contains these components: community diagnosis, research skill, information about other communities, advice on methods of organization and procedure, technical programmatic information and evaluation. Meyers (1992) indicates that the role of the planner involves. Correlating identified needs' and available resources. The nature and the range of these needs are identified primarily with the aid of different forms of research, while the sources, on the other hand, and are mainly the concern of formal systems and the structure of authority. "To obtain the desired sources, the social worker has to employ available data (for instance in the form of need identification) in order to be able to claim support" (Rothman et.al; 2001:132).

**Social Action:** roles entail the organization of disadvantage groups to act on behalf of their interests in pluralist political culture. The practitioner seeks to create and guide mass

organization and movements and to influence political process. Mass organization is necessary because:

*Power generally consists of having a lot of money or a lot of people. Citizen organization tends to have people, not money. Thus, our ability to win depends on our being able to do with people, what the other side is able to do with money" Bobo; 1991: 6, cited in Ibid:133).*

In its classic form at least, social planning, focuses on organizing disadvantaged populations to act on their own in their own behalf, which is seen as true empowerment.

## 6. Orientation Toward Power Structure(s)

**Locality development:** the power structure is included within an all-encompassing conception of community. All segment of the community are thought of, holistically, as part of the action, as part of the action system. Hence, power elites re considered allies in a common venture embracing the well-being of all. One consequence of this might well be that in this approach only goals that have mutual agreement become legitimate or relevant; goals that involve incompatible interest are ignored or discarded as inappropriate. Hence, aims involving fundamental shifts in the configuration of power and resource control, which can contribute materially to elevating the position of minorities and the poor, are likely to be excluded.

**Social planning:** the power structure is usually present as the sponsor or employer of the practitioner. Sponsors may include a voluntary board of directors, an arm of city government, or a legislative unit. Mories and Binstock (1966), speaking---, state the case this way: 'Realistically, it is difficult to distinguish planners from their employing organizations. In some measures, their interests, motivations, and means are those of their employers". Planners are usually highly trained technical specialists whose services require considerable finances for salary as well as support in the form of supplies; equipment, facilities, and auxiliary technical and clerical personnel.

**Social Action:** the power structure is seen as an external target of action; that is, the power structure lies outside the beneficiary system or constituency itself and is an oppositional itself and is an oppositional or oppressive force. "The person with power becomes the 'target (some –times called the decision maker) is always the person who has the power to give you what

you want (If no one has such power, then you haven't cut the issue correctly.)(Babo; 1991:11).

Power elites, then, usually represent a force antithetical to the group whose well-being the practitioner is committed to advance. Those holding power, accordingly, must be coerced or overturned in the interests of equality and social justice.

## 7. **Boundary definition of the beneficiary system**

**Locality development:** the total community, usually in a geographic entity such as a city, neighborhood, or village, is the beneficiary system. Accordingly, 'community development is concerned with the participation of all groups in the community-with both sexes, all age groups, all racial, nationality, religious, economic, social and cultural groups" (Dunham, 1963).

**Social planning:** the intended beneficiaries may be either a total geographic community or some area or functional subpart. Community welfare councils and city planning commissions usually conceive of their intended beneficiaries as comprising the widest cross section of community interests. On the other hand sometimes the service populations of social planners are more segmented aggregates-a given neighborhood, the mentally ill, and the aged youth, juvenile delinquents. Policy practitioners work with representatives who may view beneficiaries varyingly in universalistic constituencies.

**Social Action:** intended beneficiaries are usually conceived as some community subpart or segment that suffers at the hand of the broader community and thus merits the special support of the practitioner. Khan (1982) states that when people in government, such as community planner and developers, talk about community development, they often mean the development of an entire city. You can't develop an entire city. What is good for some people is not good for others. If something is good for one group, another group losses out. There are conflicts with in groups. The poverty of one group may be caused by the profit of another.

Practitioners are likely to think in terms of constitutes, brothers and sisters, or allies rather than terms of a "client" concept, which is seen as patronizing, detached, or overly clinical.

## 8. Assumptions Regarding community interest or subsystems

**Locality development:** the interests of various groups and factions in the community are viewed as reconcilable and responsive to the influence of reason, persuasion, communication, and mutual good will. Hence:

*Community developers accept the notion that people, regard less of race, sex, ethnicity, or place of birth, can find ways to solve their problems through group efforts. The community development movement is humanistic in orientation. This implies a genuineness or authenticity in relationships that permits open, honest communication and feedback (Blakely: 1997:18-19).*

**Social planning:** there is no pervasive assumption about the degree of intractability of conflict interests; the approach appears to be pragmatic, oriented towards the particular problem and the actors enmeshed in it. Mories and Binstock set out the social planning orientation as follows: a planner cannot be expected to be attuned to --- the overriding interests of dominant factions. Considerable study and analysis of factions and interests dominant in various types of organizations will be needed before planners will have sufficient guidance for making reliable predications as to resistance likely in variety of situations.

**Social Action:** the approach assumes that interests among community subparts are at variance and not easily reconcilable, that resources are limited or dominated, and that often coercive influence must be applied (boycotts, Strikes, political and social upheavals) before meaningful adjustments can be made. Those who gain privileges and profits from the disadvantage of others do not easily give up their edge; the forces of self –interest makes it foolish to expect them to do so. Saul Alinsky (1962) states that all major controlling interests make a virtue of acceptance-acceptance of the ruling of the ruling parties' policies and decisions. Any movement or organization arising in disagreement, or seeking independent changes and defined by the predetermining power as a threat, is promptly subjected by castigation, public and private smears, and attacks on its every existence.

## 9. Conceptions of Intended Beneficiaries

Beneficiaries are those who are in line to gain from the efforts of the practitioner and the intervention process.

Locality Development: intended beneficiaries are likely to be viewed as average (normal) citizens who possess considerable strengths that are not fully developed and who need the services of the practitioner to help them release and focus these inherent capabilities. Practitioner conceives that each person is valuable, and capable of growth toward greater social sensitivity and responsibility. They also think that each person has underdeveloped abilities in initiative, originality, and leadership. These qualities can be cultivated and strengthened.

Social planning: the beneficiary group is more likely to be thought of as consumers of services, those who will receive and utilize those programs and services that are fruits of the social planning process- mental health treatment, public housing, health education, recreation, welfare benefits and so forth. According to this point of view the efficiency of the community's social functioning will depend on the quantity and quality of professional services rendered to the community, as well as the way in which the community concrete needs are provided for. In policy setting beneficiaries may be convinced as both consumers and constituents looking for policy favor.

Social Action: the intended beneficiaries are seen as aggravated victims of "the system" of slum landlords, the medical establishment, government bureaucracies' racist institutions, and corporate polluters.

## **10. Conception of the role of intended beneficiaries**

**Locality development:** beneficiaries are viewed as active participants in an Interactional process with one another and with the practitioner. Considerable stress is given on group discussion in the community as a medium through which learning and growth take place. Beneficiaries engage in an intensive group process of exploring their felt needs, determining the desired goals, and taking appropriate action.

**Social planning:** beneficiaries are clients, consumers, or recipients of services. They are active in using services, not in determination of policy or goals. As Morries & Binstock (1966) asserts, opportunities for members and consumers to determine policy are severely limited because they are not usually organized for this purpose. The opportunity to control social policy is short lived because the coalition will fall apart, lacking sufficient incentive to bind together the otherwise diverse constituent elements.

Decisions, then, are made through the planner, often in collaboration with some community group- a board or commission, usually composed of business and professional elites, who are presumed to represent either the community-at-large or the best interests of those being served. The data driven policy specialist is likely to be looking over his or her back through the process, realizing that consistency interests and pressures could have an impact on policy enactment.

**Social Action:** the benefiting group is likely to be thought of as an employer of the practitioner. The concept of the organizer as an employee and servant of the people is stressed. Khan (1982 :70) holds that the "staff director of the organization, if there is one, should be directly accountable to the board and should be held accountable by the board". Those not in key decision-making roles may participate more sporadically in mass action and pressure group activities, such as marches or boycotts.

## 11. Uses of Empowerment

Though empowerment is a highly valued concept in contemporary thinking and practice, it seems also be a buzzword that has to do more with creating a warm feeling than conveying a precise meaning. In the context of our discussion here, each intervention approach values empowerment, but uses it in a different, sometimes contradictory, fashion. Let have a sketch of major view of the three approaches in relation to empowerment.

**Locality development:** empowerment signifies the gaining of community competence-the skills to make decisions that people can agree on and enact together. It also signifies the development of a sense of personal mastery with within residents, as individual growth in people is considered as a component of community building and a goal of practice.

**Social Planning:** with its reliance on facts and rationality, this approach tends to consider empowerment with information empowerment, occurs when residents and consumers are asked to inform planners about their needs and preferences, so that they can be incorporated in to plan design. Through community services, focus group discussions, public hearings or analysis of data from agency service records, consumers are offered the right and the means to have their views enter in the process by which decision affecting them are made. Consumers are also empowered when information is provided to them about the various services that are available and particularizes about these services, so they become equipped to make the best decisions about what programs and services to use. Information plays an

important part in other approaches also, but it is given special emphasis in data-driven planning intervention.

**Social Action:** empowerment, in this approach, means to acquire objective, material power-for residents to be an equal party in decision making bodies such as agency boards or municipal commissions or to have the political clout to directly affect decisions made by these bodies. There is also attention to participants' personal sense of empowerment, because those individuals with a feeling of potency are more likely to lend themselves actively to the cause, and to contribute to the number count necessary for "people power" tactics of social action. Still another way of looking empowerment, especially from the conservatives is the elimination of governmental regulations and movements, especially the oppressors and discriminatory ones, so that citizens presumably gain the freedom to conduct their lives without restraint.

#### **4.6 The Processes Of Community Practice With Different Models Of Community**

##### **Intervention**

Practice in large measure is an art and has many unique, particularistic attributes. Each problem encountered, and its context, has distinct qualities and requirements that can not be ignored. At the same time, upon more abstract examination, there are basic or common aspects of practice, such as the presence of organizational constraint, the requirements of sufficient resources, and the necessity of leadership of one kind or another. These provide additional parameters within which community practitioners operate.

As we discussed before, our intervention with community may take different forms based on the selected model. If you select, based on problem nature and situation, social action then the intervention will use contest strategies. If you select locality development model, democratic procedure and citizen participation will be the features of the practice. Therefore, the point here is intervention process will differ among the different models. Thus it is very indispensable to look the process of intervention with in each approach.

#### **4.6.1 How to practice locality development**

We have discussed the major concepts and assumptions of locality development, but you may wonder what the major advantages of using this approach, over others, are?. Some of these points are summarized as follows.

How do you engage in locality development?

The "Iron Rule" of community intervention is to never do for people what they can do for themselves. Thus, the process is participatory by definition.

There are a number of basic steps to locality development that we'll discuss, more or less in the order in which they should be taken. "More or less" because each community and situation is unique. In some cases, you may need to work on several things at once, or to take a particular step out of order, or even skip it entirely. It's important to respond to the circumstances that exist.

**1. Get to know the community.** The term "get to know" really means three things here:

- Learn about the history, relationships, issues, factions, and other aspects of the community or locality you're working with before you start.
- Get acquainted with the people in the community. Develop relationships, so that they know who you are, what you're doing there, and why they should talk to and trust you..
- Understand how people in the community view themselves and others.)

We'll briefly examine what each of these means in practice.

#### **Community History**

knowing some community history is absolutely necessary. If you don't understand the alliances, rivalries, conflicts, and successes of the community, particularly those of the recent past, you're apt to make huge blunders. The time spent cleaning up after yourself will be far greater than the time you spend making sure you don't make a mess in the first place.

To learn community history, you have to talk to those who've experienced it or heard about it directly from the source. Conversations with community elders or long-time residents can yield a great deal of information (of course, not all of it necessarily objective or accurate). If you make contact with a broad range of people, you can at least sort out where stories agree or disagree. Some research in newspaper archives or on the Web could also be helpful here.

### **Getting Acquainted and Building Trust**

in many communities -- whether defined by geography or by class, ethnicity, or some other criterion -- it's difficult for an outsider to make any inroads. Especially if you're obviously different from community members, they may be reserved about spending time with you or listening to what you have to say. Even if you're already a member of the community, or come from a background or culture similar to that of the community with which you're working, you won't automatically gain their trust. You'll have to do that by proving your commitment and staying strong.

You have to spend time in the community and meet people where they live -- in the streets, at community events, in stores and bars and restaurants, in people's houses. There's a reason that the Peace Corps and similar organizations insist that volunteers live in the communities in which they work. Familiarity breeds familiarity. If community members actually know and have a relationship with you -- have had conversations with you about your family, your likes and dislikes, your values and ideals -- they're far more likely to trust you and listen when you ask them to join in a development effort.

### **Understanding How Community Members View themselves and Others**

Understanding how community members view themselves and others both inside and outside the community will help you understand where you and the community need to start. Some of the factors you might explore:

- How much do community members interact with one another? How well do they know one another? Is there a sense of community solidarity, or are there deep divisions between natives and newcomers, or between people of different races or

- ethnicities? Are there existing mechanisms in the community that serve to bring people together or keep them apart?
- Do community members see themselves as a community? Do they see themselves as part of multiple communities? Do people identify with the community as you've defined it, or with any community? Or is their world bounded instead by family or friendships or work?
  - How do community members view change and their own ability to effect change? Do they want changes? Do they feel that change is possible? Are they angry? Afraid? Apathetic?
  - Does the community have a sense of pride, or a sense of inferiority? Does it feel put upon by outside forces? What kinds of current or potential connections do community members have to policymakers or other influential people or groups? Do they see those connections as possible or useful?

**2. Identify the reasons that the community is likely to be willing to organize.** The reason that Saul Alinsky, commonly seen as the father of modern community organizing, was able, in 1930s Chicago, to bring together neighborhood groups that had been hostile to one another is that they all shared a common interest in improving working conditions in the stockyards, and a common resentment of the bosses who were exploiting them. If a community is to come together, it has to have good reasons for doing so, and those reasons have to be determined by the community itself, not by an authority or expert or outside organizer, no matter how well-intentioned.

Those reasons may be small specific issues (the deterioration of a neighborhood park, the need for more streetlights) or larger concerns (the fear that the community is dying economically or socially; feelings of resentment and powerlessness; a sense that opportunities are being missed; widespread discrimination and inequity; hostility from without; etc.). Furthermore, the reasons may not be understood or shared by everyone. It's crucial to find out what community members are concerned about, and to determine what might move them to unite and take action to address their concerns.

**3. Determine who are the opinion leaders and trusted individuals and groups in the community.** Opinion leaders are those whose opinions are valued and whose advice is followed by a majority of community members. They may be leaders because of their position (CEOs, clergy, college presidents, government officials), because of their assumed intelligence (doctors, professors), or simply because they have demonstrated level-headedness and fairness in the past. Often, they are average citizens who have gained their neighbors' respect through their exercise of common sense, compassion, and strong values.

Find those people and start with them. They'll know how to attract others, and who among those others can bring still others with them. Their support will lend credibility to a locality development effort. In addition, they're likely to be able to identify and help in negotiating the personality and group conflicts and other pitfalls of locality development.

**4. Recruit Community Members to the Effort.** First and foremost, locality development relies on personal contact. Meetings in people's living rooms, door to door canvassing, outreach to organizations and institutions and agencies -- all of these and other methods are the base of an organizing effort. It's difficult to convince anyone of anything without direct communication. Recruitment can and should go on continuously. It doesn't matter where you are in the locality development process—you can always use more participants.

Recruitment is really inseparable from building trust and becoming part of the community. Many organizers believe that they have to actually live in the community to establish any credibility, and, in at least some communities, that may be true. Having the support of opinion leaders and other trusted community members and groups can sometimes serve the same purpose, but it's not a substitute for doing the core work of any organizing: making personal contact with as many people as possible, and maintaining contacts day in and day out.

Perhaps the most important thing you can do is to treat everyone with respect. If you can develop a reputation as someone who's straightforward and honest, and who respects everyone, people will be more than willing to hear what you have to say. If you're

condescending, or present yourself as knowing more than community members, you might as well leave and find another use for your time.

**5. Build a communication system.** The first of the system improvements necessary to locality development is a communication network that makes it possible for anyone to reach anyone else. Not only can such a system make working together a great deal easier, but it also helps to squelch rumors and head off trouble before it happens.

The ability to make direct contact with someone and to find out exactly what she meant in that newspaper quote, or whether she's actually planning what you've heard she is, can make all the difference. She may not have meant her remark to be offensive (or may not have made it at all); she may not have meant to release her plan until she'd discussed it with you and others first. On the other hand, if there's actually a problem, it's better to deal with it straightforwardly and resolve it than to complain and wait until it's too late before protesting.

A communication system, in this sense, doesn't refer to hardware -- a complicated phone system, for instance, or a computer network -- but, rather, to people knowing whom to call on for what, and making sure that everyone has access to everyone else. This may be as simple as circulating a list of names, mail and email addresses, and phone numbers, or as complicated as setting up communication trees (and allowing for the fact that many low-income people don't have their own computers or phones).

**6. Encourage leadership from the community from the beginning.** Identify, train, and mentor natural leaders, so that they can take on increasing responsibility and ultimately direct the effort. One of the key pieces of infrastructure that locality development is meant to create is local leadership, making it possible for the effort to be sustained indefinitely by the community. Some community members may have very little experience in attending meetings, speaking in public, or even in sorting out their own opinions from what they've been told. They'll need support and training in learning those skills.

**7. Create a structure to help the community accomplish its goals.** In order to solidify and coordinate the development effort, it is generally necessary to create an organization of some sort, or even more than one, to provide structure for and coordinate your action. The exception to this rule is a situation in which an organization already exists that has credibility and can take on the work of locality development.

**8. Define the most important issues that relate to the community's overall concerns.** Just as when your group came together, the issues to be worked on must come from the community itself and reflect community members' concerns and needs. Some of these issues may be the same reasons you cited for coming together; others may be stepping stones to a larger goal. In either case, people won't find them compelling unless they generate them themselves.

**9. Develop a strategic plan.** Once you've determined where you're going -- i.e., the issues or problems to be addressed -- the next step is to figure out how to get there. The way to do that is by developing a strategic plan -- a step-by-step blueprint for accomplishing your goals. This means embarking on a participatory process to establish a vision for the community, a mission for your effort, objectives to be reached, a strategy by which to reach them, and actions that will carry out the strategy (VMOSA).

An important part of planning is considering what's possible and what will help to keep the development process going. It's wise, for instance, not to try to reach your ultimate goals all at once, but to work in stages. Aim first for something that's achievable, so that the effort will have an initial success to build on. When that goal is met, strategize again and set your next, somewhat more difficult, goal. With each stage of the effort, people will become more confident and more committed to reaching the ambitious goals set out in the strategic plan.

10. **Implement your plan.** Here's where all your organizing and hard work pay off. The community takes action to achieve the results it wants, based on the plan that's been developed.

11. **Continually monitor and evaluate your work.** The Community Tool Box considers these functions so important to any effort that it devotes four chapters (36-39) to evaluating community organizations and initiatives. Monitoring and regularly evaluating your work gives you the opportunity to change what's not working and to respond to changes in the community. It also tells you what you're doing well, and may give you ideas about how to build on your successes.

You should be looking at both the process and the results of what you're doing. How successfully have you brought in all sectors of the community? How invested are they in making or causing changes that will improve people's lives? How well is your organization running, and does it meet the community's needs? Is the action you're involved in effective at keeping you moving toward your goals? Are you achieving the outcomes you're aiming for?

11. **Make the locality development effort self-sustaining and community-run, so that it's established as a permanent fixture.** You may not be interested in that level of longevity, but locality development is an ongoing process. Individuals and groups move, and others that know nothing of your effort take their places. If you build a strong community and a strong organization that belongs to and is run by community members, it will continue as long as it's needed.

#### **4.6.2 How to Practice Community Planning**

Working with a community planning group often follows a series of steps, but arriving at a plan to achieve an ideal future state can not always be routinized. There are too many unknowns, too many variables for planning to be caught in a rigid process or method. Methods themselves need to be contingent on the particular situation that presents itself to the citizen planners. Macro social interveners find, however, that most community groups use similar steps. Let's review these steps in the following essay.

## **1. Build a Network of Relationship**

One of the key skills of a community social work planner is the ability to bring people together around a social problem of concern to them and help them to seek its resolution. Community social work planners are not mere value-neutral technicians. We plan with people and engage in a number of organizing efforts, including networking, negotiating, coalition creation, and consensus building. We bring people together to discuss difficult social issues for which answers may be unclear, opinions differ, goals may conflict, or interests may clash. Social work planners need to be good listeners and be able to relate to a variety of people, many of whom have a vested interest in the issues and may want more rather than less while contributing less to the process rather than more.

## **2. Develop a Planning Board**

Developing a neighborhood planning board consists of three steps: recruit members, form them in to a recognized planning board, and orient them to the process. When you develop a neighborhood planning board, consider committed community residents. Though, in every community, there are numerous individuals, vested interests, groups, and organizations that may be affected by, have information about, and have a stake in the outcomes of the problem, the most important of them are interested and involved community members. Other stakeholder like people in positions of power, can provide input, give advice, offer information, and develop support, but they should not be members of the community planning group itself who make the decisions about community plans.

One way to develop a planning board is to conduct a series of focus group discussions. This helps to improve commitment & interest of members. Hold as many focus groups as you need to generate community interest and involvement in the project. Volunteers from the focus group will be asked to join the board.

When you have 15 to 20 members you can form a community planning form. This number is large enough to represent a variety of interest of community including representation of the ethnic, gender, age, cultural, and religious diversity of your community as well as inclusive of people with disabilities. While it is small enough for face –to–face meetings and for getting work accomplished, it is also a large enough to break in to several smaller groups.

The last activity of this step is to spend time orienting members in how to perform in a task group, including using parliamentary procedure, or assist in leading the planning board until it has developed sufficient readiness to elect its own leader.

### **3. Define Problem**

Community members themselves should define the arena of planning. A citizen's planning council on developmental disabilities, for example, may define a problem as a lack of day programs for severely disabled adults; a neighborhood planning board may be concerned about the lack of social programs for teenagers.

### **4. Mobilize Guiding Values**

A community planning group should discuss its guiding values early in the process. Community planning groups need to clearly understand what values are most important to them, why they are important, and how to present the contents of these values to others. They must also understand that powerful interests represent and learn how to counteract them. A community social worker planner can be a valuable resource in helping the planning board discuss and articulate the content of their values and, particularly, the interests of those in power with whom they may conflict.

### **5. Perform Assessment and Research**

The planning board should gather two kinds of information: about assets, strengths, and resources that exist in the community; and about the needs that the community members have gaps in services, or areas that may require attention. The asset or resource assessment should include information about; capacities of individuals, associations, private, non profit and governmental organizations found in the community, physical assets( land, building, streets, parks, and lakes) and capacity finders and developers, like local community leaders, professionals, and experts.

The need assessment focus on the unmet needs, but yet not ignore the strengths to meet these needs. When you perform a need assessment, ask "what is not here that should be here?" "What is not happening that should be happening?" this is completely different from asking "what are all bad things in this community?"

After your assessment you may go deep and research about assets and needs by collecting additional information. The focus of the research will be to generate ideas about alternative ways of solving the problem or meeting the unmet need.

#### **6. Assess and Compare Alternatives**

Once the planning group has developed two or three alternatives for reaching its goals, members need to compare them. You can use rational problem solving benefit –cost analysis to give your planning group an estimated relative cost of various proposals. The least costly option, however, may not be one the community would choose. Although it is useful to calculate and rank alternatives, the community as a whole should ultimately make the final decision about a community plan.

#### **7. Provide Feedback**

At every step in community planning, it is vital to give feedback to officials in position of political power. Make sure your group regularly informs those people from whom they will seek support, approval, or ask for funding. If these officials have questions, concerns or conflicts about what your group is doing, it is better to have those issues examined earlier rather than later. If you wait until your group has finished its process and then discover your members lack support, you will have complicated or damaged your planning process.

The community as a whole on whose behalf the planning process is being conducted must be regularly appraised about its progress and expected outcomes. Individuals from the community at large can give valuable periodic feedback to the community planning group about feasibility and utility of the planning objectives. Including members in the process also can ensure that those who were not initially part of the process may now become involved. Keeping community members informed may provide an army of volunteers to take on various parts of the project. The more the planning process includes and involves members of the community, the greater its impact and success may be.

#### **8. Present Solution to the Community**

As soon as the planning team decides on several recommended solutions to the problem, they should present the proposal to the wider community to solicit feedback in a series of open community forums. In a form a community planning board gives a short history of the problem and how the community generated its solutions. Members present all

alternatives by debates, focus-group discussions, or panel discussions with audience participation. When the community as a whole has had time to reflect and consider the merits of the various alternative proposals, a general meeting should be called to help your group decide which among the various proposals they think is best. Your planning group can use buzz groups, Crawford slip writing, idea writing, or group voting to help a large audience come to a decision.

### **9. Present Solution to Decision Makers**

The community planning board needs to devise its strategy for dealing with political decision makers. To be successful in getting their attention the social intervener provide training, help members present their proposals, and engage in political action and pressure tactics.

You and your group must not be naïve about the political process involved in decision making. Many interests are competing for attention and approval. The process may be highly irrational, fraught with emotion, and dependant on compromise, bargaining and negotiating. Therefore you need to provide training to your group about the political process. Your group must be able to communicate with and present its plans to political leaders who have the power to approve the plan in ways that will capture their attention and help your members set it in motion. Assist your members in presenting proposals and ideas in understandable language. An analysis not communicated well, is "worse than useless"; it can be counterproductive and damaging, just as it might also other times deliberately serve to obfuscate important issues. A good idea presented the week after a crucial meeting (or too late on an agenda, or on the wrong agenda) will no longer do any good.

You, as social intervention practitioner, are also expected to help your planning group and community members learn how to engage in political action by lobbying key political decision makers, networking with key leaders, negotiating and building coalitions, and creating consensus on behalf of your community plan.

When necessary, your planning group may use citizen protests, including packing council meetings, forming delegations, and voting as a block to support political candidates or to propose specific referenda or initiatives.

## **10. Implement the Solution**

A plan, even if it is well thought out and well designed, is of little use unless it can be implemented. In the process of implementation, help the planning group itemize the steps by which the plan can put in to action by community members themselves in partnership with government and corporate leaders who may have resources that the community needs. The plan may call for the development of a social program or social agency. You assist the planning group in transforming it self in to a board of directors and a social organization. The plan may call for coordination, funding, and implementation of services by existing social agencies. Administrators will need information on how to proceed with such implementation. You may act as a consultant to administer actors or help community members facilitate administration of the plan.

## **11. Monitor and Evaluate**

The planning process is not complete until a plan for monitoring and evaluation is developed. You will be active in working with community groups to analyze the consequence of change, monitoring program effectiveness, providing consultation, specifying adjustments needed, and identifying new problems tat may call for action & planning.

### **4.6.3. How to practice community organizing**

Behind every successful social movement is a community or network of communities. When these communities are effectively organized, they can provide social movements with important benefits. Community organizing provides a free space where members can practice "pre-figurative politics", attempting to create on a small scale the type of world they are struggling for. Community organizing helps to bring out voices to add collective power and strengths to an issue. It provides the people with an opportunity to get involved and identify the problems of their community. At the heart of community organizing are inclusion, ownership, relationship building and strengths to an issue.

If community organizing furnishes these benefits, how to practice it is the next logical question. Though many writers have identified different stages of community organizing, experienced organizers know that the process of community organizing is seldom "tidy"- it doesn't always happen in neat, predictable steps. Moreover developing an organized constituency is labor-intensive, on going, and interactive.

Community organizing is a creative process that will never be completely perfected. It calls forth the imagination, ingenuity, compassion, and mutual engagement of the organizer and the people. You begin by understanding the people and helping them. Define the problem that you will work with them to address. You engage the community, empower forces of the change, and build an organization.

### **1. understand the people**

People who have been forced to live in prolonged poverty or oppression are often unwilling participants in an equal and harmful system in which they may feel powerless. Victims of oppression will sometimes repress, minimize, ignore, or deny their circumstances. Some may not want to admit the seriousness of their problems, recognize that their condition is as bad as it is, or believe that things can ever change. They react to their dependency by adopting any number of mechanisms that enable them to service often brutal life circumstances. People who have their lives in conditions of dependency and deprivation may manifest the following behaviors.

- A. **Act out:** people who have been forced to live in deprived conditions sometimes develop harmful behaviors that allow them to survive. Some may act out their pain, turning in to a life of crime or joining a gang. When this occur, Alinsky, reminds us that the organizer' affection for people is not lessened nor is he hardened against them even masses of them even when masses of them demonstrate a capacity for rituality , selfishness, hate greed, avarice , and disloyalty. He is conceived that these attitudes and actions are the result of evil conditions. It is not the people who must be judged but the circumstances that made them that way. The organizer desire to change society then becomes that much firmer.
- B. **Get out and opt out:** others may get out – escaping the community and going to a better environment. A very few may opt out-rising above poverty and oppression to become successful professionals, actors or business people.
- C. **Flake out:** there are even a few who flake out. Flake outs become comedians who bring the pain out in to the open by focusing it on them so people can laugh about it They Play a therapeutic role by helping people release the pain they feel. But these survival mechanisms are neither available nor appropriate for the whelming majority of people who live with injustices. The very few fortunate will flake out.

D. **Cop out:** most victims of oppression cop out. They bury their pain and learn to live with an oppressive situations until become part of the system. They unwillingly, and often unwittingly, perpetuate the cycle of victimization because they have few choices. Paulo Friere says, speaking Brueggemann (2006), that he oppressed some times behave in ways that "reflect the structure of domination". The oppressed often live with an "existential duality" in which they are at the time themselves and the oppressor whose image they have internalized.

Conditioned to accept their situation many of oppressed people tend to think they are not as capable, as competent, or as good as others. Some may even believe they deserve poor services and shoddy living arrangements, and they should be grateful for any thing they get. Many of them internalized stereotype against them, and blame themselves for their fate, not understanding that their poverty is their poverty may be responsible for their alienation and feelings of hopelessness, or that their poverty is a function of a macro process over which they have little, if any control.

## 2. Overcome self –oppression

Rather than give in this cycle of helplessness, macro social interveners help people who oppressed face issues that they would rater avoid. Recognizing and accepting the reality of the situation is the first step in recovery. The problems of the community will not be solved until and unless community members recognize them you help people to overcome self-oppression by using the following techniques.

A. **Rekindle emotional responses:** people who are victims of self-oppression or learned helplessness may notably or willingly to look clearly at the pain they are experiencing. Thus, to motivate them you, fire up their anger, touch their sense of dignity that has been bruised, appeal to their sadness and sense of loss, tell stories about the tragedies you know that have occurred and get members to develop emotional contagion with one an other. You help their members to relate their own experience to begin to reach for emotions they have buried and have nearly forgotten. You help them to gain access to feelings that they not allowed themselves to have and such feelings will not mobilize them to fight the issue.

B. **Stimulate action:** here you help people act on their renews feelings and recovered thoughts and ideas than remain compliant. Bring people together,

stimulate their energies, and mobilize the "rightness" of their cause. Alinsky asserts that you must be like a sales person try to convince to do people something, showing people credible, creating a convincing picture of what might be, relying on emotional contagion as well as on a factual account of what can be done. Use different mechanisms, like friendship and relation networks, as well as other formal and informal structures, until the people recognize that it is they who must do something about their own problems. You will help them to understand that it is only they who can be looked for to do the right thing and realize that only if they organize enough power in their community that something can be done about these things, nothing will get done.

### **3. Engage and understand the community**

As you engage the community and its people, you obtain an understanding of the community that you will be organizing. You gain a feeling for their issues and their plight. This must be done carefully. According to Von Hoffman, speaking Breuggmann, the job of the organizer is to listen to what the people have to say, what they want and do not to happen. More over, Alinsky says that "the organizer must learn the characteristics of the community from a general survey of the situation, plot the power pattern of the community, and look for and evaluate local leaders.

### **4. Define the Problem**

You place your self clearly on the side of the people, and you clearly stat your purpose in the neighborhood. You don't define their problems for them or provide solutions. The people who have the problem define it, agree on the solution and how to reach to it. They may define the issue narrowly; "ensure that our land lord returns our rent deposits when we move out" or they may define it more broadly "make the city council by pass a law requiring the return of rent deposits'. Even though you may think other issues are more problem and could be addressed more effectively, if the people with no house want to ensure their rent deposits back paid when they move out, you help them act on these issues.

The problem must be important to the welfare of the community, and one around which people can be mobilized to action. To this effect, as a community organizer, you assist community members in pointing and exposing areas of oppression. Begin

where people are and help them raise issues of accrued concerns, focusing on one or more problem situations that are clearly visible, like lack of police protection, crime, drug abuse, poor housing condition e.t.c.

### **5. Build An Organization And Turning The Problem In To An Issue.**

Constructing an effective organization is of central importance along with learning how to use it. Alinsky was concerned with building enough fire power, so to speak, so that those in control of it could achieve their goals. And goals were to be understood as interest of the members that were to be served.

When enough people in the community are concerned about the problem, schedule a series of preliminary meetings to build an organizational structure. At the meeting concentrate on moving those attending in to decision and action. In principle, a community organization is always the expression of power through the greatest number of members, acting together to resolve the central problems of their lives. You have to insist on only two things: the organization must be democratic, and it must be representative of the community. When the structure becomes clear and a decision is made to organize, help the community members elect officers and develop preliminary committees, role assignments, and time lines.

Once established the organization turns the problem to the issue. There is a difference between a problem and an issue. An issue is a specific solution to a problem that you choose to work on. You do not always get to choose your problems. Often your problems choose you. But you always select your issues, the solution to the problem that you wish to win. Air pollution is a problem. Changing the law to get older power covered by the same air quality regulations that apply to newer plants is an issue.

### **6. Develop And Carry Out Strategies**

The aim of community organizing is to develop a community power base in which members engage in a series of specific and local confrontations to achieve their goals, work to build confidence among leaders and members, and demonstrate the organizations ability to improve the quality of neighborhood life. To achieve these goals we need strategies. A strategy is the overall plan for a campaign. In this case it is about power relationships and it involves asking six questions:

1. What are your short and long term goals?

2. what are your organizational strengths and weakness
3. who cares about this problem
4. who are your allies
5. Who has the power to give you what you want?
6. What tactics can you use to apply your power and make it felt by those who can give you what you want?

The strategies are often conflict oriented and include the tactics of confrontation and direct action. Warren however suggests a variation in conflict tactics according to the degree of issue agreement among the parties involved in social change. Campaign strategies are more appropriate when there are differences among parties but issue consensus can eventually be reached. Contest strategies are more appropriate when the opponent refuses to recognize the issue or opposes the people's organization proposal so that issue dispenses seems strongly entrenched.

Carrying out the strategies may bring many people to meet with the decision maker. You may use large meetings and actions to force the person who can give you what you want to react. That person is the decision maker. The decision maker is often referred as the 'target' of the campaign. The decision maker is always an individual person or a number of individuals, never a board or elected body as a whole. If you are trying to get something passed by city council, for instance, you don't say the decision maker is the city council. Rather you need specific members of the city council to vote on an issue. Who are they? Name them, what is your power over them? Do you have members in their district?

## **7. Debrief**

After your organization engage in action, hold a postmortem to review what happened. This gives you an opportunity to raise questions about weak points, reinforce the good things that were done, assess the effect on the program, and consider what steps might be taken next.

## **8. Termination**

Just as you must spend time getting to know the community and its people and developing relationships, you must like wise spend a lot of time disengaging and helping

the organization assess it self. The description of how a locality community developer disengages from a community, discussed before, is essentially the same as the way in which a community organizer exits from a community organization. When this is completed the organizers job is done. You won and go to the next community organizing effort.

Community organizers think strategically about their work while always keep the final goal in mind and continually making contributions to the goal. This is especially important in community organizing campaigns to enact or change policies. Qualities of good organizers include the following, among others; imagination , sense of humor , blurred vision of a better world, an organized personality, strong ego/ sense of oneself, a free, open mind, and political relatively , ability to create the new out of the old(Alinsky: 1971).

