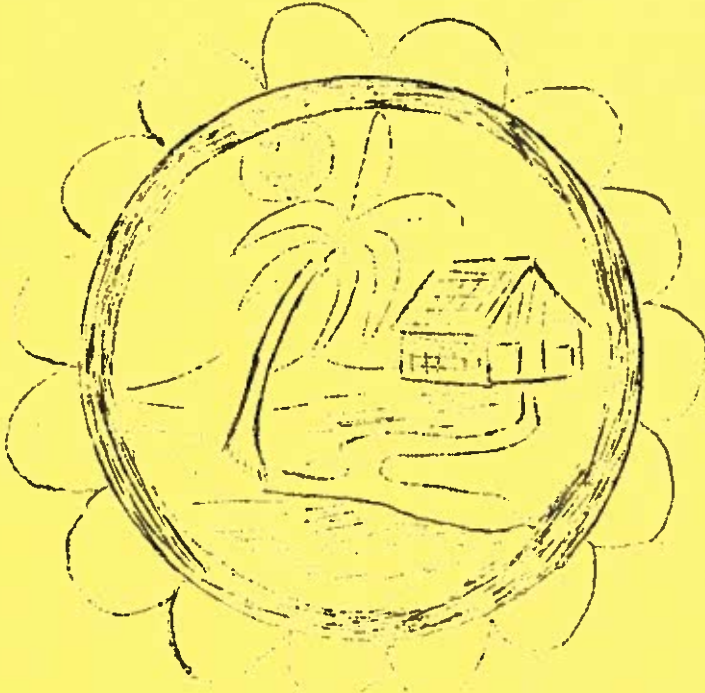


Proceedings of:
COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
WORKSHOP



University of Guam
July 30, 31 and August 1, 1975

BUREAU OF PLANNING
GOVERNMENT OF GUAM
P.O. BOX 2950
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Sponsored by

Community Development Institute
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Preface

As a follow up to the Community Resources Development Seminar held on July 29, 1975 at the Guam Hilton Hotel, a workshop on theories and principles related to community development was held at the University of Guam. Dr. Manfred Thullen Associate Professor of Resource Development at Michigan State University presented the workshop. The proceedings in this document represent the highlights of this workshop. They should serve as a valuable summary to the workshop participants (see appendix) and as a useful resource to selected community development areas. The areas covered in the workshop were selected by the participants.

This workshop and the Seminar preceding it were made possible through a Title I Grant for Community Service and Continuing Education from the Department of Health Education and Welfare. The Program was coordinated and directed by the Community Development Institute which is a part of the Cooperative Extension Service, College of Agriculture and Life Sciences, University of Guam.

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Contents

	<u>Page</u>
I. What is Community	1- 8
II. Community Development - Some Parameters	9-10
III. The Community Development Process: Some Basic Approaches	10-15
IV. Citizen Participation	15-26
V. The Leadership Development Process in Working with Volunteers	27-31
VI. Organizational and Leadership Styles	31-48
VII. Agencies Working Together	49-51

Appendixes

- A. Letter to Prospective Workshop Participants
- B. Workshop Schedule
- C. Workshop Participants

I. What is Community?¹

In any kind of planning and development work, wherever or whenever it is undertaken, the concept "Community" is highly significant. Community is important in our efforts whether the focus is Non-metropolitan Development, Rural Development, Urban Development, or Regional Development. It is all Community Development. In these efforts, whether we are professionals or laymen, we all use the term community; yet there is frequently a great deal of difference in what we mean.

Since the concept community is so important and because there is so much confusion about it, the core staff in this short course decided that building understanding of community had to be undertaken early.

In developing this understanding of community lets begin first by identifying some of the terms that frequently are used to describe what we mean by community. If you are like many other workers whose roles have been expanded to include development work, though that wasn't your basic training, your list will read something like this: "people", "area", "territory", "common concern", "mutual", "exchange", "similar cause", "interdependence", "joint purpose" and many more.

An increasing number of Community Development workers and scientists from a great many other fields have been concentrating on the subject of community. An examination of the source of their definitions will be useful as an opener.

¹ This section was originally presented at the Short Course for Intensive Training for Non-Metropolitan Development, Lincoln, Nebraska, April 28-May 9, 1975, by William J. Kimball, Professor, Resource Development and Extension Specialist, Community Resource Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 48824.

Lets begin with a simple straightforward definition of community which is provided by Lee Cary of the University of Missouri in his recent book "Community Development as a Process":

Community as the term is used here, refers to people who live in some spatial relationship to one another and who share interests and values.¹

Sanders, one of the most widely accepted authors on this subject defines community in sociological terms:

A community is a territorially organized system coextensive with a settlement pattern in which, (1) an effective communications network operates, (2) people share common facilities and services distributed within this settlement pattern and (3) people develop a psychological identification with the "locality symbol". (the name)²

Robert Park an early human ecologist at the University of Chicago defined community:

The essential characteristics of a community so conceived are those of: (1) a population territorially organized. (2) more or less completely rooted in the soil it occupies, (3) its individual units living in a relationship of mutual interdependence that is symbiotic rather than societal in the sense that the term applies to human beings.³

Loomis and Beegle, two of my colleagues at Michigan State University prefer a less complex definition:

The community may be defined as a social system encompassing a territorial unit within which members carry on most of their day-to-day activities necessary in meeting common needs.⁴

The scientific definitions have been intended to give you an idea of how extensively the subject matter has been treated by the researchers across this country. For many it would be interesting to see how others in this country as well as those in other cultures have dealt with the concept of community. For this brief treatment time will not permit.

Even though we have only drawn from four scientific definitions, I'm convinced we can identify some key characteristics of a community. I've examined each of the definitions, and explored my own convictions a bit further and have come up with:

KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF A COMMUNITY

1. a group of people
2. shared interests, attitudes and activities.
3. common identify
(agreement on a locality-perhaps a name)
4. frequent and continuing interaction
5. Living in an identifiable territory
(space which can be mapped)

It is possible that these identified characteristics are not entirely mutually exclusive. There may even need to be additions in order to be a generally acceptable and universally usable treatment of the concept community for community development practitioners. Those difficulties are probably among the good reasons for not being able to find a precise definition of community, including its characteristics, in the literature.

Sub-Communities

For many of us the identified key characteristics define a general community or what Beegle and Loomis call an overall social system. By saying that such a definition applies to a general community I immediately open the door to the consideration of other kinds of communities. That is exactly the case. I'm convinced as are many of the scholars in the community or community development field that there are also sub-communities. Some prefer to label such sub-communities, "functional communities" or "community

components", "communities of interest" or "sub-systems". The definitions are not in perfect agreement here either, but in general we are all talking about a community concerned with a certain function. We are not describing a community which has all the key characteristics of the general community for all of human interaction needs.

All of the authors I mentioned in my identification of key characteristics of a general community contribute to the idea of functional sub communities. The material in this workshop which follows this by Powers and Tait will deal more extensively with the idea of sub units, particularly as it relates to linkages and interaction. Using the background reference materials I've mentioned and especially a fifth item by "The Lippit Team" at Ann Arbor, Michigan⁵, I've identified 9 functional sub-communities which are most significant in Michigan community development work.

FUNCTIONAL SUB-COMMUNITIES

POLITICAL COMMUNITY:

County, Township, and City Governments; Political Organizations

EDUCATIONAL COMMUNITY:

Schools - Primary, Secondary, Vocational Colleges, Universities; Non-formal education

MASS COMMUNICATIONS COMMUNITY:

T.V., Newspapers, Radio

ECONOMIC COMMUNITY:

Employment, Industry, Business, Finances

RECREATION AND CULTURAL COMMUNITY:

Public Parks, Museums, Libraries and Various Facilities, Private Recreation and Leisure Time Arrangements

SUPPORTIVE SERVICES COMMUNITY:

Health Facilities and Opportunities, Welfare Efforts

SOCIAL CONTROL COMMUNITY:

Social Sanction, Police, Courts, Correction Services, etc.

RELIGIOUS COMMUNITY:

Churches and Spiritual Organizations

PHYSICAL, GEOGRAPHICAL, ECOLOGICAL, OR ENVIRONMENTAL COMMUNITY:

Planning, Development, Watershed, and Special Functional Arrangements

Again this list fits for many, but it may not be all inclusive. A sub-community category may have to be split for some.

The important point is that for each function a certain kind of community operates to serve that need.

Community Hierarchy

One very important additional point emerges in this building of understanding of communities. Communities operate at many levels or in a hierarchy whether we are talking about general communities or sub-communities. Examining a general community will help to make this point. Using the key characteristics one can identify a unit which might commonly be called a neighborhood. At another level (large in size) a community-generally a little larger than a village or city could be identified. Further a community about the size of a county could be identified. A combination of counties-a multi-county region- is a community higher in the hierarchy. Continuing in this manner we could look at the state community, multi-state community, the national community, the multi-nation community and the world community. Similarly, we could examine functional sub-communities.

Mapping Communities

It is interesting to read and hear about the community concept. Putting these ideas to work in our own circumstances, will however, help to reinforce them and make them workable tools for our roles. Going back to a community in Michigan where I served as a field agent a few years back and where I am currently involved in teaching a field techniques course, I've applied the idea of mapping my communities.

First, on my map I included the political communities. It seems desirable to draw them first because they are usually a set of readily identified boundaries. They demonstrate the hierarchy concept well, too.

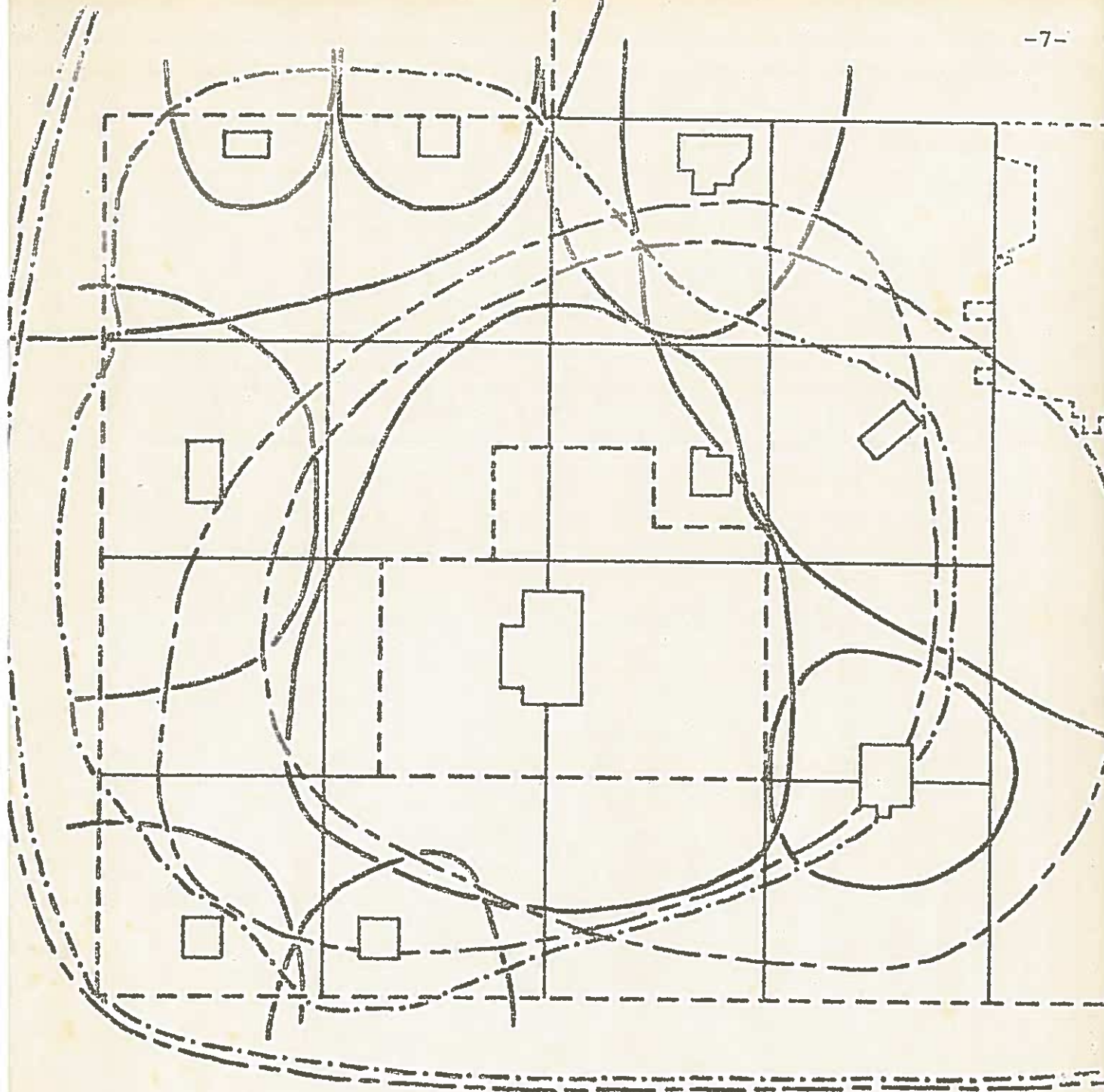
Because educational communities are usually easily identified I included them next.

Identifying mass communications communities is a little more difficult because there usually are no identifiable boundaries. Drawing a community boundary line at the outer edge of newspaper, radio or T.V. coverage provides these boundaries.

In similar manner identifying the employment drawing power of an industry, the distance shoppers travel, and/or the distance banking is done, is the route to identifying the economic community.

We could continue with other functional sub-communities, but for our purpose our map is well filled.

Finally by examining the lines on our map we can identify general communities; those communities where the people have shared concerns, call their community by a name, interact frequently and the territory is identified very often by the intersection of the sub-community boundaries.



- Political Community
- Educational Community
- . - . - . Mass Communications Community
- Economic Community
- General Community

KEY REFERENCE

¹Lee J. Cary, Community Development As a Process, (Columbia: University of Missouri Press, 1970), p. 2.

²Irwin T. Sanders, The Community- An Introduction to a Social System, (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966), p. 26.

³Robert Ezra Park, "Human Ecology," in Roland L. Warren, Perspectives on the American Community (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1973), p. 34.

⁴Charles P. Loomis and J. Allan Beegle, Rural Sociology (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957), p. 22.

⁵Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt, The Volunteer Community- Creative Use of Human Resources, (Washington, D.C.: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1971).

II. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT - SOME PARAMETERS

Why This Topic?

There is a great confusion about the definition of Community Development. Different people will define C.D. in different ways for different purposes.

It is thus useful to have a general idea of what is meant by Community Development - to put some parameters around it - to have a working definition in mind.

As with anything else, C.D. cannot be all things to all people or an "umbrella" under which all kinds of activities can be brought under.

Finally, in any workshop activity, it is important that the participants and resource people have a common ground from which they can interact -- so that they don't end up talking past each other, but rather are using some of the same terminology, meaning more or less the same thing to all involved.

A General Working Definition

C.D. means group decision making and group action - at the community level, which is aimed at improving the quality of life of that community.

C.D. involves a conscious effort, by members of a community, to changing conditions within that community, from what they presently are, in order to achieve a new condition that represents what conditions ought to be. Thus C.D. is a process of Planned Community Change.

C.D. involves a rational problem solving process which includes several inter-related steps:

- An analysis of the present situation
- Identification of problems, needs and issues that need to be resolved and opportunities that can be taken advantage of
- Development of alternative courses of action
- Identification of resources needed
- Development of a plan of action
- Implementation of the plan
- Evaluation of the results in terms of what goals were set

C.D. does not imply random change that occurs within communities.

Not all "group decision making" and "group action" is C.D. There has to be an element of common good for the whole community - it is group decision and action on shared concerns and problems impinging on the members of the community.

C.D. is not directly concerned with group decision making and group action which will result in private individual gain.

III. THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS AND SOME BASIC APPROACHES

The Process

It is a process of group decision making and group action, at the community level, aimed at improving the quality of life for the people of that community.

The C.D. process consists of some basic interrelated and somewhat sequential steps and it is cyclical and ought to be used on a continuous manner for long range benefit to the community in attempting planned change.

The general steps in the Process include:

- 1 - An analysis of the present condition of the community.
 - This also means an analysis of the past, in order to better understand the present and possible future.
- 2 - The identification of problems, needs, opportunities.
 - The analysis of the community situation should result in the identification of concerns - i.e. things that should be better than they presently are.
- 3 - Developing priorities about problems, needs and opportunities.
 - From among the identified problems, the community must make a judgment as to which ones are the most serious, which ones it should give priority attention to.
- 4 - Developing alternative solutions.
 - For the identified priority problems - alternative solutions should be explored. For each problem there are different kinds of solutions.
- 5 - Identifying resources needed.
 - In light of the alternative solutions being explored, the kind of resources to carry them out need to be identified. This is crucial as it is a major factor in making a decision as to which alternative solution will be chosen.
- 6 - Developing Plans for action.
 - It is in this plan that the community makes the crucial decisions about:
 - (a) Goals - short and long term
 - (b) What is to be done
 - (c) What resources are needed and from where

- (d) Who does what
- (e) When it is to be done
- (f) Where is it to be done

7 - Implementing the plans of action.

- Following the plans, the community activity works in doing what it has set out to do.

8 - Evaluating results of the action.

- Evaluation or assessment of action is important.

Questions that need to be asked include:

- (a) Were the goals set achieved?
- (b) If not, why?
- (c) What was the impact of the action?
- (d) What consequences are apparent - are there positive or negative consequences that were not anticipated?
- (e) What needs to be done further - why, who, when, where, and what?

There are several "key ingredients" in the C.D. process. In order for it to work, there is a need for:

- (a) Adequate community leadership
- (b) Citizen participation throughout the process
- (c) Organization - for continuity, focus of effort, division of labor, collective strength, and for the eventual institutionalization of the process within the community.
- (d) Evaluation - in addition to the separate step at the end of the process, constant evaluation of what is being done and what happens throughout the process is important.

- (e) Resources - the proper use of ~~these for the development~~ process to work. Besides there being outer community resources, each community also has many inner resources it can and should tap. These include their: (i) Natural resources, (ii) Man-made resources (physical and institutional) and (iii) Human resources.

The end result of using and applying the C.D. process in a constant manner will result in a "COMPETENT COMMUNITY" - that is a community that is able and competent to deal with whatever problems, needs and issues it is confronted with and that can take advantage of the opportunities that present themselves.

Approaches

Until recently C.D. workers generally considered only one approach. This was an approach based on working within small "compact" communities and that depended on gradual change through consensus and collaboration.

However, in the past twenty years, many new approaches for C.D. have been developed. Some labeled themselves as C.D., others didn't want to accept this label of C.D.

Today there is a new willingness to look at different approaches. People in C.D. are less inclined to believe that there is only one approach to C.D. - but that different approaches can be used as different tools for different purposes under different circumstances.

Roland Warren has developed three basic approaches or strategies for development, which are based on the degree of consensus or dissensus within the community about whether an

issue exists that needs to be addressed and about what needs to be done in order to address an issue. The three basic "strategies" developed by Warren are:

1. The "Collaborative Strategy"

- (a) A situation of "issue consensus" exists, i.e. actual or potential consensus between the community and the change agent (party or parties who want to bring about a change - can be agency, individual or a community group) about
 - the issue
 - ways of dealing with the issue.
- (b) The "change agent" role is that of facilitator, stimulator, catalyst.
- (c) The change agent doesn't have preconceived ideas about the issue or how to solve it.
- (d) People in the community will agree upon the issue and how to deal with it - once they have enough knowledge.

2. The "Campaign Strategy"

- (a) A situation of "issue dissensus" exists. That is, complete disagreement (usually based on values and beliefs) about:
 - whether an issue exists or
 - how an issue is to be resolved.
- (b) The difference are basically not reconcilable within the foreseeable future, thus one or the other side has to win. It's an "us" versus "them" contest.

- (c) The role of the change agent is that of a contestant who attempts to have "his side" win.
- (d) The change agent and the "other side" both have "preconceived" ideas about what an issue is, and how to deal with certain issues.
- (e) The change agent attempts to work: "within" the system - by changing the distribution of power; or by confrontation and working "outside" the normal system.
- (f) The outcome is that one or the other side "wins" or prevails.

In sum, C.D. workers should recognize these various alternative approaches to change. There is no right way all the time for all circumstances.

IV. CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Much of the discussion about citizen participation is superficial and ambiguous. There is a great deal of variety in which citizen participation is defined and in how these words are used. In fact, "citizen participation" has in many ways become a cliché with strong emotional overtones, both positive and negative. Thus, there are great differences about citizen participation - with many people having little understanding about what it is and are only for it based on a belief that it is "good" and we should have it.

Below are some basic concepts about "citizens" and their "participation" which can provide C.D. workers a more rational framework within which to deal with the issue of citizen participation and how to obtain it. Much of this material was originally developed by Jim Cook of the University of Missouri at Columbia.

Why the Concern About Citizen Participation?

We are living in a highly complex and urbanized society. More and more decisions are being made by technocrats and bureaucrats, who have highly specialized functions and training and who can deal with component parts of the highly technical societal problems.

On the other hand, all of us, including the technocrats and bureaucrats, still value democracy (believing either that it is here and must be preserved, or, it is to be anticipated and must be worked at, or, it is an illusion but to be longed for). Thus we find the technical experts in a dilemma -- they are dedicated to Democracy and Popular Control, but they don't have confidence in the capabilities and capacities of the people to manage "technological power."

In order to deal with this dilemma, they try various forms of obtaining citizen input into the decision making process - however, because of the mistrust, they often end up with something that is not real "citizen participation" - but something else, such as:

1. "Citizen participation" as a means of training people, giving them employment opportunities.
2. Using "citizen participation" as a tool for cooperation, i.e. bringing in people who are "outside" for strategic purposes - usually to have them on "our side" rather than having them opposing.
3. Using "citizen participation" to legitimize the leadership structure
- the programs and actions being undertaken;
that is, as "rubber stamps."

4. Ending up having "citizen participation" on a very superficial manner, in order to satisfy some rule or requirement.
5. Using "citizen participation" as a source of unpaid personnel to do jobs in order to cut down operation costs.
6. Using "citizen participation" in order to have an energetic group of people who can handle public relations, sell a program to the rest of the "citizen."
7. Have "citizen participation" in order to have a civic minded, politically independent, private group which can counterbalance official politicians' self seeking motivations and actions.

These outcomes of attempts of getting citizen participation are not bad into themselves, and often it is useful to strive in obtaining citizens to play the above mentioned roles or fill these purposes but none of these are really "citizen participation" and we should not delude ourselves that we are obtaining citizen participation.

What is done above is that we ascribe roles to citizens for a variety of purposes.

To deal with citizen participation, it is useful to deal with concepts about what a citizen is separately from concepts dealing with participation.

What is a "Citizen"

Most definitions of an active citizen in the past would propose that the individual was:

- (a) Active and involved in public affairs
- (b) Rational in his approach to all issues

- (c) Guided always by reason and not emotion
- (d) Makes decisions on how to act or respond on the basis of careful calculation as to the interest and principles he would like to see furthered.

Many people who have attempted to promote and obtain greater "citizen participation" have used this model for trying to obtain the "right" citizens. However, what happens, with such high expectations, most normal citizens shy away from such involvement - most people are aware of their limitations. Every once in a while some citizens do follow this model, achieve success and as an end result become a member of a "citizen elite," who believe they are more important, more able, more honest, more reliable and therefore more entitled to being involved in decisions and also privileges. Thus, the above definition of a good citizen is counter-productive in two ways - it repels the involvement of "common" and normal people and it builds up some citizens to become elite who feel they are "more equal" than the slobs in their community.

In our Democracy, a citizen is something different. It is important to view "citizen" as a role not a person - thus a role a person plays under certain circumstances will make this person a citizen. Thus:

A Democratic citizen is NOT A PERSON BUT A VARIABLE ROLE.

- The function of this role is to make inputs into the public decision making process and to evaluate or react to the output of the decisions made.
- The role is an open role, both in terms of content and incumbency. That is - anybody can play a citizen role for different purposes at different times.

- Role expectations and performance are determined by the incumbents - within the limits of responsibility and propriety demanded by the democratic value system.
- Role definition is flexible - depending on situation and the incumbent.
- Incumbency is accessible, with a minimum of explicit qualifications.
- Incumbency is interchangeable - though the role will be subject to radical change with each different incumbent.
- The citizen role is developmental and subject to continuing elaboration by each incumbent.

There are a couple of concepts which are useful in digesting this definition of a citizen:

- (a) Democracy denotes a situation of sharing, which is based on the notion of diffuse and variable competencies in a population.
- (b) An individual can have three basic types of competencies as a citizen:
 - (i) Active Citizen Competence -- the ability to affect public decisions through influence.
 - (ii) Subject Citizen Competence -- the ability to react appropriately to decisions in accordance with the set of rules accepted in a democratic system.
 - (iii) Resting Citizen Competence -- the ability to be periodically detached from public affairs - while avoiding permanent withdrawal and a state of isolation inhibiting re-entry.

The two competencies which are most important when we are dealing with citizen participation are the Active Citizen Competence and the Subject Citizen Competence. They are crucial within the functions of a citizen role - to make inputs and to evaluate and react.

Participation

It is interesting to note, that using visible manifestations, the highest levels of participation always occur in totalitarian governments. That is, it is in these governments that one finds almost 100% of eligible voters voting, mass attendances at civic functions when they are held, and people who are highly oriented and educated about public affairs through propaganda. Yet many people in our Democracy decry the lack of "participation" in our country, citing low voter turnout, low turnout to civic functions and a citizenry which has a great variation in the level and amount of knowledge about civic and public affairs.

However, what seems to be ignored is that the big difference about participation in a Democratic society versus a totalitarian society is the element of CHOICE that each individual has. Thus, Differential Participation is often considered an enigma in a Democratic society - but, it should be thought of as a logical result of a democratic situation where there is FREEDOM OF CHOICE TO SELECT WHEN, WHERE, HOW AND FOR WHAT TO TAKE PART.

Therefore, THERE IS NO SINGLE RIGHT WAY TO PARTICIPATE AS A CITIZEN. THE MORE CITIZENS PARTICIPATE IN DIFFERENT WAYS - THE MORE DIFFERENT CITIZEN CONTRIBUTIONS ARE MADE AVAILABLE to say situation.

For example, in terms of the active citizen function, making inputs into the decision making process, Diversified Participation patterns can serve to:

- expose the array of different abilities and knowledge currently possessed within the population.
- relate various kinds of abilities together, rather than attempting to replicate the same competency in all citizens.
- permit issues to be viewed from a number of different perspectives.
- increase the availability, quantity, quality, content flow and feedback of information.
- distribute responsibilities.
- etc.

Different people will participate differently in a democratic society. There are several kinds of patterns of participation that can be identified:

- (a) Continual participation -- regular and frequent concern and involvement in public business.
- (b) Contingent participation -- involvement that may or may not take place depending on developments and thus cannot be foreseen or accurately predicted.
- (c) Institutionalized participation -- a well established and habitual routine of involvement.
- (d) Intermittent participation -- alternating between periods of involvement and non-involvement. It can be: cyclical, i.e. recurring in a regular pattern; erratic, i.e. having no pattern or certain course; and spasmodic, i.e. sudden, intense and brief bursts of involvement.

- (e) Selective participation -- carefully regulated and calculated involvement in terms of time, scope, duration, content, etc. for specific reasons.
- (f) Vicarious participation -- involvement through imagined part in the experience of others or the substitution of involvement of others to exercise the part that would be played.
- (g) Unique participation -- a one time or rare involvement that cannot be replicated.

Summary of What is Citizen Participation

A Citizen is a variable role - not a person - with two major functions and variable incumbency.

Participation is differential in a democratic society where there is an element of individual choice.

Citizen participation is thus a variable role exercised in a variety of ways.

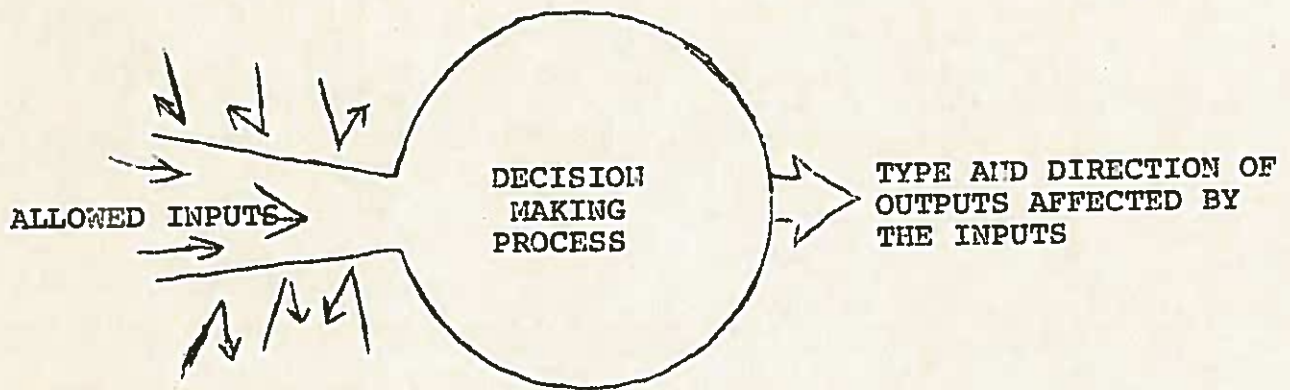
The implications of these concepts are:

- (a) There really are no real "apathetic" citizens. Apathy is derived by people who have an intense interest about an issue and complain because the "rest of the people" are not interested and involved in the same way they are.
- (b) We should not put molds on people, or to think we are getting citizen participation when we really are wanting something else.

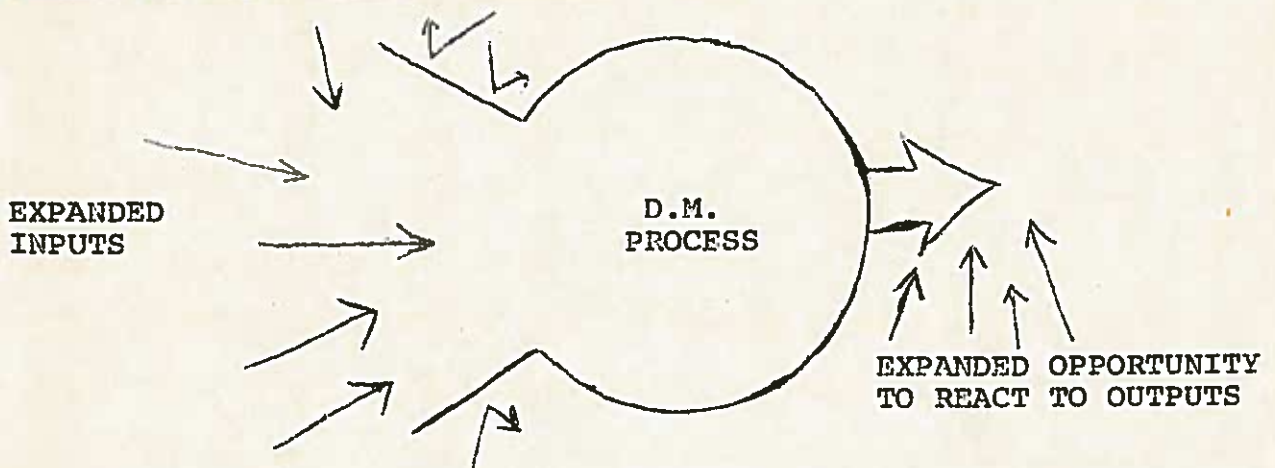
How Do We Get Citizen Participation?

The principle involved, keeping in mind what a citizen is and how this role can be exercised, is to maximize opportunities for

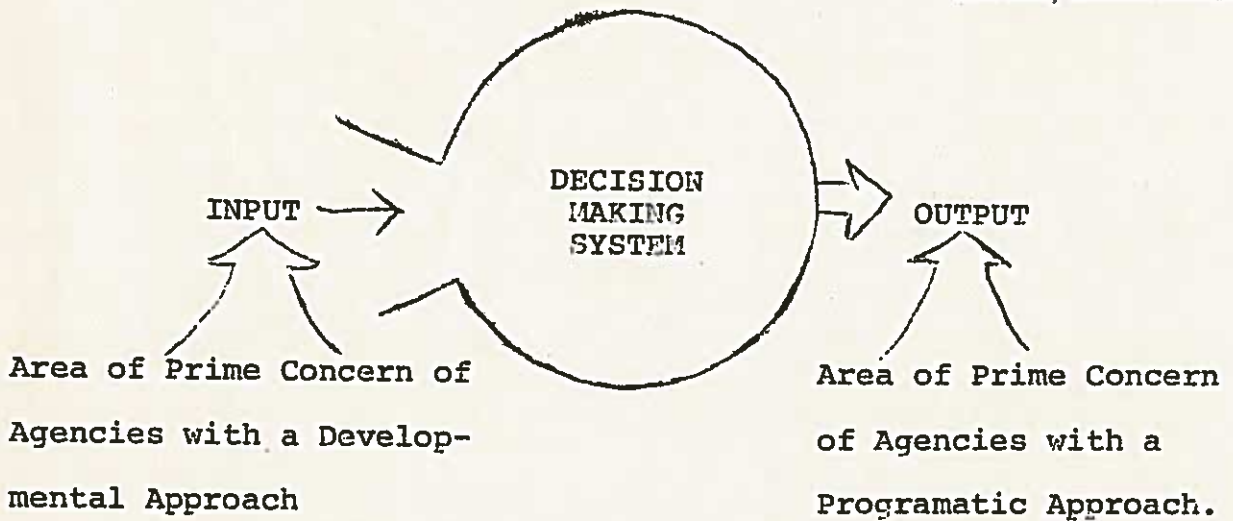
different people to assume a citizen role in terms of both input into the decision making process or the output of the decision made.



What is needed is to expand the kinds of inputs that the decision making process will accept, and to expand the opportunities to react to the output of decisions made.



We must be careful in working toward increasing opportunities for citizen participation - especially in agency programs. Many programs cannot, by laws or regulations set at higher levels, accept inputs - thus to try to get citizens to make input becomes a futile effort which is self defeating. In such cases, the effort must be made to expand opportunities for getting reaction to the output.



A Different Perspective on Citizen Participation

Sherry R. Arnstein in "Eight Rungs on the Ladder of Citizen Participation" (in a book entitled "Citizen Participation: A Case Book in Democracy," edited by Edgar S. Cain and Barry A. Passett and published by the New Jersey Community Action Training Institute, June 1970) has a somewhat different approach to Citizen Participation.

She developed a hierarchy of eight classifications describing different ways citizens are asked to participate in communities. The key factor in this hierarchy is the amount of power, to make decisions and use resources, given to the citizens. This hierarchy can be depicted as a ladder, as in the next page.

She describes these eight rungs in the following way:

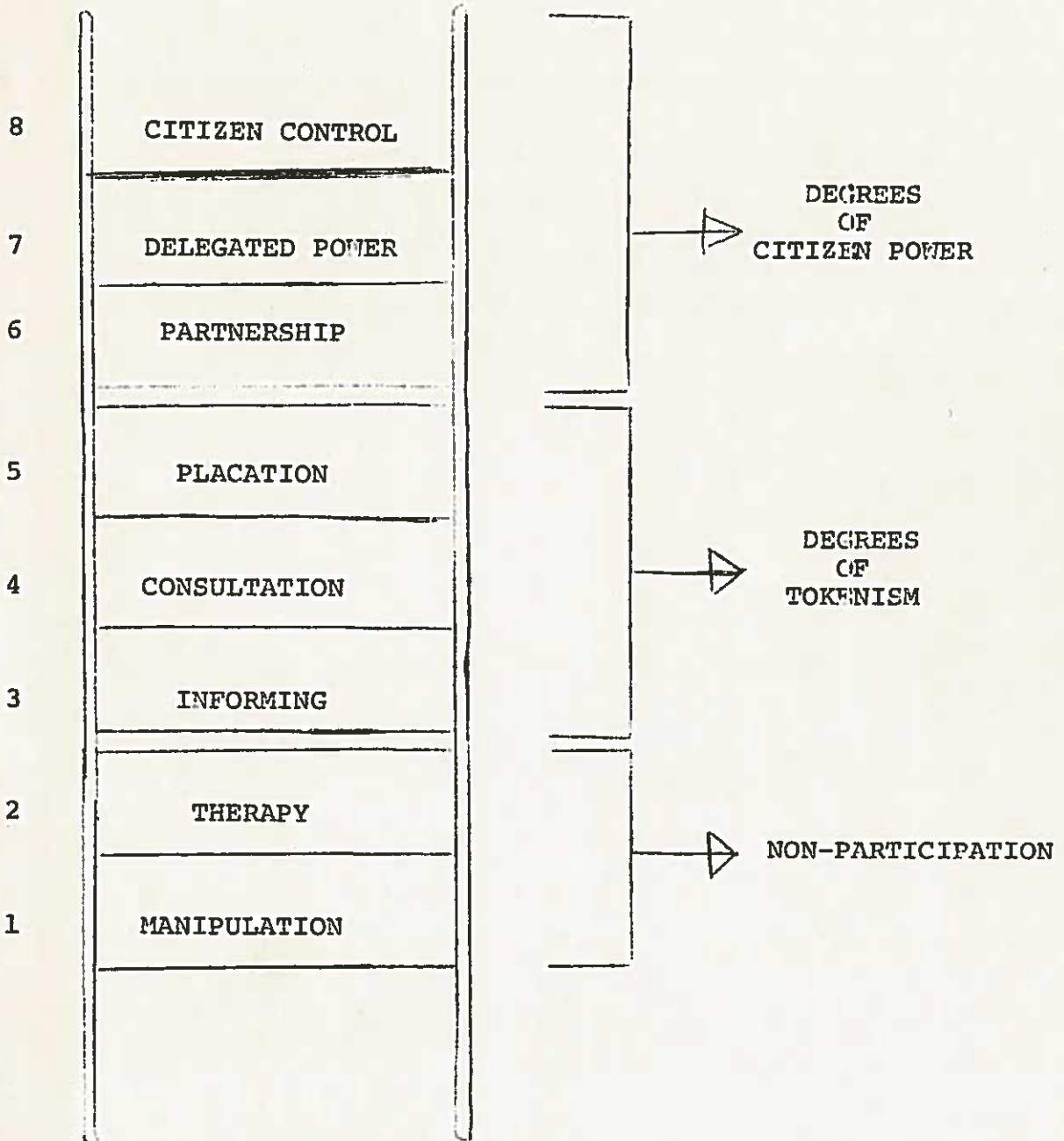
"The bottom rungs of the ladder are (1) Manipulation and (2) Therapy. These two rungs describe levels of 'non-participation' that have been contrived by some to substitute for genuine participation. Their real objective is not to enable people to participate in planning or conducting programs, but to enable powerholders to "educate" or "cure" the participants. Rungs 3 and 4 progress of levels of 'tokenism' that allow the have-nots to hear and to have

a voice: (3) Informing and (4) Consultation. When they are proffered by powerholders as the total extent of participation, citizens may indeed hear and be heard. But under these conditions they lack the power to insure that their views will be heeded by the powerful.

When participation is restricted to these levels, there is no follow-through, no 'muscle,' hence no assurance of changing the status quo. Rung (5) Placation, is simply a higher level tokenism because the ground rules allow have-nots to advise, but retain for the powerholders the continued right to decide.

"Further up the ladder are levels of citizen power with increasing degrees of decision-making clout. Citizens can enter into a (6) Partnership that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power-holders. At the topmost rungs (7) Delegated Power and (8) Citizen Control, have-not citizens obtain the majority of decision-making seats, of full managerial power."

It is important to note that Ms. Arnstein's classification is based entirely on various "anti-poverty" efforts in urban areas - such as urban renewal, OEO, Model Cities, etc. These are situations of great issue dissensus with two sides - one with power and one without power.



V. THE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROCESS IN WORKING WITH VOLUNTEERS

There are two ways in which we can look at the leadership development process:

- (a) As a process of developing the capacity and ability of individuals to influence others - i.e. of becoming leaders of groups, helping the group attain its goals.
- (b) As a process of finding individuals who are to serve in some prescribed voluntary roles - i.e. volunteers.

The second way of using the "process" is often justified by the argument that we are doing it to foster individual growth and leadership abilities. This can be an outcome, but not necessarily so. There are many "volunteer leader" positions which really don't increase individual leadership skills.

Leadership can be defined as:

Leadership is a learned behavioral skill which includes the ability to help others achieve their potential as individuals and team members in a group.

Leadership is a function of (a) the social situation, (b) the individual's personality and (c) his behavior.

In this section we won't deal with the different kinds of leadership styles and with personal leadership capabilities, but concentrate on the process we can use in identifying, selecting, orienting, utilizing, training, recognizing and evaluating volunteers that help in various programs. That is, how can we more effectively work with volunteers.

(In this discussion we will keep the term "volunteer" separate from the term "leader". They are not synonymous.)

The Process of Working With Volunteers

Again, this is a step by step process of interrelated sequential steps which is continuous in nature if used effectively.

1. Identification of Potential Volunteers. Using general criteria for the volunteer needs of the organization, potential volunteers can be identified. There are different ways in which a systematic search for potential individuals can be made. The key to this step is to maintain good systematic records that are up-to-date.
 - Survey of people serving in positions of leadership in different social organizations over time.
 - Direct survey of target groups - communities - organizations, etc.
 - Appeals for help
 - Network of contacts
2. Selection of Potential Volunteers. Using the "job or position description" to be filled, records are analyzed as to which individuals fit.
3. Orientation of Potential Volunteers. The initial contact is made from those initially selected. This contact has two major purposes:
 - (a) To acquaint the individual with
 - The goals and purposes of the organization
 - Where the volunteer would fit in and be productive
 - The responsibilities, duties and requirements (skills needed, time to be spent, etc.)
 - (b) To obtain more background information on the individual.

4. Commitment of Volunteer. At the "orientation" session, no commitment should be considered. Both parties need to have some time to think it over: the organization might decide that others are more qualified and the individual should have time to think over the commitment that is involved. With this time lapse, a new contact should be made with the individual "chosen" to obtain a firm commitment from this individual. This commitment can be made flexible at first - on a temporary or trial basis. Also, a long range time cut off should be built into the commitment, because nobody really wants to make a commitment for life. Sometimes a "contract" spelling out the terms of the commitment can be developed.
5. Utilization of Volunteers. Once commitment has been obtained, the volunteer needs to be "put to work." It is best to start out slowly and let a volunteer develop within the position: too many demands too quick can overwhelm volunteers and force them out. Volunteers need to be supervised - in a positive way. They need support. They need to be provided with the resources to fulfill their duties and responsibilities.
6. Training of Volunteers. In order to obtain best utilization of volunteers, there should be periodic training:
 - there can be "pre-induction" and "in-service" training.
 - the volunteers should be involved in making plans for content and scope of training.
 - training can be formal or informal, in groups or one-to-one.
 - effective training of volunteers is "peer training", where more experienced volunteers train less experienced volunteers.

7. Evaluation of Volunteers. This is a crucial step for effective volunteer programs.

- Evaluation needs to be for purposes of increasing performance and satisfaction of performing - not for determining sanctions.
- Evaluation should be used as a basis for determining training needs.
- Evaluation can be used to readjust roles, expectations, responsibilities to better fit capabilities of volunteers.

8. Recognition of Volunteers. Proper recognition is important in working with volunteers.

- work well done needs to be recognized.
 - recognition should be honest
 - consideration should be given to the fact that different individuals respond to different kinds of recognition.
 - there are two kinds of recognition - extrinsic and intrinsic.
- We need to strive toward providing more intrinsic recognition.

A few practical points to consider in this process:

- Commitments made must be mutually agreed upon.
- Time limitations should be fixed.
- Expectations should be clearly understood.
- Roles should be clear and not ambiguous.
- Lines of communication need to be open.
- Lines of Authority should be well understood
- Volunteers should not be overworked - their responsibilities should not be raised unduly.

- Follow-up and follow-through by "supervisors" is crucial to effective volunteer performance.
- Organizational and management abilities of people who deal with volunteers must be adequate.

VI. ORGANIZATIONAL AND LEADERSHIP STYLES¹

A. Definition of Leadership:

Leadership is a learned skill which teaches people to help others achieve their potential as individuals and groups members.

Leadership comes in two varieties: Symbolic and Operational

1. Symbolic - refers to leadership based on power. The leader represents things of value.
2. Operational - refers to the everyday involvement of a leader with his group. (Real attempts, successes and failures.)

B. Leadership Styles:

We all behave in different ways when in leadership roles.

How we behave is generally a result of imitating others.

We learn, as children, by watching first parents then others influential adults in our lives. Later, we may use hero models from peers, movie stars, sports stars, etc.

PROBLEM:

To learn to broaden our potential leadership behavior styles, and to recognize different styles in others we encounter.

¹The material in this section was developed by Jerry Robinson of the University of Illinois

HOW TO SOLVE IT:

Learn the basic leadership styles and how to recognize them in ourselves and in others.

Basic Styles and their characteristics:

1. Activator Description:

Involves others toward decision-making. Believes people support what they help to create. Flexible, active behavior.

STYLE:

- a. Stimulates
- b. Listens
- c. Reinforces

2. Controller Description:

Applies power and attempts to force group into action. Often feared or disliked by subordinates. Active but rigid behavior.

STYLES:

- a. Regiments
- b. Judges
- c. Rewards and punishes

3. Martyr Description:

Behavior built-producing. Believes values are most vital thing in life. Imposes his on others. Considers disloyalty to the organization an unpardonable sin.

STYLES:

- a. Enforces customs
- b. Overworks self
- c. Seeks pity

4. Cavalier Description:

Seeks to provide pleasure to group members. Wins the group over by fun and games. Active, flexible behavior but so permissive tasks seldom are accomplished.

STYLE:

- a. Entertains
- b. Avoids judgment
- c. Seeks approval

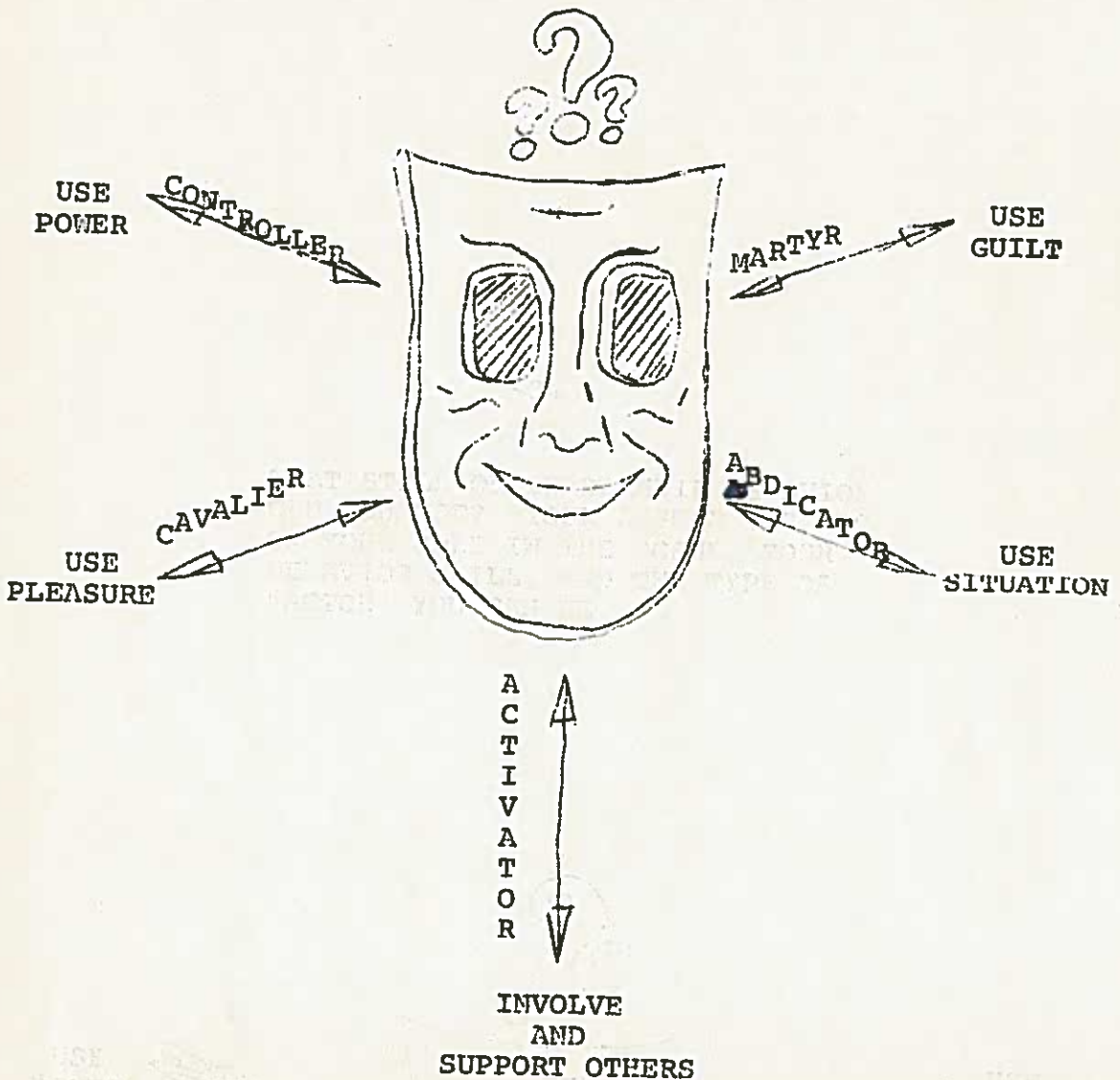
5. Abdicator Description:

Role of withdrawal from situation of responsibility. Passive behavior, usually rigid but sometimes flexible, but then, based on weakness.

STYLE:

- a. Withdraws
- b. Postpones action
- c. Avoids responsibility

WHAT STYLE OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR
CAN YOU USE? YOUR ANSWER DEPENDS
ON YOUR ROLE IN THE SCENE, YOUR
BEHAVIOR SKILL, AND THE TYPE OF
"ACTOR" YOU CAN BE.



DEMONSTRATIONS ON LEADERSHIP

1. Demonstration of Leadership Roles Using Styles and Bits

Objective. The objective of this activity is to demonstrate the different leadership roles by having your team act out the most likely reaction of each type of leader to a specific problem.

Instructions. In each scene given below, an organizational leader is confronted with a problem. You should study each scene. It is the task of your team to: (1) discuss one scene; (2) describe the possible reactions of the organizational leader in terms of each of the different leadership roles (Controller, Martyr, Cavalier, Abdicator, Activator); Your scene should involve no more than a short encounter between the professional and the others. If you cannot act out a scene, please describe to the total group what you think would happen. Try to involve all team members in your scene.

SCENE 1

Tracy, a chairperson in one of the Oak County's Extension Study groups, has received a request from several members to have a 20 minute coffee break each meeting. Someone has implied, however, that too much coffee drinking will mean too much diversion and too little work. How could Tracy react to this proposal?

SCENE 2

Terry is a 4-H staff person in Oak County. She has heard some rumors that one of the leaders in the county hangs around local bars a lot, apparently having a good time. Some people have commented that this is not proper behavior for a 4-H leader. How could Terry react to this problem?

SCENE 3

Marlene, a Study Group officer in Oak County, has a problem with her members. Several members have become very friendly lately and like to chat a lot before settling down to business. Sometimes this may last for half an hour. How could Marlene handle this problem?

SCENE 4

Evelyn, a secretary in a local Farm Bureau office, is attractive and single. She has just received a note from Dan, one of her colleagues, inviting her to go bike riding with him next Sunday. Evelyn likes Dan, but she does not particularly fancy bikes. How could Evelyn solve this problem?

SCENE 5

Jackie, the office manager for the Cooperative Extension Service in Brooks County, has just received notice that, because of the energy crisis, a statewide program will be implemented to save energy. It has been decided that all county offices in the State will keep the heat down to 68° this winter. How could Jackie handle this decision with the office staff?

CASE STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP

1. The Leadership Role Case

Jane Jackson is a new membership chairperson in a community organization. She is replacing Lillie Wilson.

When Jane arrived at the first meeting, she met with the organization's president, Samantha Jones, who welcomed new officers with a party

On taking over, Jane found total disorganization in the records. She learned that they were incomplete and misplaced. She had difficulty finding information. There was no systematic filing system for materials; instead, they were scattered all about.

After talking with some of the other members, her impression was that they did not seem to know what they were doing or why.

Having made a decision to take charge of the situation, Jane organized a filing system, set up formal procedures to be followed and established job responsibilities for the members. Several days later, one of the members came to the president and complained about Jane. She told Samantha, "Mrs. Jackson is telling everyone what to do, and the other members and I don't like it. She acts like a dictator," she complained. "Some people are already calling her 'Der Fuhrer,' and we all wish we had Lillie back."

Samantha replied, "Don't worry about it. I didn't choose Jane, and I am not going to let her destroy the pleasure the members have in working together. Go back and tell the group that I am behind them all the way."

INSTRUCTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL STUDY OR TEAM DISCUSSION

Develop a short answer to each of the following questions.

Select a reporter to record notes on newsprint and be prepared to make an oral report to the total group.

1. Identify all of the different leadership roles in this case.
2. Discuss the impacts these leadership roles have had and can have on the situation.
3. Considering what has happened, what would happen if Jane would use the other leadership styles we have discussed?

2. Enthusiastic Committee Members

Jim Collins is the chairman of the 4-H Fair Committee. Jim is very conscientious about his job and has set very high standards. He is quite proud of the fact that he is chairman and runs a "tight ship". He sees himself as "firm, but fair," playing no favorites. He has also kept his distance from the committee members so that he can be completely objective about making assignments.

For the past two weeks, Jim has been on vacation. During his absence, Herman Ferguson took over for him. When Jim returned from vacation, he seemed to be faced with outright revolt by his committee. It seems that Herman had really "excited" them. They constantly talked about how they liked working with Herman. Herman had tried to assign tasks to them that they enjoyed working on. If they did particularly good jobs, Herman was quick to sincerely praise them. Another thing Herman did was to get the members to come to him if they had a problem on their task. He would explain

the problem to the group and ask for suggestions on solving it. Generally, someone would have had a similar experience and would relate how he solved the problem. Even though these meetings sometimes took a long time, the members felt really good about them.

The entire situation upset Jim, but it really bugged him when one of his oldest friends told him that the committee thought that Herman was the best chairman they ever had.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL STUDY OR TEAM DISCUSSION

Develop a brief answer to each of these following questions. If you are working in a team, select a reporter to record notes on newsprint, and be prepared to make an oral report to the total group.

1. What is the problem here?
2. What are the leadership roles used by each of these committee chairmen?
3. If you were Jim, what would you do? List some behavior styles you would use.
4. If you were Herman, what would you do if:
 - a) Jim came to talk to you?
 - b) Jim did not come to talk to you?

ORGANIZATIONAL TYPES: DIRECTIVE AND DEVELOPMENTAL

Contrasts Between the two Types

A. PHILOSOPHY:

DIRECTIVE

1. Strict role differences (decision makers, and the doers of decisions)
2. Power centered in few at top
3. "Brain-hand" analogy (one brain, many hands)

DEVELOPMENTAL

1. Team behavior
2. Flexibility of roles
3. Decisions mutual product of officers and members

Most organizations are a mix. Success depends on effective mix of characteristics.

B. STYLE:

DIRECTIVE -- Formal Styles
Essential features:

1. The individual: Has clearly understood behavior expectations.
2. Chain of command: Vertical hierarchy. Power, orders, decisions flow from top down. (Makes members dependent on top officers)
3. Fixed relationships: Relationships, like positions tend to be permanent. (Presidents and committee chairmen tend to hold long terms and be reelected several times).

DEVELOPMENTAL -- Cooperative style
(Members serve organization & organization serves the members)

1. Mutual identification with group goals: Individual members help decide on goals and objectives.
2. Open communication: Vertically and horizontally. Everyone can advise and be advised. (Promotes mutual trust).
3. Task orientation for problem-solving. Ad-hoc task teams-dissolve when task is accomplished = flexibility.

C. ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK:

DIRECTIVE -- Tactics of control

1. This style assumes people tend to dislike work and will avoid it if possible. Constant threat necessary to insure productivity.

Creativity rare, reserved for top.

Need for close, direction of members, as they wish to avoid responsibility, and have little ambition to work for goals. All decisions about tasks (selection of, who will perform and how to evaluate) made by officers.

DEVELOPMENTAL -- Tactics of cooperation

1. Individual and organizational goals are the same because members help decide the organizational goals. Assumption: Average person likes to work in his organization if he is allowed to feel part of it. Creativity distributed through membership ranks. Individual member can maximize his initiative, ingenuity and self-direction. This equals commitment to the organization.

FIGURE 1. ORGANIZATIONAL STYLES

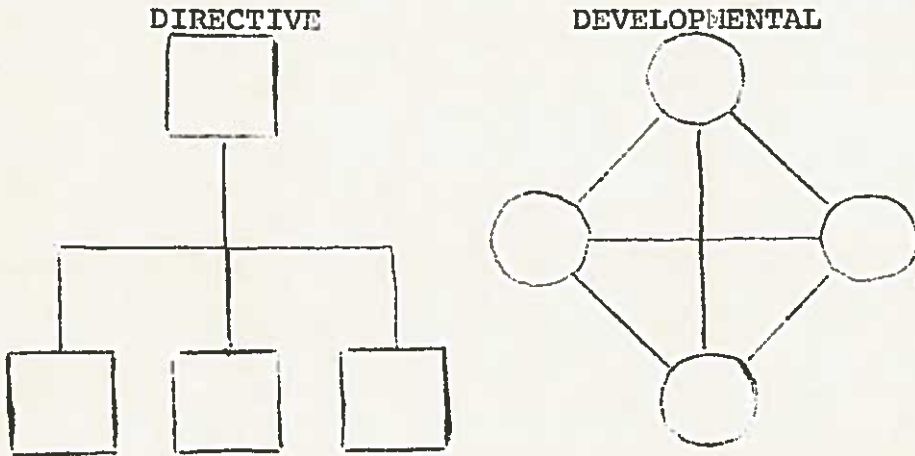


FIGURE 2. ORGANIZATION ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

	 DIRECTIVE	 DEVELOPMENTAL
ADVANTAGES	ORDER PREDICTABILITY CONTROL	CREATIVITY FLEXIBILITY COOPERATION
DISADVANTAGES	POOR COMMUNICATION DEPENDENCY REVOLT	LACK OF LEADERSHIP LACK OF EFFICIENCY LACK OF CONTROL

FIGURE 3. BEHAVIOR ASSUMPTION OF  AND  PHILOSOPHIES.

 DIRECTIVE		 DEVELOPMENTAL	
<u>ASSUMPTIONS:</u>	<u>THEREFORE:</u>	<u>ASSUMPTIONS:</u>	<u>THEREFORE:</u>
People Generally Are:	It is Necessary to:	People Generally Are:	It is only Necessary To:
1. Naturally lazy	Motivate them	Dynamic, self-Motivated	Guide or provide Guidelines
2. Dependent	Direct them	Independent	Provide opportunities for self-direction.
3. Irresponsible	Closely supervise them	Responsible	Trust them
4. Hostile (Enemy_	Mistrust them, fight them	Allies	Cooperate, Collaborate with them
5. Lack Imagination, (Creativity)	Outline their work in detail	Creative	Create conditions that allow them to use their creativity
6. Lack forethought	Plan their work for them	Imaginative with vision	Allow them to plan their activities (Plan with them)

CASE STUDIES ON ORGANIZATION STYLES

1. Problem Analysis of Contrasting Organizational Philosophies

INSTRUCTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL STUDY OR TEAM DISCUSSION. Prepare a brief answer to each of the following five problems according to the instructions of your leader. Select a reporter to record your answers on newsprint and be prepared to share your findings with the entire group.

PROBLEM I

Assume that you are a new chairperson or other officer where the Developmental style has been used. Discuss the problems which occur if you want to change to the Directive style of operation.

PROBLEM II

Assume that you are a new chairperson or other officer where the Directive style has been used. Discuss the problems which would occur if you want to change to the Developmental style of operation.

PROBLEM III

Assume you are chairperson of a fund raising committee. Would you use the Directive or Developmental style? Explain where, how and why.

PROBLEM IV

Assume you are the leader of a program committee in your group. Would you use the Directive or Developmental style? Explain where, how and why.

PROBLEM V

Develop a list of reasons why your organization should use the Directive style of organization. Consider such things as roles of officer, development of committees, division of labor (between officers and members), roles of members, program development, etc.

PROBLEM VI

Develop a list of reasons why your organization should use the Developmental style of organization. Consider such things as role of officers, development of committees, division of labor (between officers and members), roles of members, program development, etc.

Frustrated Leader: A Case Study

One day Gene Davis, representative to the district organization visited the district chairperson and said, "I'm quitting! I'm quitting! I'm through with this Organization! There are just too many bossess! No one can satisfy all of you people! I just can't seem to make anyone happy, and it's not worth trying anymore!"

Knowing that Gene was an outstanding leader, the chairperson was taken by surprise. It was learned that the following series of incidents were causing Gene's frustrations.

Members of the local committee claimed that Gene was too bossy and didn't give them a chance to say what they wanted to.

Her local chairperson had critized Gene for not following procedures, as they had always been done. Gene said, "I want to give the members what they need and ask for, not just something the organization has always done!"

Two members of the local group had complained about the way they were being helped with their projects and programs.

The state president had suggested that local groups should revise their constitution and Gene had been put in charge.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR INDIVIDUAL STUDY OR TEAM DISCUSSION. Prepare a brief answer to each of the following questions. Select a reporter to record notes on newsprint and be prepared to report your team's findings to the total group.

1. How would you counsel Gene?
2. What parts of this organization use the Directive and which the Developmental Organizational philosophies?
3. Discuss ways in which your organization may confuse or frustrate its members by using different organizational styles at different times.

~~49~~
4. Your Organizational Philosophy

For Personal Behavior Analysis: Complete Problem I before turning to Problem II, III and IV.

PROBLEM I

Your Behavior Inventory As A LEADER

Check Answers

Statement	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
1) I supervise members closely in order to get better work from them.				
2) I provide members with my goals and objectives and sell them on the merit of my plans.				
3) I set up controls to assure that members are getting the job done.				
4) I believe that since I have the most responsibility, my subordinates must accept my decisions.				
5) I make sure that members' workload is planned for them.				
6) I check with members often to see if they need any help.				
7) I step in as soon as I have any indication someone isn't doing his task as I think he should.				
8) I have frequent meetings to keep in touch with what is going on.				
9) I insist that my people always check with me before they make decisions about changes in their tasks.				
10) When necessary, I push my people to meet schedules.				

PROBLEM II

AN ORGANIZATION LEADER'S PHILOSOPHICAL INVENTORY

Refer back to Figure 3, Behavior Assumptions of ☐ and ☐ Philosophies, then mark the following scale as to which philosophy you prefer.

-20	0	+20
DIRECTIVE	NEUTRAL	DEVELOPMENTAL
<input data-bbox="57 585 139 660" type="checkbox"/>		<input data-bbox="1168 566 1251 641" type="radio"/>

PROBLEM III

Behavior vs. Philosophical Score

Use the instructions in this problem to score the questionnaire, "Your Behavior Inventory as a leader", Problem I. When you are finished, be sure to compare your "behavior" score with your "philosophical" score.

Score all questions as follows: -2 for always, -1 for often, +1 for sometimes, and +2 for never.

Add up the minuses (-) separately, then add the pluses (+) separately. Subtract the totals to get the difference, or your total score. Compare the difference between your score and your answer on the scale in Problems II and IV.

PROBLEM IV

Type of Leader You Prefer

On the scale below, indicate the type of leader you could most easily work with.

-20	0	+20
DIRECTIVE	NEUTRAL	DEVELOPMENTAL
<input data-bbox="71 1740 153 1815" type="checkbox"/>		<input data-bbox="1196 1722 1278 1797" type="radio"/>

VI. AGENCIES WORKING TOGETHER

In today's society, there are a multitude of agencies working toward alleviating the problems of individuals, families and communities. Most are public agencies, created at different levels of government, often having a hierarchy at different levels. But there are also many "private" agencies operating in the same environment.

With this welter of agencies, it is only natural that there is duplication and overlap among agencies or portions of agencies. It is also inevitable that many serve different needs of the same clientele. Thus the problem exists on how can different agencies work together better in order to better fulfill their purpose of helping people and communities.

In general, two major kinds of solutions have been offered to deal with this problem: (a) Cooperation among agencies and (b) the creation of "super-agencies". We will try to take a look at these two.

Agencies work together within four different contexts.

- (1) Unitary context -- different agencies are combined under one agency with a central authority of the individual agencies - which attempts to coordinate the programs of these individual agencies.
- (2) Federative context -- agencies belong to some kind of council of agencies, where the final decision on programs still rests within individual agencies - but as a group they agree on common goals with the hope that each agency will work toward these common goals they agreed on.

- (3) Coalitional context -- are ad-hoc arrangements among agencies to pursue a specific common goal.
- (4) Social Choice context -- where individual agencies will work and relate themselves to a specific issue in a community independently with no conscious effort of coordination.

A basic principle to consider when considering interagency cooperation is:

IN ITS INTERACTION WITH OTHER ORGANIZATIONS, AN ORGANIZATION ACTS SO AS TO PRESERVE OR EXPAND ITS DOMAIN. THEREFORE, ORGANIZATIONS ENTER VOLUNTARILY INTO JOINT EFFORTS ONLY UNDER THOSE CIRCUMSTANCES THAT ARE CONDUCTIVE TO A PRESERVATION OR EXPANSION OF ITS DOMAIN.

The other basic principles which enter into the picture when interagency cooperation is considered are the ones related to whether issue consensus, issue difference or issue dissensus exists among the agencies (or parts of agencies - within or among agencies). That is, whether there is consensus, difference or dissensus about which issue to work together on or what needs to be done to deal with an issue that all recognize.

An important part of interagency cooperation is that we must recognize that cooperation can exist:

- (a) between two or more agencies - involving the whole agencies.
- (b) between a whole agency and parts of other agencies.
- (c) between parts of several agencies.

(d) between parts of one agency

(e) between parts of one agency and other (whole or in part)

That is, cooperation does not have to be an all-agency involvement. In fact, it is obtained with greater success at lower levels, where parts of agencies relate and cooperate. There is less chance of the principle of boundary maintenance or expansion negatively affecting cooperation. Also, it is easier to obtain consensus about what issue to deal with and how to deal with the identified issues.

The "Social Choice" context model for agency cooperation is one that is usually overlooked and given little importance. However, it can be the best and most useful approach to interagency cooperation. The key variable is that of a "competent" community, which has done a creditable job of identifying needs and resources needed to deal with its needs. It can then specify from each agency exactly what resources it needs, what amounts, when and where. The agencies involved do not have to attempt to "coordinate" their activities, the community is doing it for them.

Appendix A

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE
University of Guam
College of Agriculture and Life Sciences
P.O. Box EK
Agana, Guam 96910

July 22, 1975

MEMORANDUM

To: Prospective Workshop Participants
From: C. Christopher Ford
Subject: Community Development Workshop

On July 30, 31, and August 31, 1975, a workshop will be held at the University of Guam as a follow-up to the Community Resources Development Seminar on July 29, 1975.

Attached is the proposed schedule for the workshop which will be conducted by Dr. Manfred Thullen, Associate Professor of Resource Development and Extension Specialist in Community Resource Development at Michigan State University. The workshop is designed to introduce the participants to some of the general principles of community development (see attached program) and to serve as a format for discussing and evaluating the proposals that are generated at the July 29, 1975 Seminar.

The Seminar is primarily intended for personnel of those agencies which have active community programs. Participation will be limited. Persons who have already indicated an interest in the workshop should confirm their intent to participate by calling C. Christopher Ford at 734-9162. Others who are interested in attending should inquire as soon as possible at the same number.

C. Christopher Ford
Project Director

Attachment

Appendix B

University of Guam
College of Agriculture and Life Sciences
P.O. Box EK
Agana, Guam 96910

July 30 - August 1, 1975

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOP

University of Guam
Health Science Building
Rooms 27 and 28

Wednesday July 30, 1975

8:30-12:00

- Welcome - Introductions - Purposes.
- Selection of Workshop Topic Areas.

1:00- 4:00

Subject Matter Presentations and Workshop Activities Chosen From the Following Topic Areas:*

Thursday July 31, 1975

8:30-12:00

- C.D. - An Overview - Some Parameters
- Community - What Is It?
- Growth & Development - The Same?
- Development - By Whom - For Whom?
- The C.D. Process
- Alternative Approaches to C.D.
- Citizen Participation - What - How?
- Leadership Development - Working with Volunteers
- Agencies in Development Roles
- Agencies Working Together - Coordination, Cooperation or Collaboration?
- Implications of July 29 Seminar Results - For Agencies and Communities.

Friday, August 1, 1975

8:30-12:00

- 1:00- 4:00 - Summary
- What Next?
- Evaluation.

* The Workshop Participants will decide which of these Topic Areas should be covered, on a priority basis. About 5-6 Topic Areas will be covered during the workshop.

Appendix C

Workshop Participants

<u>Name</u>	<u>Agency</u>
Aguon, Lorraine	- Cooperative Extension Service University of Guam
Arroyo, Marian	- Community Mental Health Guam Memorial Hospital
Artero, Anthony	- Cooperative Extension Service University of Guam
Artero, Victor	- Cooperative Extension Service University of Guam
Borja, Beatrice	- Guam Public Libraries
Carleton, Eloise	- Department of Public Health and Social Services
Cruz, Karen	- Department of Public Health and Social Services
Demeterio, Erlinda	- Cooperative Extension Service University of Guam
Diaz, Carlos	- Impact '76' 15 Buena Vista Lane, Dededo
Doyle, Sister Jeanne	- Campus Ministry Box 10137 Sinajana
Ford, C. Christopher	- Community Development Institute University of Guam
Frear, Charles	- Cooperative Extension Service University of Guam
Guerrero, Fr. DePaul	- Ordot Catholic Church Ordot Community Association
Gutierrez, Lourdes	- Community Mental Health Guam Memorial Hospital
Illarmo, Cathy	- Juvenile Justice
Johnston, Maria	- Department of Labor
Kallander, Genevieve	- Cooperative Extension Service University of Guam

Martinez, Luis	- Project Help Box 12 Agana
Meno, Joe	- Department of Public Health and Social Services
Melyan, Peter	- 4-H CALS University of Guam
Moreham, Antonio	- Community Action Agency Box 366 Saipan Marianas, Is.
Moreham Naputi, Enrique	- Office of Aging DPHES
Nichels, Pat	- Citizen
Pangelinan, Isabel	- Department of Public Health and Social Services
Ranon, Francis	- Impact '76' Agat
Rogers, Robb	- Sanctuary Box 1664 Agana
Rosario, Frank	- Department of Public Health and Social Services
Sablan, Pedro	- Community Action Agency Box 366 Saipan Marianas Is.
San Nicolas, Fred	- Sociology Department University of Guam
Santos, Alvaro	- Community Action Agency Box 366 Saipan Marianas Is.
Santos, Nick	- University of Guam
Shimizu, David	- Box 1288 Agana, Guam
Swavely, Marcia	- Department of Public Health and Social Services
Taitano, Magdelana	- Guam Public Libraries
Terlaje, Dolores	- Impact '76' Agat
Terlaje, Mary	- Department of Public Health and Social Services