TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE LIVING :
A Community Mobilization Approach

Sustainability development allows generation after generation to meet their needs. Sustainability is multidimensional and has been conceptualized in terms of economic, environmental and social. (Harris and Goodwin 2001, xxix). Economic approaches have failed, evidenced by the escalation of societal problems despite the implementation of various economic strategies. Social approaches have been derailed by structural adjustment conditionalities and the prioritizing of materialism over norm and values conformity. A focus on environmental education continues to be ineffective in circumstances where people are allowed to destroy natural vegetation in order to establish housing developments.

The nature of consumption, savings, investment depends very much on the availability of money and this is influenced by factors that are not controlled by the general citizenry. A widening, rich-poor gap, sectoral growth, inflation, welfare dependency and the absence of aggressive job creation all render it difficult for many individuals to maintain certain levels of living. The result is that people's choices shrink and this has implications for levels of employment, poverty and social exclusion. The discourses of democracy, equality, participation and empowerment are immediately rendered meaningless. Emphasis on rights replace the emphasis on responsibilities and, as people pursue their interests, they prioritize age, gender, ethnicity, social class, religion and/or levels of education. Therefore the strengthening of human capital, social and institutional values has become an imperative. Equally, important are the fostering of cultural capital and relationship networks.

Thus far, emphasis has been placed on institutional and policy issues. (Ocampo 2001, 136-48), economic and environmental modeling (Islam 2001, 229-31; Young 2001, 291; Chopra and Kadekodi 2001, 26-35). Globalization however has caused countries to focus more on their survival instead of the pursuit of sustainability. Increased liberalization and competition have accelerated the development of underdevelopment particularly in developing countries. Multilateral capital flows have not benefited small developing countries who have really been on the periphery of global development agendas. However, competitiveness can be improved wherever cultural factors prioritize innovation. (Hintergerger and Luks 2001, 108-109).

While it is generally agreed that sustainability is aimed at improving the human condition (Bell and Morse 2003, 3), the wealth of literature on economic and environmental modeling seems to hold people's attention so much that they seem to have lost sight of the basics:

a) if the ordinary citizens cannot maintain a certain level of living, sustainability for all is not achievable;

b) if people can begin to improve the conditions and context of their existence, it becomes easier to move beyond sectoral growth and really help people to sustain their livelihood.

Sustainability is a long-term phenomenon that is constituted of '…the entire process by which societies manage the material conditions of their reproduction including the social, economic, political and cultural principles that guide the distribution of environmental resources.' (Becker, John and Steiss, 1999, 4). The achievement of sustainability has however remained elusive for the two major reasons:

a) the centrality of the human resources to various facets of this process has been traditionally ignored in models of sustainable development-neoclassical, evolutionary, ecological-economic and neo-Ricardian (Faucheaux, Pearce and Proops 1996, 3-1; Morse et al. 2000, 210);

b) sustainable development strategies have remained essentially top-down and purely economic focus;

c) people always need more opportunities to utilize and expand their capacities as Amartya Sen (1999) had argued; and

d) sustainability remains moored to a purely economic understanding of development.

Indeed the realization and maintenance of sustainability require the introduction of a new policy initiative that emphasizes the networking and mobilization of large groups of people through the mechanisms of community and small business development. This is critical to the production of social and economic capital both of which are integral to sustaining the development of societies since social capital has been known to enhance economic performance (Dasgupta 1999, 326-327).

Sustainability cannot be achieved in a context of jobless growth, financial constraints, housing problems, environmental and health impacts of material advancement, crime, violence, poverty and social class inequalities. (Elliot 1994, 14-20). Unlike the IADB Report (1993), we cannot continue to conceptualize these issues in economic terms only. Whatever transformation has to occur must not be purely economic. Indeed, purely economic approaches to development

have clearly been unsuccessful and indeed the IADB Report (1993) acknowledges the need for policy linkages between the social and economic arenas.

Sustainability, according to this article, must not be viewed as an end in itself or as a condition that exists at a particular point in time. Sustainability should be used to describe an exercise of maintaining a particular standard of living over a period of time. It requires being able to meet and comfortably exist above the level of basic needs with respect to food, housing, environmental care and other areas. In a context where many individuals, groups have become or are becoming increasingly at risk or vulnerable, the prospects of sustainability recede even further even though we increasingly express our desire to attain it.

Socio-economic policy integration presupposes a realization of the imperative that social and economic institutions must harness their intellectual capital to a common goal – the goal of development. Development however must be viewed as simultaneously:

a) multidimensional – political, economic, social, cultural, legal, educational, religious; and

b) hierarchical – individial, group, community, organization and natural.

In fact, 'people are both the means and the end of development.' (Ul Haq 1999, 3). Whether it is urban sustainability (Pother 1998, 51), rural sustainability (Meikle 1998, 273), economic sustainability (Peake 1998, 171; Evans 1998, 195; Faucheaux, Pearce and Proops 1996, 5) or agricultural sustainability (Davis-Morrison 1998, 296), people must be involved. In this regard, the wealth does not need assistance to sustain, but the lower classes do. Inevitably, in

the long term, once we can assist the lower classes to attain economic sustainability and build social capital, incremental progress would be achieved in all the aforementioned types of sustainability. In fact, the institutional framework in Trinidad is already positioned for such an exercise but they have not been coordinating with each other.

Sustainability results in the empowerment of people in a 'bottom-up' approach. (Sellers 1995, 56). This requires identification of the functional aspects of existing programs and they may be changed or adapted in accordance with the prevailing circumstances. (Sellers 1995b, 65). Indeed, organizations must consider their obligation to explain provisions made for securing individual rights and environmental protection. (Vanderzwaag, 1995b). The roles of education in this venture must be to contribute to more effective group organization and promote awareness of rights (Goodale 1995b, 82). Sustainable development is only achievable when we can rebuild at the community level. Once this happens, it would simultaneously result in several institutions working together and a more caring and environmentally-conscious approach for building community capacity. (Green 2011, 81-82; Green 2010, 6).

Theoretical Framework

These usually identify central constructs in and/or explain the community-building process. Communities have been defined as comprising people '…who have something in common with one another that connects them in some way and that distinguishes them from others. (Homan 1999, 8). Communities have also been viewed as places, geographically-defined spaces where groups interact. In addition, they have been defined as organizations that help people achieve their goals. Others posit that their central concern is the sharing of identity. There is however convergence on the notion of a sense of place in which people and cultures relate.

Agreement also exists on the view that location, social system and common identity characterize communities. (Flora and Flora 2004, 8). In traditional communities one could have found a set of institutions – churches, schools, businesses. As a result of improvements in transport and comunication, people can feel a sense of community with others who live elsewhere or even in foreign lands. Individuals may therefore have ties in several communities. Some institutions that are not indigenous, may feel alienated from a community. Political boundaries have also defined communities. Impacted upon by similar social problems, people may begin to demonstrate a sense of community. Impacted upon by similar social problems, people may begin to demonstrate a sense of community. (Flora and Flora 2004, 8). Every community has assets which can be mobilized to create various types of capital – cultural, human, social, financial, natural and political (Flora and Flora 2004, 9-10). However, '…not all local relationships are communitarian.' (Brent 2004, 217). Those communities that revolve around place are sometimes very nationalistic. Community has also been connected with power, voice, locality, nature, lifeworld, organic, resistance, identity and face-to-face. Some writers believe however that while the desire for community remains alive, it remains a challenge to achieve meaning and connectedness in social life. (Brent 2004, 222).

An important requirement for community development is community capacity building. Community capacity has been defined as:

> '…the interaction of human capital, organizational resources and
> social capital existing within a given community that can be
> leveraged to solve collective problems and improve or maintain
> the well-being of that community. it may operate through
> informal social processes and/or organized efforts by individuals,

organizations and   social that exist among them between the layer system of which the community is a part' (Chaskin et al. 2001, 7).

Communities are generally characterized by affectivities, increased mobility of people, relationships that extend beyond its geographical boundaries and a range of resources, infrastructure, jobs, incomes and housing. As these change, community capacity usually changes and capacity-building initiative usually seek to build on these assets. (Chaskin et al. 2001, 10; Morse 2004, 83). Moreover, Robert J. Chaskin et al. (2001, 11-12) has advanced a capacity building framework that incorporates the following :

a) characteristics of communities;

b) levels of social agency;

c) building strategies;

d) conditioning influences;

e) community-level outcomes

The indicators of community capacity are claimed to be manifested through individuals, organizations and an education that encourages action. In addition, the effects of capacity building interventions are also displayed at these levels and are simultaneously constrained and enabled by micro and macro-level factors. To that end, strategies are usually implemented to build leadership and to promote collaborations, alliances and networks. (Chaskin 31; 65;125-126; Morse 2004, 51-52; Bruhn 2005, 191).

Many communities have problems with their economic viability given the absence of a community-focused policy on this issue. It has been found that indicidual entrepreneurship has a stronger potential for success when implemented as a community self-development strategy with community inputs into the formation of locally owned enterprises. (Korsching and Allen 2004, 387). This is expected to create jobs and promote problem-solving. The promotion of entrepreneurship is one of several capacity-building approaches. Generally capacity-building has been conceptualized in terms of (i) training the human resource and (ii) building social capital. (Warburton 1998, 25). However, we need to debunk the argument that capacity-building should target the weak and vulnerable because everybody despite their material circumstances, need to be empowered in some manner. (Warburton 1998, 26). Some of the emergent questions in this regard are whose capacity are to be strengthened, by whom, to what end and how will the exercise be managed. The answer to each of these questions is the people in the community. In fact '…if ordinary people do not care about development…any amount of policy programmes will fail.' (Warburton 1998, 28). Another strategy for community development is conscientisation which orients citizens to evaluate social, political and economic situations and also to take necessary action to reduce resultant disadvantages. This approach would stimulate greater collaboration with other institutions which also require more guidelands for accountability. When however, citizens believe that they cannot influence, they may be unwilling to trust public institutions. Indeed, the lack of status accorded to community-level action also fuels participants' lack of trust in government agencies. Capacity-building must not be viewed as a precondition for participation but participation must be seen as a necessary part of capacity-building. (Warburton 1998, 33). Community is not about different groups of people but

about a different kind of action, one that coordinates knowledge, technical skills, positive interpersonal relationships and collective action.

The paradigm has shifted from developing sustainable environments to the building of sustainable communities. (Etzioni 1998, 41). Such a perspective accepts that individuals cannot progress outside of and therefore need to interact with civil society where er learn self-government and also learn how to manage our individual selves. Such communications promote democracy and value people's rights. It is believed that communities must be anchored by certain beliefs viz. we should provide younger generation with moral education and character training. (Etzioni 1998, 45) and they should not be allowed to persistently prioritize their self-interest. This new type of arrangement for getting work done requires a greater emphasis on accountability which is considered to be:

a) professional when it is consequent upon professional education and experiences;

b) financial or based on accounting standards and investigation of finances;

c) legal or obligated to act in accordance wit hadministrative procedures and

d) managerial, as observed in the management of services, target setting and production of deliverables with respect to this issue of accountability within the community, and within the structures that are set up to manage community development. (Stewart 1998, 63).

This approach is challenged by materialism which has not produced more positive benefits beyond what is physically visible: nice house, cars, cloths instead of well-being and quality of life in terms of health, recreation, cultural practices, education, community spirit, manners, courtesies. (MacGillivary 1998, 83). Those who organize services and work with young people have a good opportunity to educate teenagers by example. Moreover '…service

can foster a sense of social responsibility.' (Youniss and Yates 1998, 150) thus reducing the focus on freedom and rights even though these are important. Service helps people to look beyond self as they become submerged in the concerns and problems being faced by others. Doing this becomes an admirable form of socialization. (Youniss and Yates 1998, 161). Under the 'umbrella' term community economic development, Margaret S. Sherraden and William A. Ninacs (1998) have argued that initiatives such as micro-enterprise development and job creation would generate funds that cound be ploughed into other types of organizations. However, citizens are very much aware that a purely economic approach to deveelopmebnt at any level often creates more problems than it has solved. Many countries have seen the need to promote 'the social' while in pursuit of development goals. Such social movements encompass connected events, centralized and decentralized organization, interactions between people. (Diani 2003, 1) and the networking tend to be community-based resulting in collective action.

Several explanations or theories have been developed to account for community-level mobilization efforts. One perspective is that those who are willing to participate politically have certain personality features. The Resource Mobilization Approach identifies resources in pursuit of a specific objective. New Social Movements and Identity Theories have however focused on the manner in which issues are framed for the purpose of mobilizing self and others. (Rubin and Rubin 2001,142). Not onlyd does Margaret Archer (1988, xii) foreground cultures as the driving force of agency but that cultures and structures complement each other. According to Structuration Theory, people establish structures which may be enabling or constraining. This theory, however, focusses on how people and social structures interact to influence and be influenced by each other. According to Foucault, subjects are discursively constructed. However,

these subjects can also think, understand and reflect. (Barker 2003, 234-235). Agency in this context is about making a difference, making choices, renewal and change. Another perspective, postmodernism spoke about multiple realities, about loss of meaning, fragmentation uncertainty and fast lifestyles. (Barker 2003, 207). Beyond this argument, David Willer (1999, 8-21) posits the importance of Network Exchange Theory in which several issues are highlighted – relations between people, structures, exchanges, connections, inclusions and exclusions.

Social capital inheres itesle in poor communities where people's attitude to life is usually simple and healthy and where their strength of personality is reflected in their relationships with others. Forpurposes of combating poverty, discussions of social capital have to be shifted from individual to community level. In fact, it has been argued that community's social capital can enhance revitalization strategies (Sampson 2001, 89) can enhance political participation, education level, health, reduce crime and economic situation of residents and the formation of association (Warren, Thompson and Saegert 2001,1). Moreover, it can be safely argued that the strength of rural life is based on its social capital (Warren, Thompson and Saegert 2004, 92; Duncan 2001, 1). However, insofar as modernization and development have been destabilizing social and community living, social capital is being affected as reflected in poor quality of interpersonal relationships in many communities, weakened social norms, reduced work ethic quality, questionable moralities. In addition som form of osocial capital can be used to exclude others and direct group activity along non-informing paths e.g. gangs and ethnic associations (Warren, Thompson and Saegert 2001, 7). Community networking enhances trust, strengthens the social fabric and ensures that resources and opportunities are accessible to all. 'Bridges' can be built between low-income communities between the poor and affluent. The working together of the state's economic and political organizations and community groups creates a synergy

(Warren, Thompson and Saegert 2001, 15). Efforts to mobilize and use social capital should operate at three levels – individual, organizational and societal. Some of the major features of social capital are its flow and thythm, multidimensionality, intra and extra institutional nature and history. Social capital resonates in informal control, collective efficacy, institutional support and intergenerational ties and those have to be balanced by a respect for individual rights (Sampson 2001, 109). Beyond this, it has been posited that the negative effective effects mediate and technology are viable in the widening interpersonal gaps that exist across communities by distancing our conscience, consciousness and core relationships. (Bugeja 2005, xiii). This therefore underlines the fact that despite the usefulness of technology we must continue to monitor the status of the human condition. Globalization '…has given us more people that the world has ever known and increased threats to the environmental conditions…led many to fear the loss of …meaningful self-government.' (Brechner, Costello and Smith 2002, ix). We therefore need a 'bottom-up' globalization in which 'grassroots' people in the communities mobilize to pursue their needs and interests. Community services often have a positive effect not only on the moral and political development of young people but also on their sense of identity (Youniss and Yates 1997, 1). Moral development is greatly facilitated insofar as young people become more action-oriented as they confront situations of personal need and inequalities in the society. Views abound that youths today are irresposible , have not been prepared for adult roles and aer personal pelasure-seekers. Community services also provide a form of social support which would reinforce the positive effects of caregiving. The nature of the relationship depended on the types of services and the client-customer relationship. Caregiving strain is reflected in the physical and emotional strain that caregivers experience when assisting clients. 9Li, Chadita and Morrow-Horrell 2005, 56-57). In addition, caregiving strain is also dependent on the caregivers,

personality, contextual factors and cognitive factors. Indeed, insufficient and/or inadequate services were found to contribute to caregiving strain.

The predominant forms of collaboration have been interprofessional and interorganizational which have been expanded to include clients. This has led to the emergence of family-centred youth-centered and elder-centred collaboration. These have often subsumed structures, services and practices. Community-level collaboration requires that all stakeholders contribute to improve the well-being residents through their services in the community. It involves participation, organization and advocacy in a manner that enhances trust and conflict resolution. (Clairborne and Lawson 2005, 95).

Research Findings

Research has found strong support for the positive impacts of coalition building, interorganizational linkages, overlapping membership, advocacy promotion, policy building on community development (Diani 2003, 2). Direct and indirect network ties have provided opportunities for participation, informing and developing competencies for community-building purposes. Community-level research is ultimately intended to inform an action plan to improve the quality of people's lives in and across communities. Various research methods have been used in this regard: community profiling, needs assessment, impact assessment, empowerment evaluation, research and participatory action research. Stakeholders are usually involved in these assessment of experiences, resources, structures and feedback. (Stoecker 2005, 17-19). Most community-focused research have unearthed positive effects of empowerment intitiatives in

countries as Brazil, Ethipia, Honduras, Indonesia, Nepal. (Alsop, Bertelsen and Holland 2006, 125,152,172,193).

Community Interventions

In the pursuit of community change, it is necessary:

    a) to act with purpose;

    b) understand and define issues;

    c) become familiar with the actors in the situation;

    d) co-opt other people in the exercise;

    e) decide what is to be done;

    f) implement;

    g) let your actions generate ripple effects and

    h) seek and obtain feedback (Homan 1999, 14-23).

For the purpose of rebuilding communities, a range of initiatives has been found useful in different circumstances:

    a) the introduction of tourism venues, arts cooperatives and art-based small businesses and other community-level arts projects. (Phillips 2004, 115-117; Carey and Sutton 2004, 128);

    b) the development of partnerships through multi-agency collaboration which introduces new structures and coountability requirements for service delivery. (Diamond 2004, 177);

c) having a voice and participation in community-level organizations (Howard 2004, 224);

d) leadership development programmes in communities. (Kirk and Shutte 2004, 234).

Community development programs across time and place have highlighted:

a) a risks demands and rewards of activism at this leve (Brager 1999, 57; Perlman 1999, 75);

b) problem-solving (Spergel 1999, 23) and

c) negotiations between communities and bureaucracies for power-sharing purpose 9Curtis 1995, 122-24).

In addressing much of what is negative in communities, it has been argued that a larger percentage of social work has been devoted to helping individuals to adjust to their disadvantaged neighbourhoods instead of helping them to rise out difficult communities. (Homan 1999, 6). When the needs of communities are not being met, community problems arise. In an effort to reduce or eliminate such problems, certain activities are undertaken which may or may not precipitate change. (Homan 1999, 6). Some of the typical community activities focus on neighbourhood empowermentm problem-solving, community support, community education and community organization. To improve service delivery to communities, it may be necessary to change program regulation, develop new programs and encourage cooperation between different agencies. (Homan 1996, 6).

There are several approaches to community development variously emphasizing, social planning and social actions. Locality development encourages a wide range of people to participate in goal setting, needs assessment and problem-solving. The social planning

perspective posits that change is facilitated through rational bureaucratic action. Social Action approaches attempts to mobilize disadvantaged groups and make demands on the wider society. (Homan 1999, 34). It is highly recommended that people get to know their community before pursiing any initiative. One needs to be informed about the size, where people meet, key landmarks, national features, population, demographic mix, how long people live there, access to goods/services opportunity structuer, untouched resources, livelihoods and the influences on community life. (Homan 1999, 117-118). The building of organizations to promote community changes requires an awareness of the following:

a) that organizations are constructed to focus on issues;

b) that it is necessary to be specific about the issue, do some research, network with interested parties, hold group meetings, publicize your plans;

c) that several factors may hamper group development – inflexibility, poor conflict resolution skills, poor leadership, inadequate sharing og ideas and poor implementaion.

Community programs must also provide long-term support for youth development from childhood through adolescence into adulthood. They should serve to '…refine life skills and support young people in the acquisition and growth of …assets' (Eccles and Gootman 2002, 7), physical, emotional, intellectual and social. As such there is a need for an array of program opportunities to meet these diverse needs of young people and mechanisms should be put in place for monitoring availability, accessibility and program quality. Such programs have traditionally taken the form of special clubs, sports leagues, youth groups and community service. (Bruhn 2005, 187-188).

Nonexperimental program research have provided a better understanding of '…program operations, components and relationships in order to inform the design of future experimental evaluations' (Eccles and Gootman 2002, 122). Meta-analysis of prevention and development programs have found that the former, if well-designed and implemented may yield positive psychological outcomes across time. It was also found that environment-centered progam (compared with person-centered programs) were more effective in reducing social problems than in building individual competencies (Eccles and Gootman 2002, 166).

A review of over four hundred delinquency and violence prevention programs found that the following criteria were met by the more impactful programs: a strong quasi-experimental or eperimental design, evidence of statistically significant deterrent effects that were sustainable for at least one year, and site replication with demonstrated effects. Most of these programs featured one of combination of the following foci: a 'big brother' or 'big sister' approach, an emphasis on lifeskills and/or therapeutic interventions. 9Eccles and Gootman 2002, 173).

Community building initiatives have variously focused on poverty reduction (Ewalt 1998, 3; Murphy and Cunningham 2006, 91), social services (Takahashi 2006, 277); school-community linkages (Dupper and Poertner, 306) and collaborations to reduce gang violence among other issues (Spergel and Grossman 1998, 130).

Indeed comprehensive community-level interventions should be restructured to impact on individuals and families. They should be multipronged incorporating various types of training and therapy in order to mitigate impact of the multiple risk factors on the lives of children and families (Ferrer-Wredder 2004, 62-77, 189). What follows is a proposal for building communities of practices that are structured to endure and, widely distributed while facilitating different forms of participation (Wenger, McDermott, Snyder 2002, 25-26). According to

Patricia W. Murphy and James V. Cunningham (2003, 13) '…people, working together, can master the strength to slow, or even stop, the decline of their local living places and bring them to renewed states of stability and viability.'

The scale, intensity and escalation of social problems requires a collective effort to alleviate the situation. Hereunder is an initiative for that purpose. The objectives are as follows:

a) to contribute to a reduction in key social problems which would indeed have ripple effects on other social issues;

b) to revitalize community living through community development projects;

c) to engender the participation of children, teenagers and adults in community redevelopment thus restoring in these participants, a sense of pride in self, others and their respective communities;

d) to mobilize industries, non-governmental organizations, creative arts community groups and others to network with each other and make more tangible contributions to community restoration which must be at the heart of any development exercise;

e) to underline the importance of networking and mobilizing.

Context and Significance

Over the last two decades, several major developments have occurred to cause countries globally to prioritize or up the 'ante' on the social aspects of life:

a) the recognition by international bodies such as the United Nations that economic approaches o development via reducing poverty, crime and unemployment were not working as these issues continued to escalate;

b) the outcomes of the Beijing Conference (1989), the World Summit on Social Development (2002) to which many countries were signatories and the World Social Forum (2001) in Brazil through which strong anti-globalization discourses were raised;

c) the commitment of nations to the attainment of Millennium Development Goals;

d) the articulation of development goals through Vision 2020 in the case of Trinidad and Tobago;

e) the resurgence of literature voicing the imperatives of developing and mobilizing social, emotional and cultural capital over economic capital as catalysts for development; and

f) problems faced by 21st century youth substance abuse, violence, teenage pregnancies, school failures (Delgado 2000, 31-41).

The significance of the social has been further highlighted by the impact of incicilities, hostilities, aggression on the social fabric and the spiraling social costs of these all of which are further aggravated combined by population.

The Streams of Development Perspective

The various 'streams' of development are small busines, sports, creative arts, performing arts, community projects, technologies and agriculture.According to this perspective, several 'streams' of activities have to be simultaneously pursued in an effort to cater for and develop the different interests, skills within and aacross communities. When implemented across a country, the anticipated cumulative effect is development that achieves Amartya Sen's position of capability expansion at community level. Also resonating in this action-oriented perspective are theoretical constructs suchas socual capital development, agency promotion, social networks and resource mobilization. Social capital is enhanced as individuals across different levels work together on different activities across time and space. Agency is promoted when residents see their projects come to fruition as direct result of their networking and mobilization of resources.

This approach is informed by several principles:

a) development risks, challenges and opportunities surface constantly for children, teenagers and adults;

b) ina context such as ours, which has spawned a youth underworld networking approaches are more affective than individual approaches;

c) this country has the requisite structure/organizations to manage the development process;

d) any approach at this stage, which is not multipronged is not going to be effective;

e) confidence in people's ability to manage programs;

f) the need to promote linkages between state' civil society, private sector and other stakeholders in the development of social policies, programs and their implementation;

g) the realization that social , emotional, cultural, financial and intellectual capitals complement each other;

h) the restoration of a sense of community as a critical 'sprinboard' for further development; and

i) the possibilities for restoring procedural, distributive and restorative justice/.

Given the shortcomings in the roles of agents of socialization, the proposed strategy identifies and encourages the adoption and implementation of a 'streams of development' approach as a means of restoring the social fabric. This approach is informed by an appreciation of the fact that individuals have different strengths and capabilities and these must be catered for. In addition, those who are multi-skilled must also be allowed to pursue their multiple interests. It is believed that a linear approach to this task, to life, is self-defeating an counter-productive and as such, several initatives must be promoted simultaneously within communities. This multi-pronged approach identifies the following as necessary 'streams' for social development, small business, sports, creative arts, vocational training, cooperatives, computer literacy and agriculture promotion. In these streams, individuals would acquire knowledge and functional skills. Research and feedback mechanisms would be used to develop indicators of progress at the childhood, teenage and adult phases. Our development efforts can be multifocussed, providing opportunities for children, teenagers and adults to participate across time. Indicators can be developed to monitor progress at all levels: Child Indicators Monitoring System (CIMS), Youth Indicators Monitoring System (YIMS) and Community Indicators Monitoring System (CIMS).

Resonating in this Streams of Development Perspectives are the already established theoretical notions of networking and resource mobilization. While such constructs are indeed central to community capacity building, efforts to operationalize them could be improved

through policy and practice integration that is communitu-focussed but ultimately yielding national development benefits. This approach goes beyond theorizing practices and illustrates howa theory can be transformed into a practice. Stated differently, submerged within the proposed theory are conditions of possibilities for the transformation of communities. This rationale for integration is:

a) that policy integration would provide a framework and facilitate oversight for the coordination of objectives, resources, strategies and evaluations fo community-level activities;

b) that policy integration would provide conditions and parameters for grassroots, intermediaries and macrolevel institution to harmonize in a manner that has not been done before;

c) that policy integration would promote greater dialog between all entities involved, a practice that has been hitherto minimal.

The small business and cooperatibe dimensions of this aproach would facilitate self-help and the adoption of an entrepreneurial attitude in the medium to long term. Sport and creative arts promote camaraderie along with appreciation of teamwork and the development of social and emotional capital. Technical vocational skills devlopment would equip people with marketable skills and an agricultural emphasis would help communities to feed themselves thus reducing food inflation bill. Basic Needs Projects would orient communities to work on projects to restore drains, playgrounds, electricity and water in collaboration with the authorities.

Policy integration requires the following:

a) introduction of policies in areas where they do not yet exist and documentation of same e.g. small business development, creative arts, sports, performing arts;

b) discussions of the objectives, content, stakeholders' evaluation with respect to the various activities: small business development, sports, creative arts and others;

c) the clarification of roles and responsibilities of stakeholders;

d) articulation of mechanisms to facilitate timely and clear communication horizontally and vertically;

e) emphasis on transparency and coountability;

f) mechanisms for resource distribution, media coverage in a manner that demonstrates equity and equality of treatment of communities and

g) prioritizing of community-level action and initiatives instead of macrolevel concerns

For example, National Childcare, Youth and Family Policies should address the above (a-g) with respect to each of the activities identified in Figure 1 for children, teenagers and families. Policy integration also requires clarification of positions on other issues after consultation wit hstakeholders involved:

a) initial piloting of the initiative and making adjustments on the basis of feedback;

b) facilitation of the establishing of additional skils training existing facilities to be located on the basis of population distribution;

c) providing other relevant organizations with the resources to provide basic training for small business development, sports, creative arts, cooperative management, food and vegetable production;

d) the acceptance of youths and others into these training programs without previous qualifications because they are the individuals who become involved in deviant activities in the long term;

e) encouraging banks and energy industries to adopt a community and fund proposed projects as part of their corporate social responsibility;

f) provision of periodic media coverage on the progress of community activities and

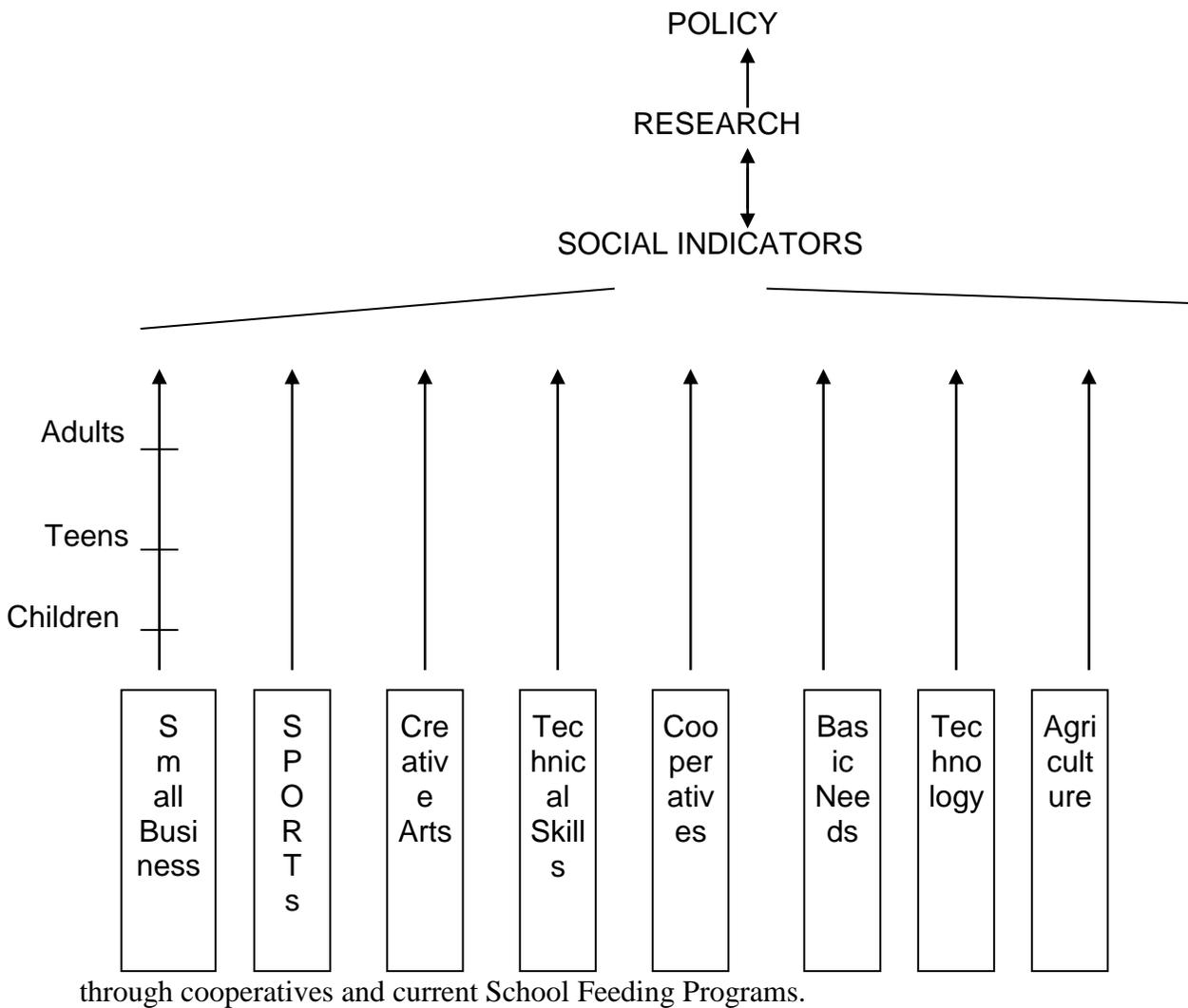g) mechanisms to handle surplus production of food, art and craft items, for example

POLICY

↑

RESEARCH

↕

SOCIAL INDICATORS

Adults —

Teens —

Children —

S m all Busi ness	S P O R T s	Cre ativ e Arts	Tec hnic al Skill s	Coo per ativ es	Bas ic Nee ds	Tec hno logy	Agri cult ure

through cooperatives and current School Feeding Programs.

Figure 1: Diagrammatic Representation of A 'Streams of Development' Policy Framework for Trinidad and Tobago (Community-Focussed).

From Theory to Practice

The operationalization of the Streams of Development Theory can be facilitated through institutional and implementation framewors as outlined below:

The Institutional Framework

Operationalizing this initiative would require the introduction of 'networking' of agencies such as ministries, private sector, industries and communities as reflected in Figure 2. The diagram shows these entities and their reporting relationships. Associations and others to a limited extent have been networking on a small scale with each other at the community level in an effort to locate and mobilize resources for the various activity streams (viz: sports, small business etc.). Feedback is to be informally and formally provided to a committee of ministry representatives.
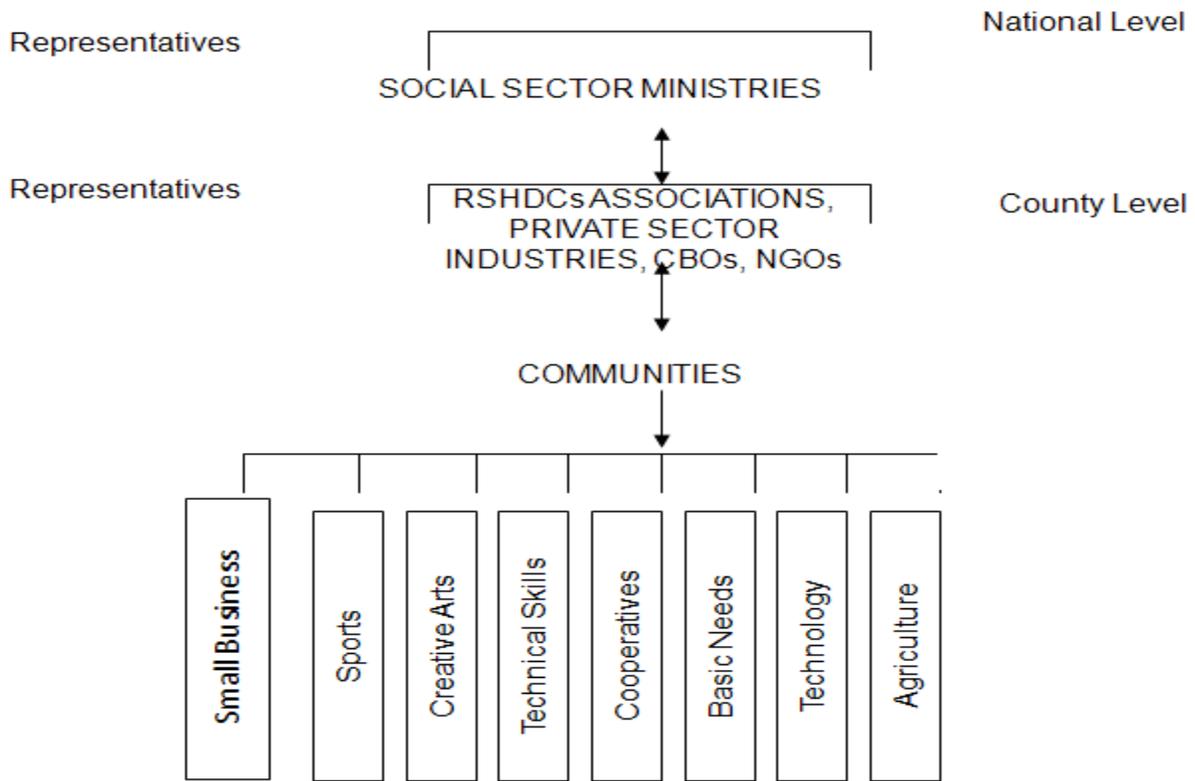
RSHDCs : Regional Social and human Development Councils

Figure 2 : Institutional Framework for Social Sector Development in Trinidad and Tobago

The Implementation Framework

For implementation purposes, it is possible to utilize existing institutions by establishing more branches nationwide. It is also possible to utilize and remunerate nationals across the country who are skilled in various fields to provide tuition and workshops.

The various activities in this 'stream of development' approach can be implemented by various organizations that already exist. For example, small business development can be taken care of

by the Small Enterprising Business Association, Small Business Development Company and the Vendors Association. Creative Arts can be implemented through primary and secondary schools drama associations, art societies, handicraft groups, carnival arts and Best Village Competitions at the community level and coordinated by country-level coordinating committees. An Implementation Framework is diagrammatically represented below in Figure 3.
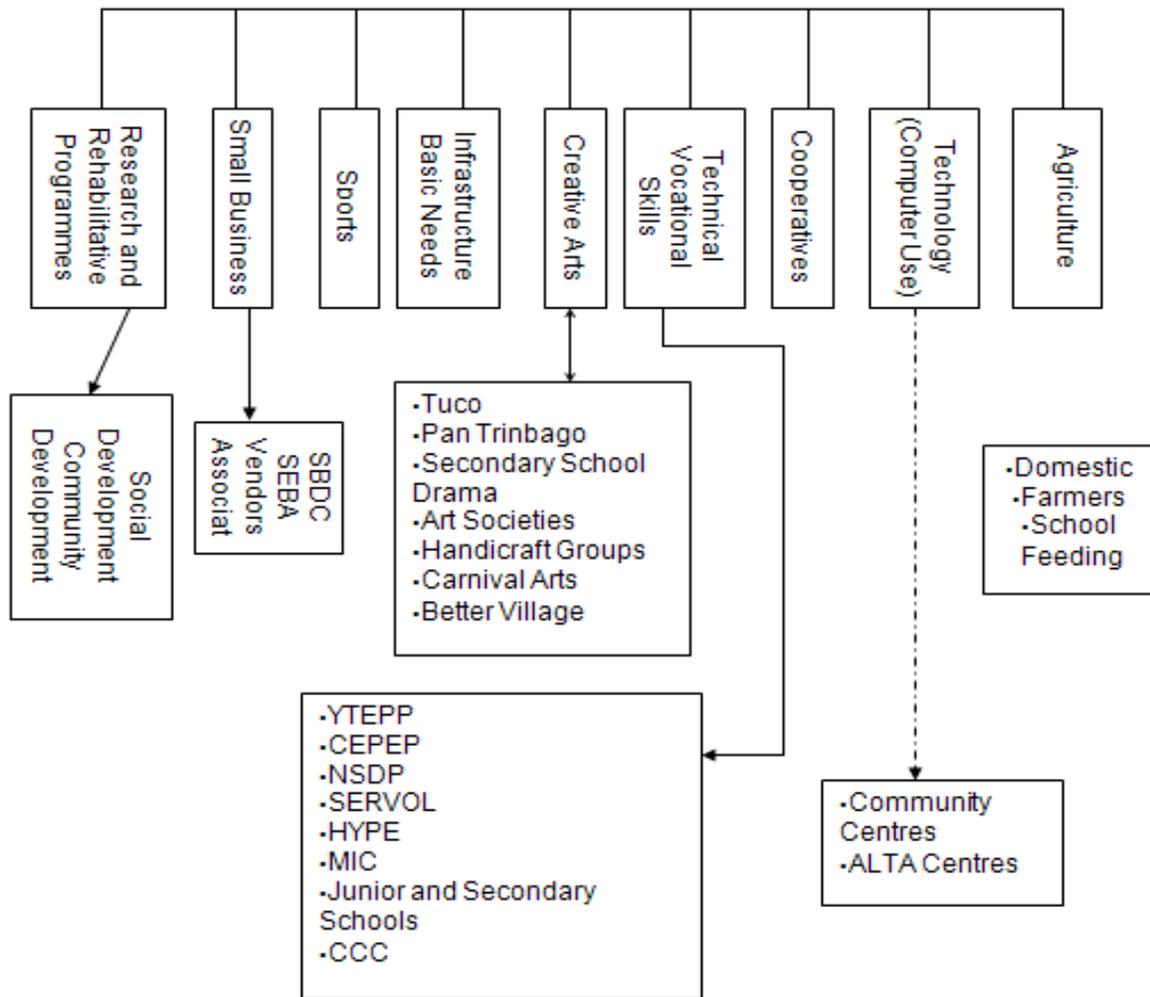

Figure 3 : Implementation framework for streams of development policy in Trinidad and Tobago

This multidimensional approach at the community level involves a focus on the provision of basic needs (water, electricity, and road), the production of agriculture cooperatives, technology (computer use), skills and creative arts development, sports, small business development and research on social problems. Each of these would be facilitated by the linkages between associations, organizations and schools as necessary.

This framework provides a strategy for ministries, for example, to operationalize comprehensive programs (through RSHDCs) that are already in place. These entities would monitor at community level the implementation of sports, creative arts, small business development, agriculture, technical-vocation skills development, In instances where ministries do not yet have a comprehensive plan vis-à-vis their portfolio, one should be developed within a defined timeframe. County-level Coordinating Committees, which can be present RSHDCs can be mandated to liaise with associations industries, non-governmental and other organizations to articulate the concerns emerging from the community level. Project ideas should emerge from residents in the various communities.

Discussion

This integrated social planning constitutive of policy, program and practice integration would spawn/encourage better 'grassroots' management practices through multi-level networking and mobilizing and the strengthening of social, cultural and organizational capital. It places participatory development initiatives into a frame that is multi-pronged. Such approaches would therefore be no longer implemented as a reaction to a public outcry as it would effectively place

the responsibility for development in the hands of communities.The resulting micro-macro linkages bring various actors from all levels of the society in contact with each other in a more meaningful action-oriented approach that empowers at all levels.. Without any group/organization attempting to control each other, a sense of identity emerges.

This approach allows citizens to communicate, motivate each other and make decisions for themselves wit hrespect to their own projects. Such social innovation allows major stakeholders (banks, industries) at all levels of the society to network, mobilize and work with communities. In the short and long-term, there are large social, economic, political and cultural benefits to be derived and shared by all who are involved.

References

Ackerman,, Philip and M.E. Beier. 2003. Trait Complexes, Cognitive Investment and Domain Knowledge. In The Psychology of Abilities Competencies and Expertise edited by R.J. Steinberg and E.L. Grigorenko. Cambridge; Cambridge University Press, 1-30.

Alsop, Ruth M. Bertelsen and J. Holland. 2006. Empowerment in practice. Washington D.C.: The World Bank.

Archer, Margaret S. 1998. Culture and Agency: The Place of Culture in Social Theory. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Barker, Chris. 2003. Cultural Studies: Theory and Practice. (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Brecher, Jeremy. 2004. The Desire for Community: Illusion, Confusion and Paradox. Community Development Journal 39(3): 213-223.

Brent, Jeremy. (2004). The Desire for Community: Illusion , Confusion and Paradox. Community Development Journal 39 (3): 213-223.

Broome, Patrick. 2001. The gender-Related Influence of Implicit Self-Theories of One's Intelligence wit hRegard to Academic Performance in Introductory Physics Classes. Psychologische Beitrage. 43 91): 100-128.

Bruhn, John G. 2005. The Sociology of Community Connections. New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Bugeja, Michael. 2005. Interpersonal Divide: The Search for Community in a Technological Age: Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Carey, Phil and Sue Sulton. 2004. Community Development Through Participatory Arts: Lesson Learns from a Community Arts and Regeneration Project in South Liverpool. Community Development Journal. 39(2): 123-124.

Ceci, Stephen J.; S.M. Barnett and T. Kanaya. 2003. Developing Childhood Proclaviies into Adult Competencies. In The Psychology of Abilities, Competencies and Expertise: The Overloaded Multiplier Effect: Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 70-92.

Chamberlain, Patricia. 2003. Treating Chronic Juvenile Offenders. Washington: American Psychological Association.

Chaskin, Robert J. et al. (2001). Building Community Capacity. New York: Aldine de Gruyer.

Clairborne, Nancy and H.A. Lawson. (2005). An Intervention Framework for Collaboration. Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Services. 86 (1); January-March, 93-102.

Cooper, Joel. 2003. Dissonance Theory: History and Progress. In Motivation Analyses of Social Behaviour edited by R.A. Wright, J. Greenberg and S.S. Brehm. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 19-37.

Diani, Mario. (2003). Introduction : Social Movements, Contentious Actions and Social Networks : From Metaphor to Substance. In Social Movements and Networks edited by M. Diani and D. McAdam. Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1-18.

Dresel, Markus. 2001. A Longitudinal Analysis of Dweck's Motivation Process Model in the Classroom. Psychologische Beitrage. 43 (1): 121-152.

Duncan, Cynthia M. 2001. Social Capital in America's Poor Rural Communities. In Social Capital and Poor Communities edited by S. Saegert, J.P. Thompson and M.R. Warren. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 60-86.

Dupper, David R. and J. Poertner. 1998. Public Schools and Revitalization fo Impoverished Communities: School-Linked Family Resource Centres. In Community Building: Renewal, Well-Being and Shared Responsibility edited by P.L. Ewalt et al. Washington D.C. : NASW Press, 306-315.

Dupeyrat, Caroline and C. Marine. 2001. Implicit Theories of Intelligence, Achievement Goals and Learning Strategy Use. Psychologische Beitrage. 43 (1): 41-52.

Eccles, Jacquelynne and J.A. Gootman. (Eds.) (2002). Community Programs to Promote Youth Development. Washington D.C. : National Academy Press.

Etzioni, Amitai. 1998. A Communication Perspective on Sustainable Communities. In Community and Sustainable Development edited by D. Warburton. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd., 40-51.

Ewalt, Patricia L. 1998. The Revitalization of Impoverished Communities. In Community Building: Renewal, Well-Being and Shared Responsibility edited by P.L. Ewalt et al. Washington D.C.: NASW Press, 3-5.

Ferrer-Wreder, Laura et al. 2004. Successful Prevention and Youth Development Programs. Boston: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Flora, Cornelia B. and Jan L. Flora. (2004). Rural Communities: Legacy and Change (2nd ed.). Boulder : Westview Press.

Gendola, Guida H.E. 2003. The Intensity of Motivation When the Self is involved: An Application of Brehm's Theory of Motivation to Effort-Related Cardiovascular Response. In Motivational Analyses of Social Behaviour edited by R.A. Wright, J.Greenberg and S.S. Brehm. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 205-223.

Gittell, Ross and J.P. Thompson. 2001. Making Social Capital Work: Social Capital and Community Economic Development. In Social Capital and Poor Communities edited by S. Saegert, J.P. Thompson and M.R. Warren. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 115-135.

Green, Gary Paul. 2011. The Self-Help Approach to Community Development. In Introduction to Community Development: Theory, Practice and Service Learning edited by J.W. Robinson and G.P. Green, 71-83.

Hawtin, Murray, G. Hughes and J. Percy-Smith. 1994. Community Profiling: Auditing Social Needs. Buckingham: Open University.

Homan, Mark S. (1999). Promoting Community Change. Albany: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Homan, Mark S. (1999). Rules of the Game: Lessons from the Field of Community Change. Albany: Brooks and Cole Publishing

Howard, Joanna. 2004. Citizen Voice and Participation in Local Governance: Perspectives from Nicaragua. Community Development Journal. 39(3): 224-233.

Kirk, Philip and Anna Marie Shutte. 2004. Community Leadership Development, 39 (3): 234-351.

Korsching, Peter F. and John C. Allen. 2004. Locality-Based Entrepreneurship: A Strategy for Economic Vitality. Community Development Journal 39 (4): 385-400.

Li, Hong; L.A. Chadiha and N. Morrow-Horrell. 2005. Association Between Unmet Needs for Community Services and Caregiving Strain. Families in Society: The Journal of Contemporary Services 86(1): January-March, 55-62.

Lopez, M. Lissette. 2001. Social Capital and the Culture of Power; Lessons from the Field. In Social Capital and Poor Communities edited by S. Saegert, J.P. Thompson and M.R. Warren. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 31-59.

MacGillivary, Alex. 1998. Turning the Sustainability Corner: How to Indicate Right. In Community and Sustainable Development edited by D. Warburton. London: Earthscal Publications Ltd.

Marmon-Jones, Eddie. 2003. From Cognitive Dissonance to Motivational Functions of Emotions. In Motivational Analyses of Social Behaviour edited by R.A. Wright, J. Greenberg and S.S. Brehm. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 39-55.

Mohanty, Manoranjan. 2001. On the Concept of Empowerment. In Social Development and the Empowerment of Marginalized Groups: Perspectives and Strategies edited by D.K. SinghaRoy. New Delhi: Sage Publications, 22-30.

Morse, Suzanne W. 2004. Smart Communities. New York: Jossey-Bass.

Murphy, Patricia W. and J.V. Cunningham. 2003. Organizing for Community Controlled Development: Renewing Civil Society. London: Sage Publications.

Phillips, Rhonda. 2004. Artful Business: Using the Arts for Community Economic Development. 39 (2): 112-122.

Raheim, Salome. 1998. Problems and Prospects of Self-Empowerment as an Economic Independence Option for Welfare Participants. In Community Building: Renewal, Well-Being and Shared Responsibility edited by P.L. Ewalt et al. Washington D.C.: NASW Press, 71-81.

Reviere, Rebecca et al. Needs Assessment. Washington D.C. : Taylor and Francis.

Rubin, Herbert J. and Irene S. Rubin. (2001). Community Organizing and Development. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Sampson, Robert J. 2001. Crime and Public Safety: Insights from Community-Level Perspectives on Social Capital. In Social Capital and Poor Communities edited by S. Saegert, J.P. Thompson and M.R. Warren. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 89-113.

Schober, Barbara. 2001. Implicit Personality Theories about the Stability of Behaviour and Aspects of Volitional Behaviour Control – Cnecessary Expansions of Carol Dweck's Motivation Process Model? Psychologische Meitrage. 43 91): 77-99.

Sen, Amartya. 1999. Development as Freedom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sherraden, Margaret S. and William A. Ninacs. (Eds.) 1998. Community Economic Development and Social Work. New York: The Haworth Press.

Silvia, Paul J. 2003. Self-Awareness, Self-Motives and Self-Motivation. In Motivational Analyses of Social Behaviour edited by R.A. Wright, J. Greenberg and S.S. Brehm. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 57-75.

Spinath, Birgit J. Steinsmeier-Pelster. 2001. Implicit Theories about the Malleability of Intelligence and Ability. Psychologische beitrage. 43 (1): 53-76.

Stewart, Murray. 1998. Accountability in Community Contributions to Sustainable Development. In Community and Sustainable Development edited by D. Warburton. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd., 52-67.

Stoecker, Randy. 2005. Research Methods for Community Change. London: Sage Publication.

Stoll, Michael A. 2006. Workforce Development in Minority Communities. In Jobs abd Economic Development in Minority Communities edited by P. Ong and A. Loukaitou-Sideris. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 91-118.

Tikahashi,Lois M. 2006. Synchronizing Social Services with Labour Market Participation: Implications for Community Economic Development in Minority Communities edited by P. Ong and A. Loukaitou-Sideris. Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 277-294.

Warburton, Diane. 1998. A Passionate Dialogue: Community and Sustainable Development. In Community and Sustainable Development edited by S. Saegert, J.P. Thompson and M.R. Warren. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1-28.

Wenger, Etienne; R. McDermott and W.M. Snyder. (2002). Cultivating Communities of Practice. Boston : Harvard Business School Press.

Willer, David. 1999. Network Exchange Theory: Issues and Directions. In Network Exchange Theory edited by D. Willer. London: Praeger press, 1-21.

Younis, James and Miranda Yates. 1998. Community Service and Social Responsibility of Youth. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Ziegler, Albert. 2001. Achievement Motivation and Implicit Theories of Intelligence. Psychologische Beitrage 43 (1): 1-21.