ROUTLEDGE REVIVALS

Dictionary of Social Welfare

Noel and Rita Timms



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First published in 1982, this dictionary offers a practical aid to students of social work and social policy in their conversation about social welfare. It explains the meaning or range of meanings of common terms and explains their applications in welfare, legislation, policy and use by welfare practitioners. It helpfully crossreferences terms with similar or related terms that might be considered alongside. In addition, most entries are concluded by references which introduce the reader to a more extended treatment of the term or an elaboration of its application in the language of social welfare.

Although first published in 1989, this book will be a valuable resource for students of social work, social policy and social welfare.

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Introduction

Anyone attempting to compile a dictionary of social welfare develops a ready sympathy with the character in *Felix Holt* by George Eliot who remarks: 'Before I bring words to market, I should like to see 'em a bit scarcer.' The growing abundance of words is particularly evident if the dictionary aims, as does ours, to introduce users to the study of social work and of social policy. Attending to people's well-being through direct service, management, or the study and appraisal of social policies involves the use of a great many words; not only words, of course, and not mere words either. Even if it is decided to exclude the fascinating area of the working jargon of the professional ('on-going situation', for example), there is no commonly accepted theory of welfare to assist in the establishment of boundaries within which the words might be helpfully located. 'Welfare' itself, as Hobson (1929) observed, 'may mean anything from the most elevated conception of human character and destiny to the baths, refectories, and recreation grounds that figure so prominently in what is known as "welfare work".' The language of welfare reflects this description in so far as it is a mixture of the esoteric, the technical and the down-to-earth.

Students of social work and of social policy frequently refer to deprivation, to rights of various kinds, to the consequences of certain kinds of social stratification, and so on. Such reference obviously depends on psychological, sociological, and other usage, but the full significance of the terms cannot for welfare purposes be obtained simply by reference to dictionaries of psychology, sociology, and so on. Other terms used in welfare are not in any elaborate sense technical (e.g. abortion, advice, reform). Yet these too figure in social welfare discourse. They do

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not require much unravelling as terms, but they need to be placed in welfare talk by reference to recent developments in the practice of welfare or recent discussion in the literature. Such placing has been a major objective of this dictionary, since we believe that the simple stipulation of a necessarily brief synonym would give a false indication of the texture of the language of social welfare and would be of small benefit to the student.

In the entries that follow we indicate the meaning or range of meanings of a word and then outline its application in welfare, in legislation, policy, controversy, and use by welfare practitioners. Sometimes the exposition requires cross-reference to other terms in the dictionary and sometimes the cross-reference is to a connected term that might helpfully be considered alongside. (In each case the cross-reference is simply indicated in italics.) In addition, most entries are concluded by references which help the reader to a more extended treatment of the term or an elaboration of its application in the language of social welfare. (These criteria may result in reference to sources other than the most recent.) The aim in presenting such elements is to offer a practical aid to students of social work and of social policy in their conversation about social welfare. We hope that this dictionary will help them to enter and to participate in such conversation and also to 'go on' when they have been temporarily halted by doubt or perplexity about a term. The entries are not designed to present encyclopedic information but to offer sufficient for the user to 'continue'. To judge that the entries are thereby insufficient is, to use a metaphor of Wittgenstein, to suggest that because the light given by my bedside reading lamp has no sharp boundary it provides no real illumination at all.

We have said that the dictionary is intended to encompass the mutual interests of students of social policy and of social work. It may be considered that some of the entries are biased in the direction of social work; for instance the references to various psychological terms and theories. However, a psychology of some kind is necessary both for the practice of welfare and for understanding that practice, and we have referred to the psychological terms in use. Moreover, a psychology or a social psychology of social policy awaits development. A sociology of social policy is now clearly discernible (e.g. Room, 1979), but in the absence of any psychological development the psychology of the practitioner has to stand on its own.

The terms selected are the result of extensive discussions with teachers, practitioners, and students, but we may not have been able entirely to eliminate some elements of the arbitrary or the idiosyncratic. What we have attempted is to concentrate on terms that play an important role in our understanding of contemporary social provision or practice or have a place in significant controversy or simply because our own experience and that of others suggests they are initially puzzling or significantly contestable.

Hobson, J. (1929) Wealth and Life: a Study in Values, Macmillan, p. 10. Room, G. (1979) The Sociology of Welfare, Blackwell and Martin Robertson.

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We have had help and advice (including 'Don't attempt it') from a large number of friends and professional colleagues. We would acknowledge particularly help from the following, who, of course, bear no responsibility for the use we have chosen to make of their comments and suggestions:

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A

Abortion Potts et al. define abortion as 'the loss of a pregnancy before the fetus or fetuses are potentially capable of life independent of the mother'. This general definition covers spontaneous abortion or miscarriage and induced abortion, but distinguishes both from premature birth, live or still. The subject of abortion is significant for current social policy and for social work for a number of different reasons. Legislation to legalise the medical termination of pregnancy has been promoted and criticised by the continuing action of different pressure groups (e.g. the Abortion Law Reform Society, founded in 1936, and the Society for the Protection of Unborn Children, 1967); the deep convictions in favour of abortion (and its extension to an on-demand service) or profoundly against the use made of present services have resulted in attempts to change the law in a less restricted or a more restricted direction; in addition, these convictions have led to the establishment of new voluntary services often of an 'advisory' or 'counselling' nature. The conditions the 1967 Act was intended to rectify (e.g. back-street abortion, illegitimate and unwanted births) and the Act itself raise questions of a more moral and political nature: the justification of different grounds for termination; the conscientious objection of doctors and nurses; the rights of women to 'their own bodies'; abortion as part of explicit state policy in relation to family planning; the role of the state in preventing 'greater evil', and so on.

DHSS, (Lane) Committee on the Working of the Abortion Act (1974) Report, Cmnd 5579, HMSO.

Feinberg, J. (ed.) (1973) The Problem of Abortion, Belmont.

Potts, M., Digory, P. and Peel, J. (1977) Abortion, Cambridge University Press.

ACCEPTANCE

Acceptance Acceptance is usually taken in a social welfare context to refer to one of the principles of social work or to a desirable attitude towards the recipients of any social service on the part of those who administer it. It is best approached in terms of the implicit or explicit purposiveness of human behaviour: acceptance in the case of a social work client refers to active search for the point any behaviour has for the client and recognition of this as legitimate for him. 'Acceptance' illustrates the ambiguity of 'principle' in social work: it is justified as part of respect for persons or as a statement of what is in fact required for any effective social work. Unlike the 'non-judgmental attitude' with which it also overlaps, 'acceptance' does not seem to suggest one refrains from anything. Moreover, 'acceptance' can be given a weak, dispassionate meaning, as in social work records when 'the social worker accepted this' means only that he made no comment, or a stronger meaning in which the social worker actively recognises elements in a situation as real. This more positive sense is sometimes exaggerated into descriptions of acceptance as a kind of love, but such rarefied 'hugging at a distance' is best left unpursued. Biestek notes that 'acceptance' is one of the vaguest in social work language, but argues for a clear distinction between acceptance and approval.

Biestek, F.P. (1961) The Casework Relationship, Allen & Unwin, pp. 67-88.

Accreditation Accreditation is the public attestation that a particular person or those who have successfully followed certain courses of study are worthy to be trusted in the pursuit of a certain range of activities. Accreditation is frequently statutorily enforced. For example, the Nurses, Midwives and Health Visitors Act 1979 provides for one statutory council to be responsible for the accreditation or approval of training, the registration of practitioners, and any necessary disciplinary procedures. In social work the idea and the practice of the registration of practitioners has been the subject of long debate. The Hospital Almoners' Association established a register in 1907, and the Association of Psychiatric Social Workers in 1961. Some system of accreditation (possibly through a General Social

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Work Council modelled on the lines of the General Medical Council) is seen as providing protection for social worker and for client, as contributing to the enhancement of the status of social work as a profession, and as a stimulus to training.

Malherbe, M. (1980) Accreditation in Social Work; Principles and Issues in Context, Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work.

Acting-out A term from *Freudian theory* originally referring to the re-living of past experience recalled as a result of the work of the psychoanalyst. The term has come to be used more widely to refer to people who deal with their emotional tensions through behaviour directed towards others; they enact their intra-psychic problems rather than express them through the symptoms of a *neurosis*. Acting-out behaviour is characteristic of people with very low thresholds of tolerance who tend to react to others in terms of the past rather than the reality of the present. For such acting-out is a habitual but not very efficient mode of problemsolving. Acting-out behaviour is frequently associated with *character disorder*, but the term is also used very generally as a shorthand for behaviour creating difficulties for others, including social workers.

Action research A loosely defined type of research, contrasted with that undertaken on a strictly controlled experimental basis. The investigator interacts systematically with a service project, frequently on a small scale, in order to assess its operation and its outputs; the results of the research are fed back into the project. Halsey identified five possible types of action research, whilst Lees discusses a range of models. Action research has been a feature of social policy research at least since the *Educational Priority Areas*, and it has been used in social work (*case review system*). Some critics argue that the twin objectives of action and research are in contradiction (e.g. Marris and Rein) but Lees's more modest conclusion probably predominates: 'It is not clear that action research in social policy has to fail' (p. 69).

Halsey, A.H. (1972) Educational Priority (Reports sponsored by DES and SSRC): vol. 1, EPA Problems and Policies, HMSO.

ADDICTION

Lees, R. (1975) Research Strategies for Social Welfare, Routledge & Kegan Paul, pp. 66-72.

Marris, P. and Rein, M. (1967) Dilemmas of Social Reform: Poverty and Community, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Addiction Drugs have been used in most cultures, and for a long time in Britain were part of the accepted behaviour of the professional and upper classes. Only in the twentieth century has the law been increasingly invoked to control drug use, thus 'changing' the drug-addict from a respectable member of society to a common criminal. The laws are highly restrictive and selective, however, within a society which values the medicalisation of drugs. The precise definition of addiction is a matter of argument, but one key notion is that of a craving or overpowering desire for the consumption in one way or another of a particular substance, usually tobacco, alcohol, and drugs (e.g. non-opiates such as cannabis or barbiturates); recently solvents of various kinds have been misused. Other components of addiction are often described as psychological and/or physical dependence, tolerance of increased doses, and severe withdrawal symptoms. Socially preferred definitions of 'the addict' have changed over time from that of moral degradation through that of sickness to the present persuasive definition of drug-misuser, problem drinker, or alcohol abuser. Alcohol abuse has been defined variably, but one more acceptable definition refers to the intermittent or continual ingestion of alcohol, leading to dependence or harm. In social work it is usual to distinguish three categories of alcohol abuse - alcohol dependence, excessive drinking and alcohol-related disabilities; thus constituting a wide range of behaviours and associated problems. Addiction still persists as a term in fairly common use. In welfare discussion 'addiction' raises moral, social, including fiscal, and legal problems of control; social response to the problem includes a complex range of voluntary and statutory services, some of which are innovatory (such as detoxification units for habitual drinking offenders and street agencies for drugmisusers). Addiction leads to complex individual and family problems. Programmes of treatment and of health education are high in cost and of uncertain result.

ADMISSION

 Bean, P. (1974) The Social Control of Drugs, Martin Robertson.
 DHSS and Welsh Office, Advisory Committee on Alcoholism (1978) The Pattern and Range of Services for Problem Drinkers, HMSO.

Grant, M. and Gwynner, P. (1979) Alcoholism in Perspective, Croom Helm.

Royal College of Psychiatrists, Special Committee (1979) Alcohol and Alcoholism, Tavistock.

Adjustment Adjustment is a change in outlook, belief or behaviour brought about to secure an improved orientation to another, to a situation, or to social norms. The term is used in discussion of individual cases and, more generally, as part of the criticism, negative and positive, of welfare activity and legislation. Thus, Marshall refers to 'the adjustment of the individual to his particular circumstances' and possibly 'a necessary condition for reaping the benefit of the welfare services that society offers him ... adjustment to blindness, to physical disablement, to old age, to desertion by a husband, to loss of parents and so forth.' Others suggest that social workers aim to adjust their clients to the intolerable, almost as directly as one would adjust one's dress. Social workers would now place less emphasis on a one-way change, preferring the idea of a double adaptation between 'society' and client. Charges that social work and social policy are primarily concerned with exacting adjustment to dominant social norms usually ignore differences between the kinds of conformity that can be enforced - of behaviour, of attitude, and of belief.

Marshall, T.H. (1981) The Right to Welfare, Heinemann, pp. 67-82.
Wilson, R. (1960) 'Unconformity in the Affluent Society', Sociological Review, 8, 119-28.

Admission Admission usually refers to formal entry into a residential provision or, more generally, to the *care* of an authority. Admission may be the result of agreement or of compulsion. Thus, a patient under S.5 of the Mental Health Act 1959 enters hospital voluntarily as an informal patient, but orders are made for compulsory admission under SS.25, 26, 29, and 135 of the same Act. Under the Child Care Act 1980, children may be received into the care of the local authority

ADOLESCENCE

(sometimes this is referred to as admission to care rather than being committed to care, under the same Act), though this may not necessarily also mean admission to a children's home. Admission refers to the process and procedures whereby a person changes both status and location and becomes a resident of a local authority or voluntary home, hospital, etc. More recently, it has come to be used for formal entry into day care. A particular admission is often an immediate response to a crisis and constitutes a significant change for the persons concerned. Jones indicates that the admission procedures to any residential facility can be analysed in terms of mortification of self, an initiation rite, a life crisis, a socialisation process, and a necessary administrative process. For social workers and policy-makers the decision to admit, the participation of the person 'in need', and the criteria against which admission is tested are all matters of considerable importance.

Brearley, P. et al. (1980) Admission to Residential Care, Tavistock. Jones, K. (1972) 'The Twenty-four Steps: an Analysis of Institutional Admission Procedures', Sociology, 6, 405-14.

Adolescence The terms 'adolescent' and 'young person' or 'youth' are used interchangeably, but there is possible advantage in using the former as a psychological and 'youth' as a social category. Adolescence can be seen as a period of imbalance, not always severe, due to physical, emotional, and social changes marked by the appearance of secondary gender characteristics. It is difficult to suggest a chronology for the onset and the finalisation of puberty, especially if a cross-cultural comparison is intended. Thus, a World Health Organisation Report of 1977 (Technical Report Series 609, Geneva) used the age period of 10-20 years. There is also considerable individual variation in the onset and pace of puberty. Attempts have been made to divide adolescence into distinct periods, but it is perhaps more common to regard the whole developmental phase (including what has been termed prolonged adolescence) as centrally concerned with the establishment of *identity*. There is a tendency in planning programmes or in intervention in individual cases to regard 'adolescence' as essentially divorced from earlier phases of development (psychoanalytic ideas of adolescence as a period in which earlier phases of development are recapitulated have not been widely taken up) and from the psychological and social needs of whoever is in the parenting role at the particular time. Judging the degree to which particular 'disturbed', behaviour in an adolescent may be abnormal, calling for specialist help, is particularly difficult.

Jones, R. and Pritchard, C. (eds) (1980) Social Work with Adolescents, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Laufer, M. (1975) Adolescent Disturbance and Breakdown, Penguin.

Meyerson, S. (ed.) (1975) Adolescence: the Crises of Adjustment, Allen & Unwin.

Adoption Adoption is a legal and also a psycho-social process. The legal process is completed by a court order which confers a new legal status on adopters and the adoptee: the latter stands to the former as if born to them in lawful wedlock. The first adoption law was passed in 1926 and the most recent in 1976, though this has yet to be implemented. A high proportion of adoption orders involve a natural parent and a step-parent (some 60 per cent in 1980), though the Houghton Committee discouraged this in favour of custodianship. The pattern of adoptions has changed considerably as a result of the decline in numbers of white infants available, and serious efforts are now usually made to place children with special needs (sometimes referred to as 'difficult to place'), such as physical disability, mental handicaps, and so on. In this connection adoption is seen as a permanent family placement geared to meet the needs of the child at least as much as to provide a service for childless couples. The results of adoption have been investigated in a number of studies, Raynor's being the most recent. See also Illegitimacy, Fostering.

Home Office, (Houghton) Committee on the Adoption of Children *Report*, (1972) Cmnd 5107, HMSO.

Raynor, L. (1980) The Adopted Child Comes of Age, Allen & Unwin. Tizard, B. (1977) Adoption: a Second Chance, Open Books.

Triseliotis, J. (ed.) (1980) New Developments in Foster Care and Adoption, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Advice Advice is an opinion backed by experience and/or

ADVISERS

expert knowledge indicating a preferable line of action or the provision of facts on which such action could be grounded. 'Advice in a welfare context is important for two reasons. First, a growing number of organisations are concerned that the citizen is well informed about possible remedial actions (e.g. through the Citizens' Advice Bureaux) or seeks to use 'advice centres' as a base for other services such as intermediate treatment or community work. A Home Office Circular (204/1963) asked local authorities to establish Family Advice Centres as a central point of reference for the public in need of advice or assistance in relation to the welfare of children. The provision of specifically legal advice is of growing importance, though Morris argued against any rigid separation of legal and social advice. By 1976 there were 120 consumer advice centres compared with 1 in 1970, but since 1976 the number has been considerably reduced. Second, advice has always had a place in the social worker's armamentarium, though until the late 1960s it was, outside the Probation Service, quite a low place: probation officers since the Probation of Offenders Act 1907 have been instructed to 'advise, assist and befriend'. Consumer studies in welfare indicate that users of social services place quite a high value on advice, though individual recipients of advice may understand very different things by the term.

- Morris, P. et al. (1973) 'Public Attitudes to Problem Definition and Problem Solving: a Pilot Study', British Journal of Social Work, 3, 301-20.
- National Consumer Council (1977) Fourth Right of Citizenship: a Review of Local Advice Services.
- Reid, W. and Shapiro, B. (1969) 'Clients' Reactions to Advice', Social Service Review, 43, 165-73.

Advisers Advisers are specially appointed or recognised in some public manner to provide expertise in the appraisal of particular projects and of general policy direction. They work at many distinct levels, but of particular interest in social welfare are the appointment of academic and other experts to advise government, for example in relation to the Health Service, and the growth in the middle levels of the hierarchy of social services departments of a group of staff called advisers (or consultants, principal assistants, and so on). Such staff are usually not in direct contact with clients, neither are they in the direct management line. A recent study argues that the term 'adviser' is unhelpful and that four main kinds of role could be distinguished: specialist development officers, project officers, staff officers and consultant practitioners.

Billis, D. (1980) 'Advisers, Development Officers and Consultants in Social Services Departments', in Organising Social Services Departments, ed. D. Billis et al., Heinemann.

Klein, R. and Lewis, J. (1977) 'Advice and Dissent in British Government', *Policy and Politics*, 1, 1-25.

Advocacy Advocacy originally concerned pleading another's case in court. This meaning obtains in welfare when social workers or others represent others before tribunals or to other organisations (e.g. the various utility services). In America in the late 1960s advocacy became one of the specialist roles in social work, particularly in relation to welfare rights, and in the process advocacy was widened to refer to groups as well as to individuals, and to include any attempt to obtain services from an initially unresponsive source. Rose criticises the 'middle-class' social work advocates and suggests claimants would be better advised to find advocates in their own ranks. Levy distinguishes three possible objectives in advocacy-procedural fairness, background fairness, corrective justice. Advocacy can also be of a cause: social provision (e.g. improved community care), and some social workers would now describe themselves as advocates of the poor or of the powerless. The notion, in either sense of advocacy, of the partisan respresentative poses problems in social work which as an occupation has always explicitly eschewed manipulation. See also Representative.

Brager, G.A. (1968) 'Advocacy and Political Behaviour', Social Work, 13, 5-15.

Levy, C.S. (1975) 'Advocacy and the Injustice of Justice', Social Service Review, 49, 39-50.

Rose, H. (1973) 'Up against the Welfare State', in *Socialist Register*, 1973, ed. R. Miliband and J. Saville, Merlin.

After-care After-care services are those offered or imposed following a period in a residential establishment such as a borstal, prison, or hospital; services consequent upon nonresidential provision are usually described as 'follow-up'. At

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times in the development of a particular welfare service after-care receives special emphasis. For example, since 1964 the Probation Service has been known under the title of the Probation and After-Care Service. Older examples of specific roles and functions in the area of after-care would be the former approved school after-care officers and the work of such voluntary societies as the Mental After-Care Association founded in 1877 as the After-Care Association for the Female and Friendless Convalescent on leaving Asylums for the Insane (Roof). The separate idea of 'after-care' in the case of the physically and mentally ill has been largely absorbed into community care, and the ideal of a planned continuum of care or through-care is now fashionable. However, what follows a period of residential care or detention is always in danger of being an afterthought or, to extend Davies's description of prison after-care, an apology no one really wants.

Davieş, M. (1974) Prisoners of Society: Attitudes and After-Care Routledge & Kegan Paul.
Monger, M. (1967) Casework in Aftercare, Butterworth.
Roof, M. (1957) Voluntary Societies and Social Policy, Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Agency This term usually refers to the organisation whose main programme is or includes social work provision of some kind: it used to be common to distinguish those agencies where the delivery of social work was a primary objective (such as a voluntary family casework agency) and those where it was secondary (such as a hospital). See *Functionalist School* for the systematic attempt to involve the notion and reality of agency in the description and the delivery of social work: for Functionalists, the agency was literally an agent of society. 'Agency' is also used in a more common sense. Voluntary societies can undertake work for the local authority as a result of agency agreements.

Aggression Aggression is not most usefully seen as a single phenomenon, though single theory explanations (for example, the death instinct in *Freudian theory* or the idea of aggression as always a response to frustration) have attracted support.

ALIENATION

'Aggression' covers acts intended to worsen another's position or situation, but also acts required in the surmounting of difficulties; we speak of aggressive personalities and of aggressive *attitudes*, and of aggression as the summoning and use of energy to get something done. Not surprisingly, Storr believes that 'aggression is a portmanteau term which is fairly bursting at its seams.' The significance of aggression in welfare discourse derives from the place given to aggression/hate in explanations of human behaviour (see e.g. *Kleinian theory*); from interest in particular child-rearing practices or in features of the social environment as producing more or less aggression; and from explanations of the present state of social welfare as a product of the aggression of one social class against another. See also *Violence, Vandalism*.

Lorenz, K. (1936) On Aggression, Methuen.
Storr, A. (1970) Human Aggression, Pelican.
Swanson, H. (1976) 'The Biological Value of Aggression', in DHSS, Violence, ed. N. Tutt, HMSO.

Alcoholism Alcoholism or the alcohol-dependence syndrome, see *addiction*.

Alienation Alienation is a term originally used by Hegel and then substantially extended by Marx to refer to a social condition rather than to individuals in a psychological state of estrangement. The term is very loosely used in a welfare context to explain anything from suicide to relatively temporary disenchantment with life; it is frequently offered as an explanation for the persistence of hippies, drug addicts, etc. In Marx there are two central aspects to alienation: the notion of loss of meaning/ connection with the product of one's work or with all other producers or with 'human nature' (in any use of alienation, it is important to ask 'alienated from what?') and systematic response to what has been 'lost' as if it were a 'foreign' and dominant force. Others have attempted to 'unpack' the notion along different dimensions. Seeman, for example, refers to powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness, isolation, and selfestrangement, and in this sense 'alienation' is used as an explanation of deviant behaviour. Attempts have also been

ALLOCATION

made to outlaw the term from discussions of social work and of social policy 'on the grounds that it does indiscriminate harm to users and victims alike' (Pinker) or, from a Marxist perspective, because it has 'been vulgarised beyond all use'. Usage of a very loose kind, however, is bound to survive.

Lukes, S. (1967) 'Alienation and Anomie', in *Philosophy, Politics and* Society, 3rd series. P. Laslett and W.G. Runciman, Blackwell.
Pinker, R. (1971) Social Theory and Social Policy, Heinemann, p. 154.
Seeman, M. (1959) 'On the Meaning of Alienation', American Sociological Review, 21.

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Allocation Allocation can be of work (as in allocation of new cases to a social worker's *caseload*) or of resources (as in the report of the Resource Allocation Working Party, 'Sharing Resources for Health in England', 1976). Resources can be allocated through different mechanisms, for example, through the *market* or through different kinds of policy decisions, including the selection of priority groups and priority areas and various devices of formal and informal *rationing*. Work in social services departments is allocated by team leaders or, less usually, through team allocation meetings. In consideration of resource allocation it is important to see that at a comparatively low organisational level social workers are in effective control of such crucial resources as their own time and attention. On the whole, these are not systematically allocated in terms of explicit priorities. See also *Caseload, Priorities*.

Hill, M. (1979) 'Social Work Teams and the Allocation of Resources', in *Planning for Welfare*, ed. T.A. Booth, Blackwell and Martin Robertson.

Judge, K. (1979) 'Resource Allocation in the Welfare State: Bureaucrats or Prices?', *Journal of Social Policy*, 8, 371-82.

Altruism Altruism refers to acts and dispositions orientated to the alleviation of another's predicament or furtherance of their *interests*. The notion of helpful intention is essential, since behaviour that simply happened to improve another's situation would not count as altruistic. Usually altruism involves some