CHALIMBANA UNIVERSITY

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

PYS 2311: SPORTS PSYCHOLOGY

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First Edition

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MODULE OVERVIEW

Introduction

This course presents the application of psychological theories and methods to the understanding and enhancement of athletic performance.

Rationale

This course will equip you with skills that will enable you to enhance performance of sports men and women.

Course aims

The course aims to equip students with skills that enhances performance in sports.

Learning Outcomes

By the end of the course, you are expected to;

- Discuss the history of sports psychology.
- Examine coaching skills.
- Analyze factors that negatively affect the performance of sports men and women.
- Discuss ways of motivating sports men and women.
- Manage team dynamics.
- Discuss mental skills of successful athletes

Summary

This module covers sports psychology.

Study skills

As an adult learner, your approach to learning will be different to that of your school days you will choose when you want to study. You will have professional and/or personal motivation for doing so and you will most likely be fitting your activities around other professional or domestic responsibilities.

Essentially you will be taking control of your learning environment. As a consequence, you will need to consider performance issues related to time management, goals setting, stress management, etc. perhaps you will also need to reacquaint yourself in areas such as essay planning, coping with examinations and using the internet as a learning source.

Your most significant considerations will be time and space i.e. the time you dedicate to your learning and the environment in which you engage in that learning. It is recommended that you take time now before starting your self-study to familiarise yourself with these issues. There are a number of excellent resources on the web. A few suggested links are: http://www.how-to-study.com/ and http://www.ucc.vt.edu/stdysk/stdyhlp.html

Time frame

You are expected to spend at least three terms of your time to study this module. In addition, there shall be arranged contact sessions with lecturers from the University during residential possibly in April, August and December. You are requested to spend your time carefully so that you reap maximum benefits from the course. Listed below are the components of the course, what you have to do and suggestions as to how you should allocate your time to each unit in order that you may complete the course successfully and no time.

Required resources

Text books and module.

Need help

In case you have difficulties in studying this module don't hesitate to get in touch with your lecturers. You can contact them during week days from 08:00 t0 17:00 hours. Mr Moono Maurice mmoono.75@gmail.com Tutorial Room 3,. You are also free to utilise the services of the University Library which opens from 08:00 hours to 20:00 hours every working day.

Assessment

Continuous Assessment	**50%**
One Assignment	25%
One Test	25%
Final Examination	**50%**
Total	**100 %**

REFERENCES

Required Readings

Weinberg, R.S. & Gould, D. (2010). *Foundations of Sport and Exercise Psychology*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Green, C.D. & Benjamin, L.T. (2009). *Psychology gets in the game*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Bäumler, G. (2009). The dawn of sport psychology in Europe, 1880–1930: Early pioneers of a new branch of applied science. In C.D. Green & L.T. Benjamin (Eds.), *Psychology gets in the game* (pp. 20-77). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Goodwin, C. J. (2009). E. W. Scripture: The application of "new psychology" methodology to athletics. In C. D. Green & L. T. Benjamin (Eds.), *Psychology gets in the game* (pp. 78-97). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Recommended Readings

Weinberg, R.S. & Gould, D. (2010). *Foundations of Sport and Exercise Psychology*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Green, C.D. & Benjamin, L.T. (2009). *Psychology gets in the game*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

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Davis, S. F., Huss, M. T., & Becker, A. H. (2009). Norman Triplett: Recognizing the importance of competition. In C. D. Green & L. T. Benjamin (Eds.), *Psychology gets in the game* (pp. 98-115). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Dewsbury, D. A. (2009). Karl S. Lashley and John B. Watson: Early research on the acquisition of skill in archery. In C. D. Green & L. T. Benjamin (Eds.), *Psychology gets in the game* (pp. 116-143). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

UNIT:1 INTRODUCTION TO COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

1.1 Introduction

Welcome to the first unit of this module, in this unit, we will review the history of community psychology for the past fifty years. We believe that you will enjoy as we take you through this very interesting history.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- trace the history of community psychology.
- discuss major psychologist who contributed to the development of community psychology.

1.3 Time Frame

You will need about two (2) hours per week to interact with this unit.

1.4 Content

- History of community psychology.

1.5 Historical Context

One needs to consider the social and political events of the 1960s in understanding the beginnings of Community Psychology. These were turbulent times, marked with protests and demonstrations involving the Civil Rights movement in the US. In 1965, the Voting Rights Act, an important accomplishment of the Civil Rights Movement, was signed into law by President Lyndon B. Johnson. The Feminist Movement was also developing momentum during the 1960s and into the 1970s, as would a similar rights movement for gays and lesbians, the environmental movement, and widespread protests against the Vietnam war. This socially-conscious atmosphere was ideal for the development of the field of Community Psychology, whose values emphasized social justice.

During this time, there also was widespread **deinstitutionalization** of mental patients, as various media accounts portrayed horrendous conditions in mental hospitals. The development of antipsychotic medications such as Thorazine and the growing research evidence on the harmful effects of mental hospitalization (e.g., Asylums by Erving Goffman) were key factors in this movement. In 1961, the report of the Joint Commission on Mental Health and Illness was released, which recommended that we reduce the size of mental hospitals and train more professionals and paraprofessionals to meet the largely unmet need for mental health services in our society (Bloom, 1975). These recommendations, vigorously championed by President John F. Kennedy, led directly to the passage of the 1963 Community Mental Health Centers Act, which established community-based services widely throughout the nation. The **Community Mental Health Movement** was gaining momentum and many large state mental hospitals across the nation would be closed in the next 20 years. With these developments in the background, it was in 1965 that a group of clinical psychologists gathered in Swampscott, MA, and gave birth to the field of Community Psychology, which they hoped would allow them to become social change agents to address many of these pressing social justice issues of the 1960s..

1.5.1 The First Decade: 1965-1975

In the years immediately after the 1965 Swampscott Conference, a number of training programs in community mental health and Community Psychology developed in the US. For example, Ed Zolik established one of the first **clinical-community** doctoral programs in the US at DePaul University in 1966. A free-standing doctoral program was also established in 1966 at the University of Texas at Austin by Ira Iscoe. By 1969, there were 50 programs offering some training in Community Psychology and community mental health, and by 1975 there were 141 graduate programs offering training in these areas.

Several important “early settings” for community research and action also developed, often in connection with one of the training programs. These settings included the Primary Mental Health Project at the University of Rochester, founded by Emory Cowen (1975. The Primary Mental Health Project identified children in the primary grades (K-3) showing some initial trouble adjusting to school and provided help through the school year from paraprofessional child

associates. Cowen, his graduate students, and staff built this intervention for a single school in Rochester in 1958 and it is used by 2,000 schools worldwide today. The Primary Mental Health Project was one of the first widely researched and publicized prevention programs developed by community psychologists. Cowen provided training for a large number of people who later would become prominent in Community Psychology (below is Cowen's "family tree" initially developed by Fowler & Toro, 2008a).

The Community Lodge project, initially developed by George Fairweather at a Veteran's Administration psychiatric hospital, was another of these important "early settings". The Lodge provided an alternative to traditional psychiatric care by preparing groups of hospitalized mental patients in a shared housing environment for simultaneous release into the community. The released patients established a common business to support themselves (e.g., a lawn care service) and eventually took full control of the Lodge project from the professionals who helped them establish the Lodge initially. The first rigorous evaluation of the Lodge found that patients randomly assigned to the Lodge spent less time in a hospital than those in the control group who received traditional services (Fairweather et al., 1969). Fairweather later helped to establish the doctoral program in **Ecological Psychology** at Michigan State University and also provided training for many community psychologists.

In 1966, just a year after the Swampscott Conference, Division 27 (Community Psychology) of the American Psychological Association (APA) was established. Shortly after, James Kelly (1966), one of the Swampscott attendees and another "founder" of Community Psychology, published an article on the **ecological** perspective in the widely circulated *American Psychologist*. Like Cowen and Fairweather, Kelly has been important in training a large number of community psychologists.

The *Journal of Community Psychology* and the *American Journal of Community Psychology* were both first published in 1973. These journals have become the two most influential professional journals in the field. The first Community Psychology textbooks came out during the field's first decade (Bloom, 1975; Zax & Spector). Both of these texts viewed Community Psychology as an outgrowth of the broader field of Clinical Psychology. Over time, the field

would portray Community Psychology in a much broader context, deriving from many other sources in addition to Clinical Psychology. Other important publications of this first decade included Ryan's *Blaming the Victim* (still, today, one of the most cited publications in the field) and Cowen's *Annual Review of Psychology* chapter on social and community interventions. At the end of this decade, the Austin Conference was an opportunity to bring together the key figures in this field during the first 10 years, and provide informal opportunities to examine the field's conceptual independence from Clinical Psychology.

1.5.2 The Second Decade: 1975-1985

The late 1970s and early 1980s could be considered the "heyday" of Community Psychology. During this time period, the political climate made Community Psychology both relevant and necessary, and membership in the US in APA's Division 27 (Community Psychology) rose to over 1,800 in 1983 (Toro, 2005, p.10).

The first **Midwest Ecological Community Psychology Conference** took place in 1978 at Michigan State University. This conference provided an opportunity for like-minded community psychologists and students to get together informally to discuss new developments, new training programs, and new research. This conference has now expanded beyond the Midwest to other regions of the US. These conferences have provided a new generation of community psychologists opportunities to put their theoretical ideas about collaboration, empowerment, and the creation of health-promoting settings into practice in their own environments. For a history of these conferences, see Flores, Jason, Adeoye, Evans, Brown, and Belyaev-Glantsman. Case Study 2.1 provides more information about students assuming a major role in the conference's organization over time.

Looking back on this second decade, this was a time of "soul searching" in the field of Community Psychology, the separation from APA and the initiation of the Biennial Conference both being signs of this. Another sign came from a string of "dueling addresses." Different community psychologists were trying to strongly encourage the field to adopt one particular emphasis. In his Presidential address to the field of Community Psychology, Emory Cowen argued for **prevention** to become "front and center" in the field. A few years later, Julian

Rappaport argued for an emphasis on **empowerment** rather than prevention. Ed Trickett argued for an emphasis on an ecological perspective in the field, as did James Kelly. Kelly's ecological analysis sought to understand behavior in the context of individual, family, peer, and community influences. Prevention, empowerment, and the ecological perspective are three of the most important aspects of the world view that Community Psychology has adopted. We can embrace all the various perspectives in Community Psychology without dismissing those who have a perspective different from our own, in what might be called a "big tent" (Toro, 2005). A belief in the value of **respect for diversity** can apply to how we interact with our own colleagues in Community Psychology.

During this second decade, two new textbooks were published in 1977 by Heller and Monahan and Rappaport. Rappaport's (1977) text, like his controversial Presidential address, presented a much more radical view of Community Psychology that emphasized the empowerment of the poor and otherwise disadvantaged, and a more active advocacy stance for community psychologists of the future.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, there was significant growth in the field of Community Psychology outside of the US and Canada. This growth included the first courses taught in Latin America (at the University of Puerto Rico; for more information see Montero) and in Australia (see Fisher), where the first professional organization of community psychologists outside of North America occurred in 1983. Since this time, some of the greatest growth in formal membership has occurred in Community Psychology organizations in areas of the world outside of North America (Toro, 2005).

1.5.3 The Third Decade: 1985-1995

In 1987, James Kelly edited a special issue of the *American Journal of Community Psychology* to commemorate the field which had just turned 20 years old (Kelly, 1987). Some of the 12 articles in the issue were brief reminiscences, while others were more substantive. Beth Shinn, for example, urged community psychologists to enter an even wider range of domains, including schools, work sites, religious organizations, voluntary associations, and government. Annette Rickel made an analogy to Erikson's developmental stages in reviewing the status of our field at

the time. She suggested that Community Psychology had progressed through adolescence and was entering early adulthood. Extending this analogy, the field is now over 50 years old, well into "middle age." And, consistent with the sorts of issues that Erikson suggested might crop up during middle age, perhaps our field is concerned about its "long-term legacy."

The "dueling addresses" mentioned above continued into the third decade. Annette Rickel in her 1986 Presidential address emphasized prevention, much like Cowen did in his address almost 10 years earlier. Beth Shinn in her 1992 Presidential address urged community psychologists to engage in new ways to cope with the social problem of homelessness. Irma Serrano-Garcia, based at the University of Puerto Rico, emphasized the need to empower the disenfranchised in her 1993 Presidential address. During this third decade, another new Community Psychology textbook was published (Levine & Perkins, 1987).

In 1988, there was a major conference in Chicago, IL trying to better define the theories and methods used by community psychologists (Tolan et al., 1990). Those in attendance discussed the role of theory in Community Psychology research. There was also an extended examination of the central and complex methodological issue of taking into account the ecological levels of analysis. Also addressed were issues of implementing their research, which for community psychologists is a matter of actualizing their values in working collaboratively with community partners.

1.5.4 The Fourth Decade: 1995-2005

Starting in 1995, Sam Tsemberis (1999), a community psychologist from New York City, developed a program that has come to be called "Housing First." The program, described in Chapter 1 (Jason et al., 2019), targets persons who are both homeless and seriously mentally ill. The intervention is a reaction to poorly researched transitional housing models that have rapidly become common in the US. Housing First combines up-front permanent housing with ongoing support services. In a few randomized trials, Housing First clients have become stably housed significantly quicker, and remained housed for significantly longer, than those in the control groups. Positive results have also recently been obtained in an evaluation of Housing First across five Canadian cities (Aubry et al., 2016). Housing First has also become very popular in Europe

and in other developed nations. For the past three years, there has been an annual international conference to continue this work (Tsemberis, 2018).

More attention during this decade was provided to one of the key themes of the field: participatory approaches to research, which are characterized by the active participation of community members in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of research. Greater knowledge of this approach was essential for developing ways to collaborate with community members in order to define and intervene with the numerous social problems they faced. Due to this need, the 2nd Chicago Conference on Community Research was hosted at Loyola University in Chicago in June of 2002 (Jason et al., 2004), and it focused on the refinement of the theories and methodologies that can guide participatory research.

In 2004, SCRA, the main professional organization promoting Community Psychology in North America, gained solid financial security, perhaps for the first time in its history, by acquiring the *American Journal of Community Psychology* from its original owner, the international publisher Kluwer/Plenum.

1.5.5 The Fifth Decade to The Present

As another sign of the international growth of Community Psychology, in 2005 the European Community Psychology Association was formed. Prior to this development, Europeans had for many years a more informal "Network for Community Psychology." The European Community Psychology Association has been operating an annual conference, held in different cities throughout Europe. As yet another sign of international growth, the first "International Conference on Community Psychology" was held in 2006 in San Juan, Puerto Rico. Held in even-numbered years, so as not to conflict with SCRA's Biennial held in odd-numbered years, there have been International Conferences held in Portugal, Chile, Mexico, and South Africa. This international growth is very consistent with Community Psychology's values emphasizing cultural diversity. Many community psychologists from around the world are actively collaborating with those in various nations around the world and an "internationalization" of the field is occurring in terms of practice, research, training, and theory (Reich et al., 2007).

In 2005, following the 40th anniversary of the founding of the field, a special issue on the history of Community Psychology was published in the *Journal of Community Psychology* (Fowler & Toro, 2008b). Articles in the special issue included a genealogical analysis of the influence of 10 key founders of the field (Fowler & Toro, 2008a), an account of "trailblazing" women in Community Psychology (Ayala-Alcantar et al., 2008), and documentation of the development of Community Psychology in different regions of the world.

Many community psychologists have made substantive contributions to the development of the field through their applied work, and have also impacted the development of the field through their teaching, mentorship, and conference presentations. Pokorny et al. (2009) tried to gauge the "influence" of community psychologists based on publications and citations to articles in the *American Journal of Community Psychology* and *Journal of Community Psychology*. Although many publications were by males from academic institutions, there were also publications from influential women, including Barbara Dohrenwend who contributed groundbreaking research dealing with a **psychosocial** stress model. She was also one of the original founders of the field of Community Psychology. Pokorny et al. Community Psychology continued to make advances during this period in attempting to better understand social change in a world that is both complicated and often unpredictable. This field has increasingly worked to take into consideration dynamic feedback loops, which need to transcend simplistic linear cause and effect methods. In other words, the theories and methods of the field of Community Psychology are increasingly trying to capture a **systems perspective**, or the mutual **interdependencies** that Kelly's ecological model has pointed to, regarding how people adapt to and become effective in diverse social environments.

New methods during the past 15 years have helped community psychologists conceptualize and empirically describe these dynamics, with quantitative and qualitative research methods that support contextually and theoretically-grounded community interventions (Jason & Glenwick, 2016). More attention is being directed to mixing qualitative and quantitative research methods in order to provide a deeper exploration of **contextual factors**. More sophisticated statistical methods help community psychologists address questions of importance as they work to describe the dynamics of complex systems that have the potential to transform our communities in fresh and innovative ways.

1.6 Terminologies

1. Ecological: Concerns with the relationship of living organisms to one another and their physical environment.

1.7 Activity

1. Discuss the history of community psychology.

1.8 Reflection

What do you think prompted psychologists to develop community psychology?

1.9 Summary

This unit has reviewed the last 50-plus years in which the field of Community Psychology has developed after its start in 1965 at the Swampscott Conference. With a focus on prevention, ecology, and social justice, the field has offered society new ways of thinking about how we might best solve our social and community problems. This unit, has documented key events that have occurred, including organization changes, key publications and conferences, and international developments. The field has had some "growing pains," but now appears to be well-established and mature.

UNIT 2: THEORIES IN COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

Theories are important for anyone who is trying to bring about social change. They help point us to what is really important to change, versus what might be more trivial and lead to ineffective action. But first, let's look closely at what theories enable us to do. Most simply, theories allow us to describe, predict, and better understand something. Here is an example: Newton observed that an apple fell from a tree. In that famous story, he was able to first describe the apple falling. It is the first part of the scientific journey to describe something that you might see. The second step is to predict something based on what you just saw. For example, when Newton dropped a ball or other object, he predicted it would also fall, and that allowed him to be able to make predictions, which is the second part of a theory. Finally, a theory provides an "explanation" of a given phenomenon.

2.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit you are expected to;

- analyze major theories in community psychology.
- discuss strengths and weaknesses of sense of community theory.

2.3 Time Frame

You will need about two (2) hours per week to interact with this unit.

2.4 Content

- Ecological theory
- Sense of community theory
- Climate theory
- Liberation theory

2.5 Why are theories important?

That brief example reviews all the basic parts of a theory and can help us understand the role of theories in the field of **Community Psychology**. Theories have provided us with useful ways of thinking about the importance of the individual in relationship to the environment or community. The individual is influenced by the environment, which means that we must look beyond just individual factors when we try to analyze social problems or develop community interventions.

Theories in Community Psychology help us think about developing interventions that involve not just the challenges experienced by certain people with disabilities, but also the environmental factors that maintain these challenges. In this case, we may learn that the community of people with disabilities extends to people who might use a wheelchair either temporarily or on a long-term basis. Toward this goal, the theories of Community Psychology assist in understanding how to bring about change by involving both the youth and their schools and other community settings. Theories in Community Psychology are based on core values and principles that involve a commitment to social justice for marginalized groups, creating more equitable distribution of resources across groups, an appreciation for a diverse array of worldviews, working in collaboration with communities, and adhering to a strengths-based approach to working with others. Community psychologists want to address the needs of people affected by natural disasters, people who have been historically marginalized (e.g., people living as ethnic minorities in the US and aboriginal people living in Australia), and people who identify with a community that is dealing with some type of societal discrimination (e.g., people with disabilities and people identifying with the LGBTQ community).

Ultimately, Community Psychology theory helps to broaden our understanding of the social contexts in which we live so we can better work with others to identify important levers for change and assist in creating healthier spaces within our communities. As we will show in this unit, theories help focus community psychologists on these areas for both their research and activism.

In a survey that recently asked community psychologists to nominate theories that have been used in their work, over 30 were mentioned (Jason et al., 2016). **Behavior setting theory**, for

example, was developed by Barker (1968) to understand the relationship between individual behaviors and varying characteristics of the physical environment. A behavior setting is considered to be a place, a time, and a standing pattern of behavior. The main finding of this research was that settings generally have rules that cause any person within the same setting to act similarly; that people are interchangeable and you would still get the same behavior patterns. Understanding this information helps us to better understand the features of settings, including the social and cultural dynamics that maintain certain types of settings. This type of work can explain why some settings, such as prisons, often end up producing similar negative outcomes for individuals who are confined to these total institutions.

2.6 Ecological Theory

The ecological theory was developed by James Kelly (1966) who was one of the founders of the field of Community Psychology. The purpose of his theory, as shown in Table 1 below, is to provide a framework for understanding the structure and function of community. This theory assists in learning how the characteristics of the environment of the community can play a central role in the ways people interact and relate to each other. Through this framework, we can consider the dynamics among groups, organizations, and whole communities as they relate within certain settings, and help guide thinking around the development of community interventions (Kelly, 1968).

Kelly's theory outlines four principles necessary for understanding inherent undercurrents within social systems that can be used to guide the assessment, development, and evaluation of preventive community interventions. The four principles are 1) interdependence, 2) adaptation, 3) cycling of resources, and 4) succession.

The principle of **interdependence** helps us understand that any change in one component of a system can affect changes in other components of the system as well, creating a domino effect. The concept of interdependence is central to the theory and practice of Community Psychology because it helps individuals to recognize that everything is interconnected.

Adaptation refers to the process of change and how what might be adaptive in one environment might not be in another. A child might be very extroverted and sociable, and have many friends

due to these characteristics. But the child's popularity among peers might not be valued by the teachers in the school, who might not appreciate it if this child talks to others and socializes frequently in the classrooms. So, what might be very adaptive in one type of setting might not be in another setting. Kelly (1979) found that schools enrolling many new students each year facilitated more youth exploratory behavior than schools that were stable in terms of enrollment. These types of findings help us understand this process of adaptation, to better understand the factors that account for why certain environments are more effective than others.

The third ecological principle is **cycling of resources**. Cycling of resources refers to the process of how communities identify, incorporate, and use different types of resources that exist within their communities. Resources can be skills and expertise, information, networks of social support, access to supplies or equipment, and socialization processes that either deter bias (i.e., gender or racial) or provide events (e.g., celebrations) for social and cultural cohesion. Using this principle, psychologists might either uncover existing competencies in a setting or match individuals with the settings that provide the resources they need.

The final component of Kelly's ecological theory is **succession**, which refers to the fact that communities are in a constant process of change, and this process causes changing requirements for adaptation. What is true about a person or setting today may not be true tomorrow. The process of change and development within the community over time is inevitable, and communities have an obligation and need to help residents meet the demands of changing environments. For example, as populations within the community tend to age, newer and younger families can work with older residents by sharing information and creating a more holistic environment for all community members. Additionally, as new family groups from different ethnic backgrounds become prevalent within the community, traditional institutions (i.e., school systems and community businesses) will need to evolve and adapt to meet the demands of a changing population. An example of a problem with succession in practice is illustrated in Case Study 5.4.

2.7 Sense of Community Theory

The theory of **sense of community** was first described by the community psychologist Sarason (1974). This theory was meant to capture the feeling people experience when they perceive themselves as having an interdependent connection with a broader community outside themselves. More specifically, the psychological sense of community is: "the feeling one is part of a larger dependable and stable structure" (p. 157). McMillan and Chavis (1986) defined a sense of community as a feeling that members have of belonging; members feel that they matter to one another and the group. There is a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to being together. Community psychologists measure a sense of community by assessing: 1) membership, 2) influence, 3) integration and fulfillment of needs, and 4) shared emotional connection. Membership involves clear boundaries regarding who is in and who is out of the specific community. Influence refers to the ability one feels one has to impact the broader community-level and individual-level norms that guide the practices of the community. Integration and fulfillment of needs refer to feeling connected to a network that holds shared values, that exchanges resources, and meets needs. Shared emotional connection refers to participation in the celebrations of others, and participation in specified rituals or ceremonies.

If a sense of community is a core value, then it is important to try to find ways to reliably assess and measure it so that we can assess how an intervention might affect the sense of community. If for example, an intervention is effective in a particular outcome, such as increasing academic grades in youth, but has the negative consequence of reducing the sense of community for the students in the classroom, then community psychologists would judge this as an ineffective and potentially harmful intervention. There have been attempts at better conceptualizing and measuring a sense of community in order to understand how people experience their connection with their community

2.8 Climate Theory

Rudolf Moos (2003), another influential community psychologist, developed the **social climate theory** in an effort to better understand the natural interplay between individuals and their social contexts. Social climate theory helps to understand how people adapt to their social environment

and how contexts adapt to people. Social climate taps three main dimensions of how people perceive: 1) how a setting organizes their perceptions of social relationships, 2) how they are being supported in their personal development, and 3) how the setting handles the maintenance of norms and supports change processes. From a psychological measurement perspective, the social climate is very much related to indicators of individual well-being. This measure has been useful for assessing setting dynamics within schools and juvenile treatment programs.

An example of a situation where you might use this theory is when seeking to understand the experience of people in a particular setting, such as an organization where people are said to be experiencing discrimination. You would use a social climate survey to assess to what extent the people within this organization are experiencing similar challenges in all corners of the organization. Depending on which departments/offices are experiencing the highest levels of discrimination, this may have implications for ways a community psychologist could intervene to change how the setting is experienced moving forward.

Scores to measure social climate are very much related to indicators of individual well-being. This measure has been useful for assessing setting dynamics within schools and juvenile treatment programs (Moos, 2003). Theories and measures need to be rigorously tested so that they can be improved, as witnessed by Leipoldt, Kayed, Harder, Grietens, and Rimehaug (2017). They found that the original subscales developed by Moos needed to have weak items removed, and once this occurred, the revised version showed acceptable measurement qualities.

2.9 Liberation Psychology

Liberation Psychology (or *psicología de la liberación*) is based on a more critical perspective that acknowledges the role of power and the ongoing battle for resources. As part of the critique of traditional psychology, Liberation Psychology was developed in Latin America during the 1970s as a theoretical framework to better understand oppressed and impoverished communities (Montero & Sonn, 2009).

Many people around the world live in an oppressive society where one group has power over another (see Chapter 4; Palmer et al., 2019), and this contributes to unequal distribution of resources. Liberation psychology emphasizes helping people to gain more control over the

resources that affect their lives. Aspects of Liberation Psychology are embedded within **empowerment theory** (see Chapter 10; Balcazar et al., 2019).

Core components of Liberation Psychology include praxis and dialectics. **Praxis** can be thought of as a tool for acquiring knowledge and transforming oppressive realities involving a conscious integration of theory and practice to make theory more grounded in reality (Montero & Sonn, 2009). Dialectics is a philosophy of praxis emphasizing that knowledge is not created unless acquired through a method of mediated social discourse. In other words, we develop knowledge about the world and simultaneously work to bring about change. Dialogue needs to occur between power holders and the oppressed to raise the consciousness of all to understand the meaning of oppressive actions (see Chapter 17; Olson et al., 2019). This raised awareness of conditions challenges the status quo and may create a desire for those in power to be more humane. Ultimately, the hope is for the encouragement of a rethinking of problems "with and from, the oppressed; with a commitment to unveil and characterize conditions of oppression and exploitation suffered by large sectors of the population" (Montero & Sonn, 2009; p. 31).

2.10 Terminology

1. Cycling of resources: refers to the process of how communities identify, incorporate and use different types of resources that exist within their communities.

2.11 Activity

1. Discuss the following theories:
    a) Ecological theory
    b) Climate theory
    c) Sense of community theory

2.12 Reflection

What do you think is the contribution of ecological theory to the understanding of community psychology?

2.13 Summary

Theories are used in Community Psychology to ensure we are addressing the community dynamics in all the ways needed to be most effective in promoting a social justice agenda. Community Psychology represents an innovative perspective focused on understanding how environments shape and are shaped by people's lives. This requires theoretical frameworks that help us better understand community settings and physical contexts rather than more traditional approaches that only try to change the individuals experiencing a problem, such as through individual therapy or medication. In fact, individuals from around the world are drawn to the ideas of Community Psychology because it has suggested ways to respond to the social issues and needs of marginalized populations struggling with colonization, racism, and oppression in North America, Latin America, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand (Reich, et al., 2017).

Community Psychology is embedded in a deep understanding of community context. Our theories help us to more clearly critically analyze the social context and historical context within which we need to consider the allocation and distribution of resources, as well as the assumptions that have shaped the world we live in.

UNIT 3: RESEARCH METHODS IN COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

A properly planned project is addressing the real needs of the beneficiaries and is therefore based upon a correct and complete analysis of the existing situation. The existing situation should be interpreted according to the views, needs, interests and activities of parties concerned. It is essential that all those involved participants accept the plans and are committed to implement them. In this unit, you will learn about research methods used in community psychology.

3.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- discuss problem tree analysis.
- examine the focus group discussion as a tool for data collection.
- analyze the stake holder analysis approach to research in community psychology

3.3 Time Frame

You will need about two (2) hours per week to interact with this unit.

3.4 Content

- Problem tree analysis
- Focus group discussion
- Stake holder analysis
- Action research

3.5 Problem tree analysis

The problem tree, together with the objective tree and analysis of strategies, is a methodology of three steps for identifying main problems, along with their causes and effects, helping project planners to formulate clear and manageable objectives and the strategies of how to achieve them.

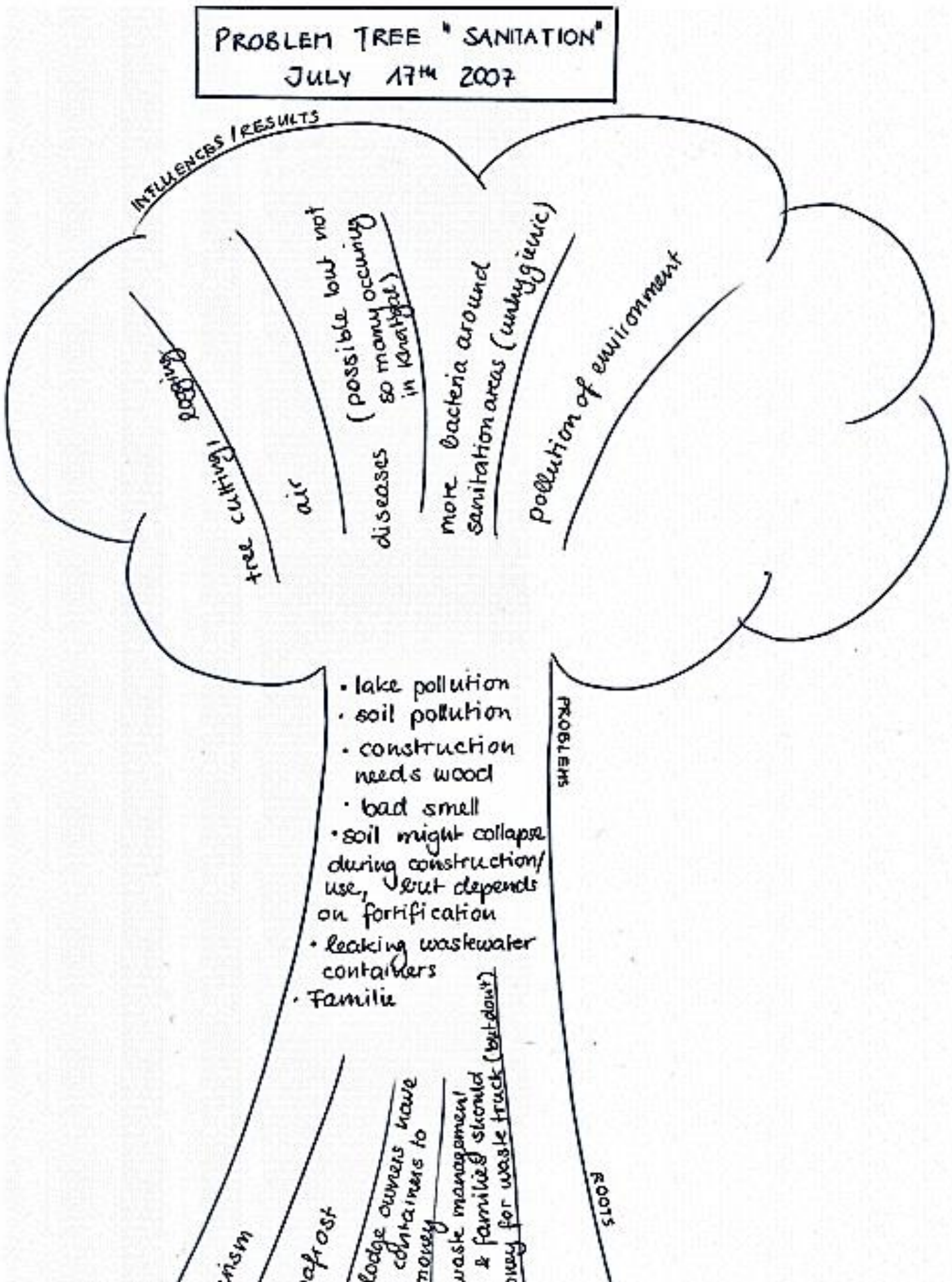
The problem tree, together with the objective tree and analysis of strategies, is a methodology of three steps for identifying main problems, along with their causes and effects, helping project planners to formulate clear and manageable objectives and the strategies of how to achieve them.

3.5.1 Step 1: Problem Analysis

The problem analysis is the phase in which the negative aspects of a given situation are identified, establishing the cause and effect relationship between the observed problems. The problem analysis is of prime importance with regard to project planning, since it strongly influences the design of all possible interventions (MDF 2005). The problem analysis includes (EC 2004):

- Definition of the framework and the subject of analysis.
- Identification of problems faced by target groups and beneficiaries.
- Visualisation of the problems in form of a diagram, called “problem tree” to help analyse and clarify cause-effect relationships.

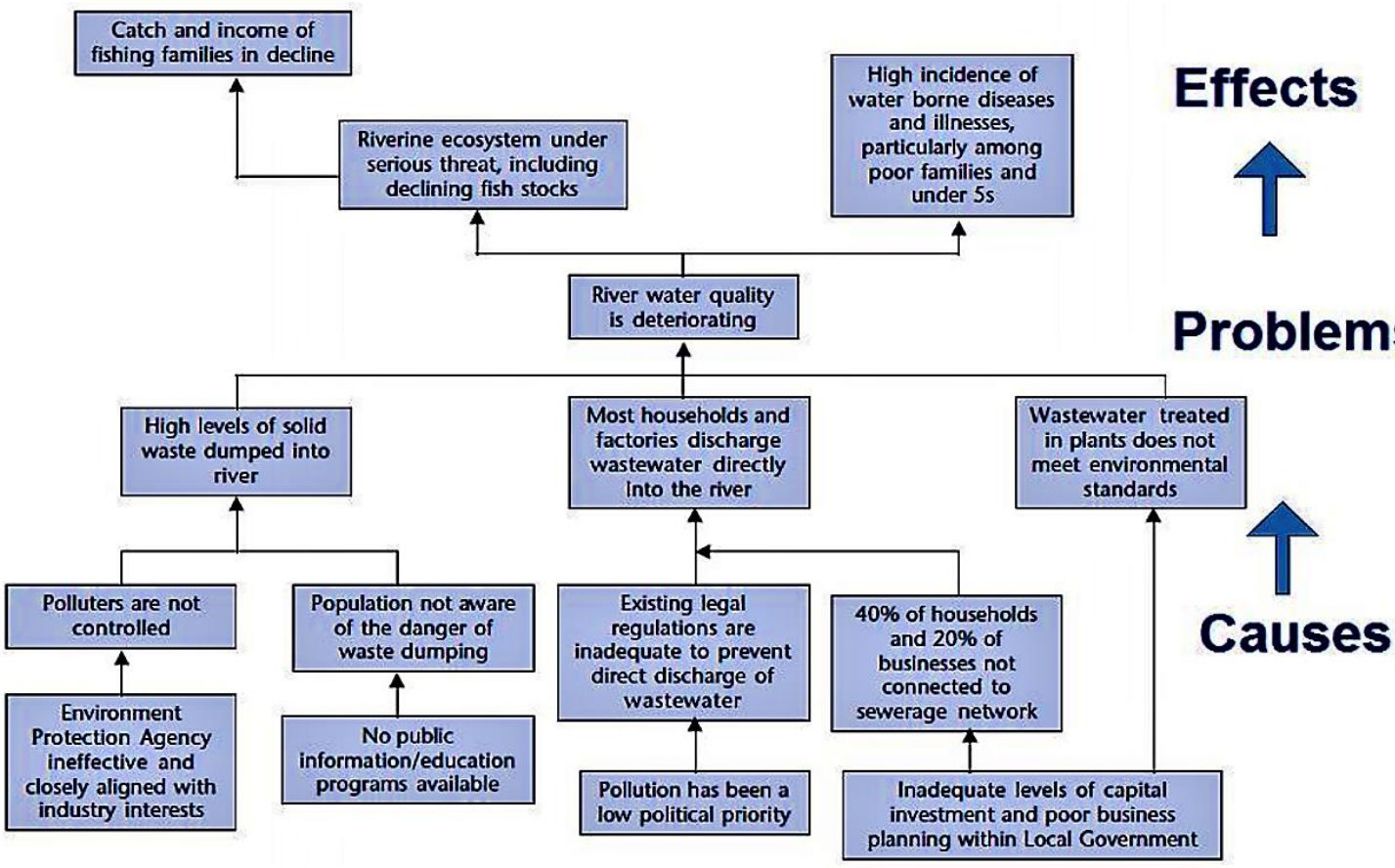
Like any other tree, the problem tree has three parts: a trunk, roots, and branches. The trunk is the main problem. The roots represent the causes of the core problem while the branches represent its effects. The following figure shows an example of a problem tree related to river pollution.


PROBLEM TREE "SANITATION"
JULY 17TH 2007
INFLUENCES / RESULTS
pooping
tree cutting!
air
diseases (possible but not so many occuring in Khatlon)
more bacteria around sanitation areas (unhygienic)
pollution of environment
PROBLEMS
• lake pollution
• soil pollution
• construction needs wood
• bad smell
• soil might collapse during construction/use, but depends on fortification
• leaking wastewater containers
• Familie
ROOTS
lodge owners have containers to
waste management & families should
way for waste truck (but don't)

Example of a problem tree on sanitation, as drawn by the Khatgal Community in Northern Mongolia. The “roots” of the tree show the roots of the problems, the stem is dedicated to the problems themselves and the crown shows the consequences of these problems. Source: CONRADIN (2007)

Creating a problem tree should ideally be undertaken as a participatory group event using visual techniques, such as flipcharts or colour cards, in which identified stakeholders can write their individual problem statements. It is recommended that a workshop should involve not more than 25 participants, to provide for a fruitful learning environment. The first step of such workshops should be an open brainstorming about the problems that stakeholders consider to be a priority. From the problems identified, an individual “starter” problem should be selected. In consultation with the participants, a hierarchy of causes and effects has to be established: problems which are directly causing the starter problem are put below and problems which are direct effects of the starter problem are put above. All problems are sorted in the same way (using the guiding question “what causes that?”. Once all the problems are in place, these should be connected with cause-effect arrows, clearly showing key links. After this process, the problem tree should be reviewed and validated by the participants (adapted from EUROPEAN COMMISSION 2004).

Once completed, the problem tree represents a summary picture of the existing negative situation.



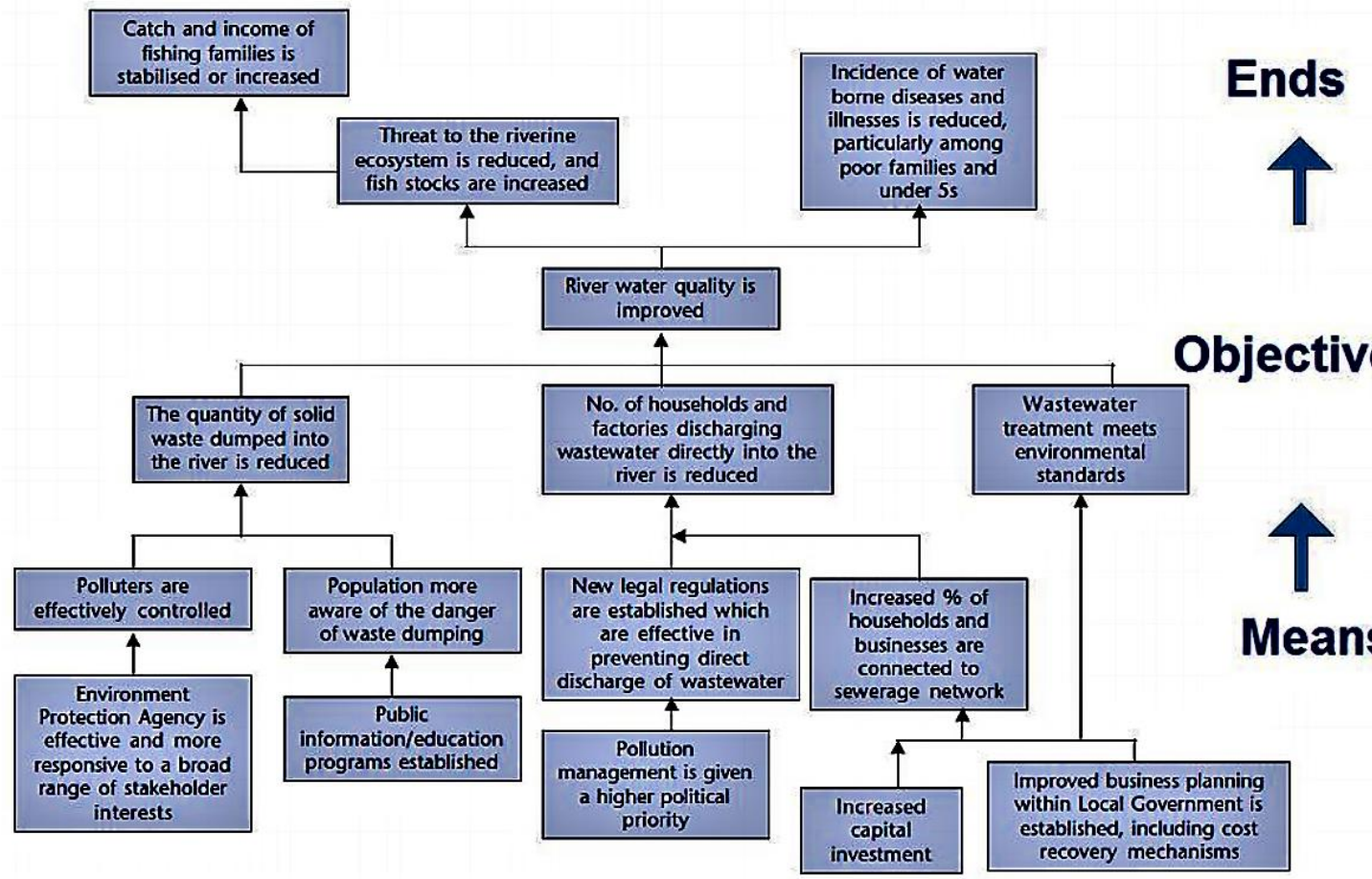
Example of a problem tree. Source: EUROPEAN COMMISSION (2004)

Problem trees do more than just identify the root causes of the problem. They provide a visual breakdown of problems into their symptoms as well as their causes, and furthermore create a visual output that can be understood by anyone. The process can be a useful method in building a community's awareness (see PPT) of the problem, how they and others contribute to the problem, and how these problems affect their lives. This may also be an important step when attempting to build support for any interventions, new techniques or improved technologies.

3.5.2 Step 2: Objectives Analysis

(Adapted from EUROPEAN COMMISSION 2004 and MDF 2005)

Analysis of objectives is a methodological approach employed to describe the situation in the future once identified problems have been remedied, depicting the ends and the means in a diagram called “objective tree”.



Example of an objective tree. Source: EUROPEAN COMMISSION (2004)

The negative situations of the problem tree are converted into solutions, expressed as “positive achievements”. For instance, in the shown example of river pollution, “river water quality is deteriorating” is converted into “quality of river water is improved”. These positive achievements are in fact objectives, and are presented in an objective tree showing the means/ends hierarchy.

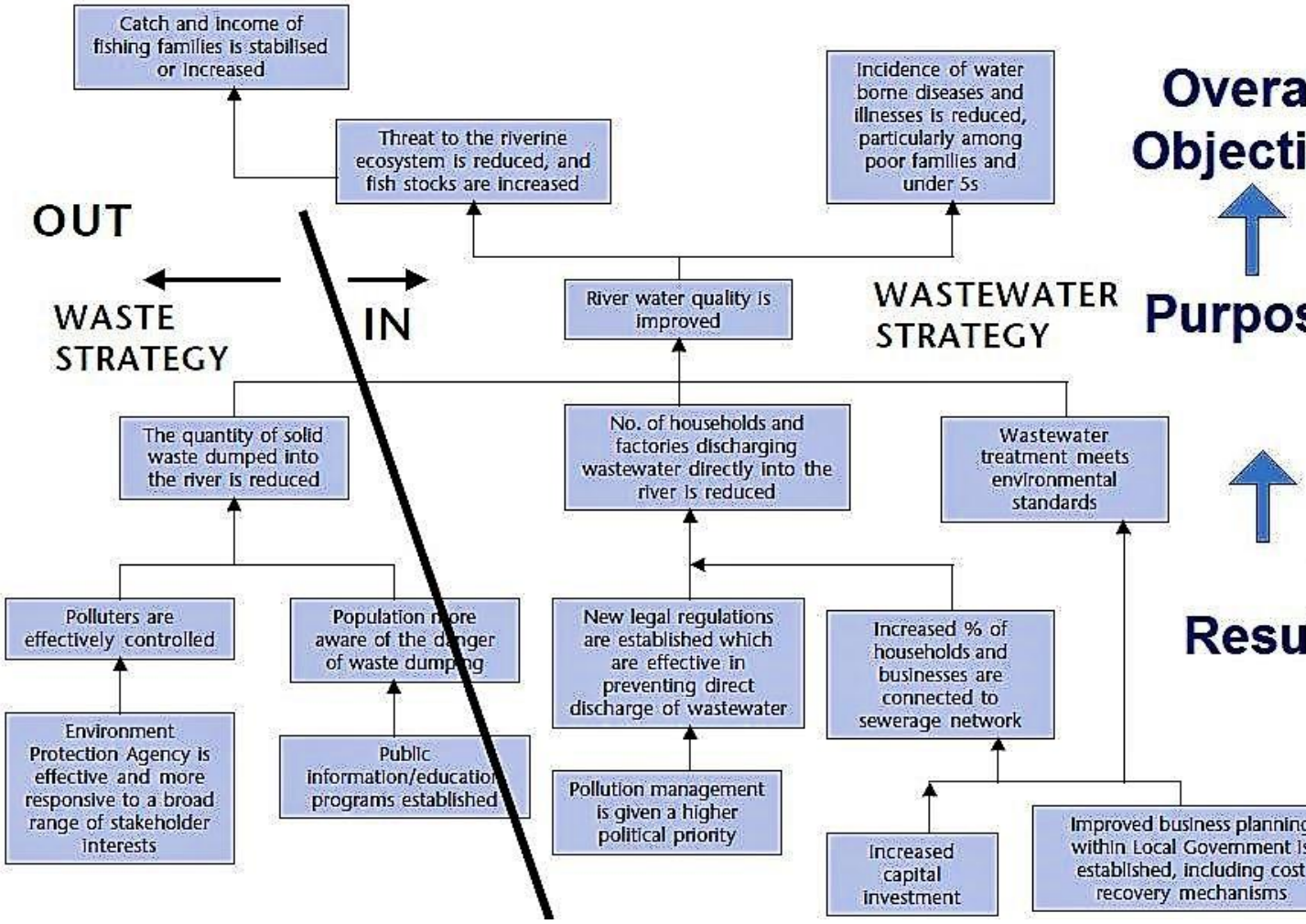
Since the negative situations of the problem tree have to be reformulated into positive situations that are desirable and realistically achievable, it is of primal importance that all stakeholders are involved in the discussions giving their feedback. Appropriate consultation will help to consider priorities, assess how realistic the achievements of some objectives might be and identify

additional means that might be required to achieve the desired ends. It might also be necessary to reformulate some of the problems, add new problems or delete problems which might not be relevant or suitable. Furthermore, an objective tree might show many objectives that cannot all be reached at once, for which choices and priorities will have to be made (see also preference ranking).

Once completed, the objective tree provides a summary picture of the desired future situation, including the indicate means by which ends can be achieved.

3.5.3 Step 3: Analysis of Strategy

(Adapted from EUROPEAN COMMISSION 2004)



Example of a strategy analysis. Source: EUROPEAN COMMISSION (2004)

After having decided about the desired future situation, possible interventions have to be selected in order to determine the scope of the project, i.e. what should/can be included within the project.

This analytical stage is the most difficult and challenging, as it involves synthesising a significant amount of information and making a complex judgement about the best implementation strategy to pursue. In practice a balance has to be found to deal with the different stakeholders interests, political demands and practical constraints. However, the potential merits and difficulties associated with addressing problems in different ways have to be fully scrutinised before any detailed design work is undertaken. Typical questions that should be asked and answered are: can/should we tackle all the problems identified? Should we select just a few? Which interventions are more likely to bring about the desired results? What would be more beneficial for the target groups? Are these interventions sustainable in a long-term? Are the financial means available? Do we have the technical capacity to implement the actions? (for more detailed information on this issue, (see definition of boundaries]). These and other questions, including environmental, social and economic issues as well as policies and the legal framework, will help to rule-out those strategies which cannot be covered in this project, and those which are realistic and will offer the most benefit for those facing the problems.

3.6 Applicability

The problem tree analysis is essential to many forms of project planning in order to improve the sanitation and water system and is often used by development agencies.

A properly planned sanitation and water project is addressing the real needs of the beneficiaries and is therefore based upon a correct and complete analysis of the existing situation.

Applying the problem tree method supports the identification of the main problems along with their causes and effects. This method therefore helps experts and project planners to formulate clear and manageable objectives how to improve and make your sanitation and water system more sustainable.

The process can be a useful method in building a community's awareness of the problem, how they and others contribute to the problem, and how these problems affect their lives.

3.7 How to Conduct Focus Group discussion

Focus groups have long been a popular tool in market research and have become more popular in user research in the recent past too. They consist of a group of between 5 and 10 users who work with a moderator/facilitator/researcher. The moderator will pose questions from a script to the group. Their answers are recorded, sometimes by the moderator sometimes by an observer or observers, and then analyzed and reported on at the end of the process.

3.7.1 Preparing for a Focus Group

A focus group is, in essence, a large scale interview. Preparation for a focus group can be broken down into two key areas; recruitment of participants and creating the script for the moderator to use.

When it comes to recruiting participants all the usual methods of recruitment can be employed to deliver groups of between 5 and 10 participants. While, technically, it is possible to use larger groups in practice these are very hard to facilitate and it often leads to certain participants being left unheard while a small group of users dominates the proceedings. It is important to run more than one focus group to see if the question set is delivering consistent responses and, in many cases, to ensure a representative sample of users is being worked with.

In terms of scripting; it's best to decide what the purpose of your focus group will be and then design questions to elicit responses that let you reach your objectives. In general, it is best to stay away from the use of leading questions. These are questions that make presumptions on behalf of the user or alternatively presuppose a given response. For example; "How much time do you spend on Twitter?" presumes that the users are using Twitter a more general question about what social networks users use is likely to give more valuable data. Also a question like; "Everyone here likes Facebook, right?" presupposes that the users do like Facebook. A more neutral; "Tell me what your feelings are about Facebook?" is more likely to yield responses that show a range of feelings.

The environment for the focus group should also be prepared prior to the event taking place. It should be comfortable, ideally it should be laid out in a circle or horseshoe arrangement and have recording (video or tape) facilities to enable a further review of the proceedings once they have been completed.

3.7.2 Conducting a Focus Group

Conducting a focus group is simply a matter of asking the questions and recording the responses to those questions. However, there are some tips for facilitating high-quality focus groups:

- The moderator should begin by explaining the purpose of the group and what is expected of the group
- They should also address the question of how any data collected or personal data will be used and how it won't be used
- Name badges can help participants talk to each other and to the moderator
- It can be a good idea to carry out an "ice breaker" exercise which frees people up to talk prior to engaging with scripted questions
- The moderator should not be tasked with note taking. Ideally one or two observers will do this – they should be introduced to the group and their roles explained as part of the introduction
- If video or audio recording is to be used – this should be explained in the introduction too
- Refreshments should be made available and if the focus group sessions are lengthy – regular comfort breaks should be given
- The moderator should try to establish a permissive environment in which everyone feels free to contribute
- If a participant or participants begins to dominate proceedings – the moderator should gently encourage others to get involved and rein in the dominant participant(s)
- The moderator should sum up important points at convenient moments and ensure that they have understood them
- If the session goes for a long period of time – it's important to vary the question and answer style script with other exercises (for example card sorting or prioritization exercises)
- The moderator's job is to progress the discussion and to facilitate it and not to participate in the discussion itself

- The moderator may probe for understanding if they feel that someone is on the verge of an important insight
- The moderator (with the observers) should lead a summary exercise at the end to summarize key themes, check for understanding and ask any questions that the observers feel would be useful

While question and answer is the most common format for short focus groups alternative activities may include (for variety):

- Making choices from lists of alternatives
- List making
- Fill in the blank exercises
- Fantasy/daydream exercises
- Picture drawing
- Role playing
- Card sorting

3.7.3 Note Taking Hints for Observers

While the moderator is free to make notes that help them drive the focus group's activities forward and to keep within the time available for the group; the observers are tasked with making detailed notes about the actual content of the discussion.

These notes may include:

- **Interesting quotes.** Try to capture who said it as well as what was said, it can help to use a participant's initials for this. If you can't get all the information down it's common to use an ellipsis (…) to show that material is missing and needs to be retrieved from recordings.
- **Key points and themes from any exercise or question.** Again try to capture who brought up these points with their initials. These form themes that should be shared by the observer with the group at the end of the session.
- **Follow up questions.** If there's something that the observer feels is significant and would like clarification on – they should record it and bring it up at a natural break in the group or at the end during the summary.

- **Ideas and insights "light bulb moments".** The observer may also record anything that occurs to them that they feel is important or useful – this does not have to be based on any particular observation but their own insight.
- **Anything else.** It might be body language or the level of passion/anger etc. at any given time in the group. If something feels significant – it's probably worth recording.

It can also be useful for an observer to complete a seating plan which shows where each person was sitting during the exercise.

3.8 Analysis

Individual focus groups are best analyzed immediately after they finish. It's when things are freshest in the minds of the moderator and the observers. Other participants may be brought in to the analysis and videos/audios reviewed during that process.

If possible, a transcript of the audio may be useful to prepare for later analysis at the same time.

A simple report should be made of key findings after an individual focus group.

Once all your focus groups are complete – it's time to do a meta-analysis. Key themes and ideas from all reports should be brought together. Compare and contrast exercises should be carried out between groups. Diagrams that help aid understanding of the data can be prepared. Then a report describing the overall findings should be written and issued to those who need it.

Things to consider when analyzing focus groups include:

- **Words.** How are they used, what do they mean, are there similarities between participants or different groups?
- **Context.** What happened to trigger a particular response?
- **Consistency.** Was the participant consistent throughout or were they influenced by other group members?
- **Frequency of participation.** Did someone dominate the discussion (it's not always obvious even when the discussion is heavily moderated)? What comments were made most often? What comments occurred least? Were there any comments you expected but which didn't occur?

- **Intensity.** What was the intensity of feeling put into particular comments? Things that really matter tend to make people passionate, happy, angry, etc.
- **Specificity.** How specific was someone's comment? How much detail did someone give when probed about a response?

One final thing; it's easy to get too focused on fine detail when analyzing the outputs from lots of focus groups. It can be useful to take a day's break (or more) from the data once you've done the initial analysis and then come back and look for any "big ideas" which got bogged down in the detail.

3.9 Stakeholder Analysis Approach

When should stakeholder analysis be accomplished and by whom? Although it is worthwhile throughout the project as a tool to reassess key issues (particularly when the project is in trouble), stakeholder analysis is best accomplished before a project is initiated or at some beginning phase. Since the analysis involves sensitive information, the facilitator should be aware of the possibility of uncovering unproductive interests and hidden agendas when discussing stakeholders. The team members should have sufficient levels of trust amongst themselves to carefully reveal these issues and deal with potentially undiplomatic information.

The following sections outline a simple approach to accomplish stakeholder analysis. The first few stages may be sufficient for small projects with a small number of stakeholders. The time spent doing the analysis should be tied to the type and complexity of the project. A few hours may be sufficient to clarify project objectives, key assumptions, and risks.

3.9.1 Identify Project Stakeholders

To be classified as a stakeholder, the person or group must have some interest or level of influence that can impact the project. We would benefit not only from understanding their interests, but also from understanding the potential project impact if a need were not met.

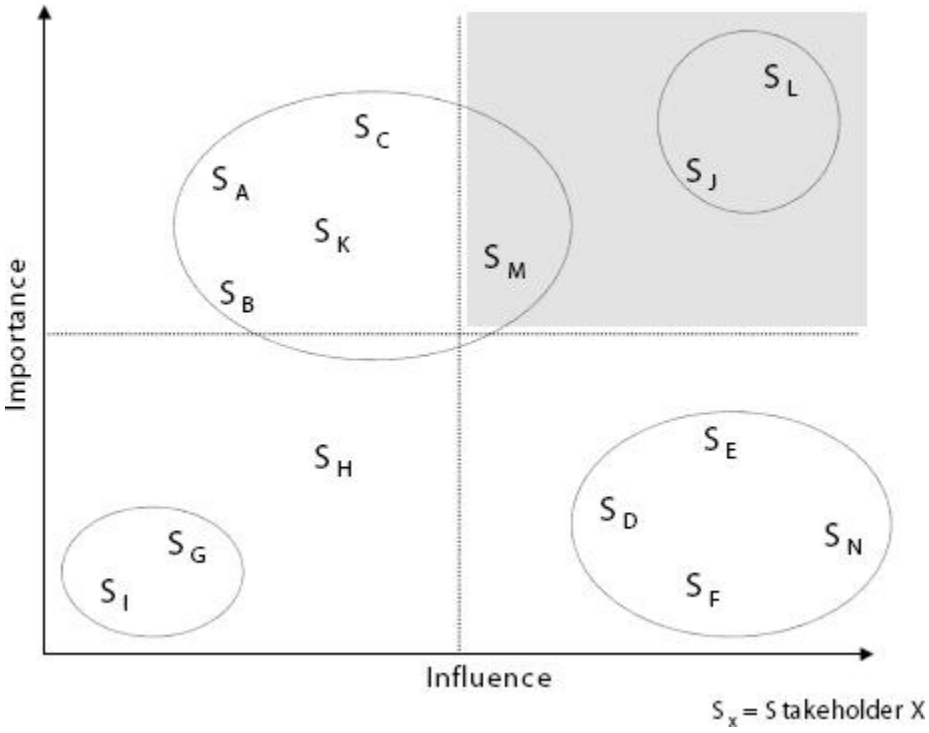
The first effort should be a brainstorming activity with appropriately selected members and an optional facilitator. All stakeholders should be initially considered and possibly dropped in later stages of the analysis. It is often difficult to force classifications into groups and determine who is considered truly inside and outside the project context. To gain a more powerful understanding

of needs and expectations, it is usually helpful to identify these stakeholders by name rather than generic terms such as customer, owner, sponsor, etc. Exhibit 1 depicts an example of this high-level analysis using a notation similar to (Cleland, 1998).

Exhibit 2. Stakeholder Interest and Impact Table

	Stakeholder	Interests	Estimated Project Impact	Estimated Priority
Primary	**Owner**	Achieve targets Liability (avoid at all costs) Increase sales margin	Med + High - Med +	1
	Sponsor	Successfully addresses needs of adjunct customer Appears competent among peers Provides new market to expand ventures	Low + Low - Med +	3
	Team Memebers	New product excitement Demand end-of-year bonus Retain and expand skill level Strike (if basic demands aren't met with new process)	Med + ? Med + High -	2
	Project Manager			
Secondary				

Exhibit 3. Interest-Influence Classification



3.9.2 Identify Stakeholders Interests, Impact Level, and Relative Priority

To refine the previous stage, the stakeholders should be listed in a table or spreadsheet with their key interests, potential level of impact to the project, and priority in relation to other stakeholders. We want to be careful and outline multiple interests, particularly those that are overt and hidden in relation to project objectives.

The key is to keep in mind that identifying interests is done with the stakeholder's perspective in mind, not ours. This is difficult since interests are usually hidden and contradict openly stated aims. Each interest should be related to the appropriate project phase; that is, interests changes as the project moves from beginning to ending phases. With some stakeholders it may be crucial to extract interests by formally asking them questions such as:

•What are your expectations of this project?

•How does the successful completion of the project benefit you?

•Are there any stakeholders that may conflict with your interest?

•Which stakeholders do you believe are in conflict with your interests?

Once the major interests are identified, it is also useful to outline the how the project will be impacted if these are or are not met. In most cases, a simple annotation of positive (+), negative (–), or unknown (?) can be used as well as high (H), medium (M), low (L), or uncertain (?). To align project success criteria with interests, an additional step is to give a rough prioritization of each stakeholder and their accompanying interests. Since not all needs can be met with the same level of intensity or at the same time, a prioritization schema would also be beneficial. Exhibit 2 provides an example of this information contained in a table adapted from ODA (1995).

Exhibit 4. Interest-Influence Classification

Stakeholder	Estimated Project Influence	Estimated Project Importance	Assumptions and Risks
Owner	Low (2)	High (9)	Providing all the resources, but don't appear to have specific requirements.
Sponsor	High (10)	Medium (6)	We don't really know if the funding in th out years will continue. Has the propen to change mind at any moment.
Team Members	Low (3)	Medium (5)	Appear to be happy with new process a systems equipment. Strike threats supposedly have decreased. Received numerous requests for additional trainir
Project Manager			

Assess Stakeholders for Importance and Influence

Determining whether stakeholders in a position of strong influence hold negative interests may be critical to project success. This level of understanding can best be reached by conducting a formal assessment of each stakeholder's level of importance and influence to the project.

Influence indicates a stakeholder's relative power over and within a project. A stakeholder with high influence would control key decisions within the project and have strong ability to facilitate implementation of project tasks and cause others to take action. Usually such influence is derived from the individual's hierarchical, economic, social, or political position, though often someone with personal connections to other persons of influence also qualifies. Other indicators identified in ODA (1995) include: expert knowledge, negotiation and consensus building skills, charisma, holder or strategic resources, etc.

Importance indicates the degree to which the project cannot be considered successful if needs, expectations, and issues are not addressed. This measure is often derived based on the relation of the stakeholder need to the project's goals and purposes. For instance, the human resources department may be key to getting the project new resources at a critical time and the accounting department key to keeping the finances in order and the project manager out of jail. The users of the project's product or service typically are considered of high importance.

These two measures, influence and importance, are distinct from each other. A project may have an important financial sponsor that can shut down the project at any time for any reason, but does not participate at all in the day-to-day operations of the project. The combination of these measures provides insight not only into how stakeholders interact, but also help identify additional assumptions and risks.

A diagram of these relationships can be useful to understand potential risks and highlight groups of stakeholders whose needs can be address in a common manner. Exhibit 3 shows such a diagram. The interest-influence measures can be annotation with a range of numbers (0–10) or high (H), medium (M), and low (L). Note that stakeholders in the high influence—high importance quadrant would be considered key stakeholders. Although counter to typical approaches, this area is where we may need to focus our attention at times when the project is suffering rather that on "beating up" individuals in the opposite corner quadrant.

Exhibit 5. Stakeholder Participation Matrix

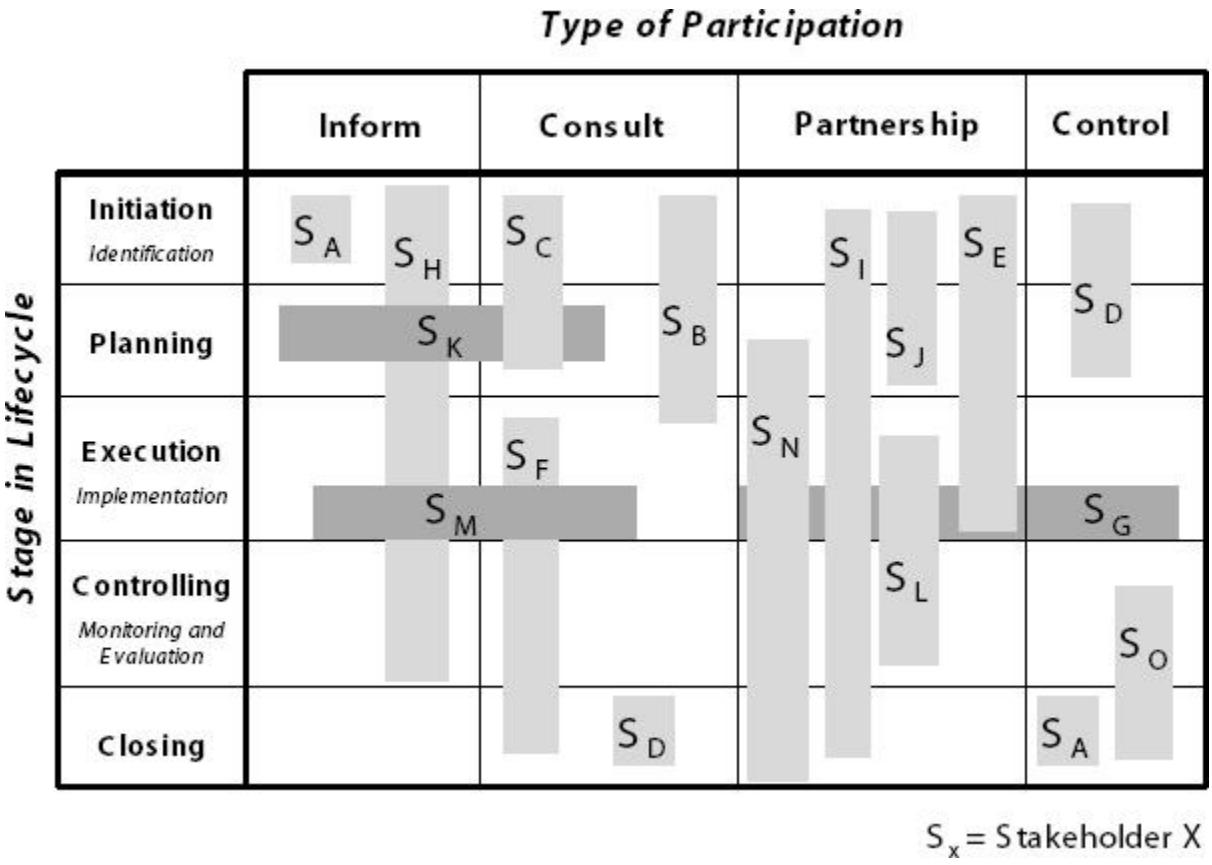
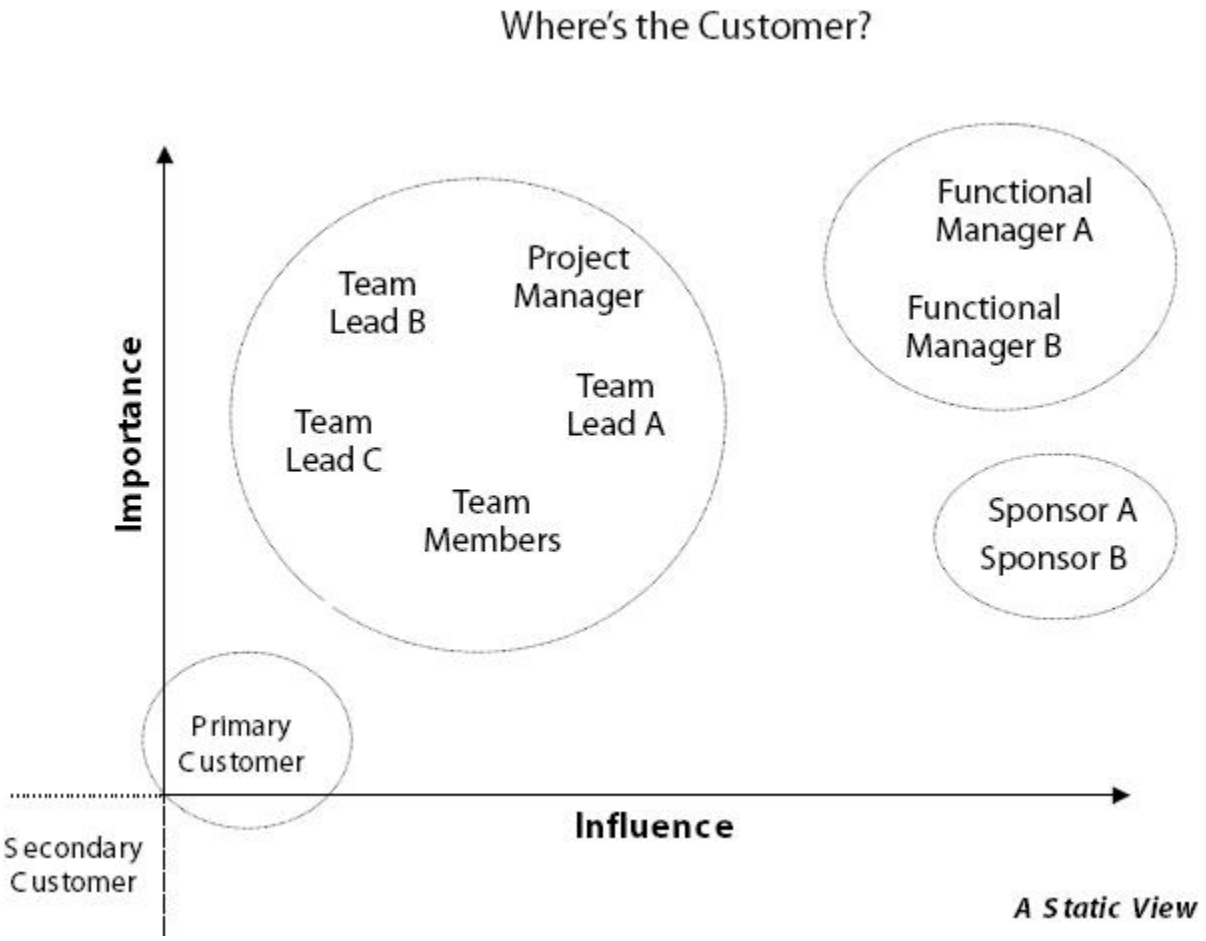


Exhibit 6. Case Study A



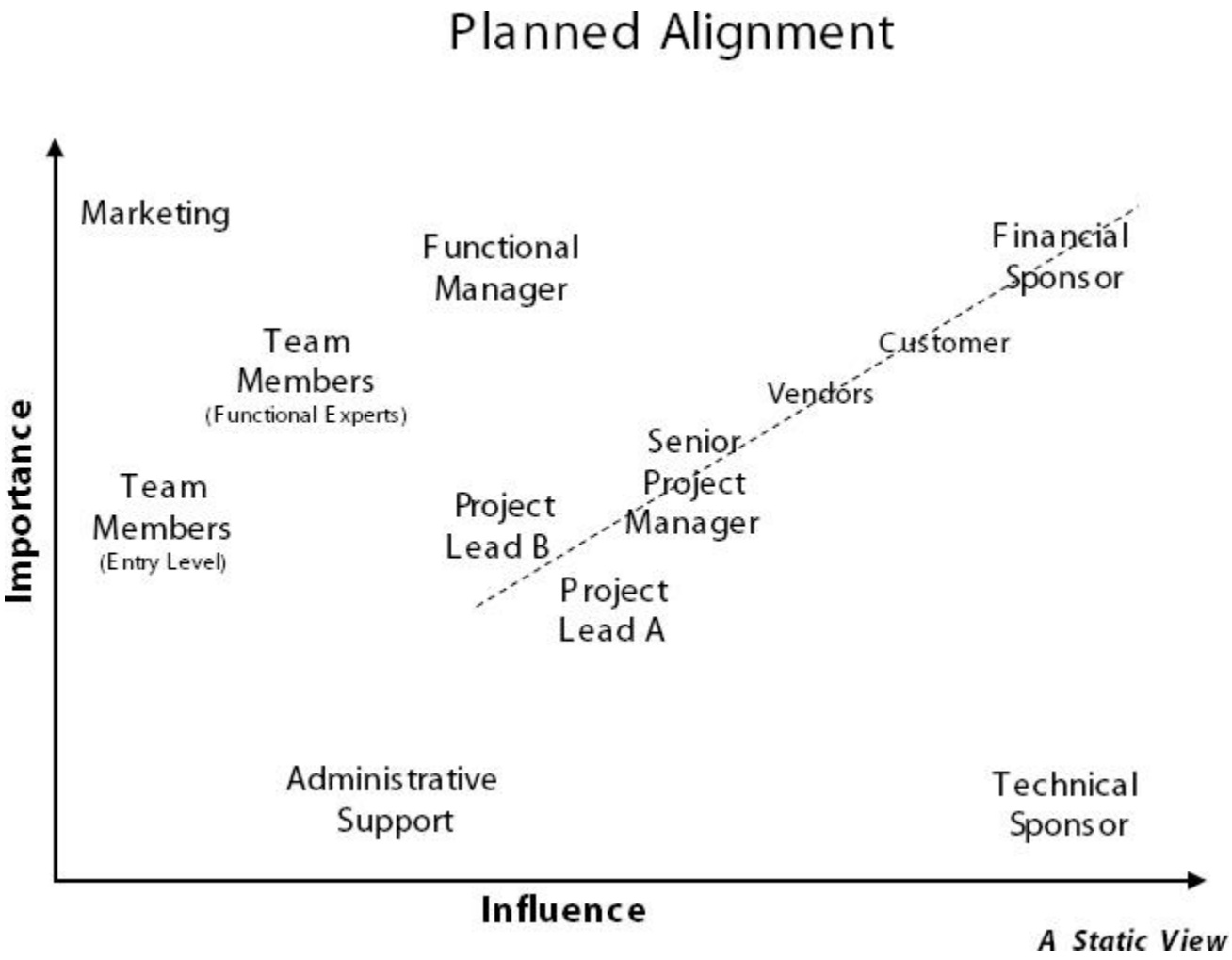
A more interesting picture would be a dynamic view over the life of the project rather than this static view. For instance, a key indicator of project success may be where the key customer is located at the conceptual, implementation, and closeout phases of the project.

Outline Assumptions and Risks

Project success also depends on the validity of key assumptions and risks. In relation to stakeholders, risks are manifest when there are conflicting needs and expectations. For example, the interests of a stakeholder with high influence may not be in line with the objectives of the project and can block a project's positive progression. To bring to light key risks, the project manager needs to clarify unspecified stakeholder roles and responsibilities, play "what-if" scenarios using unfulfilled needs and expectations, and double check the plausibility of assumptions made. Exhibit 4 provides an example of documenting assumptions and risks in

relation to key stakeholders. Note that a spreadsheet could be used to capture this information as well as that indicated in Exhibits 2 and 3.

Exhibit 7. Case Study B



3.9.3 Define Stakeholder Participation

Now that we have made an effort to understand the stakeholders, we need to assess their level of participation and information needs. A well-designed project will not only clarify key stakeholder roles, but will define as much as possible who participates when. Not all stakeholders need to be involved in all aspects of the project in all lifecycle phases. Previous analysis has helped us identify potential groupings of stakeholders. Similar individuals may have similar project information needs. We can use this information to reduce project report development costs and accompanying communication costs.

The participation matrix shown in Exhibit 5 is a method outlined in ODA (1995) that can assist project managers in categorizing their strategy for involving stakeholders. The lifecycle stages should reflect the phases of the project (those shown are from [PMI, 1996]). Likewise, the types of participation shown are generic and should reflect those desired by the project team.

Although a relatively difficult set of data to analyze and document, this information can be used to further highlight assumptions and risks. For instance, a project will be endangered with multiple key stakeholders all wishing to participate in project controlling functions. This matrix can be overlaid with the stakeholder information requirements (type, frequency, and format) to assist in developing the project communication plan.

3.10 Terminology

- Rigour: the quality of being extremely thorough and careful.

3.11 Activity

1. Discuss how you can conduct a focus group discussion
2. Discuss how you can collect data using the problem tree analysis.

3.12 Reflection

What do you think are the weaknesses of the problem tree approach in research?

3.13 Summary

Stakeholder analysis is a technique that can assist the project team members understand the variety of stakeholders that have an interest in the project and the individual nuances that can affect project risk. In an environment where office politics often appear to cloud a project's progression, stakeholder analysis provides the team with views and measures and that can help uncover and remove barriers.

The technique described here compels project leaders to identify and support the interests of the key groups. When interests that cannot be supported arise, the knowledge that they exist and what level of influence the stakeholder may impose can be a great asset to the project team. The

difference between success and failure can be simply in knowing project advocates and opponents, understanding their respective needs and levels of influence, and aligning the project accordingly.

3.13.1 Action research

Action research consists of a family of research methodologies which pursue action and research outcomes at the same time. It therefore has some components which resemble consultancy or change agency, and some which resemble field research.

Conventional experimental research, for good reason, has developed certain principles to guide its conduct. These principles are appropriate for certain types of research; but they can actually inhibit effective change. Action research has had to develop a different set of principles. It also has some characteristic differences from most other qualitative methods.

Action research tends to be...

- cyclic -- similar steps tend to recur, in a similar sequence;
- participative -- the clients and informants are involved as partners, or at least active participants, in the research process;
- qualitative -- it deals more often with language than with numbers; and
- reflective -- critical reflection upon the process and outcomes are important parts of each cycle.

In fact, some writers insist on those characteristics.

To achieve action, action research is **responsive**. It has to be able to respond to the emerging needs of the situation. It must be flexible in a way that some research methods cannot be.

Action research is **emergent**. The process takes place gradually. Its cyclic nature helps responsiveness. It also aids rigour. The early cycles are used to help decide how to conduct the later cycles. In the later cycles, the interpretations developed in the early cycles can be tested and challenged and refined.

In most instances the use of qualitative information increases responsiveness. It is possible to work in natural language, which is easier for informants. There is no need to develop a metric (which may have to be abandoned later if it doesn't fit the emerging situation).

The use of language also makes the whole process more accessible to participants. They can develop enough understanding to become co-researchers in many situations.

One crucial step in each cycle consists of **critical reflection**. The researcher and others involved first recollect and then critique what has already happened. The increased understanding which emerges from the critical reflection is then put to good use in designing the later steps.

The cycle best known in Australia is probably that of Stephen Kemmis and his colleagues at Deakin University. The steps are:

plan --> act --> observe --> reflect (and then --> plan etc.)

The reflection leads on to the next stage of planning. The "planning" isn't a separate and prior step; it is embedded in the action and reflection. Short, multiple cycles allow greater rigour to be achieved.

As change is intended to result, effective action research depends upon the agreement and commitment of those affected by it. This is usually generated by involving them directly in the research process. In many instances, researchers try to involve them as equal partners.

3.13.2 Action research in more detail

I regard action research as a methodology which is intended to have both action outcomes and research outcomes. I recognise, too, that in some action research the research component mostly takes the form of understanding on the part of those involved. The action is primary. In distinction, there are some forms of action research where research is the main emphasis and the action is almost a fringe benefit.

I regard all of these as action research. This definition is capable of encompassing a variety of research and intervention methods. It is broad enough to include, as examples, the critical action

research approach of Carr and Kemmis (1986), the soft systems methodology of Checkland (1981), and perhaps even the evaluation of Guba and Lincoln (1989), to name just a few.

The responsiveness of action research allows it to be used to develop hypotheses from the data, "on the run" as it were. It can therefore also be used as a research tool for investigative or pilot research, and generally for diagnosis or evaluation.

3.13.3 Cyclic, participative, qualitative

Most writers on the topic state or assume that action research is cyclic, or at least spiral in structure. To put this differently, certain more-or-less similar steps tend to recur, in more-or-less similar order, at different phases of an action research study. At the same time (so the action researcher hopes) progress is made towards appropriate action and research outcomes.

A commonly known cycle is that of the influential model of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) mentioned earlier -- plan, act, observe, reflect; then, in the light of this, plan for the next cycle.

It is also generally held that action research is participative, though writers differ on how participative it is. My own preference is to use participative methods. On the other hand I don't see why action research must be limited to this.

So, the extent of participation may vary. In some instances there may be a genuine partnership between researcher and others. The distinction between researcher and others may disappear.

On other occasions the researcher may choose for whatever reason to maintain a separate role. Participation may be limited to being involved as an informant. The participants, too, may choose something less than full partnership for themselves under some circumstances.

Most action research is qualitative. Some is a mix of qualitative and quantitative. All else being equal, numbers do offer advantages. In field settings, though, one often has to make other sacrifices to be able to use them. Most importantly, sometimes numbers are not easily applied to some features of a study. If these include features of particular interest or importance, the choice is between qualitative research or omitting important features.

In addition, developing a suitable quantitative measure is often difficult and time-consuming. It may be more time-efficient to use qualitative data. As I mentioned before, it is also easier to be flexible and responsive to the situation if you are using qualitative methods.

In short, it is my view that action research more often than not exhibits certain features. It tends to be, in some sense of the terms, cyclic, participative, qualitative and reflective.

I see all of these features except the last as choices to be made by the researcher and the other participants. In my view, good action research (and good research of any variety) is research where, among other features, appropriate choices are made. Perhaps even critical reflection might be abandoned for sufficient reason.

3.13.4 "Good" action research

Whatever action research is, I suspect it is mostly or always emergent and responsive. In fact, I think that the choices made about its cyclic and qualitative nature are mostly to be justified in terms of the responsiveness which they allow. This may be true of decisions about participation too.

In many field settings it is not possible to use more traditional quasi-experimental research methods. [2] They can't readily be adjusted to the demands of the situation. If you do alter them in midstream you may have to abandon the data collected up to that point. (This is because you have probably altered the odds under the null hypothesis.)

But to achieve both action and research outcomes requires responsiveness -- to the situation, and the people, and the growing understanding on the part of those involved. Using a cyclic process in most circumstances enhances responsiveness. It makes sense to design the later stages of an action research activity in such a way that you capitalise on the understanding developed in the early stages.

It is the cyclic nature of action research which allows responsiveness. It is often difficult to know just where a field intervention will end. Precise research questions at the beginning of a project may mislead researcher and clients.

Imprecise questions and methods can be expected to yield imprecise answers initially. But if those imprecise answers can help to refine questions and methods, then each cycle can be a step in the direction of better action and research.

In other words, there are times when the initial use of fuzzy methods to answer fuzzy questions is the only appropriate choice. Action research provides enough flexibility to allow fuzzy beginnings while progressing towards appropriate endings.

To my mind, a cyclic process is important. It gives more chances to learn from experience provided that there is real reflection on the process and on the outcomes, intended and unintended. Qualitative information is less constraining of the process.

Participation is a somewhat different issue, more to do with action than research. Action outcomes can usually be achieved only with some commitment from those most affected. One of the most important ways of securing that commitment is through involving those affected.

There may well be other reasons, too. For instance, for some researchers it is more ethical to use participative methods (in general, this is my position in the action research I do). On some occasions the eventual interpretation of information is richer if involvement is greater.

So far, I have taken the view that action research can take many forms. There are some conditions, however, that I believe are more important. As a starting assumption I assume that good action research is empirical: responsive to the evidence. I also think it is important that the evidence is used critically rather than uncritically.

Again, a cyclic process allows this to happen more easily. If each step is preceded by planning and followed by review, learning by researcher and client is greater.

The quality of evidence can also be increased by the use of multiple sources of evidence within all or most cycles. Differences between data sources, used critically, can then lead the researchers and the participants towards a deeper and more accurate understanding. Literature can be such an alternative data source.

I would sum up my recommendations for good action research in this way:

- Use multiple cycles, with planning before action and critical analysis after it.
- Within each cycle --
    - use multiple data sources;
    - and try to **disprove** the interpretations arising from earlier cycles.

Action research is a family of research processes whose flexibility allows learning and responsiveness. Vague beginnings can move towards better understanding and practical improvement through the critical analysis of the information, the interpretation of it, and the methods used.

Good action researchers, I think, critique what they do and how they do it, the better to learn from the experience. It is the balance between critical reflection and flexibility which allows adequate rigour to be achieved even in confused field settings.

3.13.5 In summary,

In this unit, you have leant about the following research methods; action research, problem tree analysis, focus group discussion and stakeholder analysis. You have also learnt how these methods are used in order to enhance community development.

UNIT 4: ETHICS IN COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Welcome to unit four of this module. In this unit, you will learn about ethical issues such as confidentiality, consent and not harming participants during research.

4.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- examine the concept of ethics in research.
- discuss ethical issues in research.
- discuss general ethical responsibilities.

4.3 Time Frame

You will need about two (2) hours per week to interact with this unit.

4.4 Content

- Confidentiality
- Consent
- Moral credibility and leadership
- Professional and legal issues
- Disclosure
- Conflict of interest
- Crossley unethical behavior
- General ethical responsibilities

3.5 Ethics

What do we mean by ethics? Why is ethical behavior important in community interventions? Who is subject to a code of ethics?

What are the ethical issues that need to be considered, and how do they play out in community interventions?

You run a community violence prevention program, working with kids who are gang members or gang hangers-on. The kids trust you, and sometimes tell you about some of their less-than-savory activities. The police also know you work with gang members, and often ask you for information about particular kids. What are you obligated to tell them, or to keep from them?

The right of a person to know what happens to information he reveals in the course of a community intervention falls under the heading of ethics. A participant in a community program -- a health clinic, an adult literacy class, a youth leadership initiative -- has a right to certain expectations relating to how she and the information she passes on are treated. The community has expectations as well about the reliability, competence, and honesty of a program that benefits its citizens. In this section, we'll discuss what some of those expectations are, and your and your organization's or initiative's moral and legal obligations to those you serve.

What do we mean by ethics?

Ethics is a code of thinking and behavior governed by a combination of personal, moral, legal, and social standards of what is right. Although the definition of "right" varies with situations and cultures, its meaning in the context of a community intervention involves a number of guiding principles with which most community activists and service providers would probably agree:

Do no harm. Hippocrates put this in words over 2,000 years ago, and its still Rule Number One.

Sometimes, doing no harm can mean not starting a community intervention at all. As John McKnight points out in The Careless Society: Community and Its Counterfeits, community interventions may in fact sometimes harm participants by substituting for what they really need -- to be part of a real community, to be regarded in terms of their capacities rather than their deficiencies, to have access to a steady source of income. McKnight suggests asking some questions before you embark on an intervention:

- What are the negative effects of the human service proposed to help the class of people?
- What are the situations in which the proposed service may be applied with many other services and what interactive negative effects will result?

- Will a focus on the capacities of the class of people be more effective than a service program's focus on deficiencies and needs?
- Will providing the dollars proposed for funding the human service provide greater benefits if given to the clients as cash income?
- Will incorporation into community life be more beneficial than special, separating service treatment?
- Respect people as ends, not means: consider and treat everyone as a unique individual who matters, not as a number in a political or social or clinical calculation.
- Respect participants' ability to play a role in determining what they need. Don't assume that professional staff or program planners necessarily know what's best for a community or individual.
- Respect everyone's human, civil, and legal rights. This encompasses such issues as non-discrimination and cultural sensitivity.
- Do what is best for everyone under the circumstances. You're not necessarily going to be able to help everyone all the time, but you can try to get as close as possible.
- While this is a valuable guideline, it is also difficult to follow. How do you determine what is best for anyone in a particular situation, let alone the best outcome for everyone? The best outcome for most parties may be dependent on a bad outcome for one; or the best outcome for everyone -- one that leaves no one as a clear loser -- may be relatively negative. It's not always easy to be fair and respectful of everyone's needs and values.
- Don't abuse your position or exploit a participant to gain a personal advantage or to exercise power over another person. This refers to taking advantage of participants or others for political, social, sexual, or financial gain.
- Don't attempt an intervention in areas in which you're not trained and/or competent. This goes along with "do no harm," but it's not always possible. Just as there are times when no intervention may be preferable to doing something counterproductive, there may be times when any intervention is better than none at all. In those circumstances, you may have to learn as you go, getting all the help you can and hoping you don't do anything harmful. It's important to distinguish between doing what you can and getting in over your head to the point where what you're doing becomes truly unethical and harmful.

Actively strive to improve or correct, to the extent possible, the situations of participants in your program and the community. In other words, it's incumbent on you to try to create the best and most effective program possible to meet the needs of participants, and to address underlying conditions or situations in a way that will benefit the community as a whole.

This last point brings up a major issue -- one that has intrigued philosophers for centuries. If you are actively striving to do "good," how far does that obligation take you? If there are issues affecting the community that have nothing to do directly with the one you're concerned with, do you nonetheless have an obligation to become involved? What if you don't really understand the whole situation, and your involvement may do as much harm as good -- do you still have an ethical obligation to support or become active on the right side? What if your support or activism endangers or compromises your community intervention?

These are not insignificant questions, and we won't pretend to answer them here. Many of history's great minds have struggled with them, and have often come up with contradictory answers. But you need to be aware of them, and to make decisions about how you're going to address them if you're concerned about the ethics of your intervention and your organization.

Why is ethical behavior important in community interventions?

In addition to its simply being the right thing to do, always acting ethically brings some particular advantages with it. It makes your program more effective; it cements your standing in the community; it allows you to occupy the moral high ground when arguing the merits of your program, and to exercise moral leadership in the community; and it assures that you remain in good standing legally and professionally.

Program effectiveness: Consistent ethical behavior can lead to a more effective program. Considering ethical principles in all aspects of a community intervention will lead you to finding the most effective and community-centered methods, and will bring dividends in participation, community support and funding possibilities.

Standing in the community: An organization that has a reputation for ethical action is far more likely to be respected by both participants and the community as a whole than one that has been known to be unethical in the past. An organization that's recognized as ethical is also apt to be seen as competent, and to be trusted to treat people with respect and to do what it says it will do.

That community trust makes it easier to recruit staff, volunteers, Board members, and participants, and to raise money and public support.

Moral credibility and leadership: If you work for the betterment of the world -- whether you see that as social change, social justice, the alleviation of suffering, the fostering of human dignity, or simply the provision of services -- it's consistent to act as you wish the rest of the world to act. Ethical action reflects why you started your community intervention in the first place. You have a moral obligation to yourself, the individuals you work with, and the community to be ethical in all you do, and to expect the same from others. If you fulfill that obligation, and everyone knows it, your voice will have greater impact when you speak out for what you believe is right, or against what you believe is wrong, and others will follow you.

Professional and legal issues: Many of the health and human service professions often involved in community interventions are held to specific codes of ethics by their professional certification or licensure organizations. The American Medical Association, the American Bar Association, the American Psychological Association, the National Association of Social Workers -- these and many other professional associations have detailed ethical standards their members are expected to adhere to. If members of the profession violate these standards, they can be disciplined, or even lose their licenses to practice.

Lawyers who mishandle funds entrusted to them, for instance, or who otherwise violate the law, are often suspended or disbarred. A Massachusetts obstetrician who was found to be sexually abusing patients immediately lost his license to practice medicine (and had to flee the state to avoid prosecution).

Professional codes of ethics generally cover everything from the use of accepted methods to professional development to billing practices. People in a particular field are expected to be familiar with their professional code, and to adhere to it under all circumstances.

The law requires certain standards of many professionals as well. Doctors and lawyers can be sued for malpractice if their substandard handling of a case results in harm to a patient or client. In rare cases (where someone feels that a competent therapist might have been able to prevent a suicide, for instance), a mental health professional might also be sued for malpractice. Medical professionals, psychologists, psychiatrists, and psychotherapists can lose their licenses, and may

be sued -- or prosecuted for criminal sexual assault -- if they have sexual relations with clients, even in cases where the clients consent. Organizations and individual administrators may find themselves in legal trouble if they abuse participants or if they misuse or misappropriate money. In most situations, ethical and legal behavior go hand in hand.

Who is subject to a code of ethics in community interventions?

The short answer is that everyone -- who works in a community program of any kind, or who deals with other people in a professional or paraprofessional capacity -- is subject to a code of ethics in community interventions. There are, however, a number of formal ethical codes -- usually set down by professional organizations, but sometimes by law -- that apply to people in particular professional or other positions.

What are the ethical issues that need to be considered, and how do they play out in community interventions?

Ethical behavior in community interventions relates to the treatment of people, information, and money, and to the general actions of the workers and the organization or initiative, even when they're not dealing directly with the community. Not all of the areas discussed below are covered by a specific legal or ethical code for every profession or community service, but are nonetheless related to ethical behavior for just about any program or organization. All should at least be considered as you define ethics for yourself and your program.

4.6 Confidentiality

Probably the most familiar of ethical issues -- perhaps because it's the one most often violated -- is the expectation that communications and information from participants in the course of a community intervention or program (including conversations, written or taped records, notes, test results, etc.) will be kept confidential. Programs' legal responsibilities in this area may vary, but as a general rule, confidentiality is the best policy. It protects both participants and the organization from invasion of privacy, and establishes a bond of trust between the participant and the program. Depending upon the program, the staff member's position, and the participant's needs, confidentiality may encompass a range of possibilities:

No one but the individual working with a particular participant will have access to information about or records of that participant without her permission. At this level of confidentiality, records and notes are usually kept under lock and key, and computer records should be protected by electronic coding or passwords.

Most programs not required by law or professional ethics to keep all information confidential do so anyway, both out of moral scruples and to establish trust with their participants. There are, however, specific exceptions to complete confidentiality. Many mental health and other professionals will share clients' records (usually leaving out the client's name) with a colleague for the purpose of consultation and supervision. If the program staff member is a mandated reporter for child abuse and neglect, if the participant presents a threat to himself or others, or if the staff member is subpoenaed in a legal case, both the law and ethical codes generally require that the staff person put her responsibilities to the law or to the safety of others above her promise of confidentiality.

Some program staff may consider their relationship with participants to be ethically more important than legal considerations. They may either not take or periodically destroy notes from meetings with participants; refuse to testify in court cases (and risk being fined or incarcerated for contempt of court); or simply "not remember " the relevant information. The ethics in this type of situation are complex, and it's best for both an organization and its individual staff members to discuss the possibilities before they come up in reality. Having clear policy on these matters makes everyone's course of action clearer as well, and reduces anxiety all around. (What are the obligations of that youth worker at the beginning of this section?)

Exceptions to confidentiality should be made clear to participants at the beginning of their involvement in the program (see "Disclosure" below).

Information is confidential within a program, but may be shared among staff members for purposes of consultation and delivering better services to the participant. Teachers in an adult literacy program, for instance, may confer about a student with a particular learning disability or problem.

This type of sharing is consistent with the rules of the Family Educational Right to Privacy Act, popularly known as the Buckley Amendment, which protects academic records. This act was

meant to assure both that student records were not distributed to non-school recipients without the permission of the student or her family, and that students and their families would have free access to copies of their records. It also gives those students and their families the right to question any elements of those records, and to negotiate corrections where necessary.

Information is confidential within a program or to a particular staff member, but may be shared with staff members of other programs in which the participant is involved, either to improve services for the participant, or to contribute to the other organization's reporting data. This kind of arrangement usually requires that participants be told about it from the beginning, and that they sign release forms giving the program permission to share records and information under appropriate circumstances.

Information is confidential within a program, but is submitted to funding sources as documentation of services provided. This situation can lead to problems if participants have been promised complete confidentiality. In that case, especially if threatened with withdrawal of funds, the program has to decide whether the money is more important than participants' anonymity, or what level of anonymity is sufficient. Some organizations simply provide the requested documentation without informing participants, on the assumption that funders are not likely either to have actual contact with participants or to misuse an individual record; others feel they must honor their promise, and can't release anything without participants' permission.

The stakes become higher if some participants are illegal aliens. The funders' guarantee that it will neither check on nor turn in anyone in that situation is seldom enough for people who have been conditioned to fear reprisals for being in the wrong place at the wrong time.

Information is not confidential, or is only confidential under certain circumstances. Participation in a program may be court-mandated or mandated by an agency as a condition of receiving benefits or services. Often, in those cases, participation implies an agreement to the sharing of records and information, and may even be a matter of public record.

In all circumstances, ethical treatment of participants demands that they be informed about the program's confidentiality policies. In most cases, they then have the choice of not participating if they are unhappy with those policies; in the case of court-mandated participation, at least they'll

know what to expect. All of which brings us to the next two issues, which may intertwine with confidentiality and each other: consent and disclosure.

4.7 Consent

There are really three faces of consent: program participants giving program staff consent to share their records or information with others for purposes of service provision; participants giving informed consent to submit to particular medical or other services, treatment, research, or program conditions; and community members consenting to the location or operation of an intervention in their neighborhood.

Consent to sharing of information. As we found in the discussion of confidentiality above, most participant records and information collected by program staff can only be passed on with the consent of the participant. In general, this consent is embodied in a standard form signed by the participant, granting permission to a program in which he was formerly or is currently enrolled to share his information with another organization, in which he is also a former or current participant. In some programs, a participant might sign a blanket form on entrance, but a separate form is usually needed for each separate instance of information sharing outside the program itself.

Informed consent for services, treatment, research, or program conditions. In some situations, services might be significantly different from participants' expectations (being asked to enter residential drug treatment as a result of psychotherapy, for example). In others -- medical diagnoses, for instance -- there are no "normal" expectations. A third possibility involves participants enrolling in a community intervention which is also a study. In any of these instances, ethical practice demands that people be fully informed -- and can ask and have answered any questions -- about what they are about to take part in. An informed consent form is usually the vehicle by which participants give their permission to be involved in these interventions.

In the case of any major medical treatment (surgery, for example), doctors and hospitals generally require an informed consent form as a matter of course. Patients have a right to be told exactly what their diagnosis is, what treatment is being recommended and why, what its risks and advantages are, possible outcomes, etc. They also have right to a second opinion, and to

refuse treatment. In the case of most other services or treatment, participants' rights are similar, unless their participation is mandated by the court or in some other way.

In the case of research, people have a right to know what the research is about, who will see and tabulate the results, what the results will be used for and how, what will happen to their personal records, how their anonymity will be protected, etc. They also have a right to refuse to be part of the study (i.e. not to sign the consent form), and generally can't be denied services on that account.

Community consent. It's difficult to draw lines here, or to find the absolute ethical standard. Is it ethically necessary to gain the consent of a neighborhood to place a halfway house or homeless shelter there, for instance? What if neighbors' attitudes stop at "Not in my back yard"? Do you need the consent of a group -- or its president or director -- to survey its members? Do you need the consent of a majority of the members of a jobs-for-youth program to enforce a substance-free policy?

In practice, it almost always makes sense to let people know what you plan to do, and to negotiate with them if they have concerns about it. But what if that neighborhood is unalterably opposed to a homeless shelter being located in the area, and you've already bought the property? Legally, you may have every right to put any facility you want to there, but what is your ethical obligation (assuming you can't persuade the neighbors to change their minds)? Furthermore, what is your ethical obligation to the homeless people you plan to serve?

Handling these issues in a community is seldom easy or clear-cut. In general, the best course is to be honest about your intentions and to try to attend to people's objections or concerns. There's usually a way to find a solution that both sides can live with if you keep communication channels open.

Both confidentiality and consent bring up the issue of privacy, one that has been much discussed in the past 20 years or so. Technology has made information far more accessible to far more people, and individual privacy has consequently become far more threatened. Much of what is discussed above and below has been the subject of legal wrangling or legislation (as in the case of the Buckley Amendment). While the question of the right to privacy, constitutional or

otherwise, is much too broad to go into here in any detail, it is always lurking behind any decision about releasing information.

4.8 Disclosure

Like consent, disclosure in this context has more than one meaning.

Disclosure to participants of the conditions of the program they're in -- program policies of confidentiality and when it might be breached, what kinds of services are available and what kinds are not, any time limits on the program, whether it will cost anything, etc. Participants have a right to know if they will be part of a research study if they enter the program, and to understand the purpose of that study, as explained above. Some organizations or individuals put these disclosures in writing, and make sure that every participant has a copy and that he understands what's written on it. It is ethically important both that participants know exactly what they're getting into, and that they be treated as adults who can decide what makes sense for them.

Many programs have a grievance procedure for participants who feel they have been unfairly denied services, or that they have been in some way harmed in the course of their contact with a community program. Participants should know such a grievance procedure exists, receive a copy of it, and have it explained to them so they can file a grievance if they need to. They should also have a copy of any specific conditions they're agreeing to by enrolling in the program: to remain drug-free, for instance, or to keep a journal.

Disclosure of participant information to other individuals, agencies, etc. The rules here are essentially those for confidentiality: information, except in cases of mandated reporting, potential harm to self or others, or court testimony, can only be disclosed with the participant's permission. Exceptions to this rule have to be spelled out to participants as they enter the program, so they can decide whether the services are worth any loss of privacy or anonymity.

Disclosure -- by the program and by the affected individuals -- of any conflict of interest that the program represents to any staff or Board members. Disclosure here includes individuals disclosing potential conflicts to the program or organization, and the program disclosing potential conflicts to funders and other interested parties.

Many states and the federal government require such disclosure as part of any contract with or grant to an organization. Depending upon the controlling laws, the public funder usually specifies what constitutes conflict of interest, so that the program can report accurately and police itself properly.

4.9 Competence

By offering services of any kind, an organization is essentially making a contract with participants to do the job it says it will do. Implied in that contract is that those actually doing the work, and the organization as a whole, are competent to accomplish their goals under reasonable circumstances.

It is obvious that no program or individual will succeed 100% of the time. Participants may be unready -- think about the long-term failure rates of many substance abuse treatment programs -- or resistant. Some community interventions may succeed less than half the time, and that may be the best anyone can do. But whatever the success rate, participants and the community have a right to expect that the program knows what it's doing and will make its best faith effort to provide effective services. That means that community services need to be offered by folks who are competent at what they do.

Competence means more than simply having the appropriate training and experience. A competent organization hires competent staff members, provides supervision and staff development, and does everything it can to assure that the services it offers are the best available. If service appears to be ineffective or harmful, it is the ethical responsibility of the program to seek out or develop and try more effective methods. If a staff member, even with help from supervisors and others, isn't able to do the job, that should be documented and she should be dismissed.

There are legal implications here as well. As explained earlier in this section, in some cases, service providers can lose their licenses or be sued for malpractice if they are found to be incompetent. It is up to a program to make sure that no one on its staff places himself in that position.

4.10 Conflict of interest

A conflict of interest is a situation in which someone's personal (financial, political, professional, social, sexual, family, etc.) interests could influence his judgment or actions in a financial or other decision, in carrying out his job, or in his relationships with participants. In community interventions, conflicts of interest may change -- to the community's disadvantage -- how a program is run or how its money is spent.

Conflicts can also affect an organization, especially where a Board of Directors is involved. If a staff member is also a Board member, she should not take part in Board decisions about staff salaries, for instance, although it may in fact be helpful for her to contribute to the discussion of that issue. It is usually considered a conflict of interest for programs to pay Board members for services (e.g., hiring a Board member to be the program's lawyer).

Conflicts of interest are virtually always unethical, to the point where the mere appearance of a conflict needs to be avoided. Even if decisions or actions are not actually influenced by personal interest, people in conflict of interest situations in their public or professional lives should do everything possible to resolve them.

If you find yourself in such a situation, the ethical remedy is two-pronged:

Point it out to whoever needs to know -- your employer, a funder, the community, the participant you're working with -- and discuss possible solutions.

Eliminate the conflict situation. Depending upon the situation, solutions might involve excusing yourself from taking part in a particular decision, refusing funding from a particular source, ceasing to work with a particular participant, or even changing jobs.

Some examples of conflict of interest (with possible solutions in parentheses):

- A decision by a program director to purchase office equipment for the program from a company his wife owns: the director has both a personal and a financial stake in the decision. (The director could remove himself and/or his wife's company from the purchasing process.)
- A staff member entering into a sexual relationship with an intern or someone they supervise. The supervisor has power over the other's employment and/or professional

evaluation, which puts pressure on the subordinate to enter into and/or continue the relationship, even if he or she is reluctant, and may keep the supervisor from making objective decisions about the subordinate. (If the relationship is mutual and the attraction strong on both sides, this can present a very difficult situation. If the supervisor simply transfers her supervisory responsibility to someone else, there still remains her power in the program or organization itself. The best solution is probably to remove herself and wait until the internship period ends before approaching an intimate relationship.)

- A researcher financing a study with money from a company that stands to benefit from a particular result of that study. The researcher's conclusions could be influenced by what the company wants. (The ideal here is not to finance a study with funding from anyone who has a vested interest in the outcome.)
- A counselor or therapist providing services to a family member or ex-lover. The issues that exist between the two may reduce both the objectivity of the therapist and the effectiveness of the therapy. (Suggest one or more other therapists, and don't provide those services.)
- A youth program staff member working with a youth with whose family she has a personal conflict. (The staff member should remove herself from direct contact with that particular teen: her attitude toward his family is apt to influence her attitude toward and work with him.)
- A doctor in a community clinic owning an interest in a specialty medical practice to which he refers patients from the clinic. (The doctor could offer a number of choices for referral, not specifying which one she had an interest in.)
- Another type of conflict of interest is subtler, and arises when pressures from a funding source force a program into a certain kind of behavior that shortchanges some participants. Some job training programs, for instance, are only paid for their work with trainees after those trainees have reached certain goals. A program may get part of its payment once a trainee has completed a vocational assessment; another part after he has finished a job training course; and the last (and usually largest) part once he has found employment.

It isn't hard to see that if too many people drop out before completing their goals, the program will lose money. Therefore, programs are less likely to recruit participants who might drop out --

the very people who need the service most -- and more likely to seek trainees who already have skills and who can easily complete the program and find jobs.

There is a clear conflict here between the program's obligation to serve those who can benefit, and its need to bring in enough funding to stay in operation. While the example given involves employment training, the numbers game that puts programs in this bind can be played in any number of situations: adult literacy, youth programs, even community health, where -- as in HMOs -- the number of patients that must be seen can reduce the effectiveness of care.

There are ways to avoid this kind of conflict, but often they create as many problems as they solve. One is to refuse funding which places pressures on the program to ignore the needs of part of the target population. If there's no other source of funding available, the program then runs the risk of closing, and thereby eliminating services for everyone. Another way out is to try to negotiate with the funder: perhaps the program can be paid to serve a certain number of "high-risk, high-reward" participants, those who are at high risk of dropping out, but for whom success constitutes a high reward for the program and the community. A third possibility (one which can and should be pursued no matter what else happens) is to educate funders and policy makers to the unintended consequences of tying funding to participant numbers and particular outcomes. This last, unfortunately, takes a long time and a lot of effort: it's more than worth it in the long run, but a program may simply not have the long run in which to operate.

Ethically and practically, trying to negotiate with the funder is probably the best solution. If it doesn't work, however, you may find yourself in a very difficult position. The more different funding sources you can tap, the less likely you are to find yourself in this bind, and that may in fact be the best solution: spread your funding out as much as possible, so that losing or refusing one funder doesn't put you in the situation of having to choose between ethical behavior and survival.

4.11 Grossly unethical behavior

This is behavior far beyond the bounds of the normally accepted ethical standards of society. In some cases, grossly unethical behavior may stem from taking advantage of a conflict of interest situation. In others, it may be a simple case of dishonesty or lack of moral scruples. Both individuals and organizations can be guilty of some instances of it, and in both cases it is often a

result of someone managing to justify the unjustifiable. Community programs need to be clear about their own ethical standards, and to hold individuals to them and to any other standards their professions demand. In most cases, staff members guilty of grossly unethical behavior should be dismissed as quickly as possible, and prosecuted where that is appropriate. Some of the more familiar types of grossly unethical behavior include:

Having sexual relationships -- even consensual sexual relationships -- with people with whom you have a professional relationship in which you hold the power. Doctor -patient, therapist-client, teacher-student, supervisor-intern, and youth worker-teen are all examples of such relationships. In some of these cases, a sexual relationship both violates the professional's code of ethics (and is therefore grounds for losing professional certification), and may be the base for a sexual harassment or sexual assault lawsuit as well.

- Exploiting for financial gain people with whom you have a professional relationship. Moving someone to the head of a waiting list in return for free services he can provide (car repair, for instance), or accepting gifts or money -- essentially bribes -- to do something out of the ordinary (e.g. accept someone who normally wouldn't qualify for your program).
- Defrauding funders: billing for non-existent services, or inventing problems in order to deliver unnecessary services.
- Denying necessary medical services to those uninsured and unable to pay.
- Discriminating in service delivery by race, gender, ethnicity, etc.
- Discrimination may not be unethical if an intervention is established to serve a particular group for a particular purpose. A women's shelter for victims of domestic violence would not be expected to house men as well, for instance. A support service for members of the Vietnamese community would not be obligated to provide translation for other groups.
- Outright criminal behavior: redirecting program funds for personal use, for instance, or sexually abusing children in a day care center. This can also include criminal behavior that a staff member engages in on his own time -- e.g., selling drugs or robbing a warehouse

4.12 General ethical responsibilities

Ethical behavior for a community intervention is more than simply following particular professional codes and keeping your nose clean. It means actively striving to do what is right for participants and for the community, and treating everyone -- participants, staff members, funders, the community at large -- in an ethical way. By doing what you do in the community, you take on a number of responsibilities:

- Responsibility to funders. You are responsible for being fiscally accountable, for using funds properly, and for trying to do what you promised to do when you took the money.
- If a funder is asking for something you're not willing to provide or promise, either don't take (or apply for) the money, or try to negotiate a compromise. Be honest, both to yourself and the funder, about what you're willing to do. Don't violate your own ethics just to get funding.
- Responsibility to staff members. You are responsible for making sure everyone is treated fairly in all dealings with the program; that everyone is paid for the work she does; that everyone has a reasonable amount of control over her job; and that everyone has the opportunity to continue to develop her skills and effectiveness through staff development and/or supervision. You are also responsible for protecting staff from harm to the extent possible, and for warning and training them if some physical or other danger is part of their jobs.
- You owe it to a youth gang outreach worker, for instance, to train him in such areas as the boundaries of different gang territories, colors or clothing that send particular signals, conflict resolution techniques, how to talk to gang members without creating problems, etc. You also owe him a clear explanation of the risks of the job and of how much and what kind of support he can expect from the program.
- Responsibility to participants. You are responsible for trying, throughout the life of the program, to provide the best and most effective services possible. This means constantly searching for better methods and ideas; paying attention to participant feedback; building on program successes; and acknowledging, learning from, and correcting program weaknesses. You are also responsible for respecting participants' rights, and for treating all with the respect due them, not only as program participants, but also as human beings.

- The issue of participant rights can be a sticky one. A mentally ill -- but intelligent and reasonably functional -- woman living in a group house went to the hospital for a simple surgical procedure. In the course of the surgery, the operating doctor, who was the woman's primary care physician, decide to sterilize her without her consultation or permission. When she found out, she was devastated, but refused to file a complaint because of her fear of doctors and their power over her. The ethics committee of the organization that ran the group home then had to decide if the woman's right to decide whether or not to protest -- regardless of how irrational her reasons -- overrode her right to compensation for inappropriate medical treatment.

The offense was serious enough that the physician could have lost his license if it had been brought to light. The committee ultimately decided that the woman's right to let the matter lie was more important than her right to some restitution from the doctor, and no complaint was ever filed. Was the committee right? It's extremely difficult to say, which is exactly the point. Most ethical decisions are far from cut and dried.

The issue of respect can also be confusing. How do you -- or do you -- respectfully deal with a participant who is being disrespectful to staff members or to other participants? Do you ignore racist or personally offensive remarks? Do you have an obligation to be respectful in the face of insult, screaming, or threats? In some jobs (on -call emergency psychological staff, for instance), such treatment is expected occasionally, and is usually taken in stride. But in some other situations -- an adult literacy program, a family nutrition service -- this kind of behavior is clearly unacceptable. Remaining respectful may defuse the situation, but any program needs clear guidelines about what kind of behavior is unacceptable and how such behavior will be handled. Blindly assuming that any participant behavior is acceptable -- and there are programs which embrace that philosophy -- is neither fair to staff members nor helpful to participants.

Responsibility to the community. You are responsible for trying to understand and meet the needs of the community; for being responsive to community attitudes and opinions (without compromising your own mission or philosophy); and for trying, through your intervention, to improve the quality of life in some way for both program participants and the community as a whole.

The participatory nature of community interventions that these obligations imply can also raise ethical questions. It usually makes both ethical and practical sense to involve the target population and/or the community at large in planning a community program. There are many good reasons for this involvement -- fostering community ownership of the program, having the input of people with a sense of community history, respecting people enough to pay attention to what they say they need, etc. -- but there can be drawbacks as well. What if you think the community's ideas are completely wrongheaded, or they want more control over the program than you'd feel comfortable with? What are the ethical solutions to these situations?

The reality is that there aren't specific answers to most ethical questions. It's important to consider the questions, but to understand that taking what you see as the ethical path can sometimes land you in a briar patch. It helps to have clear sense of what you believe is right, and to also consider carefully what will actually benefit the situation and the people involved.

In the case of community participants giving wrongheaded advice, for instance, is the principle of respecting the community's wishes more or less important than that of creating the most effective way to meet community needs? And which will be more likely to actually get the job done in the community? The answers will probably vary in different places and times.

4.13 Terminologies

1. Ethics: is the moral principle that govern a person/ behavior.

4.14 Activity

1. Discuss ethical issues in research.

4.15 Reflection

When do you think is appropriate to disclose the information a researcher comes across during research/counselling?

4.16 Summary

Ethical considerations are extremely important in community interventions. A program that itself behaves unethically or allows its staff to do so is both ignoring its mission and risking its credibility and effectiveness in the community.

Because ethical issues are not always cut and dried, community programs should work out their own ethical guidelines and policies before questions actually arise. If you can agree on standards for primary ethical issues -- confidentiality, consent, disclosure, competence, conflict of interest, grossly unethical behavior, and the overall ethical stance and actions of the program -- and create policies which will help you uphold those standards, you're on y

our way to community respect and outstanding service delivery.

UNIT 5: PERSPECTIVES IN COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

In this unit, you are going to learn about perspective in community psychology. You will basically learn about the importance of an ecological approach in community psychology, labelling theory and crisis management.

5.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- discuss the importance of an ecological approach in community psychology.
- discuss the aspects of environmental psychology in community psychology.
- discuss various ways of managing crisis.
- analyze the labelling theory.

5.3 Time Frame

You will need about two (2) hours per week to interact with this unit.

5.4 Content

- Ecological approach in community psychology.
- Aspects of environmental psychology.

5.5 The Importance of an Ecological Approach in Community Psychology

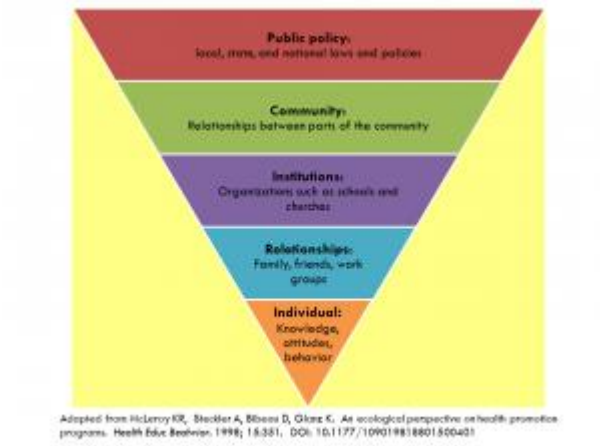


Image credit: https://shaketheworldforchange.wordpress.com/2014/06/04/introduction-to-the-project/

Individuals working in the field of community psychology should approach their work, within a community, with different strategies and perspectives to gain a holistic understanding of the community they're working with. One particular perspective is the ecological approach which allows the community psychologist to understand how the intricate ways of different parts of the community affect one another. Understanding the interdependence that each system has, and how each part of the system affects the other, can serve as a guide in determining practices and interventions that may be used or implemented to help serve the community.

Having the broader perspective of a community allows for a community psychologist to identify the multiple parts, and relationships, within a social system that are in need of assistance and those that will be reinforced. Failing to have a broad view of the community could lead to key areas of the social system that are in need of assistance to be overlooked and neglected, which in turn will inadvertently lead to the interventions implemented to fail. An example of an ecological perspective offered by Scott & Wolff (2015), is the issue of global warming being caused by carbon dioxide. Looking at carbon dioxide as the sole reason for global warming fails to encompass the whole picture of the entire system that contributes to this problem. One needs to

consider the effects that society imposes on the earth and adopt solutions that would incorporate the total social system to bring about changes that would lower carbon dioxide emissions to levels that would resolve the issue of global warming. Looking at the problem from just the standpoint of carbon dioxide levels being too high, fails to understand all the components that contribute to the problem and without considering those components, appropriate solutions to the problem will not be implemented.

Some ideas to consider in helping to develop an ecological perspective are:

- Develop an awareness of the social connection within a community and its members. Knowing how the community is interdependent on each other can help guide a community psychologist in working with the members and developing a working relationship that will lead to solutions to the community's issues.
- Assuring that those in the community who have been disregarded by other members are given a voice and that they are "recycled" by being trained for their new roles in the community.
- Create feedback loops to help determine whether an intervention is working or not. Having these feedback loops helps give members of the community an opportunity to voice if the impact of the intervention is having a positive or negative effect within the community. Feedback loops help make a community more adaptable and sustainable (Scott & Wolfe, 2015).
- Encourage diversity within the community. Diversity offers many perspectives that help brainstorming solutions to resolve issues in the community.
- Promote a balanced leadership model by having an appropriate balance of hierarchal and communal processes (Stone & Wolfe, 2015).

Community psychologists who incorporate these ideas into their practice will develop an ecological perspective that will help them acquire the ability to see the whole social structure that contributes to the issues of the community. Having this skill will better serve the community when confronted with issues that are in need of resolution and an ecological lens is needed to determine the solutions that will bring about positive change.

5.6 Environmental psychology

Environmental psychology is an interdisciplinary field that focuses on the interplay between individuals and their surroundings. It examines the way in which the natural environment and our built environments shape us as individuals. The field defines the term environment broadly, encompassing natural environments, social settings, built environments, learning environments, and informational environments.

Environmental psychology was not fully recognized as its own field until the late 1960s when scientists began to question the tie between human behavior and our natural and built environments. Since its conception, the field has been committed to the development of a discipline that is both value oriented and problem oriented, prioritizing research aimed at solving complex environmental problems in the pursuit of individual well-being within a larger society. When solving problems involving human-environment interactions, whether global or local, one must have a model of human nature that predicts the environmental conditions under which humans will respond well. This model can help design, manage, protect and/or restore environments that enhance reasonable behavior, predict the likely outcomes when these conditions are not met, and diagnose problem situations. The field develops such a model of human nature while retaining a broad and inherently multidisciplinary focus. It explores such dissimilar issues as common property resource management, wayfinding in complex settings, the effect of environmental stress on human performance, the characteristics of restorative environments, human information processing, and the promotion of durable conservation behavior. Lately, alongside the increased focus on climate change in society and the social sciences and the re-emergence of limits-to-growth concerns, there has been increased focus on environmental sustainability issues within the field.

This multidisciplinary paradigm has not only characterized the dynamic for which environmental psychology is expected to develop. It has also been the catalyst in attracting other schools of knowledge in its pursuit, aside from research psychologists. Geographers, economists, landscape architects, policy-makers, sociologists, anthropologists, educators, and product developers all have discovered and participated in this field.

Although "environmental psychology" is arguably the best-known and most comprehensive description of the field, it is also known as human Factors science, cognitive ergonomics,

ecological psychology, ecopsychology, environment–behavior studies, and person–environment studies. Closely related fields include architectural psychology, socio-architecture, behavioral geography, environmental sociology, social ecology, and environmental design research.

The origins of the field can be traced to the Romantic poets, such as Wordsworth and Coleridge who drew attention to the power of nature and the significance of human interaction with it. Darwin pointed to the role of the environment in shaping evolution. This idea was quickly applied to human interactions with the surroundings. An extreme Victorian acceptance of this were 'environmental determinists' who insisted the physical environment and climate influenced the evolution of racial characteristics. Willy Hellpach is said to be the first to mention "environmental psychology". One of his books, Geopsyche, discusses topics such as how the sun and the moon affect human activity, the impact of extreme environments, and the effects of color and form (Pol, E., 2006, Blueprints for a history of environmental psychology (I): From first birth to American transition. "Medio Ambiente y Comportamiento Humano", 7(2), 95-113). Among the other major scholars at the roots of environmental psychology were Jakob von Uexküll, Kurt Lewin, Egon Brunswik, and later Gerhard Kaminski and Carl Friedrich Graumann.[3]

The end of World War II brought about a demand for guidance on the urgent building programme after the destruction of war. To provide government planning requirements many countries set up research centres that studied how people used space. In the U.K. the Building Research Centre studied space use in houses and later noise levels, heating and lighting requirements. The glass maker Pilkingtons set up a daylight research unit, led by Thomas Markus to provide information on the influence of natural lighting in buildings and guidelines on daylight requirements. Peter Manning developed this further at the Pilkington Research Unit at the University of Liverpool in the 1960's. He studied offices, employing one of the first people to obtain a PhD in environmental psychology, Brian Wells. Markus went on to set up the Building Performance Research Unit at the University of Strathclyde in 1968 employing the psychologist David Canter who had been supervised by Wells and Manning for his PhD with the Pilkington

Environmental psychology is a direct study of the relationship between an environment and how that environment affects its inhabitants. Specific aspects of this field work by identifying a

problem and through the identification of said problem, discovering a solution. Therefore, it is necessary for environmental psychology to be problem oriented.

One important aspect of a problem-oriented field is that by identifying problems, solutions arise from the research acquired. The solutions can aid in making society function better as a whole and create a wealth of knowledge about the inner workings of societies. Environmental psychologist Harold Proshansky discusses how the field is also "value oriented" because of the field's commitment to bettering society through problem identification. Panyang discusses the importance of not only understanding the problem but also the necessity of a solution. Proshansky also points out some of the problems of a problem-oriented approach for environmental psychology. First the problems being identified must be studied under certain specifications: it must be ongoing and occurring in real life, not in a laboratory. Second, the notions about the problems must derive directly from the source – meaning they must come directly from the specific environment where the problem is occurring. The solutions and understanding of the problems cannot come from an environment that has been constructed and modeled to look like real life. Environmental psychology needs to reflect the actual society not a society built in a laboratory setting. The difficult task of the environmental psychologist is to study problems as they are occurring in everyday life. It is hard to reject all laboratory research because laboratory experiments are where theories may be tested without damaging the actual environment or can serve as models when testing solutions. Proshansky makes this point as well, discussing the difficulty in the overall problem oriented approach. He states that it is important, however, for the environmental psychologist to utilize all aspects of research and analysis of the findings and to take into account both the general and individualized aspects of the problems.

Environmental psychology addresses environmental problems such as density and crowding, noise pollution, sub-standard living, and urban decay. Noise increases environmental stress. Although it has been found that control and predictability are the greatest factors in stressful effects of noise; context, pitch, source and habituation are also important variables . Environmental psychologists have theorized that density and crowding can also have an adverse effect on mood and may cause stress-related illness. To understand and solve environmental problems, environmental psychologists believe concepts and principles should come directly

from the physical settings and problems being looked at. For example, factors that reduce feelings of crowding within buildings include:

Windows – particularly ones that can be opened and ones that provide a view as well as light

Creating a defensible space

Personal space and territory, having an area of personal territory in a public space, e.g., at the office, is a key feature of many architectural designs. Having such a 'defensible space' can reduce the negative effects of crowding in urban environments. The term, coined by John B. Calhoun in 1947, is the result of multiple environmental experiments conducted on rats. Originally beginning as an experiment to measure how many rats could be accommodated in a given space, it expanded into determining how rats, given the proper food, shelter and bedding would behave under a confined environment.

Under these circumstances, the males became aggressive, some exclusively homosexual. Others became pansexual and hypersexual, seeking every chance to mount any rat they encountered. As a result, mating behaviors were upset with an increase in infant mortalities. With parents failing to provide proper nests, thoughtlessly ditching their young and even attacking them, infant mortality rose as high as 96% in certain sections. Calhoun published the results as "Population Density and Social Pathology" in a 1962 edition of Scientific American.

Creating barriers and customizing the space are ways of creating personal space, e.g., using pictures of one's family in an office setting. This increases cognitive control as one sees oneself as having control over the competitors to the personal space and therefore able to control the level of density and crowding in the space.

5.7 Systems oriented

The systems oriented approach to experimenting is applied to individuals or people that are a part of communities, groups, and organizations. This approach particularly examines group interaction, as opposed to an individual's interaction and it emphasizes on factors of social integration. In the laboratory, experiments focus on cause and effect processes within human nature.

5.8 Interdisciplinary oriented

Environmental psychology relies on interaction with other disciplines in order to approach problems with multiple perspectives. The first discipline is the category of behavioral sciences, which include: sociology, political science, anthropology, and economics. Environmental psychology also interacts with the interspecializations of the field of psychology, which include: developmental psychology, cognitive science, industrial and organizational psychology, psychobiology, psychoanalysis, and social neuroscience. In addition to the more scientific fields of study, environmental psychology also works with the design field which includes: the studies of architecture, interior design, urban planning, industrial and object design, landscape architecture, and preservation.

5.9 Space-over-time orientation

Space over time orientation highlights the importance of the past. Examining problems with the past in mind creates a better understanding of how past forces, such as social, political, and economic forces, may be of relevance to present and future problems. Time and place are also important to consider. It's important to look at time over extended periods. Physical settings change over time; they change with respect to physical properties and they change because individuals using the space change over time. Looking at these spaces over time will help monitor the changes and possibly predict future problems.

There are a variety of tests that can be administered to children in order to determine their temperament. Temperament is split up into three types: "easy", "difficult", and "slow-to-warm-up". Alexander Thomas, Stella Chess, Herbert G. Birch, Margaret Hertzig and Sam Korn created an infant temperament test in the 1950s and rated them using nine temperament criteria. By finding out a child's temperament at birth, it enables us to know what to expect as the child progresses into adulthood.

5.10 Place identity

For many years Harold Proshansky and his colleagues at the Graduate School and University Center of the City University of New York, explored the concept of place identity. Place identity has been traditionally defined as a 'sub-structure of the self-identity of the person consisting of broadly conceived cognitions about the physical world in which the individual lives'. These cognitions define the daily experiences of every human being. Through one's attitudes, feelings,

ideas, memories, personal values and preferences toward the range and type of physical settings, they can then understand the environment they live in and their overall experience.

As a person interacts with various places and spaces, they are able to evaluate which properties in different environments fulfill his/her various needs. When a place contains components that satisfy a person biologically, socially, psychologically and/or culturally, it creates the environmental past of a person. Through 'good' or 'bad' experiences with a place, a person is then able to reflect and define their personal values, attitudes, feelings and beliefs about the physical world.

Place identity has been described as the individual's incorporation of place into the larger concept of self; a "potpourri of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas, and related feelings about specific physical settings, as well as types of settings". Other theorists have been instrumental in the creation of the idea of place identity. Three humanistic geographers, Tuan (1980), Relph (1976) and Buttimer (1980), share a couple of basic assumptions. As a person lives and creates memories within a place, attachment is built and it is through one's personal connection to a place, that they gain a sense of belonging and purpose, which then gives significance and meaning to their life.

Five central functions of place-identity have been depicted: recognition, meaning, expressive-requirement, mediating change, and anxiety and defense function. Place identity becomes a cognitive "database" against which every physical setting is experienced. The activities of a person often overlap with physical settings, which then create a background for the rest of life's interactions and events. The individual is frequently unaware of the array of feelings, values or memories of a singular place and simply becomes more comfortable or uncomfortable with certain broad kinds of physical settings, or prefers specific spaces to others. In the time since the term "place identity" was introduced, the theory has been the model for identity that has dominated environmental psychology.

5.11 Place attachment

Many different perceptions of the bond between people and places have been hypothesized and studied. The most widespread terms include place attachment and sense of place. One consistent thread woven throughout most recent research on place attachment deals with the importance of

the amount of time spent at a certain place (the length of association with a place). While both researchers and writers have made the case that time and experience in a place are important for deepening the meanings and emotional ties central to the person-place relationship, little in-depth research has studied these factors and their role in forging this connection.

Place attachment is defined as one's emotional or affective ties to a place, and is generally thought to be the result of a long-term connection with a certain environment. This is different from a simple aesthetic response such as saying a certain place is special because it is beautiful. For example, one can have an emotional response to a beautiful (or ugly) landscape or place, but this response may sometimes be shallow and fleeting. This distinction is one that Schroeder labeled "meaning versus preference". According to Schroeder the definition of "meaning" is "the thoughts, feelings, memories and interpretations evoked by a landscape"; whereas "preference" is "the degree of liking for one landscape compared to another". For a deeper and lasting emotional attachment to develop (Or in Schroeder's terms, for it to have meaning) an enduring relationship with a place is usually a critical factor. Chigbu carried out a rural study of place-attachment using a qualitative approach to check its impact on a community, Uturu (in Nigeria), and found that it has direct relationship to level of community development.

5.12 Environmental consciousness

Leanne Rivlin theorized that one way to examine an individual's environmental consciousness is to recognize how the physical place is significant, and look at the people/place relationship.

Environmental cognition (involved in human cognition) plays a crucial role in environmental perception. All different areas of the brain engage with environmentally relevant information. Some believe that the orbitofrontal cortex integrates environmentally relevant information from many distributed areas of the brain. Due to its anterior location within the frontal cortex, the orbitofrontal cortex may make judgments about the environment, and refine the organism's "understanding" through error analysis, and other processes specific to prefrontal cortex. But to be certain, there is no single brain area dedicated to the organism's interactions with its environment. Rather, all brain areas are dedicated to this task. One area (probably the orbitofrontal cortex) may collate the various pieces of the informational puzzle in order to develop a long term strategy of engagement with the ever-changing "environment." Moreover, the orbitofrontal cortex may show the greatest change in blood oxygenation (BOLD level) when

an organism thinks of the broad, and amorphous category referred to as "the environment." Because of the recent concern with the environment, environmental consciousness or awareness has come to be related to the growth and development of understanding and consciousness toward the biophysical environment and its problems.

5.13 Behavior settings

The earliest noteworthy discoveries in the field of environmental psychology can be dated back to Roger Barker who created the field of ecological psychology. Founding his research station in Oskaloosa, Kansas in 1947, his field observations expanded into the theory that social settings influence behavior. Empirical data gathered in Oskaloosa from 1947 to 1972 helped him develop the concept of the "behavior setting" to help explain the relationship between the individual and the immediate environment. This was further explored in his work with Paul Gump in the book Big School, Small School: High School Size and Student Behavior.[citation needed] One of the first insightful explanations on why groups tend to be less satisfying for their members as they increase in size, their studies illustrated that large schools had a similar number of behavior settings to that of small schools. This resulted in the students' ability to presume many different roles in small schools (e.g. be in the school band and the school football team) but in larger schools there was a propensity to deliberate over their social choices.

In his book Ecological Psychology (1968) Barker stresses the importance of the town's behavior and environment as the residents' most ordinary instrument of describing their environment. "The hybrid, eco-behavioral character of behavior settings appear to present Midwest's inhabitants with no difficulty; nouns that combine milieu and standing behavior are common, e.g. oyster supper, basketball game, turkey dinner, golden gavel ceremony, cake walk, back surgery, gift exchange, livestock auction, auto repair."

Barker argued that his students should implement T-methods (psychologist as 'transducer': i.e. methods in which they studied man in his 'natural environment') rather than O-methods (psychologist as "operators" i.e. experimental methods). Basically, Barker preferred fieldwork and direct observation rather than controlled experiments. Some of the minute-by-minute observations of Kansan children from morning to night, jotted down by young and maternal graduate students, may be the most intimate and poignant documents in social science. Barker spent his career expanding on what he called ecological psychology, identifying these behavior

settings, and publishing accounts such as One Boy's Day (1952) and Midwest and Its Children (1955).

5.14 Applications

5.14.1 Impact on the built environment

Environmental psychologists rejected the laboratory-experimental paradigm because of its simplification and skewed view of the cause-and-effect relationships of human's behaviors and experiences. Environmental psychologists examine how one or more parameters produce an effect while other measures are controlled. It is impossible to manipulate real-world settings in a laboratory.

Environmental psychology is oriented towards influencing the work of design professionals (architects, engineers, interior designers, urban planners, etc.) and thereby improving the human environment.

On a civic scale, efforts towards improving pedestrian landscapes have paid off, to some extent, from the involvement of figures like Jane Jacobs and Copenhagen's Jan Gehl. One prime figure here is the late writer and researcher William H. Whyte. His still-refreshing and perceptive "City", based on his accumulated observations of skilled Manhattan pedestrians, provides steps and patterns of use in urban plazas.

The role and impact of architecture on human behavior is debated within the architectural profession. Views range from: supposing that people will adapt to new architectures and city forms; believing that architects cannot predict the impact of buildings on humans and therefore should base decisions on other factors; to those who undertake detailed precedent studies of local building types and how they are used by that society.

Environmental psychology has conquered the whole architectural genre which is concerned with retail stores and any other commercial venues that have the power to manipulate the mood and behavior of customers (e.g. stadiums, casinos, malls, and now airports). From Philip Kotler's landmark paper on Atmospherics and Alan Hirsch's "Effects of Ambient Odors on Slot-Machine Usage in a Las Vegas Casino", through the creation and management of the Gruen transfer, retail relies heavily on psychology, original research, focus groups, and direct observation. One of

William Whyte's students, Paco Underhill, makes a living as a "shopping anthropologist". Most of this advanced research remains a trade secret and proprietary.

5.15 The Origins of Labeling Theory

The idea of labeling theory flourished in American sociology during the 1960s, thanks in large part to sociologist Howard Becker. However, its core ideas can be traced back to the work of founding French sociologist Emile Durkheim. American sociologist George Herbert Mead's theory framing social construction of the self as a process involving interactions with others also influenced its development. Scholars Frank Tannenbaum, Edwin Lemert, Albert Memmi, Erving Goffman, and David Matza played roles in the development and research of labeling theory as well.

5.16 Labeling and Deviance

Labeling theory is one of the most important approaches to understanding deviant and criminal behavior. It begins with the assumption that no act is intrinsically criminal. Definitions of criminality are established by those in power through the formulation of laws and the interpretation of those laws by police, courts, and correctional institutions. Deviance is therefore not a set of characteristics of individuals or groups but a process of interaction between deviants and non-deviants and the context in which criminality is interpreted.

Police, judges, and educators are the individuals tasked with enforcing standards of normalcy and labeling certain behaviors as deviant in nature. By applying labels to people and creating categories of deviance, these officials reinforce society's power structure. Often, the wealthy define deviancy for the poor, men for women, older people for younger people, and racial or ethnic majority groups for minorities. In other words, society's dominant groups create and apply deviant labels to subordinate groups.

Many children, for example, break windows, steal fruit from other people’s trees, climb into neighbors' yards, or skip school. In affluent neighborhoods, parents, teachers, and police regard these behaviors as typical juvenile behavior. But in poor areas, similar conduct might be viewed

as signs of juvenile delinquency. This suggests that class plays an important role in labeling. Race is also a factor.

5.17 Inequality and Stigma

Research shows that schools discipline black children more frequently and harshly than white children despite a lack of evidence suggesting that the former misbehave more often than the latter.1 Similarly, police kill black people at far higher rates than whites, even when African Americans are unarmed and haven't committed crimes.2 This disparity suggests that racial stereotypes result in the mislabeling of people of color as deviant.

Once a person is identified as deviant, it is extremely difficult to remove that label. The individual becomes stigmatized as a criminal and is likely to be considered untrustworthy by others. For example, convicts may struggle to find employment after they're released from prison because of their criminal background. This makes them more likely to internalize the deviant label and, again, engage in misconduct. Even if labeled individuals do not commit any more crimes, they must forever live with the consequences of being formally deemed a wrongdoer.

5.18 Critiques of Labeling Theory

Critics of labeling theory argue that it ignores factors—such as differences in socialization, attitudes, and opportunities—that lead to deviant acts.3 They also assert that it's not entirely certain whether labeling increases deviancy. Ex-cons might end up back in prison because they have formed connections to other offenders; these ties raise the odds that they will be exposed to additional opportunities to commit crimes. In all likelihood, both labeling and increased contact with the criminal population contribute to recidivism.

5.19 Crisis Management

Sequence of sudden unwanted events leading to major disturbances at the workplace is called crisis. Crisis arises on an extremely short notice and triggers a feeling of fear and uncertainty in the employees.

It is essential for the superiors to sense the early signs of crisis and warn the employees against the same. Once a crisis is being detected, employees must quickly jump into action and take quick decisions.

5.20 What is a Crisis Management Team?

A Crisis Management Team is formed to protect an organization against the adverse effects of crisis. Crisis Management team prepares an organization for inevitable threats.

Organizations form crisis management team to decide on future course of action and devise strategies to help organization come out of difficult times as soon as possible.

Crisis Management Team is formed to respond immediately to warning signals of crisis and execute relevant plans to overcome emergency situations. Role of Crisis Management Team

Crisis Management team primarily focuses on:

- Detecting the early signs of crisis.
- Identifying the problem areas
- Sit with employees face to face and discuss on the identified areas of concern
- Prepare crisis management plan which works best during emergency situations
- Encourage the employees to face problems with courage, determination and smile. Motivate them not to lose hope and deliver their level best.

The role of Crisis Management Team is to analyse the situation and formulate crisis management plan to save the organization's reputation and standing in the industry.

How does Crisis Management Team function?

A Team Leader is appointed to take charge of the situation immediately and encourage the employees to work as a single unit.

The first step is to understand the main areas of concern during emergency situations.

Crisis Management Team then works on the various problems and shortcomings which led to crisis at the workplace. The team members must understand where things went wrong and how current processes can be improved and made better for smooth functioning of the organization.

It is important to prioritize the issues. Rank the problems as per their effect on the employees as well as the organization. Know which problems must be resolved immediately and which all can be attended a little later.

A single brain cannot take all decisions alone. Crisis Management Team should sit with rest of the employees on a common platform, discuss prevailing issues, take each other's suggestions and reach to plans acceptable to all.

One of the major roles of the Crisis management team is to stay in touch with external clients as well as media. The team must handle critical situations well.

Develop alternate plans and strategies for the tough times. Make sure you have accurate information. Double check your information before finalizing the plan.

Implement the plans immediately for results. Proper feedback must be taken from time to time.

Crisis Management team helps the organization to take the right step at the right time and help the organization overcome critical situations.

5.21 Ways to Overcome Organizational Crisis

Sequence of unwanted events leading to uncertainty at the workplace is called as crisis. Crisis leads to major disturbances at the workplace and creates unrest amongst the employees.

Employees must not lose hope during crisis. It is important for them to face inevitable threats with courage, determination and smile.

Let us go through various ways to overcome crisis:

- Adopt a focused approach. Take initiative and find out where things went wrong. Identify the problem areas and devise appropriate strategies to overcome the same.
- Gather correct and relevant information. One should not depend on mere guess works and assumptions during emergency situations. Double check your information before submitting reports.
- Employees should change their perspective. One should always look at the brighter side of things. Remember life has its own ups and downs. Unnecessary cribbing and complaining does not help at the workplace. Avoid making issues over petty things. Don't adopt a negative attitude; instead understand the situation and act accordingly.
- Effective communication is essential to overcome crisis in the organization. Information must flow across all departments in its desired form. Employees must be aware of what is happening around them. Individuals should have an easy access to their superior's cabin to discuss critical issues and seek their suggestions. Superiors must address employees on an open forum during critical situations.
- Roles and responsibilities must be delegated as per the employee's specialization. Make sure the right person is doing the right job. Employees must be motivated to deliver their level best and focus on the organization's goals to overcome tough times in the best possible way.
- It is essential to take quick decisions during critical situations. Learn how to take risks. The moment an employee detects the early signs of crisis; it is important for him to act immediately. Escalate issues to your superiors and do inform your co workers as well. Don't wait for others to take action.
- Be calm and patient. Don't panic and spread baseless rumours around. Taking unnecessary stress makes situation worse. Remember a calm individual can handle things better. Relax and then decide on the future course of action to overcome crisis. Don't lash out at others under pressure.

- Discussions are essential during crisis. Sit with fellow workers and discuss issues amongst yourselves to reach to mutually acceptable solutions which would work best at the times of crisis.
- Be loyal to your organization even at the times of crisis. Stick to it during bad times. Don't just treat your organization as a mere source of earning money. It is important to respect your workplace.
- Review your performance regularly. Be your own critic. Strive hard to achieve your targets within the desired time frame. Don't work only when your boss is around.
- Avoid unnecessary conflicts and misunderstandings at the workplace. Treat your fellow workers as members of your extended family. Help each other when needed. Employees should not ask for unjustified things. Think from the management's perspective as well. Avoid criticizing your colleagues.
- Don't hide at the times of crisis. Come out; interact with external clients as well as media. Do not hesitate to ask for help. Ignoring outsiders worsens the situations.

5.22 Managing Stress during Crisis

Crisis refers to a sequence of unwanted events leading to major disturbances at the workplace.

It triggers a feeling of insecurity and fear amongst the employees.

Crisis causes major harm to the organization and poses a threat to its reputation and brand image.

Let us go through various ways of managing stress during crisis:

- Once a crisis is being detected, employees should immediately jump into action. Do not panic. Getting hyper and nervous never lead to any solution; instead make the situation all the worse.
- It is essential for the individuals to stay calm at the times of crisis. One should not react over petty issues. Remember a calm and composed individual can take better decisions than a stressed one.
- Help your fellow workers during emergency situations. Dont lash out at others under pressure. Criticizing others at the workplace is just not professional. Try to understand

what the other person has to say. Employees find it difficult to think logically under stress.

- One should always look at the brighter sides of things. Adopting a negative attitude goes a long way in increasing stress among individuals. Don't take things to heart. It is best to ignore minor issues.
- Job mismatch and overlapping of duties lead to stress during emergency situations. Roles and responsibilities must be clearly defined as per the specialization of employees during crisis. Everyone should be very clear as to what is expected out of him.
- Make individuals work as a team. Individuals working alone are generally overburdened and eventually more stressed out. Let them work together and share ideas on various topics. Speaking out and discussing issues reduce the stress level at the workplace.
- It is absolutely okay to take short breaks at work even during emergency situations. Human beings are not machines who can start and stop working just at the push of a button. They need time for themselves. Working at a stretch can lead to fatigue and eventually individuals lose interest in work. Short tea and snack breaks are necessary to reduce stress. During these breaks employees get time to interact with each other.
- Make necessary arrangements for individuals working at night. It is important for them to feel comfortable at the workplace. Make sure individuals get dinner on time for them to deliver their level best. There should be proper restrooms and places where employees can take a nap.
- Light music also reduces stress to a large extent. Ensure the office is adequately lit. Dark cabins and suffocated rooms increase stress and lead to a negative ambience at the workplace.
- Encourage necessary motivation programs for the employees to make them face tough times with determination and courage.
- Make sure employees do not feel insecure during emergency situations. It is better to act immediately as per the situation rather than complaining and cribbing. One should never lose hope even in the worst conditions.
- Appreciating the hard work of employees motivates them to perform better every time. Each employee should get his /her due credit. Employees should stay away from blame

games and nasty politics. Such activities are considered highly unproductive and lower the morale and self-confidence of the employees.

- Employees should be heard. Ignoring individuals results in stress and affects their performance.
- Don't try to do all things together. Adopt a step by step approach. Plan your work well. Managing time effectively also reduces stress.

5.23 Terminologies

1. Pansexual: is the sexual or romantic or emotional attraction towards people regardless of their sex or gender.

5.24 Activity

1. Discuss aspects of environmental psychology.
2. Discuss the labelling theory.
3. Discuss ways of managing stress during crisis.

5.25 Reflection

What do you think is the importance of environmental psychology?

5.26 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt about the importance of environmental psychology. You have also learnt about labelling theory and crisis management.

UNIT 6: CORE VALUES AND COMMUNITY PSYCHOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

Community Psychology concerns the relationships of the individual to communities and society. Through collaborative research and action, community psychologists seek to understand and to enhance quality of life for individuals, communities, and society" (Dalton, Elias & Wandersman, 2001, p. 5). The work of community psychology is best understood in terms of the complementary core values that guide our reactions to, and interactions with others. To understand the possible roles of a community psychologist is to understand the underlying principles that govern how we approach a situation. The following us a discussion of key concepts integral to community psychology perspective. It is hoped that in reading the overview, the reader will gain an appreciation for the field of community psychology and for the valuable roles a community psychologist might play in our world.

PREVENTION Rather than just reacting to a problem or issue and finding means with which to treat it, the ideal approach would be to identify ways to minimize or prevent the problem from ever occurring. To do this we look at precipitating factors and hope to intervene in meaningful ways that change environmental and/or personal factors, and that remove barriers to success and wellness, before disorder develops. A popular metaphor is used to help visualize how prevention looks in process:

Two men are walking along the river. One spots a drowning person floating by. The walker jumps in and grabs the drowning person and he pulls him safely from the water. Before catching his breath, he sees that his friend has jumped in to save another drowning person. The flow of drowning people continues and increases and the two men continue pulling them out of the water, tiring as they near exhaustion. And drowning people keep passing by too, as they can only rescue a few of them because there are more drowning people than walkers. Suddenly one of the men stops the rescue effort and takes off running up the river. His friend does not understand why he's seemingly abandoning these drowning people. Little does he know the one who went upstream is going to find out why all of these drowning people have been falling into the river! Individual illness and community disarray will always require treatment and

reactionary responses, but the community psychologist strives to prevent some of it. Prevention also lessens the demand for treatment thereby freeing up access to such resources for those who may otherwise not have access.

6.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lesson, you are expected to;

- examine factors that contribute to project conflicts.
- discuss signs of bad team work.
- analyze the role of community psychologists in helping communities.

6.3 Time Frame

You will need about two (2) hours per week to interact with this unit.

6.4 Content

- Indigenous resources
- Citizen participation
- Sharing power
- Social justice
- Sense of community
- Level of analysis
- Radiating effects
- Empirical Grounding
- Customer satisfaction
- Conflict resolutions

6.5 Change

Applications of community psychology are derived from a philosophy of change, based on the community psychologist being actively involved in community processes while seeking to understand them. The opposite of this would look like an outside expert peering through a window to the community inside, assessing from outside to guide interventions for within. Community psychology interventions are aptly placed in the community in non-clinical settings.

With prevention as a focus, the community psychologist aims to effect social change in a broad context, while participating in the community itself and conceptualizing change and collaboration with other community members, who ultimately own the process of change anyway.

6.6 Indigenous Resources

It would be wheel-reinvention to overlook what exists in a community already as a resource. It is important to value and to collaborate with the expertise within a community. This focus on strengths and competency building helps shift the focus away from pathology. The question asked: What is already here, and why does it work?

6.7 Citizen Participation

Community members themselves are the true experts of their own situation. It's absurd to think otherwise. Therefore, community psychologists welcome and desire citizen participation in design, implementation, and evaluation of any community intervention. Recognizing the expertise and practical understanding of community members will inform the community psychologist and she partners with those in the community to effect meaningful change.

6.8 Sharing Power

Community psychologists aim to effect social change in broad contexts, ideally as prevention. This is a goal best reached by collaborating with others, utilizing existing resources in the community, and involving citizen participation in every aspect of program design, implementation, and evaluation. This is a shift in perspective for many people, particularly because the goals of community psychology can only be reached by sharing power, by removing the us-vs-them mentality, by eliminating the status differential between "experts" and "those served by experts," and by involving all members of a community, including those who may be otherwise oppressed. In genuinely recognizing the community members as the true experts on their situation, the community interventions that result will be based on needs identified by community members themselves, structured by their participation, and evaluated by their perception of change. Sharing power lends itself well to sustainability of programs. Not sharing power lends itself to misguided interventions, not informed by the community and not focused

on needs important to community members. Therefore, not sharing power in a community process will not likely be sustainable, effective, or even ethical.

6.9 Social Justice

Community psychologists' focus on the rights to which all persons are entitles uses the privilege afforded them to effect change towards a more equitable allocation of resources, especially for those who may be marginalized. More equal access to resources, involves all community members in the systems surrounding their lives. More equal access increases citizen's participation (all should be free to participate), and citizen participation makes for a community that is likely empowered to improve the quality of life. Privilege is a special advantage, immunity, permission, right or benefit granted to or enjoyed by an individual, class or cast. Privilege in effect is a social resource, and community members have varying amounts of it. Coping is how we use the resources available to us to deal with stressors. Therefore, a person's ability to cope with stressors of any kind is in part a function of one's social privilege in a given context. It is important to keep this in mind when making decisions that affect the lives of others.

6.10 Sense of Community

Many psychologists believe that a defining problem in Western society is the alienation and loneliness that comes with the individualism that is so highlighted in our way of life. The antidote is a strengthened sense of community. Sense of community is a powerful and emotional force that increases quality of life; it is critical to both our individual and collective well-being. This is important in a time when too often we are separated by our diversity rather than improved because of it. Sense of community includes essential qualities: membership, influence, integration, and fulfillment of needs, and a shared emotional connection. It is a fact that members participate in various communities in part because their needs are met therein; their needs are met through connecting with other members. Members are also attracted to communities in which they feel influential, share commonly held ideals that can be pursued through involvement in the community, and experience a sense of belonging (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Community psychologists sometimes strive to foster a sense of community in a group, recognizing the benefits to community members in making the experience more enriching and supportive.

6.11 Level of Analysis

Oftentimes multiple processes at multiple levels contribute to a problem or make it more likely in a given situation. Therefore, many studies and interventions in community psychology concern more than one level of analysis. Individuals exist in Microsystems of families, workgroups, and others. Individuals interact with their surrounding Microsystems and each influences the other. Sometimes a workgroup's norms influence an individual's behavior. Sometimes an individual will bring a new perspective to a workgroup and the communication patterns might change. Beyond Microsystems are increasingly more broad shells of context up to and including the encapsulating level of society itself. Similarly, each level of analysis can influence the other levels and individuals. The following metaphor can be useful to illustrate the mutual influence of the multiple levels.

Imagine a child's intricate mobile hanging in a room. Many pieces are suspended in apparent balance on delicate strings, attaching the lower pieces to little bars attached by strings to the main base. The pieces do not touch one another, the air in the room is calm, and the mobile is a snapshot of stillness. And then enters a slight breeze touching just the edge of one suspended piece. Suddenly the balance is offset, the piece tips in response to the motion of the air. The piece is one of a few attached to the small bar above them which now moves, tipping the main structure and influencing every other piece of the system, if even slightly. Back and forth pieces at different levels and sides compensate and strive to regain a balance like the snapshot image, standing by for the next breeze, forever changed by the experience of the last one.

Taking multiple levels of factors into account for both understanding communities and planning for intervention is essential to understand and to plan for how any one person or group operates in larger systems and society, and how each influences the others. The community perspective is marked by an insistence on multiple levels of analysis.

6.12 Radiating Effects

Just as a stimulus to one piece on a mobile affects many others directly or indirectly, thinking of effecting change in social settings requires consideration of the direct or indirect results that may ensue, often unintended. Sometimes there are beneficial radiating effects. An intervention designed to discourage maladaptive behavior in adolescents by offering midnight basketball could have many potential radiating effects, unrelated to intent. Maybe fewer adolescents involved will drop out of school. Maybe their relationships with parents will be different. Maybe people who sell drugs will find this gathering as an unexpected opening to sell drugs to these adolescents. Maybe school coached will feel threatened by a successful night program and will treat these adolescents differently in the school setting. Maybe local policy will somehow change. Maybe anything – the key is to think through the possible radiating effects at multiple levels and to best ensure that the mobile isn't knocked down to the floor as an unintended outcome of a well-intentioned plan for action.

6.13 Empirical Grounding

Community psychologists hope to define/understand/address community issues in ways that can be studied in research. Research findings are then used both to theorize and to inform future community action. Communities are groups of real people and it would be unethical to impact these intricate systems without a sound theory, based on structured empirical findings, informed by the community of concern, and guided by the values essential to effective community psychology

6.14 work. conflicts

Conflicts occur daily in our lives. Some can vary from a minor disagreement between individuals or groups to a major extreme situation with life-threatening elements. Being a project manager or team leader these conflicts are especially rampant and relevant in the project environment. This paper looks at the causes of conflicts ranging from team-setup, cultural differences, project priorities and personal issues that engulf the project in meeting the project objectives.

The latter part of the paper discusses on some common methods of conflict resolutions where emphasis is placed on winning parties involved in post-conflict dialogues.

Dependent On the Behavior Of The Project Team.

What are some of the major barriers in a project team? The following points are noted:

Different priorities, interest and judgement of team members:

- Role conflicts
- Lack of commitment
- Communication problems
- Geographic scatter of team members

When the project progresses into the different stages of the project life cycle, i.e. from initiation, to planning, execution, and closing, it is amazing that you will find different patterns or behaviour from the project team members. Some are committed and show enthusiasm in their roles whilst others may show signs of frustration and start to display symptoms of bad team work. Some of these symptoms are as follows:

- Lack of trust or confidence in the project manager
- Lack of synergy
- Unhealthy competitions
- Unproductive meetings

As a project manager it's critical to constantly build the team to motivate them to achieve project goals. The Tuckman principle can be helpful to understand the Team development process and is shown as follows (Tuckman & Jensen, 1997): (Exhibit 1)

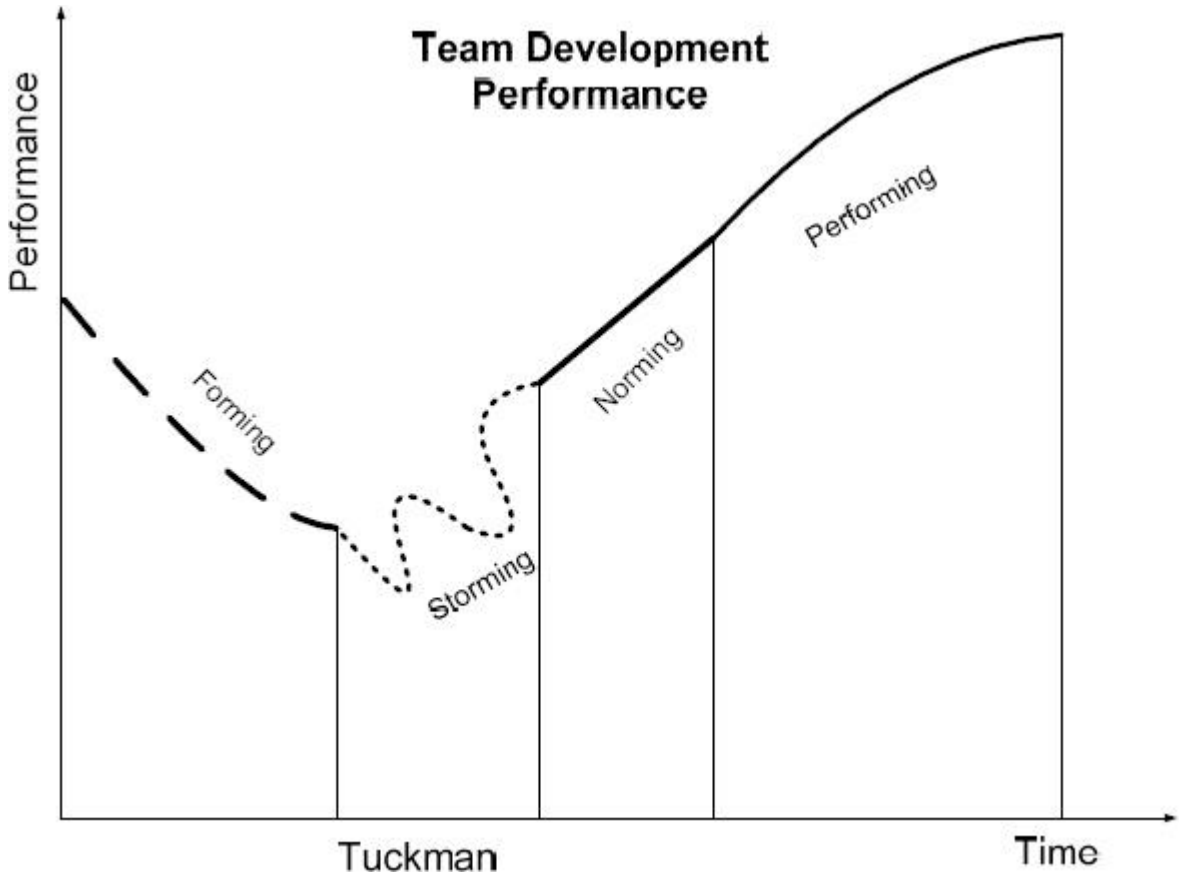


Exhibit 1

6.14 Conflicts arisen from Cultural differences

With the advent of technology and communications, the world is slowly evolving into a global village. And as such projects are executed across borders involving many nations and cultures. It is because of this that managing projects globally can pose many challenges as well as excitement.

6.15.1 Why are there conflicts because of cultural differences?

First and foremost we have to know what culture is. Culture by definition is defined as the way we do things or the habits reflected in ourselves within our community, group or country. If we are in a country other than our own, some of the common cultural conflicts are as follows:

- Language
- The way we speak - volume and tone
- Always consider others when you communicate in a group with a different language

- Food
- Eating of foods which may be sensitive to others
- Eating loudly or with a loud burp
- Festivals or celebrations
- Religious celebrations
- Dressing
- Different ethnic groups dress differently

Anyone who is involved in any cross cultural/country projects is advised to know some of the important dos and don'ts before even arriving in that country. This is to avoid any conflicts or unwanted embarrassments. Some of the offences or problems that we create are due to our ignorance. Sometimes these cultural differences may seem small, but if not managed properly can escalate out of control. Always be proactive to find out what are the important cultural offences that may hinder tasks execution or effective communications amongst different cultural groups. It is always recommended to be part of the group that we are involved in the project in order to foster closer ties and bonding. Follow the saying which says “When in Rome do as the Romans do.” Always be adaptable and try to learn some simple sentences such as ‘Good morning, thank you, etc in the local language. Or if you are invited to a meal to their homes, if they eat with their hands, be a part of them, eat with your hands or, if they use chopsticks, then try to use chopsticks to show our friendliness and common bond. Being a project leader or project manager leads your team to practise these simple things and evidently conflicts arising from cultural issues shall be greatly minimized!

Some team members tend to centre on interpersonal differences rather than ‘Technical issues’ and this is really a “thorn in the flesh” to the project manager. This poses a great challenge to the project manager or team leader to deal with such individuals so that the Forming stage can be obtained before moving on to the Performing stage as outlined by Tuckman.

A project manager must exercise his or her authority over the immediate team members in the beginning of the project so that a coercive team is developed to efficiently execute the deliverables of the project.

And if such personality issues are not dealt with in the beginning of the project, when we move to the execution phase, there will be such huge amount of things that need to be done so much so that the team morale will tend to dwindle due to unproductive performance because of personality issues. And always remember that the success of a project is very much dependent on the behaviour of the people in your project team.

A project manager has to be tactful when dealing with personality issues, a wrong move or action could spark off into emotional charged conflicts leading to possible team break ups. There are many types of conflict resolution methods. They are as follows:

Conflict Resolutions

Resolution Type	Common result
• Forcing	win-lose
• Smoothing	yield-lose
• Withdrawing	lose-leave
• Compromising	moderate lose-moderate lose
• Problem solving or confrontation	Integrative

Out of all the above methods, the most recommended is problem solving or confrontation which leads to a win-win solution for both parties.

As we can see conflicts are part and parcel of managing projects whether big or small, simple or complex. And conflict management is critical to the project manager and if uncontrolled can tear the project apart. Be the project Manager NOT the project Damager!

Summary; endless to say, conflicts are everywhere, though we may not be able to prevent them from happening, we certainly can control and minimize them. One of the primary methods of reducing conflicts is to perform careful project planning. Once the project plan, contributed by major key stakeholders, is established, it's only the implementation that a project manager will

carry out based on the project plan so that every team member will commit themselves according to the plan, in this way, minimum deviations can be avoided and less fire fighting is involved.

In most of the projects that have been executed, the planning of the project was not done with much attention and sufficient time, so much so that when the project moves into the implementation stage, major issues begin to surface or scope creep was great demanding severe changes to the contract. And it is during these tense moments that many conflicts ranging from schedules delays, scope changes, resource competitions, and technical issues start to overwhelm the project manager and even the project team members.

6.16 Terminology

1. Synergy: is the creation of the whole that is greater than sum of its parts.

6.17 Activity

1. Discuss factors that contribute to project conflicts.

6.18 Reflection

Discuss other ways you think you can use to manage conflicts in communities.

6.19 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt about, indigenous resources, citizen participation, sharing power, social justice, sense of community and causes of conflicts in communities.

UNIT 7: RESPECT FOR DIVERSITY

7.1 Introduction

Respect for diversity has been established as a core value for Community Psychology, (Jason et al., 2019). Appreciating diversity in communities includes understanding dimensions of diversity and how to work within diverse community contexts, but also includes a consideration of how to work within systems of inequality. Community psychologists must be mindful of diverse perspectives and experiences when conducting research and designing interventions, as well as working to combat oppression and promote justice and equality. By working within a framework of cultural humility, this unit attempts to provide a basic understanding of the dimensions of diversity that are most common in Community Psychology research and practice. Further, we explore how these dimensions contribute to complex identities and considerations for community practice.

7.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- discuss the concept of culture competence.
- analyze the dimension of culture diversity.

7.3 Time Frame

You will need about two (2) hours per week to interact with this unit.

7.4 Content

- Culture humility
- Culture competency
- Dimension of culture

7.5 Cultural Humility

As our world becomes increasingly diverse and interconnected, understanding different cultures becomes crucial. Without a basic understanding of the beliefs and experiences of individuals, professionals can unintentionally contribute to prejudice and discrimination or negatively impact professional relationships and effectiveness of services. To understand cultural experiences, it is important to consider the **context** of social identity, history, and individual and community experiences with prejudice and discrimination. It is also important to acknowledge that our understanding of cultural differences evolves through an ongoing learning process (Tervalon & Murray-Garcia, 1998).

Cultural competence is generally defined as possessing the skills and knowledge of a culture in order to effectively work with individual members of the culture. This definition includes an appreciation of cultural differences and the ability to effectively work with individuals. The assumption that any individual can gain enough knowledge or competence to understand the experiences of members of any culture, however, is problematic. Gaining expertise in cultural competence as traditionally defined seems unattainable, as it involves the need for knowledge and mastery. Instead, true cultural competence requires engaging in an ongoing process of learning about the experiences of other cultures (Tervalon & Murray-Garcia, 1998). Further reading on cultural competence by Stanley Sue can be found here.

Cultural humility is the ability to remain open to learning about other cultures while acknowledging one's own lack of competence and recognizing power dynamics that impact the relationship. Within cultural humility it is important to engage in continuous self-reflection, recognize the impact of power dynamics on individuals and communities, embrace "not knowing", and commit to lifelong learning. This approach to diversity encourages a curious spirit and the ability to openly engage with others in the process of learning about a different culture. As a result, it is important to address power imbalances and develop meaningful relationships with community members in order to create positive change. A guide to cultural humility is offered by Culturally Connected.

7.6 Dimensions of Diversity

The recognition and appreciation of diversity is a core principle for the field of Community Psychology. Although it is impossible to discuss all of the dimensions of human diversity in this section, we present some common dimensions examined in Community Psychology research and action and point toward where our field could place more emphasis. We also acknowledge the importance of **intersectionality**, which will be touched upon throughout this chapter, and the process of cultural humility in understanding diversity.

7.7 Culture

Culture is an important dimension of diversity for community psychologists to examine. In general, culture has been challenging to define, with modern definitions viewing culture as a dynamic concept that changes both individuals and societies together over time. Further, culture in today's society refers to more than just cultural and ethnic groups but also includes racial groups, religious groups, sexual minority groups, socioeconomic groups, nation-states, and corporations. While numerous definitions for culture are available, there are key defining components, such as shared meanings and shared experiences by individuals in a group that are passed down over time with each generation. That is, cultures have shared beliefs, values, practices, definitions, and other elements that are expressed through family socialization, formal schooling, shared language, social roles, and norms for feeling, thinking, and acting (Cohen, 2009).

Using a Community Psychology approach, culture can be examined at multiple ecological levels to understand its impact. This means that culture can influence the norms and practices of individuals, families, organizations, local communities, and the broader society. For example, cultural influences can have an impact on how members function and interact with one another. Further, culture should be understood within a broader context of power relationships, and how power is used and distributed (Trickett, 2011).

7.8 Race

While physical differences often are used to define race, in general, there is no consensus for this term. Typically, **race** has been defined using observable physical or biological criteria, such as skin color, hair color or texture, facial features, etc. However, these biological assumptions of race have been determined to be inaccurate and harmful by biologists, anthropologists, psychologists, and other scientists. Research has proven no biological foundations to race and that human racial groups are more alike than different; in fact, most genetic variation exists within racial groups rather than between groups. Therefore, racial differences in areas such as academics or intelligence are not based on biological differences but are instead related to economic, historical, and social factors (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993).

Instead, race has been socially constructed and has different social and psychological meanings in many societies (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993). In the US, people of color experience more racial prejudice and discrimination than white people. The meanings and definitions of race have also changed over time and are often driven by policies and laws (e.g., one drop rule or laws).

7.9 Ethnicity

Ethnicity refers to one's social identity based on the culture of origin, ancestry, or affiliation with a cultural group (Pinderhughes, 1989). Ethnicity is not the same as **nationality**, which is a person's status of belonging to a specific nation by birth or citizenship (e.g., an individual can be of Japanese ethnicity but British nationality because they were born in the United Kingdom). Ethnicity is defined by aspects of subjective culture such as customs, language, and social ties (Resnicow et al., 1999).

While ethnic groups are combined into broad categories for research or demographic purposes in the US, there are many ethnicities among the ones you may be familiar with. Latina/o/x or Hispanic may refer to persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Spanish, Dominican, or many other ancestries. Asian Americans have roots from over 20 countries in Asia and India, with the

six largest Asian ethnic subgroups in the US being the Chinese, Asian Indians, Filipinos, Vietnamese, Koreans, and Japanese (read more here).

7.10 Gender

Gender refers to the socially constructed perceptions of what it means to be male or female in our society and how those genders may be reflected and interpreted by society. Gender is different from **sex**, which is a biological descriptor involving chromosomes and internal/external reproductive organs. As a socially constructed concept, gender has magnified the perceived differences between females and males leading to limitations in attitudes, roles, and how social institutions are organized. For example, how do gender norms influence types of jobs viewed as appropriate or not appropriate for women or men? How are household or parenting responsibilities divided between men and women?

Gender is not just a demographic category but also influences gender norms, the distribution of power and resources, access to opportunities, and other important processes (Bond, 1999). For those who live outside of these traditional expectations for gender, the experience can be challenging. In general, the binary categories for sex, gender, gender identity, and so forth have received the most attention from both society and the research community, with only more attention to other gender identities (e.g., gender-neutral, transgender, nonbinary, and GenderQueer) in recent years (Kosciw et al., 2015).

But the attention to other gender identities is increasing, both academically and publicly. One example is the case of Nicole Maines challenging her elementary school's restroom policy, which resulted in a victory when the Maine Supreme Judicial Court ruled that she had been excluded from the restroom because of her transgender identity. While community psychologists are making efforts to conduct more research on the various gender identities on the gender spectrum, more research needs to continue in this area.

Community Psychology's emphasis on context has also included **aging**, or the developmental changes and transitions that come with being a child, adolescent, or adult. Power dynamics, relationships, physical and psychological health concerns, community participation, life

satisfaction, and so forth can all vary for these different age groups (Cheng & Heller, 2009). Although the field has started to include aging issues in research, Cheng and Heller (2009) searched for publications on older adults in major Community Psychology journals and found that this segment of the population has been neglected. Although the skills, values, and training of community psychologists would likely make a difference in the lives of older adults, the attitudes within our profession and society are current barriers.

7.11 Social Class

Like the other components of diversity, **social class** is socially constructed and can affect our choices and opportunities. This dimension can include a person's income or material wealth, educational status, and/or occupational status. It can include assumptions about where a person belongs in society and indicate differences in power, privilege, economic opportunities and resources, and social capital. Social class and culture can also shape a person's worldview or understanding of the world; influencing how they feel, act, and fit in; and impacting the types of schools they attend, access to health care, or jobs they work at throughout life. The differences in norms, values, and practices between lower and upper social classes can also have impacts on well-being and health outcomes (Cohen, 2009). Social class and its intersection with other components of one's identity are important for community psychologists to understand. *Unnatural Causes: Is Inequality Making Us Sick?* is a seven-part documentary that focuses on the connection between social class, racism, and health.

7.12 Sexual Orientation

Sexual orientation refers to a person's emotional, romantic, erotic, and spiritual attractions toward another in relation to their own sex or gender. The definition focuses on feelings rather than behaviors since individuals who identify with a minority sexual orientation experience significant stigma and oppression in our society (Flanders et al., 2016). Sexual orientation exists on a continuum or multiple continuums and crosses all dimensions of diversity (e.g., race, ethnicity, social class, ability, religion, etc.). Sexual orientation is different from **gender identity** or **gender expression**. Over time, gay, lesbian, asexual, and bisexual identities have extended to other sexual orientations such as pansexual, polysexual, and fluid, and increasingly

more research is being conducted on these populations within the field of Community Psychology (Kosciw et al., 2015). As a historically marginalized and oppressed group with inadequate representation in the literature, sexual minority groups face a variety of problems and issues that necessitate further research. The empowering and participatory approaches and methods used in Community Psychology can be beneficial for research with sexual minority groups.

7.13 Ability/Disability

Disabilities refer to visible or hidden and temporary or permanent conditions that provide barriers or challenges, and impact individuals of every age and social group. Traditional views of disability follow a medical model, primarily explaining diagnoses and treatment models from a pathological perspective (Goodley & Lawthom, 2010). In this traditional approach, individuals diagnosed with a disability are often discussed as objects of study instead of complex individuals impacted by their environment. Community Psychology, however, follows a social model of ability in which diagnoses are viewed from a social and environmental perspective and consider multiple ecological levels. The experiences of individuals are strongly valued, and **community-based participatory research** is a valuable way to explore experiences while empowering members of a community with varying levels of ability/disability. Learn more by watching the Employment Choice for People with Severe Physical Disabilities video.

Culture must be considered when viewing ability from a social perspective (Goodley & Lawthom, 2000), and may impact whether or not certain behaviors are considered sufficient for inclusion in a diagnosis. For example, cultural differences in the assessment of "typical" development have impacted the diagnosis of Autism Spectrum Disorders in different countries. Further, diagnoses or symptoms can be culturally-specific, and culture may influence how symptoms are communicated. The experience of culture can significantly impact lived experience for individuals diagnosed with a disability.

It is important to consider how intersectionality impacts the experience of disability. For example, students of color and other underserved groups have a higher rate of diagnosis of learning disabilities, emotional and behavioral disabilities, and intellectual disabilities (Artiles et

al., 2010), which may be due to economic, historical, and social factors. Diagnosis must be considered as disabled youth are at a disadvantage in a number of indicators of educational performance, leading to more substantial disparities later in life.

How one identifies individuals with a particular label indicating their race, gender or sexuality is rather complicated, and unless investigators are careful in their definitions of these terms, many problems can be encountered, as has been reviewed above. Identifying who has a disability or health condition can also be a challenge and can have real, tangible consequences for an affected group. As an example, if prevalence research suggests that a particular disability or health condition is relatively rare, it is possible that few federal and state resources will be devoted to those individuals. But if the methodology for selecting individuals is flawed, then the prevalence rates will be inaccurate and potentially biased. This is what occurred with the health condition known as chronic fatigue syndrome, now also known as myalgic encephalomyelitis, as indicated in Case Study 8.2.

7.14 Religion & Spirituality

There are many definitions of **religion**, most of which typically include shared systems of beliefs and values, symbols, feelings, actions, experiences, and a source of community unity (Cohen, 2009). Religion emphasizes beliefs and practices, relationships with the divine, and faith, all of which differentiate it from common definitions of culture. Further, religion is an important predictor for well-being, satisfaction, and other life outcomes (Tarakeshwar et al., 2003). While religion has been neglected in psychological research, it has been included in Community Psychology's conceptualization of diversity since the beginning of the field.

Religion and spirituality were formerly considered a joint concept but have been differentiated in the past century. Definitions of **spirituality** typically focus on relationships with a higher power and a quest for meaning. The differentiation between religion and spirituality has become more relevant recently as many individuals consider themselves more spiritual than they are religious. Community Psychology has long considered religion as a dimension of diversity, but the importance of spirituality in our understanding of community has been a more recent development.

The importance of religion and spirituality to physical and emotional well-being and a strong sense of community merits the inclusion of both, in research and practice (Tarakeshwar et al., 2003). Community psychologists understand the importance of working in natural settings, which frequently include religious and spiritual settings. Collaboration with religious organizations and embedding interventions into these settings may have positive impacts on individuals in the community and may also help religious organizations reach goals.

7.15 Terminology

1. Culture competence: is generally defined as possessing the skills and knowledge of a culture in order to effectively work with individual members of the culture.

7.16 Activity

1. Discuss the dimensions of culture.

Reflection

What is the difference between culture humility and culture competency?

Summary

In this unit, you have learnt about the concept of culture: you have particularly learnt, culture humility, culture competency and the following dimensions of culture: race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, ability/disability and religion and spirituality.

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