

COLLEGE: CSS

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Unit One

Introduction to Community Psychology

1.1. Concept of community psychology

Community psychology is a sub-field of psychology that is concerned with understanding people in the context of their community, the prevention of problems in life, the celebration of human diversity and the pursuit of social justice through social action. The two terms (community and psychology) seem contradictory because often psychology is associated with individuality.

Community psychology concerns the *relationships of individuals with communities and societies* by integrating research with action, it seeks to understand and enhance quality of life for individuals, communities and societies. Community psychology is guided by its core values of individual and family wellness, sense of community, respect for human diversity, social justice, citizen participation, collaboration and community strengths and empirical grounding.

An individual lives within many communities at multiple levels: family, networks of friends, workplace, school, voluntary associations, neighborhood and wider locality. Thus the individual must be understood in terms of these relationships not in isolation. Community psychology's focus is not on the individual or on the community alone, but on their linkages. The field also studies the influence of social structures on each other like how citizen organizations like civic and faith based organizations influence the wider community.

1.1.1. Definition of Community

Sarason (1974) defined community as a readily available, mutually supportive network of relationships on which one could depend on. A community is a special group of any size whose members reside in a specific locality or reflect a common cultural or historical heritage. A community is a social group sharing common characteristics or interest and perceives itself as distinct in some respect with the larger society in which it exists. Community refers to a group of people affiliated on the basis of common bonds, such as geographical location, religion, profession, and nationality or other. One may ask himself or herself important questions like the following to better understand a community:

- ❖ What are some of the important communities he/she belong to?
- ❖ Why are they important and how are they important?
- ❖ What did you like in these communities you belong to?
- ❖ What did you hate about these communities?

1.1.2. Types of community

Two meanings distinguish definitions of community in sociology and **community psychology**. They are

1. Locality based community: a traditional concept of community which may include city blocks, neighbors, small towns, cities, rural regions...etc.
2. Relational community: this is defined by interpersonal relations. This may include internet groups, mutual help groups, student clubs, religious congregations...etc.

1.1.3. Levels of community:

- Microsystems (classrooms and mutual help groups)
- Organizations (workplaces, religious congregations, civic groups)
- Localities (city blocks, neighborhoods, cities, towns, rural areas...etc)
- Macro systems: the business community, the Ethiopian society.

1.1.4. *Sense of community and its elements*

Sense of community refers to the feeling derived from belonging to a particular group where the individual experiences bonds of affection, influence, companionship and support. There are four elements of sense of community.

A. Membership which includes:

- ❖ Boundaries
- ❖ Common symbols
- ❖ Emotional safety
- ❖ Personal investment
- ❖ Sense of belonging, identification with community

B. Influence: there should be mutual influence of community on individuals and individuals on community.

C. Integration and fulfillment of needs

- ❖ Shared values, satisfying needs, and exchanging resources

D. Shared emotional connection

- ❖ Shared dramatic moments for example celebrations and rituals of religious, cultural, national, historical or other events.

Narratives and sense of community

Narratives are powerful force for building sense of community. Narratives are stories shared by members of a community. Some kinds of narratives include:

- ❖ Dominant cultural narratives
- ❖ Community narratives
- ❖ Personal stories

In a relationship within a community there are conflicts and change that will be experienced at different levels. Community life is dynamic, changing, complex and unexpected. It can be simultaneous predictable and unpredictable, scary and reassuring, stimulating and irritating. Co-existence of phenomena is inevitable aspect of community phenomena like continuity and change.

- ❖ There are social myths of “we” – emphasizing similarity and ignoring differences in the sense of community.
- ❖ There are both macro and micro belongings to a community
- ❖ There are sub- communities

Competent communities

Competent community refers to a set of ideal community characteristics for addressing community issues and make decisions. Here are key qualities of a competent community:

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Commitment | 6. Self-other awareness |
| 2. Articulateness | 7. Communication |
| 3. Conflict containment and accommodation | 8. Participation in decision making |
| 4. Management of relations with larger society | 9. Utilization of resources |
| 5. Socialization for leadership | 10. Evaluation |

1.1.5. Social support networks and social capital in a community

Social support refers to help provided by others to promote coping with stress. We need to map our social support networks. This requires network list of people whom you would like to get help if you face personal or emotional problem. The other issue is network map where we locate each member of the network list based on the distance in their influence. The network map can be analyzed using such criteria as:

- ❖ Network size
- ❖ Reciprocity
- ❖ Network density
- ❖ Multi-dimensionality and
- ❖ Source and quality of support

Social Capital: refers to connections among individuals-social networks and the norms of the reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them. Social capital is closely related to sense of community. In social capital there are both bonding and bridging. Bonding refers to intactness or solidarity within a group. On the other hand bridging refers to linking one group to the other or connecting sub-communities. Social capital is collective resources consisting of civic participation

networks norms of reciprocity and organizations that foster trust among citizens and action to enhance the common goal. Some of the risks and limitations of social capital networks are:

- ❖ If every group in society was interested only in what is good for its own members, there would be little or re-cooperation across group.
- ❖ If bonding leads to pre-occupation with one's own well-being and the neglect of others. The problem is even greater if social capital is used to promote unjust policies or discrimination.
- ❖ Discourse on social capital shows its potential deflection of systemic sources of oppression, inequality and domination.

Sense of community, social support and social capital can produce beneficial results at the individual, communal and social levels.

1.1.6. Building Communities: three examples

- a. Spiritual communities: spirituality and religion are very important in building communities. Here we need to see how important religious congregations are. Spirituality is understood as beliefs, practices and communities associated with a personally meaningful sense of transcendence beyond oneself and one's immediate world.
- b. Community service learning
- c. Online communities

In the community psychology perspective, knowledge is constructed through action. The community psychologist's role is often described as that of a *participant conceptualizer*, actively involved in community processes while also attempting to understand and explain them.

According to Rappaport(1977) community psychology is the ecological consideration of psychology (the fit between people and their environments), the importance of cultural relativity and diversity so that people are not judged against one single standard or value. Moreover, Rappaport argued that community psychology is concerned with human resource development, political activity and scientific inquiry. Community psychology is a balancing act between values, research and actions. Community psychology is the study of people in context. There is more holistic, ecological analysis of the person within multiple social systems, ranging from micro-

systems (for example the family) to macro-socio-political structures. Community psychology focuses on the strengths of people living in adverse conditions as well as the strengths of communities, rather than focusing on individual or community deficits or problems.

At the beginning of the 1980s, community psychologists in Latin America embraced the following definition of the field. “The study of psychological factors enabling the development, growth and maintenance of the control and power that people can exert over their individual lives and social environments, in order to solve problems and achieve change in these environments and social structures (Monterol, 1980).” The definition stressed the need to place control and power within the community there by defining the role of psychologist as catalysts for social change. Escovar (1977, 1980) focused this socially sensitive psychology on the notion of social development, which he defined as control over the environment

The objectives and priorities of community psychology have kept up with the times they have moved from a concern with the right to be different (Rapport, 1977), to preoccupation with access to services, to liberation and wellbeing catalyzed by external agents and validated by community members themselves. Community psychologists are broker between the community and society at large

The following table depicts the distinct characteristics of community psychology as compared to other applied psychology areas.

Table1. Assumptions and practices of traditional applied psychology and community psychology

<i>Assumption and practices</i>	<i>Traditional Applied psychology</i>	<i>Community psychology</i>
Levels of analysis	Interpersonal or micro system	Ecological (micro, meso, macro)
Problem definition	Basedon individualist philosophies that blame the victim	Problems are reframed in terms of social context & culturally diverse context

Focus on intervention	Deficits or problems	Competence and strengths
Time of intervention	Remedial(late)	Prevention(early)
Goals of intervention	Reduction of maladaptive behaviors	Promotion of competence and wellness
Type of intervention	Treatment- rehabilitation	Self-help/community development/social action
Role of client	Compliance with professional treatment	Active participant who exercises choice and self-direction
Role of professional	Expert scientist-practitioner	Resource collaborator(scholar-activist)
Type of research	Applied research based on positivistic assumptions	Participatory action research based on alternative assumption
Ethics	Emphasis on individual ethics, values neutrally and tacit acceptance of status quo	Emphasis on social ethics, emancipatory, values and social change
Inter disciplinary ties	Psychiatry, clinical social work	Critical sociology, health sciences, philosophy, laws, social work, political science, planning and geography

At this point it seems vital to also show what community psychology has in common with other applied psychology areas.

1.2. similarities and differences between community psychology and other sub fields

The similarities and differences between community psychologists and other applied psychologists

- a. Most psychologists aim to promote human welfare
- b. A number of applied fields in psychology are also prevention oriented

- c. Strong research orientation,
- d. Attention to minorities, children, elderly and other vulnerable and less empowered group of people

Community psychology is related to other disciplines in the social sciences like social work, sociology, anthropology, political science, management ...etc. Below is an example description of its relation with social work.

The similarities and differences between community psychology and social work

Like psychology social work is a broad field; unlike psychology, social work has more of a professional practice orientation and less of a research orientation. As in applied psychology, the dominant approach to social work training focuses on clinical intervention with individuals, families and groups. Community psychology has much more in common with part of social work which emphasizes community development and social policy. In community psychology, research is emphasized much more than social work and seen as inseparable from practice. Finally, while there is diversity within a community psychology, the field is based on a fairly coherent set of values and concepts. In contrast social work is a broader field with more diverse strands and less of a uniform ideology.

What do community psychologists do?

Some of the activities that community psychologists do: include:

- Development and coordination of programs for promotion, prevention, intervention and copying
- Administer community service programs
- Advocating for social policy for change
- Research on community issues and program evaluation
- Academic teaching, research and administration
- Consultancy with agency, schools, work places, clinical counseling, training, and other psychological treatments.

Community psychologist can function as:

Insiders: to promote social change they can work as program manager, teachers, professors, and researchers within their organization. More congruently with the concept of social change, community psychology graduates or trainees can work in social change organization like labor unions and others.

Outsiders: Community psychologists can work independently hired to work as external evaluators, consultants, or researchers for another setting. Through this they can have considerable influence in working for social change. Though community psychologist work collaboratively with community groups and de-emphasize the “expert” role, they are trained professionals who have a set of core competences like the ability to think critically, knowledge of community psychology theory, research and actions, and varieties of community practice skills.

1.3.Values in Community Psychology

Definition of Values

May ton, Ball-Rokeach and Loges (1994) defined values as relatively enduring prescriptive or prospective beliefs that a specific mode of conduct (instrumental value) or an end state of existence (terminal value) is preferred to another mode of conduct or end state. For Schwartz (1994) values are guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity.

Major values in community psychology

A. *Individual and family wellness:* this refers to a positive health state with better relationship. Showing that the individual is in a supportive relation with his or her environment where needs are met. Wellbeing may be manifested in terms of personal control, choice, self-esteem, independence, competence, political right and positive identity. It is a network of positive relationships where one is able to acquire basic resources like employment, income, education, house, and health insurance. Values that promote individual wellness include:

- Physical and psychological health and attainment of personal goals
- Prevention of maladaptive behavior
- Strengthening families
- Promotion of socio-emotional competence

- Promotion of health, sanitation, hygiene, nutrition, and exercises
 - Promotion of social support networks, children services, ...etc
 - Advocacy for change, in social services...etc
- B. ***Sense of Community***: perception of belongingness, interdependence, and mutual commitment that links individuals in collective unity.
- C. ***Respect for human diversity***: honoring the variety of social identities and communities based on gender, ethnic group, ability, religious group, socio-economic status, nationality...etc. We need to avoid social fragmentation, discrimination and stereotyping. Unique social identities need to be respected and accepted.
- D. ***Social justice and accountability***: refers to fair and equitable allocation of resources, opportunities, obligations, and power in a society as a whole. Justice could be: Distributive or procedural justice. Distributive justice is concerned with the allocation of resources like money, access to good quality health services, or education among members of a community. Procedural justice on the other hand is concerned with whether the process of collective decision making, include a fair representation of citizens.
- E. ***Citizen participation***: a democratic process of making decisions, where the community has meaningful decisions on issues that affect them.
- F. ***Collaboration and community strengths***: the relationship between community psychologists and citizens should be a genuine collaboration. There should be authentic dialogue. Manipulation and cooptation should be avoided. People should be involved from problem identification to planning for intervention.
- G. ***Empirical grounding***: this refers to integrating research with community action mainly basing (grounding) action in empirical research findings. Researches may involve quantitative or qualitative or mixed methods. Participatory research is appreciated and community members are considered as partners.

Some additional values raised in community psychology are:

1. **Holism**: -focusing on the whole person
2. **Health** :-positive state that includes personal relational and collective dimension
3. **Caring**: -compassion and support for community members and structures. It is empathy and concern for the welfare of others.

4. **Self-determination**- this is having opportunity and power to direct one's life as one wishes.
5. **Accountability to oppressed groups:** -responsibility of dominant group, community psychologists and individuals to work with disadvantaged people toward social change.

Some remarks here are that our values must be directed at the local and global level at the same time. We have to think of ways of expressing our values in proximal and distal environments at the same time.

- a. Holism must apply to the whole person and the whole community.
- b. Health must apply to physical and spiritual well-being
- c. Solidarity must reflect caring, support and compassion
- d. Self-determination should be about personal decision
- e. Social justice ought to encompass both rights & duties towards those close or far from us

The following table shows the major sources for values related to vision, context, needs and action.

Table2. Source of Values

Source	Key questions	Situation explored	Tools for developing values	Contribution to community psychology
Vision	What should be?	Ideal vision	Moral, spiritual and political thinking	Vision of wellbeing and liberation
Context	What is?	Actual state	Studies of individuals and communities	Understanding social conditions
Needs	What is missing?	Desirable state	Experience of community members	Identification of human needs
Action	What can be	Feasible change	Theories of change	Strategies for

	done?			change
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Criteria for choosing values

Here are four suggested criteria by community members, psychologists and social activist in choosing values.

1. Balance between theoretical and grounded input: This implies theories of values have to be validated with lived experience and lived experience has to be interpreted meaningfully and converted into action based on theoretical bases. .
2. Balance between understanding and action: The ultimate purpose of values is to enjoy a fuller life. So to make an impact on the world, our theoretical knowledge should be followed by action.
3. Balance between process and outcomes: A balance between process and outcomes should be needed to justify ends and means.
4. Balance between differing and unequal voices: Values and visions need to reflect the various perspectives and interests involved in the matter under consideration.

The values in community psychology can further be conceptualized in terms of the three domains of wellbeing (personal, relational, collective) and the objectives of each value and the needs that can be addressed under each value. Table 3 shows relationship

Table 3. Core values for personal, relational and collective well-being

<i>Domains</i>	<i>Well-being is achieved by holistic practice that attends to the following domains:</i>						
	<i>Personal well-being</i>			<i>Relational well-being</i>		<i>Collective well-being</i>	
Values	Self-determination	Caring and compassion	Health	Respect for diversity	Participation and collaboration	Support for community structures	Social justice and accountability
Objective	Creation of opportunities in self and	Expression of care and concern for	Protection of physical and	Protection of respect and appreciation	Promotion of fair processes whereby	Promotion of vital community	Promotion of fair and

	others	the physical and emotional well being of self and others	emotional health of self and others	for diverse social identities and for people's ability to define themselves	children and adults can have meaningful input into decisions affecting their lives	structures that facilitate the pursuit of personal and communal goals	equitable allocation of bargaining powers, obligations and resources for the oppressed
<i>Needs addressed</i>	Mastery, control, self-efficacy, voice, choice, skills, growth and autonomy	Love, attention, empathy, attachment, acceptance, and positive regard	Emotional and physical well-being	Identity, self respect, self esteem, and acceptance	Participations, involvement and mutual responsibility	Sense of community, cohesion, and formal support	Economic security, shelter, clothing, nutrition, access to vital health and social services

1.4. Conceptual tools of community psychology

1. Ecology: –It reflects the value of holism. Here metaphor of ecosystem is more appropriate than the dominant mechanistic thinking. Communities are open system with many different levels and connections. It views human problems and competencies within the context of characteristics of the individual in micro, mezzo and macro level analysis .The smaller systems are nested within the larger systems, and the various levels are interdependent.

2. Prevention and promotion: -It reflects the value of health and used to promote the wellbeing and prevent psycho-social problems. Primary, secondary and tertiary interventions can be applied at different ecological levels (person centered, meso level and macro level)

3. Inclusion:-It reflects the value of diversity. It is conceptualized at individual, relational and macro level.

4. Commitment and depowerment:-Sharing power and knowledge. It is related with the value of accountability of people for oppressed groups. It is commitment to social change and working in solidarity with members of oppressed groups and effort on the side of professionals to depower themselves.

The synergy of values

Wellbeing comes about in the combination of personal, relational and collective values and hence, the net effect of the values combined is called synergy.

Some principles in implementation of community psychology values

1. Advancing the wellbeing of disadvantaged communities which requires actualizing all values in a balanced and holistic way.
2. Appreciating that within a given social ecology some values appear at the foreground of our consciousness while others remain in the background. We must move the neglected values to the foreground to attain the necessary balance.
3. Recognizing that within the present social context the value of social justice would remain in the background. By neglecting this value, we reinforce the same unjust state of affairs that disadvantaged communities in the first place.
4. We must distinguish between ameliorating living conditions within the present social structure and transforming the conditions that create disadvantage. Here the focus of change can be both first and second order. First order refers to the person or individual while second order refers to the government, church and other institutions.
5. We must expand the implementation of values from micro & mezzo context to macro social ecology i.e from family interpersonal relation to workplace, schools, and then to the society..etc. High level of macro is globalization, which refers to the centralization effects of market capitalization through advertizing, mass media, often values individualism and

economic output. Indigenization to the contrary refers to consciousness of traditional collective values and community bonds of indigenous ethnic cultures.

6. Vested interest and social power- these may interfere with promotion of values. We need to monitor how subjective interpersonal and political processes facilitate or inhibit the enactment of values for wellbeing. Personal interest and wish might jeopardize some community psychology values.
7. We should strive to create a state of affairs in which personal power and self-interest do not undermine the wellbeing or interest of others.
8. We should strive to enhance value congruence within ourselves and between groups and communities.
9. There is a need to confront people and groups subverting values, abusing power, and allowing self-interest to undermine the wellbeing of others in an organization or community.
10. Community psychologists should be accountable to stakeholders

Conclusions: Values should be seen in context

No discipline commands un anonymity among its members and community psychologists in particular can be skeptical, questioning lot. These core values therefore must be understood in terms of how they complement, balance, and limit each other in practice. For instance individual wellness must be balanced with concern for the wider community. Collaborating with local community members is a time consuming approach that can slow the completion of the research. Promoting a local sense of community or cultural identity does not necessarily promote a wider concern for social justice. A wise community psychology requires accommodation among these values, rather than single minded pursuit of one or two values.

Moreover abstract ideas such as individual, family wellness, social justice, respect for diversity, and sense of community can mean different things to different persons in different contexts. The seven values must be elaborated and applied through example and discussion. Part of the appeal of community psychology is that values/ issues are on the table for discussion and not dead ends.

1.5. Qualities for a community psychologist

Soon after the emergence of the field of community psychology James Kelly (1971) described seven desirable personal qualities for community psychologists. These qualities remained an insightful, useful summary for today's community psychologists. These qualities addressed many themes of the field. The qualities are:

- A. **Clearly identified competence:** the community psychologist must demonstrate skills useful to a community, whether as a participatory researcher, program evaluator, policy analyst, advocate, grant writer, clinical helper, consultant, workshop leader, or other role. These competence must also be taught in some way to community members, sharing it as a resource, not simply imparting it as expert
- B. **Creating an eco-identity:** this involves immersing oneself in a community identifying with it, and caring about it. This emotional engagement with a community supports enduring commitment, deeper understanding, and respecting its members' choices.
- C. **Tolerance for diversity:** this actually goes well beyond passive tolerance to understanding and embracing diversity. It involves relating to people who may be very different from oneself and understanding how those differences are resources for the community even when they involve conflict. It also involves understanding differences among community members and looking for ways to use those resources.
- D. **Copying effectively with varying resources:** all community members are or have resources, but these may not be visible in community life. It becomes essential to identify hidden skills, knowledge, and other resources and to draw on them while working together. This involves stepping out of the professional expert role to collaborate with citizens as true partners, respecting their skills and insights.
- E. **A commitment to risk taking:** this involves being an advocate for a real cause or person, seeking positive community change. This will often involve taking sides with a marginal, unpopular, low status person or group against more powerful interests. It may involve risking failure, and advocating for a course of action before knowing if it will succeed. This risk taking is not impulsive, but a careful expression of one's values for the community.
- F. **A metabolic balance of patience and zeal:** to remain engaged in a community, one needs to feel passionate about the values and goals of one's work, but also be patient with the

time required for community change. Knowing when to speak out and when to be silent is an art to be learnt, as is finding ways to sustain oneself through successes and failures. One element for this is supportive relationships with people who promote learning about the community and risk taking in one's work. A second element is awareness of the emotions involved in community work. Emotions can express values, energize commitment, and strengthen community solidarity.

Unit Two

Theories of Person In-Context

2.1 Settings

Individuals are in a state of continuing transaction with the various settings in which they spend time as part of their everyday lives. This state of transaction is characterized by reciprocal influence. Not only are the experiences and forms of behavior of individuals profoundly affected by characteristics of the settings in which they find themselves, but so too are settings created and shaped by their occupants. People behave in different ways in different settings. When they are at church, at school, at work place, at a meeting, at home, at sports settings they act according to the place.

2.1.1 The Concept of Behavior Settings

Behavior Settings -In Barker's concept of behavior setting, action and the environment in which it takes place are inseparably bound up together. Whatever it is made up of, milieu is circumjacent to behavior; it encompasses it, surrounds it, encloses it-behavior occurs within it. The expression, "within these four walls", neatly captures the idea of behavior having a spatial boundary; a shop opens for customers at a particular time of day and closes at a later time, a meeting lasts for an hour or two. Only a very few of Midwest's behavior settings were available all the time; the streets of the town constituted one such setting.

There for, a behavior setting is defined by having a place, time, and a standing pattern of behavior. Example of behavior setting is third grade class in mid west, drug store, shop, base ball game, etc. Some behavior settings were embedded within larger behavior settings, such as classes within a school. Barker and colleagues identified 884 behavior setting in Midwest in 1963-1964, almost all could be grouped into five categories; government, business, educational, religious, and voluntary association.

Barker further hypothesized that behavior settings have rules, implicit or explicit, that maintain the standing behavior patterns. These rules can be seen in specific behavior patterns.

- ❖ Program circuits, such as an agenda for meeting, guide the standing behavior patterns.
- ❖ Goal circuits satisfy goals of individuals, such as a customer purchasing an item or a member participating in a worship service.

One limitation of Barker and associations works is the way in which individuals perceive, integrate, or make meaning out of a setting. They concerned on the objective, pre- perceptual or ecological environment. A second limitation is that behavior setting theory focuses on how behavior settings perpetuate themselves and mold the behavior of individuals. This is one side of the picture, but it underplays how settings are created and changed and how individuals influences settings.


2.1.2 Environmental Psychology

Environmental psychology examines the influence of physical characteristics of a setting (especially built environments) on behavior.

Environmental psychology has appeared for revealing those aspects of the physical or designed aspects of the world which may have a direct causal influences up on human health and wellbeing, and hence for the possibility of designing or redesigning environments to prevent human problems.

Psychological perspective on

- Human-made environmental problems
- Effects of the environment on people

Person  Environment

Environmental Stressors-

A major focus of environmental psychology is the study of the psychological effects of environmental stressors such as noise, air pollution, hazardous waste and crowded housing.

Environmental Design: - Environmental psychologists also study the psychological effects of architectural and neighborhood design features. Example, include studies of enclosed work spaces, windows, and other aspects of housing design (Sundstrom, *et al*, 1996).

Environmental design also concerns neighborhood- level processes. A study of a large public housing project in Chicago found that greenness, the presence of trees, and other vegetation in public spaces was associated with strong social ties, sense of safety, and adjustment to the

neighborhood (Kuo *et al.*, 1998). However, studies in other localities show that physical design does not always permit sense of community as intended (Hillier, 2002).

2.1.3 The Concept of Climate

Many psychological effects of environments are best assessed in terms of person's perceptions of the environment and its meaning. By collecting perceptions of a particular setting by those who lived or worked in it or who were taught or treated in it, he was able to provide a profile which represented the participant's consensus about the atmosphere or climate of setting.

Rudolf Moos and colleagues developed the social climate scales to assess the shared perceptions of a setting among its member.

Social climate scales are based on three primary dimensions used to characterize any setting. Each has sub- scales depending on the type of setting measured.

Relationships: This dimension concerns mutual supportiveness, involvement and cohesion of members. The class room environment scale, which measures high school class room environment, contains sub scales on the extent to which students are involved in and participate in class, the extent of affiliation or friend ship they report among class mates, and the amount of support they perceive from the teaches. The family environment scale includes subscales on how cohesive and how expressive the members perceive their family to be and the extent of conflict they perceive.

Personal Development: - this concerns whether individuals autonomy, growth, and skill development are fostered in the setting. The classroom environment scale contains a subscale on competition among students. The family environment scale includes subscales concerning the independence accorded individual family members and the family's emphasis on achievement, intellectual- cultural pursuits, recreation and moral religious concerns. In work settings, worker autonomy and pressure on workers are measured.

System Maintenance and Change: - This dimension concerns the emphasis in the setting on order, clarity, of rules and expectation and control of behavior. The classroom environment scale contains subscales concerning of the extent to which class activities are organized and orderly, the clarity of rules, the strictness of the teacher, and the extent to which innovative activities and thinking are welcomed. The family environment scale includes scales on the extent of control exerted by parents.

In work setting, variables such as managerial control and encouragement of innovation are measured.

2.2 Interpersonal System

2.2.1. Bronfenbrenner and Nested Systems

As individuals, we live within webs of social relationships. Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) originated a concept of level of social contexts (ecological level of analysis) that is influential in developmental and community psychology.

Thinking in terms of ecological level of analysis helps to clarify how a single event or problem has multiple causes. For instance, factors that contribute to a child's problems in school may include forces at multiple levels. Powerful adults at school, locality, national, and global levels make policy decisions that affect the quality of education that child receives. Family members, friends, and teachers have a great impact, but even their thinking and values are influenced by the school system, locality, cultural, societal, and even global levels.

The core of Bronfenbrenner theory of development-in context, or ecology of human development, is a set of nested structures which he refers to as micro, meso, exo, and macro-systems.

Micro-systems: - System of which the individual person has direct experience on a regular basis. It is the setting in which the individual lives. E.g. home, school, peer group. Microsystems are environments in which the person repeatedly engages in direct, personal interaction with others.

Meso-system- System consisting of two or more of a person's micro-level systems and the links between them, e.g., home-school, hospital-patient's family. We might ask if the peer group and the school system support or contradict the parents' value system. The stronger the linkages, development will be enhanced. Meso-system is a system of micro-systems.

Exo-system- systems that influence the person and the person's micro and meso-level systems, but which the person has no direct experience of him or herself. This level includes the major institutions of the society such as the economic system, the transportation system, local government, and the mass media. **e.g.,** a school governing body, a parents' place of work, the country transport department.

Macro-system- systems on a larger scale which determine the prevailing ideology and social structure within which the individual person and his/her micro, meso, and exo-level system operate

e.g., culture, ethnic groups/races, social class, rural vs. urban communities, society, unemployment, gender roles in society, etc.

Bronfenbrenner recognized socio-cultural influence and the importance of social change.

2.2.2 Interpersonal Behavior Theories

To show interpersonal behaviors, the interpersonal behavior theorists have developed different interpersonal circumplex models.

Basic to all such systems is the arrangement of rate able types of interpersonal behavior around a circle, each type being represented by a sector of the circle.

Interpersonal Circumplex was originally coined Leary circumplex or Leary Circle. It was developed in 1957 by Timothy Leary where the circumplex is a circular continuum of personality formed from the intersection of two base axis: power and love. The opposing sides of the power axis are dominance and submission, while the opposing sides of the love axis are love and hate.

Leary argued that all other dimensions of personality can be viewed as a blending of these two axis. For example, a person who is stubborn and Inflexible in their personal relationships might graph her personality somewhere on the arc between dominance and love. However, a person who exhibits passive aggressive tendencies might find herself best described on the arc between submission and hate.

The main idea of the Leary circumplex is that each and every human trait can be mapped as a vector coordinate within this circle.

Theoretically speaking, the most well adjusted person of the planet could have their personality mapped at the exact center of the circumplex, right at the intersection of the two axes, while individuals exhibiting extremes in personality would be located on the circumference of the circle.

The Leary circumplex offers three major benefits as taxonomy:

- It offers a map of interpersonal traits with in a geometric circle.
- It allows for comparison of different traits within the system.
- It provides a scale of healthy and unhealthy expression of each trait.

One of the interpersonal circumplex models is the modified version of the Strong and Hills (1986) interpersonal circumplex models.

individual action. Likewise, there exists a correspondence between the granting of power and autonomy within social systems and the practice of dominant action on the part of individuals. It is this interface between individuals and systems that constitutes the very stuff of community psychology.

The work of Lewin (1951), namely behavior is the function of the interaction of person and environment is so central to community psychology. There are numerous possible examples to illustrate such point.

There has been many demonstrations that variables, such as aggression or anxiety, previously treated solely as properties of individuals are in fact a complex result of both person and setting in combination and in interaction(i.e., some settings are relatively more anxiety provoking for some individuals, whilst other settings induce more anxiety in others). This has led on to the adoption of ideas and terminology from ecology: for example, the idea that adaptation is related to the goodness of fit between person and habitat.

French, Rogers and Cobb (1981) adopted an interactional concept of stress using the idea of person-environment fit. Their prediction was that strain, and hence an increased likelihood of ill-health, would occur when there was an absence of fit between the two. This might take two forms: an individual's needs might not be met by the environment, or the demands of environment might not be matched by individual abilities. For example, in the work setting, strain might result because an individual was unable to respond to a very high work load, or because the job was unable to provide a sufficient workload to satisfy the person's needs. Thus, strain is a function of both the personal and environmental.

The links between P and E are reciprocal, integrated parts of a system. Hence, the relationship between the two is to be understood in terms of a continual, reciprocal transaction, rather than as a matter of simple cause and effect operating in one direction or the other.

2.2.4. Internationalism and Person environment fit

Person–environment fit : Is defined as compatibility between individual and environmental characteristics or functions. Person characteristics may include an individual’s biological or psychological needs, values, goals, abilities, or personality, while environmental characteristics could include intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, demands of a job or role, cultural values, or characteristics of other individuals and collectives in the person's social environment.

Person–environment fit can be understood as a specific type of person–situation interaction that involves the match between corresponding person and environment dimensions.

2.2.4.1 Domains of person environment fit

A) Person–organization fit: Person–organization fit (P–O fit) is the most widely studied area of person–environment fit, and is defined by Kristof (1996) as, "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when;

- ❖ At least one entity provides what the other needs,
- ❖ They share similar fundamental characteristics, or
- ❖ Both". High value congruence is a large facet of person–organization fit, which implies a strong culture and shared values among coworkers.

This can translate to increased levels of trust and a shared sense of corporate community. This high value congruence would in turn reap benefits for the organization itself, including reduced turnover, increased citizenship behaviors, and organizational commitment.

B) Person–job fit

Person–job fit, or P–J fit, refers to the compatibility between a person’s characteristics and those of a specific job. The complementary perspective has been the foundation for person–job fit. This includes the traditional view of selection that emphasizes the matching of employee and other qualities to job demands. The discrepancy models of job satisfaction and stress that focus on employees’ needs and desires being met by the supplies provided by their job.

C) Person–group fit

Person–group fit, or P–G fit, is a relatively new topic with regard to person–environment fit. Since person–group fit is so new, limited research has been conducted to demonstrate how the psychological compatibility between coworkers influences individual outcomes in group situations. However, a study by Boone & Hartog (2011) revealed that person–group fit is most strongly related to group-oriented outcomes like co-worker satisfaction and feelings of cohesion.

D) Person–person

Person–person fit is conceptualized as the fit between an individual's culture preferences and those preferences of others. It corresponds to the similarity attraction hypothesis which states people are drawn to similar others based on their values, attitudes, and opinions. The most studied types are mentors and protégés, supervisors and subordinates, or even applicants and recruiters.

2.3 Prevention

2.3.1 Caplan's approach to prevention

According to Caplan (1961) the term community health refers to a process of lifting mental health among community members, and decreasing the amount of mental disorders within the community. According to Caplan's prevention community prevention programs are based according to global risk factors or target risk factors.

Global risk factors: poverty, prejudice, inadequate living environments.

Target risk factors: biophysical stressors related to mental health disorders.

According to Caplan, patients have a drastic influence on the coping and functioning's of professionals, thus Caplan suggests that caretakers need to be able to consult with other professionals in order to maintain their own mental health and stability.

2.3.2. Public health approach to prevention

Public health is the combination of sciences, skills, and beliefs that is directed to the maintenance and improvement of the health of all the people through collective or social actions. The programs,

services, and institutions involved emphasize the prevention of disease and the health needs of the population as a whole.

Essential Public Health Functions

- Monitor health status to identify community health problems.
- Diagnose and investigate health problems and health hazards in the community.
- Inform, educate, and empower people about health issues.
- Mobilize community partnerships to identify and solve health problems.
- Develop policies and plans that support individual and community health efforts.
- Enforce laws and regulations that protect health and ensure safety.
- Evaluate effectiveness, accessibility, and quality of personal and population-based health services.
- Research for new insights and innovative solutions to health problems.

Public Health Approach/ necessary steps to prevent a certain community problems

- Define the health problem.
- Identify risk factors associated with the problem.
- Develop and test community-level interventions to control or prevent the cause or the problem.
- Implement interventions to improve the health of the population.
- Monitor those interventions to assess their effectiveness.

2.3.3. Bronfenbrenner's approach to prevention

The UrieBronfenbrenner model organizes contexts of development into five levels of external influence. The levels are categorized from the most intimate level to the broadest.

A) The Bronfenbrenner Model: Microsystem

The **microsystem** is the smallest and most immediate environment in which the child lives. As such, the microsystem comprises the daily home, school or daycare, peer group or community environment of the child. Interactions within the microsystem typically involve personal relationships with family members, classmates, teachers and caregivers, in which influences go back and forth. How these groups or individuals interact with the child will affect how the child

grows. Similarly, how the child reacts to people in his microsystem will also influence how they treat the child in return. More nurturing and more supportive interactions and relationships will understandably foster the child's improved development.

B) The Bronfenbrenner Model: Mesosystem

The **mesosystem** encompasses the interaction of the different **microsystems** which the developing child finds himself or herself. It is a system of microsystems and as such, involves linkages between home and school, between peer group and family, or between family and church. If a child's parents are actively involved in the friendships of their child, invite friends over to their house and spend time with them, then the child's development is affected positively through harmony and like-mindedness. However, if the child's parents dislike their child's peers and openly criticize them, then the child experiences disequilibrium and conflicting emotions, probably affecting his development negatively.

C) The Bronfenbrenner Model: Exosystem

The **exosystem** pertains to the linkages that may exist between two or more settings, one of which may not contain the developing child but affects him or her indirectly nonetheless. Other people and places which the child may not directly interact with but may still have an effect on the child, comprise the exosystem. Such places and people may include the parents' workplaces, the larger neighborhood, and extended family members.

D) The Bronfenbrenner Model: Macrosystem

The **macro system** is the largest and most distant collection of people and places to the child that still exercises significant influence on the child. It is composed of the child's cultural patterns and values, specifically the child's dominant beliefs and ideas, as well as political and economic systems. Children in war-torn areas, for example, will experience a different kind of development than children in communities where peace reigns.

E) The Bronfenbrenner Model: Chronosystem

The **chronosystem** adds the useful dimension of time, which demonstrates the influence of both change and constancy in the child's environment. The chronosystem may thus include a change in

family structure, address, parent's employment status, in addition to immense society changes such as economic cycles and wars. By studying the different systems that simultaneously influence a child, the Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory is able to demonstrate the diversity of interrelated influences on the child's development. Awareness of contexts can sensitize us to variations in the way a child may act in different settings.

For example, a child who frequently bullies smaller children at school may portray the role of a terrified victim at home. Due to these variations, adults concerned with the care of a particular child should pay close attention to behavior in different settings or contexts and to the quality and type of connections that exist between these context.

UNIT THREE

SOCIAL CHANGE

3.1. Definition of Social Change

- **Social Change:** is citizens' promotion of change in their communities and societies through the acquisition and use of power by collective actions.
- **Social Change:** is a process by which the existing disadvantageous social situations are advanced to a better social position through citizens' collective effort.
- **Social Change:** is a general term which refers to a change in social structure; the nature of the institutions; the social behavior; or the social relationships of a society, community of people, and so on. It is the transformation of culture and social institutions over time.
- **Social Change:** is any change in a society or alterations in the way people live their lives. It is any event or action that affects a group of individuals who have shared values or characteristics.

Social Changes occur at different ecological levels: individuals, Microsystems, localities, organizational, and macro systems.

3.2. REASONS FOR SOCIAL CHANGE

Did you write your answers? Please compare your answers with the answers given below.

Factors that lead to social change in a society include:

- ❖ Diverse populations,
- ❖ Declining resources,
- ❖ Demand for accountability,
- ❖ Expanding knowledge and/or changing technologies,
- ❖ Economic changes,
- ❖ Community conflict,
- ❖ Dissatisfaction with traditional approaches to social problems,
- ❖ Desire for choices and the need for diversity of solutions to social problems, etc.

A. Diverse populations

The increasing number of diversified population groups such as elderly population, pregnant teens, and victims of violence, the bereaved, and the disabled, the unemployed and other

groups create dramatic social changes and the need for new community interventions. They have issues that must be addressed.

A concrete example of how the needs of diverse groups are often not met but can be met in the community would be worthwhile. For a variety of reasons, some Ethiopians do not vote. For example, beggars (street people) are often denied the right to vote because they do not have Identity card and fixed house addresses. This situation creates the added problem that those individuals who most ought to voice their political opinions on nutrition, healthcare, housing and other programs do not go to the polls. Finding a means for the beggars (street people) to have an alternative means of voting may provide them with a greater voice in issues directly concerning them. Taking the service to the people who most need it empowers them to participate in social change. Special populations cause change in society and, in turn, create more social change by virtue of either their swelling ranks or special populations. For example, AIDS patients desire emotional support from a group of other AIDS patients, and their families get together and form a support group.

In Ethiopia, particularly in rural areas, the number of population is increasing. As a result, more and more youth move into urban areas where jobs are easier to find, while other young people and families move to previously uninhabited areas where natural resources remain untapped. Therefore, migration within and among societies is another demographic factor that promotes change.

B. Declining Resources

Declining resources including money, space, and commodities such as food results in social change. In the past decade, municipalities in Ethiopia offer 250 square meter of land for whom requesting land to construct houses. But, currently, due to land resource limitation, municipalities prefer to provide land for constructing Condominium rather than individual houses. In America, since government funding for community services is decreasing, there is more pressure on other granting institutions such as private foundations. One other source of funding for community service agencies is voluntary or charitable contributions from the public. Such contributions also vary as a function of the economy and other uncontrollable factors.

These days, few community service programs are self-supporting. Most are highly dependent on external funding. Due to lack of funding and other resources, most attempts to create social change. New programs compete with older programs for limited pools of money.

C. Accountability

Accountability is the obligation to account for or be responsible for various transactions, monetary or otherwise. Accountability can also refer to matters such as time expended, quality of decisions made, and so forth.

Since resources are scarce, it is especially fair and reasonable to ask for accountability of both new and continuing community programs.

The following are list of questions important for planning and Evaluation Strategies that Address Accountability:

Why is the intervention needed?

How does the program include science and “best practices?”

How will this new program fit with other existing programs?

How will the program be carried out?

How well was the program carried out?

How well does the program work?

How can the program be improved?

How can be done to “spin off” or institutionalize the program?

Who requests accountability?

Today, almost anyone including clients, staff, administrators, tax payers, elected officials, licensing bureaus, and others can request accountability. Any of these constituencies is likely to want to know the answers to such questions as: Where was my money spent? Did the target population benefit? Were goals accomplished, and if not, why not?

When answers to these questions are not forthcoming, are not the expected ones, or are not the best or most productive, the parties leveling the query are likely to demand change. Some individuals may want new administrators; others might want new spending guidelines.

D. Knowledge-Based and Technological Change

Do you recall the first time you sat at a computer?

Technology advances, e.g., telephone (1876), airplane (1903), and computer (late 1940s), each of which has had a tremendous impact on our way of life.

Technological changes in the form of computer services and speedier communication systems have, in turn, created new demands on workforces in business as well as in human services. Some organizations and individuals adapt well to technological advances. Others- for a

multitude of reasons such as reluctance to utilize new technologies or lack of funds-do not adapt well or quickly.

Today, you probably complete your term papers, balance your checkbook, keep track of appointments, and perhaps pass your idle time browsing the internet with your computer. The computer has therefore changed the methods of conducting business, completing your work, and socializing. Technological advances-a corporation buys new software for midlevel managers who now require training.

E. Community Conflict

It involves two or more parties with incompatible goals that usually have specific values (positive and negative) attached to them. Because of the strongly held values, power struggles, and varying interest levels of the parties, conflict in the community can be difficult to resolve or manage. However, such conflict whether resolved or unresolved, often results in social change.

When diverse groups come together in any situation, there may be conflict. An example of change resulting from conflict within a diverse group occurred in the professional psychological community. E.g., an agency seeks a halfway house in a residential neighborhood not zoned for multiple-family dwellings; two residents groups, one in support and one against, conflict at a public meeting.

Tension and conflict in a society also produce change. Karl Marx saw class conflict as the engine that drives societies from one historical era to another. Social conflict arising from inequality (race, religion, gender) would force changes in every society, including our own.

F. Dissatisfaction with Traditional Services

Consumer dissatisfaction with existing community services, especially external expert-dominated approaches. E.g., An area's private practice psychologists charge high fees not covered by insurance, so citizens inquire about funding possibilities for a mental health clinic that will charge on a sliding scale.

Besides to dissatisfaction with the current situation, external influences like expertise desire to bring about change, technological advancement, situational demands, political influences, etc have key roles so as to bring social change.

G. Desire for Diversity of Solutions

When individuals find that agencies are insensitive or that there are few options from which to choose, and sometimes this is coupled with dissatisfaction with those existing options, the

individuals often demand and create change. E.g., a multi door courthouse program offers a variety of options for solutions to neighbors fighting in the neighborhood.

H. Ideas

Max Weber traced the roots of most social change to ideas. People with charisma can carry a message that sometimes changes the world. Ideas also direct social movements. E.g., clean the environment, women right, etc.

I. Economic and political advantage

International shifts in economic or political advantage also have great impact on social change. E.g., globalization, WTO, affect the global economy, political structure and dynamics, culture, poverty, etc.

J. Environmental factors- e.g., drought and famine.

3.3 Characteristics of social change

The process of social change has four major characteristics:

1. Social change is inevitable

Social change happens all the time and everywhere. In some cultures, there is a saying that “Nothing is constant except death and taxes.” This shows the inevitability of social change. Much can change in even a year. Change is the greatest characteristics of modern human societies, whether it occurs in personal relationships, cultural norms, and values, systems of stratification, or institutions. Everywhere you look your school, your job, your home, your government, every aspect of your very way of life-institutional and cultural- change is rule, not the exception. For example,

- ✓ Women have entered the workforce in unprecedented numbers.
- ✓ People are waiting longer to get married and once they do, they are having fewer children.
- ✓ Cultural concerns about gender equality have altered the way men and women relate to one another inside and outside home.

However, the rate of change varies. Material culture usually changes faster than nonmaterial cultures (ideas & attitudes). For example, medical technology that prolongs life has developed more rapidly than ethical standards/principles for deciding when and how to use it.

2. Social change is sometimes intentional but often unplanned. For instance, Air plane invented intentionally to increase and speed up travels. But, its effect on society was not

realized. Family members scattered, crashes and deaths happened, threatening the natural environments.

3. **Social change is controversial.** It brings both good and bad consequences. When new technologies are produced, capitalist like it since it increases productivity, but workers fear because the machine may replace their labor.
4. **Some changes matter more than others.** Computer has both positive and negative effects, providing new kinds of jobs while eliminating old ones, isolating people in offices while linking people in global electronic networks, offering vast amounts of information while threatening personal privacy.

3.4. TYPES OF SOCIAL CHANGE

There are two types of social change: planned (or induced) change and unplanned (or spontaneous) change.

A. Spontaneous or Unplanned Social Change

Unplanned social change is naturally occurring change like drought, earthquakes, floods, fires and other natural events displace community members from their homes and their jobs. Most disasters are not planned. Natural disaster results in much distress as well as social change.

In unplanned or spontaneous change, change is unexpected, sometimes disastrous (as in a natural disaster such as flood), and often of a large magnitude (such as when a segment of the population experiences growth, as in the baby boom generation).

Unplanned, major shifts in the population also cause social change and, in fact, much social dissatisfaction and divisiveness (Katz, 1983). The stress of caring for both the younger and older generations in their lives has resulted in such adults being labeled the sandwich generation (Spillman&Pezzin, 2000).

What makes unplanned or unintentional change stressful is that, although it is rare, it *is oftenserious and uncontrollable*. Research has shown that *uncontrollable* events are quite stressful. In other words, when individuals feel they control their fates, they experience less stress; when they feel they have lost control, they experience distress.

Besides assisting in the design and development of community services, community psychologists can also *assist with coping for unplanned change by playing a role in forecasting* it. For example, they can employ census data to forecast population changes. Remember that one of the tenets of community psychology is prevention. This does not mean that community psychologists

can prevent these changes-certainly psychologists cannot prevent floods-but *learning how to predict unplanned changes* can enable the community *to prepare for the changes as they occur or even before they occur*. Such preparation can *prevent the change* from being as *severe and distressing* as it otherwise might be.

B.Planned Social Change or Induce Change

? What is planned change?

Planned change is an *intentional or deliberate intervention to change a situation*, or a part of or a whole community.

Four characteristics that distinguished planned social changes from unplanned changes are:

1. Planned change is *limited in scope*-what is to be changed is targeted or earmarked in advance
2. Planned change is *directed toward enhancing the quality of life of the community members*.
This is the primary purpose of planned change in communities. Planned change should enhance, not inhibit, community life.
3. Planned change usually *provides a role for those affected by change*. Community psychologists should *not impose change on community members*. Rather, their role is to inform citizens of the *viable options*, *assist them in the selection of appropriate options*, and then *participate with them in the design and implementation of change*.
4. Planned change is often but not always *guided by a person who acts as a change agent*. Change agents are often trained professionals but can also be advocates for or from client groups, political activists, educational experts, or others interested in inducing change. Psychologists often act as consultants or change agents.

ISSUES RELATED TO PLANNED CHANGE

Major issues regarding planned change are:

1. *Who decides change will occur and when, how, and what changes will takes place.*

Some change experts argue that *administrators and managers* are responsible for initiating change; others argue that the *bottom of the organization* (e.g., staff, clients, or other laypersons) should create change (Bauman, 2000; Kettner et al., 1985). Many in the field of community development agree that *almost anyone and everyone involved in the changes is the appropriate person*.

2. The idea of collaboration-of social scientists and clients coming together to examine and create solutions for social problems-is a major tradition in community psychology (Rappaport, 1990).

Collaboration is also called participatory decision making or collaborative problem solving. As Christensen and Robinson (1989) suggested, self-determination has practical problem-solving utility in that *those who live with the problem can best solve it*. Acceptance is therefore higher than in imposed changes. Moreover, collaborative decision making helps build *a stronger sense of community and avoids client-consultant conflict and duplication of effort* because collaboration is a mutual influence process. The key to collaboration is empowerment, which enhances the possibility of self-determination.

2. *Any one embarking on planned social change needs to prepare carefully for the changes.*

Ongoing, carefully planned change requires *hardwork, and a substantial investment of time, talent, money and other resources* that might otherwise be useful elsewhere (Kettner et al., 1985). The change agents should also *prepare participants for change to take a long time*, as it is likely to be resisted. Likewise, the *more important the problem*, the *more difficult* it will probably be to solve (Shadish, 1990) and *the more numerous the necessary levels of intervention* (Maton, 2000).

3. Planners also need to consider *whether change is really possible* (e.g., Will all involved parties cooperate, Are funds available? etc.) and *whether, in the end the desired results can be realistically achieved*.

4. Fairweather and Davidson (1986) have explained that *a single attack on a social problem will not create a substantial change*. A multipronged and continual approach is generally more successful. A once-and-for-all solution probably will not be effective, either (Levine & Perkins, 1987).

Fairweather and Davidson have also cautioned that although some old practices might work well, *any useless approaches should be discarded*. It is worthwhile to remember, too, that complete change might not always be necessary.

5. *Change must be humane*-that is, it must be socially responsible and represent humanitarian values that emphasize enhancing human potential. Change techniques should also be problem oriented-in other words, they *should be aimed at solutions of problems* rather than merely be idealistic. Similarly, change strategies should focus on *multiple social levels* rather than on *specific individuals*. The techniques may need to be creative and innovative.

6. *Change agents should plan globally or holistically so as to see the whole picture rather than disjointed pieces of problems*. Pluralistic or multilevel planning is likely to ensure success

because the context or environment within which the change will occur will be more likely to have been considered.

7. Change agents also need *to value social experimentation and action research*. Any interventions and programs developed to create community change need to be honestly evaluated, modified based on the evaluations, evaluated again, and so on. Then and only then do change agents and communities know that they have the best possible ideas in place.
9. Finally, planners or change agents *need to be realists, particularly with regard to the prevailing political climate* (Light & Keller, 1985). Change always makes something different that otherwise would not be changed (Benviente, 1989). Some individuals will like the change; others will not. Hence, the power struggles related to change are likely to commence as soon as change is suggested.

3.5. WHY CHANGE PLANS FAIL?

Why do programs that are designed to create social change or provide alternative services fail?

Why do the most well-intentioned efforts sometimes go away?

1. Resistance

One of the most important reasons for failure of planned change is *resistance which can come from a variety of sources*, including administrators, practitioners, clients, or any other community members.

Why Does Resistance Occur?

Societies tend to have built-in resistance to change; members *of groups seem trained to follow their own ways-the old ways-which they regard as safe or superior* (Gildewell, 1976). *Groups feel their existence is threatened by new groups or new ideas*. Psychologists have long documented the effects of in-groups and out-groups in which people favor their own groups (the in-group) and stereotype or denigrate outsiders (the out-group). In the community, for instance, for-profit businesses, especially big private sector corporations, often resist social change instituted by small nonprofit businesses or by new government policies because the for-profit enterprises think their revenues will be affected.

Change is often seen as unwelcome, not just by groups but by individuals, as well (Kettner et al., 1985). Social psychologists know that individuals are also resistant to change, one of the causes of which is *mere cognitive laziness or the desire not to have to think too hard*. Most humans are cognitive misers who take the *path of least effort* in terms of decision making and thinking. Other

individuals are also *close-minded or dogmatic* (Rokeach, 1960); *they conserve their oldways* and shun new ideas because of *rigidity in their thinking*. Individuals resist change for the same reasons as groups-because they feel that change *threatens their reputation, job security, or well-being*.

2. *When a social movement is seen as promoting only a single cause or a cause alien to a large number of people*, change is often slow or does not occur at all.
3. *When those attempting to create change disregard others in the community or disregard other community problems*, failure can also take place. A solution to avoiding isolated change is networking. A networking is an interconnected and interactive social relationship among various individuals or organizations in which reciprocity of information, resources, and other support between individuals or organizations is maintained. (Chavis et al., 1992).
4. Often, agents of change and their programs fail because *their tactics are unwelcome or negative*.
5. If the organization or individuals planning change are *too loosely structured, if solid leadership doesn't exist, or if the decision makers show no discipline in their plans*, then they, too can fail. One of the best solutions to prevent failure is to lay a good foundation for change by conducting research. Community psychologists regard research and practice as interdependent on one another. Once an intervention has been implemented, it needs ongoing assessment.

3.6 CREATING AND SUSTAINING PLANNED SOCIAL CHANGE

Many methods for creating and sustaining social change exist. Each has its own advantages and disadvantages. Activists hoping to fashion social change need to consider what strategies will work best for the issues they hope to address. Some combination of strategies will probably work better than a single strategy, and what worked once might not work again or in a different community or for a different issue.

Planned change, such as grass-roots activism and information dissemination, intentionally addresses and prepares the community for changes. The primary purpose of planned change should always be to improve the community. Each method of planned change has its disadvantages and advantages. Methods available for induced change include citizen participation, networking with other community resources, the use of professional consultants, education or knowledge dissemination, and participation in public policy efforts by citizens and scientists.

1.6.1. CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

It can be broadly defined as involvement in any organized activity in which the individual participates without pay in order to achieve a common goal (Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). At the root of this mechanism of change is the premise that people can, and should collaborate to solve common problems. In fact, some hold self-help as the most promising mechanism for changing society. An example of citizen participation is grass-roots activism, which occurs when individuals define their own issues and press for social change to address these issues and work in a bottom-up rather than top-down fashion. For example, when citizens who are tired of lives being senselessly taken on our highways urge policy makers to pass laws with stiffer penalties against drunk driving, the citizens are practicing grass-roots activism.

Another example of this type of change but a more personal level is self-help groups (Levy, 2000) such as Alcoholic Anonymous, where individuals with common issues come together to assist and emotionally support one another. Because self-help groups are often overseen by professionals, some psychologists prefer the term mutual assistance groups for groups comprised solely of laypeople (Levin, 1988).

At a personal level, community members-such as friends, family, and neighbors-can assist in supporting each other through difficult times by providing social support (Barrera, 2000). Social support is an exchange of resources (such as emotional comfort or material goods) between two individuals where the provider intends the resources to enhance the well-being of recipient (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984-5). Social support can be another means by which social change occurs.

The usual settings for citizen participation are work settings, health care programs, architectural environments, neighborhood associations, public policy arenas, education programs, and situations applying science (especially social science) and technology.

Examples of citizen participation

- ✓ Voting
- ✓ Signing a petition
- ✓ Donating money or time to a cause
- ✓ Reading media articles on community needs or change
- ✓ Boycotting environmentally unsound products
- ✓ Being interviewed for a community survey

- ✓ Joining a self-help group
- ✓ Participating in a question-answer session or a debate
- ✓ Serving on an ad hoc committee or task force
- ✓ Participating in sit-ins and marches
- ✓ Leading a grass-roots activist group in the community
- ✓ Doing volunteer work in the community
- ✓ Conducting fund-raising for a community service
- ✓ Offering consultation services
- ✓ Serving in public office or supporting a particular candidate.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

ADVANTAGES

- ✓ Active participation in change efforts usually is highly motivational. That is, people are more likely to accept that they, themselves, have generated.
- ✓ Involved individuals are also likely to know the problems that need addressing because they have lived with the problems.
- ✓ This type of community participation often helps build a sense of community.
- ✓ Conversely, feeling a sense of community also increases participation in grass-roots efforts.
- ✓ The average citizen often participates in change efforts for little pay but often with enthusiasm and a sense of responsibility

DISADVANTAGES

- ✓ Not every citizen wants to participate
- ✓ With this type of social change, results can be long in coming. The delay may cause some early and inspired individuals to run out of steam before their efforts show results.
- ✓ Studies in human services settings suggest that burnout is high and that those with the highest dedication often burnout first.
- ✓ Because they often are not comprised of all members of a community but rather comprised of a select few, citizen groups can fail.
- ✓ If these individuals are not representative of the affected groups or the population at large, the solutions might not be viable or acceptable for every one.
- ✓ If this small group of activists is not representative of the larger constituency, then the large group might distrust or reject the smaller group, which also causes failure.

- ✓ Participants in community intervention need to recognize the politics of the conflicting goals and interests of the various involved parties. Similarly, if activity in the efforts costs more than any benefits that accrue, individuals are likely to become inactive.

1.6.2. NETWORKING

One means for fostering community development or community change is to develop enabling systems (Chavis et al., 1992). Enabling systems are vehicles whereby multiple community initiatives can be simultaneously mobilized, supported, and sustained in an efficient and effective manner by developing specified links among the social actors has offered a good example of enabling.

Networks are confederations or alliances of related community organizations or individuals. Members of networks regularly share funding sources, information, and ideas with one another. Thus, their futures are more secure by networking their information and sometimes their clients. Another advantage is that clients are less likely to fall through the cracks in the service system. Umbrella organizations are usually overarching organizations that oversee the health of member organizations. Again, they act as clearinghouses for information that members can share. Community development corporations and neighborhood associations are citizens' groups of communities and neighborhoods that have come together to conquer a community social problem or to ensure that the community develops in a healthy, planned fashion.

Issues Related to Networks

Networks and umbrella associations offer ongoing support to participants, use reciprocity in the sharing of ideas and resources, use role modeling for each other, and provide accessible resources to participants (Sarason et al., 1977). For instance, these systems allow small community agencies to share information about grants, staff-training opportunities, and resource libraries; to exchange successful publicity ideas; to refer clients to each other's services; to build lobbying coalitions; and so forth. Thus, the health and success of each smaller service is assisted or enabled. A somewhat similar notion is that of a clearinghouse. Clearinghouses are typically umbrella organizations that individuals seeking self-help groups can contact for assistance in finding self-help. Of course, the clearinghouse concept means that the self-help groups, themselves, are loosely networked. These clearinghouses are reported to result in high consumer satisfaction and good community receptivity.

Enabling systems and networks represent a form of social change because they build on existing resources and develop more productive and creative relationships between already existing services.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF NETWORKS

ADVANTAGES

- ✓ Enhancing the viability of many services
- ✓ They assure that important systems come to know each other better, find effective ways to work together, and learn to plan or advocate for change in a collaborative rather than competitive manner(Wolff, 1987).
- ✓ Enabling systems better ensure that resources are equitably distributed, help reduce community conflict, and focus collective pressure on public policy makers and other decision makers
- ✓ Networks also enable related services to detect cracks in the service system. Cracks are defined as structured gaps in the service systems and are exemplified by missing or inaccessible services and missing information.

DISADVANTAGES

- ✓ Private sector business might feel threatened by and perhaps launch a successful attack against the collective power of activist community organizations.
- ✓ Similarly, when umbrella organizations grow large, they develop their own set of problems in terms of sheer bureaucracy, conflict, and expense.
- ✓ When the umbrella organization, rather than being a loosely knit resource and support network, becomes a controlling, parental organization, member agencies can become dissatisfied.
- ✓ Different community services as well as the whole community may be in different stages of development or readiness for change. The new ones need staff training; the older ones may be seeking to expand their client bases. Coordinating the different developmental needs of member organizations can be difficult for the parent organization.
- ✓ If the tentacles of the association grow beyond one particular community's boundaries because member organizations have satellites in other geographic areas, existing associations in neighboring communities may feel threatened and subvert each other's purpose.

1.6.3. PROFESSIONAL CHANGE AGENTS: CONSULTANTS

This approach involves professionals working as consultants with work places, for profit or non-profit, to make changes in the organization's policies, structure or practices. To qualify as community or social change, this must alter the organization, not simply individual workers, and be connected to wider changes in community or society. Organizational consulting may change organizational policies; alter roles, decision making, or communication in the organization; or deal with organizational issues such as work-family relationships, understanding human diversity, and inter-group conflict.

Professional change agents or expert consultants seek to create social change through modification, renewal, and improvement. A consultant or professional change agent is someone who engages in collaborative problem solving with one or more persons (the consultee) who are often responsible for providing some form of assistance to another third individual (the client). Consultants are often professionals well versed in scientific research. They are typically called on to conduct program evaluations and needs assessments for community organizations.

Community psychologists seem uniquely qualified to be community consultants because they possess skills in community need assessment, community organizing, group problem solving, and action research. The community psychologist is also likely to focus on the social systems and institutions within a community rather than on individuals.

Issues Related to Consultants

An important issue related to the expense of consultants is whether they really do help the client. The researchers found that, compared to control groups, both consultee and clients in the intervention groups (where consultants were utilized) made gains in solving their problems or promoting change as measured by such things as attitude scales, observed behaviors, and standardized scores. In the control groups, there were fewer of these improvements (Medway & Updyke, 1985).

Weed (1990) identified several steps for community psychologists acting as consultants to primary prevention programs that are adaptable for almost all change agents-expert or not. The steps include:

1. Defining the goals to be accomplished.

2. To raise the awareness of the individuals in the setting under consultation and then to introduce the new program or research. At this point, other related organizations or communities can be networked for collaboration, support, and learning about new techniques and funding sources.
3. Consultants also need to collaborate on effective methods for evaluating changes. Favorable evaluation justifies the money, time, and effort expended.

Bishop and Drew(1998) stated that another issue related with consultation is that of trust. It takes time before the professional achieves the trust required to act in the role of consultant.

Serrano-Garcia(1994) has explained that there are often unequal power relationships between community members and outside professionals, with the professional often having more power because of specialized knowledge and other resources. She has issued a challenge to professionals who act as community consultants to “establish more equitable professional-client relationships” by means of collaboration and empowerment.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF CONSULTANTS

ADVANTAGES

- ✓ The professional is expert at what s/he does. The professional change agent has been specially trained and has the knowledge base upon which to make wise decisions.
- ✓ The consultant is a neutral person. Hence, the consultant can make unencumbered, unbiased judgments and recommendations.
- ✓ Consultants also generally take a long-term approach to problem solving. Individuals in the community or organization often focus on short term issues because they are living with them day to day.
- ✓ If a consultant is experienced, s/he comes with a vast array of ideas, past successes, and relevant ideas because of experience with past but similar situations.

DISADVANTAGES

- ✓ High cost-cost can be a major factor and can thwart the best-laid plans of any community or organization needing expert assistance.
- ✓ Developing cooperation from all involved in the consultation can also be problematic. Outside consultants sometimes inspire fear (of job loss or criticism), defensiveness, and resistance to change.
- ✓ Consultants’ contacts with their clients are often time limited. They need to quickly assess the issues, assist in the development of solutions and their implementation, and foster

maintenance strategies in a short period of time. Often, the issues on which they are asked to consult are complex compared to the amount of available resources, including time.

- ✓ Clients sometimes hold high and unrealistic expectations of what a consultant can do. Other clients may “use” the consultant for their own misleading purposes, especially when there is conflicting views about what ought to be done.

3.6.4. THE USE OF EDUCATION AND INFORMATION DISSEMINATION TO PRODUCE SOCIAL CHANGE

The dissemination of information and the education of community members have perhaps received less attention in the community psychology literature than any other aspects of change, yet information dissemination remains a vital part of social change efforts.

What is meant by information dissemination and education in community psychology?

Community psychologists seek to prevent, intercede in, and treat, if necessary, community problems with what are typically innovative programs. If innovative or experimental programs are researched and found to be successful but the results are never shared with other communities or adopted by others, the results are of limited use. Dissemination of information can save change agents and social activists working with similar population or in similar settings much time, money, and effort. Thus, dissemination of innovation is crucial.

Whenever information from community psychology is shared with community members, its main purpose should be to improve the community, to promote prevention in favor of treatment, and to empower community members to shape their own destiny. Information for educational purpose can also be used to shape ideology and to direct action in a community as well as to inform those in a position of power (the gatekeepers) to understand others in the community better. Regarding this issue Dalton, *et al.*, (2007) indicated that conscious raising is indispensable for social change. It involves increasing citizens’ critical awareness of social conditions and energizing their involvement in challenging and changing those conditions. Consciousness rising distinctively emphasizes personal and social transformation. Consciousness rising is not solely cognitive or emotional. New personal understanding is connected to working with others and to actions for change. Action and reflection feed each other.

Critical awareness is an understanding of how power and sociopolitical forces affect personal and community life. Critical awareness emerges from three sources:

- Life experience from injustice
- Reflection on those experiences and lesson learned

- Discussion with others

Consciousness rising most directly addressed personal values, awareness, and commitment. It can be extended to whole communities. The concept of community readiness refers to how much a locality recognizes a problem and takes steps to address or prevent it. The community readiness model involves knowledge of the problem, and of methods to address it, existing efforts to address it, strength of community leadership on that issue, presence of other resources for action, and overall community climate of attitudes and commitment on the issue.

Issues Related to Information Dissemination

1. It is important to remember that not all individuals will be receptive nor will they be receptive at the same time to the information and ideas.

Despite great enthusiasm, some individuals will be slow but will eventually adopt what you wish to share, while some will never adopt what you have to offer. Why will adoption be slow and somewhat diffuse? Fairweather and Davidson (1986) suggested that at least two phenomena will interfere: personal characteristics of adopters and the social context in which adopters find themselves. For instance, some individuals are close-minded or dogmatic. They will not accept new ideas readily; in fact they might not accept the ideas at all. Other individuals may find themselves in a social situation or social context where the suggested change is unacceptable, so they conform to the group's wishes and do not adopt an idea, no matter how good it is.

2. Measuring whether the information dissemination is useful will be problematic. A variety of measures could be utilized, including number of adoptions, replication of previous results in the imitative program, and so on. Selecting several measures will result in better understanding of whether the shared information was successfully adopted.
3. Disseminators of information, especially those sharing information on new programs, should also be mindful that only some pieces of the program might be useful to adopters and that disseminators are collaborators rather than dictators about how the shared information should be utilized.
4. Another issue related to the use of education as a social change mechanism is that it must be culturally sensitive. What works for one ethnic group might not work in another.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

ADVANTAGES

Advantages of Educational Change are several.

- ✓ A wide audience can often be reached with these change efforts because a multiplex approach to disseminate ideas, especially by mass media such as television and newspapers can be used.
- ✓ Community citizens as well as those in power are likely to accept this approach to change rather than more radical approaches.
- ✓ This may be one of the least expensive forms of social change for community activists to pursue if they use certain vehicles such as public media for dissemination. A picture may indeed worth a thousand words.

DISADVANTAGES

- ✓ Close minds are not easily opened, no matter how much information is presented.
- ✓ Another disadvantage, especially of using the mass media for large-scale intervention, is that media advertising sometimes promotes the very behavior the educational intervention is designed to reduce or prevent.

3.6.5. PUBLIC POLICY AS A MEANS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Did you vote in the last election?

It is often surprising how many citizens, college students in particular, do not vote. Voting, drafting legislation, lobbying for particular interests, and so on comprise actions that change, and often change dramatically, our national and local social agendas. For citizens and community psychologists alike, participating in public policy endeavors opens a “window of opportunity” for what can often be sweeping social changes.

What is public policy? The aim of public policy is to improve the quality of life for community members. Although the term is often used for government-mandated legislation, it can refer to policy at a specific agency or at the local community and state governmental levels. Public policy can also influence to what issues various resources are allocated.

A concept relevant to public policy is policy science, which is the science of making findings from science (and in case of community psychology, findings from social science) relevant to governmental and organizational policy. This approach involves conducting research and seeking to influence public (usually government) decisions, policies, or laws. It often involves persuading government officials but may influence leaders in the private sectors, journalists, or others. The advocacy does not bargain or bring pressure based on threats but seeks to persuade with information (especially research findings) and reasoned arguments.

Policy research and advocacy may be focused on legislative, executive, or judicial branches of government at local, state or provincial, national, or international levels. Policy advocacy is often based on policy research, which is conducted to provide empirical information on social issues.

Policy research may generate findings showing the nature of a social problem, or the need for a new policy, or a change in existing policy. Evaluation research studies the effectiveness of programs or policies, including their intended and unintended consequences.

Issues Related to the Use of Public Policy

Politics and community psychology are deeply intertwined, although changing social policy is a relatively unexplored extension of community psychology. There is general agreement among community psychologists that their science and politics are inseparable.

Most community psychologists do agree that the development of public policy should be a collaborative effort between researchers, affected populations, and the decision or policy makers. The idea of collaboration leads psychologists to avoid “colonial” relationships with the affected community members. In fact, collaboration with appropriate community members, particularly those affected by policy research and/or policy decisions, is not only strategically sound; it is good ethics (Robinson, 1990).

Policy science serves several functions: instrumental, conceptual, and persuasive and predictive purpose. When research shapes the direction of change or of public policy, then it serves an **instrumental** purpose. Research can also be aimed at changing the way people think or conceptualize social problems and solutions. Research with this function serves a **conceptual** purpose. When research persuades policy makers to support a particular position or solution to a social problem, it then functions in the **persuasive** mode. Finally, when research is designed to forecast what change will occur in the future or to predict whether change will be accepted, the function is predictive.

Research in the service of public policy is not the only way to address social change. Community psychologists and community members can also lobby to change policy. To lobby means to direct pressure at public officials to promote the passage of a particular pieces of legislation or policy. Individuals wishing to influence policy can also disseminate appropriate pieces of information, such as public opinion polls and results of field research, to policy makers in an attempt to educate them.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PUBLIC POLICY CHANGES

1. The advantage of using public policy efforts-including research, lobbying for or sponsoring a particular policy, and elections-is that sweeping social changes can often be induced, especially if the efforts of broad alliances are all aimed in the same direction.
2. Citizens have considerable respect for the law and some people may accept the change because it is the law.
3. Often, the real issues underlying social problems are economic and political rather than psychological, so the policy solution might be the most appropriate any way.
4. Policy makers often, but not always, have a broad perspective on the community that elected or appointed them, so are likely to understand the interrelationships between seemingly segregated groups and isolated social problems. Therefore, solutions in the form of policy can take a broad-brush and long-term approach rather than a narrow or short-term focus, which is more likely to fail.

DISADVANTAGES

No method of social change is without problems, however, and policy science and public policy are not without theirs.

1. Much social science research is completed by academic operating in a “publish or perish” mode to impress colleagues; the research is often not returned to the community for social change.
2. Community researchers are often perceived as agents of a traditional system that has historically been oppressive and are consequently not perceived as guests or collaborators in the community. Therefore, research participation, results, and dissemination efforts are shunned, rendering the research useless.
3. The problem related to electorate. Most voters are disproportionately well educated and older than the average citizen. Hence, the voices of the poor, the young, and the minorities are not heard via voting. This means that those who may most benefit from prosocial changes are not participating in the direction of these changes.
4. Perhaps the greatest disadvantage to using public policy efforts to create social change is that policy shaping can be a slow, cumbersome, politicized process. For instance, the average time span from initial writing to passage of a bill in Congress is about a year. However, less controversial policies pass more quickly. More complex or controversial issues take much longer. In the mean time, the needs of the affected groups may have changed; indeed, the

group, itself, may have evaporated, or its needs may have become more severe so that the original policy solution is insufficient.

3.7. SOCIAL ACTION

Social action identifies specific obstacles to empowerment of disadvantaged groups, and creates constructive conflict to remove these obstacles through direct, non-violent action. Saul Alinsky's *Classic Rules for Radicals* (1971) delineated social action principles. To effectively oppose organized, powerful interests, citizens must identify their capacities (the strength of community group members and their potential to act together), and the capacities of the opposing group or community institution. In addition, they need to identify a situation that dramatizes the need for change and that calls forth citizens' strengths. It is best if that situation is something their opponents have never encountered before and that they cannot dominate. Social action involves power and conflict.

3.8. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Community development involves a process of strengthening relationships among community members to define community problems, resources, and strategies. It broadens opportunities for citizen participation and influence in community decision-making. Unlike social action, community development does not rely on conflict.

Community development approaches often bring together the resources of multiple groups in a locality, such as neighborhood and civic organizations, religious congregations, businesses, schools, youth groups, libraries, and other community resources.

Community development focuses on one or more of the following four domains.

- Economic development e.g., business and jobs
- Political development e.g., community organizations to influence decisions in the community and at wider level.
- Improving social environment – e.g., health, education, policing, promoting youth development, etc
- Improving physical environment –e.g., housing, transportation, city services, parks, public spaces, etc.

3.9. COMMUNITY COALITIONS

Community coalition brings together broad representations of citizens within a locality to address community problems. Coalitions may involve citizens, community organizations (e.g.,

community agencies, schools, government, religious congregations, businesses, media, grassroots groups), or both.

Coalitions agree on a mission, and then write and implement action plans. Those plans may involve action by the coalition itself or by affiliated organizations, and may lead to changes in policies or to development of community programs.

UNIT 4

SOCIAL ISSUES AND SERVICES IN THE COMMUNITY

4.1 DEFINITION AND SCOPES OF SOCIAL ISSUES

- **Social issues** are matters which directly or indirectly affect many or all members of a society and are considered to be problems, controversies related to moral values, or both.
- **Social issues** are related to the fabric of the community, including conflicts among the interests of community members, and lie beyond the control of any one individual.
- **Social issues** include poverty, violence, pollution, injustice, suppression of human rights, discrimination, and crime, as well as abortion, gay marriage, gun control, and religion, to name a few.

LIST OF SOCIAL ISSUES

• Abuse	• HIV/AIDS	• Rape
• Adolescent pregnancy	• Incest	• Sexism
• Crime	• Justice	• Social discrimination
• Censorship	• Marginalization	• Social equality
• Discrimination	• Migration	• Social exclusion
• Drug abuse	• Peace	• Social integration
• Extremism	• Pollution	• Social injustice
• Family values	• Population	• Social rejection
• Gay rights	• Poverty	• Unemployment
• Gun control	• Racism	• War

ABUSE

Abuse most commonly refers to the use or treatment of something or someone (a person, item, substance, concept, idea or vocabulary) that is harmful, or the lack of proper care of these (neglect). It includes:

BY VICTIM TYPE

- **CHILD ABUSE:** physical, emotional or sexual abuse directed at a child
- **ELDER ABUSE:** physical or psychological threats or neglect, directed at the elderly, particularly those unable to care for themselves

- **SPOUSAL ABUSE**(also known as "domestic violence"): mistreatment of one's domestic partner.
- **SELF-ABUSE**: self-destructive behavior
- **PEER ABUSE**: abusive behavior toward one's classmates in a school environment
- **EMPLOYEE ABUSE**: harassing, threatening, or bullying others in a work environment
- **ANIMAL ABUSE**: cruelty directed at animals

BY STYLE

- **PSYCHOLOGICAL ABUSE**: emotional or psychological coercion used to compel another to do something they do not want to do
- **PHYSICAL ABUSE**: infliction of pain or use of violence against another
- **SEXUAL ABUSE**: improper use of another person for sexual purposes, either against their will or under physical or psychological pressure
- **CHILD SEXUAL ABUSE**: such abuse of a minor
- **SPIRITUAL ABUSE**: use of religious beliefs to intimidate, coerce, or control another
- **VERBAL ABUSE**: use of profanity, demeaning talk, or threatening statements to degrade another

OTHER FORMS

- **SUBSTANCE ABUSE**, including:
 - Drug abuse, the misuse of illicit or prescription drugs
 - Alcohol abuse, the overuse of alcoholic beverages
 - Addiction
- **HUMAN RIGHTS ABUSE**: violation of human rights
- **LEGAL ABUSE**: retaliation, coercion, or emotionally/financially harming a person
 - malicious prosecution
 - INTERNET ABUSE**: inappropriate online behavior

4.2. CHILD MALTREATMENT

Scope of the Issue

It is estimated that over 1 million children a year are subject to maltreatment and that 2,000 children a year die due to maltreatment. Boys and girls are equally affected by abuse, which can include physical and emotional abuse and neglect. Many of the victims are under the age of

four years. The toll of child abuse on the victim is often enormous and varied-from neurodevelopment and cognitive impairment and emotional and behavior dysregulation to school failure, antisocial behavior, and substance abuse. The costs to society are also monumental. Child abuse costs the United States upward of \$94 billion every year or \$258 million a day in investigative and hospitalization costs, mental health care, welfare, delinquency, and adult criminality, especially violent criminal behavior. Abused children, as well as the abusers, are often the focus of intensive efforts from various social and human services specialists. Suspected cases of maltreatment are often investigated by the Department of social services. Abused children and their parents are often referred by judges and other professionals to mental health care providers.

4.2.1. Causes of Maltreatment

Levine and Perkins (1997) have discussed several risk factors related to child maltreatment. They noted that the vast majority of children who die because of maltreatment are under the age of 5 and that many of these children live in low-income homes and are abused by a male. Hamilton (1989) noted that there is widespread agreement among family violence experts that there are multiple factors responsible for child maltreatment such as stressors, in the parents' lives, poverty, social isolation, and unrealistic expectations of children. Recent studies have also identified poor prenatal care, dysfunctional care giving, closely spaced unplanned pregnancies, dependence on welfare, and parental substance abuse as causes. Researchers, therefore, need to look at several levels including but not limited to societal, institutional, and interpersonal factors as providing the explanatory framework for child maltreatment and other forms of family violence such as partner violence.

Societal factors, for example, can contribute to child maltreatment in the following way: poverty and economic downturn diminish the capacity for consistent and involved parenting. Parental job loss might produce pessimism and irritability in the father. The father might then become less nurturing and more arbitrary in his interaction with his children.

Community psychologists would be quick to point out that other ecological factors contribute to child maltreatment. Indeed, child maltreatment may represent one of the greatest failures of the environment to offer opportunities for fostering wellness.

Garbarino found that there were significant location differences in maltreatment. As part of this same research, community leaders from social services agencies were also interviewed. The

interviews revealed that high-risk locations were characterized by a lack of community identity, whereas low-risk areas were characterized by a sense of community or greater community cohesiveness. Garbarino concluded that abuse is not necessarily a sign of an individual or a family in trouble but rather a sign of a community in trouble.

Coulton, Korbin, and Su(1999) agreed that neighborhood factors, such as impoverishment, affect child maltreatment as much as or more than individual risk factors.

Korbin andCoulton (1996) found that such neighborhood conditions as distrust of neighbors and social agencies as well as the dangers and incivilities of daily life limit the abilities of neighbors to help one another to act in the best interests of neighborhood children. Neighbors do feel that they should be able to help each other, in fact, many participants reported being optimistic that they could help prevent child maltreatment. However, neighborhood conditions often inhibited their willingness to do so. The researchers concluded that because economic and social conditions are inextricably bound together, child maltreatment prevention programs must be embedded within comprehensive efforts to strengthen communities.

The traditional efforts at intervention occur at the individual clinical level where maltreated children and their parents are given counseling to help them overcome their personal problems and understand the abuse. Although these methods are laudable, they do little to prevent the abuse in the first place. This method of treatment is also difficult and expensive to implement on a wide scale. The methods focus only on the family and not on some systems that might also share responsibility.

Some people have argued that the best way to improve the care giving system for abusers and their victims is through national policies aimed at creating jobs, reducing unemployment and other stressors, and income maintenance such as welfare or public assistance. Better and more realistic strategies, however, might be aimed at high-risk groups before the abuse commences.

Prevention Programs

A. Nurse-home visit program

A study conducted by David Olds and his research team demonstrates that child abuse can be prevented. That is done through social support from nurses and significant others during the prenatal and perinatal periods of mothers.

The nurses carry out three major activities during their home visits: educating parents about fetal and infant development, promoting the involvement of family members and friends in support of the mother and care of the child, and developing linkages between family members and other formal health and human services in the community.

In the education component, mothers and family members are encouraged to complete their own educations and to make decisions about employment and bearing additional children. Before birth, the nurses concentrate on educating the women to improve their diets and to eliminate the use of cigarettes, drugs, and alcohol; recognize pregnancy complications; and prepare the parents for labor, delivery, and care of the newborn. After the baby is born, the nurses concentrate on improving parents' understanding of the infants' temperaments and promoting the infants' socio-emotional, cognitive, and physical development. The nurses also provide for the families to be linked to other formal services, such as health providers, mental health counselors, nutritional supplement programs for mothers and infants as well as others.

For women with all three risk characteristics (poor, unmarried, and adolescent) of abuse, there is usually a remarkable 75 percent reduction in the incidence of verified cases of child abuse and neglect over the comparison group. The mothers in the nurse-visited group also report that their infants are easier to care for. The interviewers of the mothers often observed less punishment and restriction of the mothers toward their children and a greater number of growth-promoting playing in the homes of the nurse-visited mothers. The medical records of the nurse-visited families show there are fewer visits to emergency rooms for illness and childhood accidents.

The newest research, however, has unveiled at least one limitation of nurse-home visit programs designed to reduce child maltreatment: in homes where other forms of domestic violence are occurring, nurse-home visitation is less effective at reducing child-maltreatment

Further research has also shown that other, more long-term programs, such as ones based in schools where children are taught to identify abuse, especially sexual abuse, may be as effective as nurse home visitation. Cases of abuse keep large numbers of social workers and mental health professionals busy with their aftermath. Expenditure of human and social services efforts at the outset may be more productive, less destructive, and more cost effective than efforts after the fact.

4.3. TEEN PREGNANCY

Scope of the Issue

About one million teenagers become pregnant each year with 95 percent of the pregnancies unintended. Teen pregnancy, nevertheless, remains an important issue because these mothers' babies are often low in birth weight and have a disproportionately high mortality rate. The young mothers themselves have a high rate of dropout from school and often live in poverty. The Center for Disease Control estimates that between 1985 and 1990, teen pregnancies cost \$120 billion in health care, welfare funding, lowest wages, and the like.

4.3.1. Causes of Teen Pregnancy

The existence of welfare may facilitate black teen motherhood and increased female-headship, but it is not the fundamental cause. Therefore, does not cause young women to become or want to become pregnant. Limiting access to public assistance might, in fact, be harmful.

Reasons often cited for teen pregnancy include lack of self-esteem, low expectancies, and psychopathology. Thus, the typical solution offered for lowering the pregnancy rate is counseling. Another usual approach to preventing adolescent pregnancy is sex education. Other efforts involve assertive training.

Community psychologists typically examine contextual causes for adolescent pregnancy. School alienation that produces low educational aspirations, a childhood spent in poverty, perceptions of limited life options as well as the mass media and peer pressure also correlate with the likelihood that an adolescent girl will become pregnant. Whatever the causes of adolescent pregnancy, the issue needs to be addressed, for early pregnancy often results in lower rates of school completion, lower levels of marital stability, lower employment security, and higher rates of poverty for adolescent mothers and their children as compared to peers who postpone childbearing.

4.3.2. Prevention Programs

The overly rationalistic perspective that prevention efforts simply need to expose adolescents to more information or provide them with contraceptives is too narrow and often disappointing. Researchers found that in senior high school, 72.3 percent of the girls and 91 percent of the boys were sexually active. Before the program, 26 percent of the girls and 37 percent of the boys did not use contraceptives. The program seemed somewhat to have reduced unprotected intercourse: 18.1 percent of the girls and 32.2 percent of the boys reported not using contraception. Although these data show decreases, you must remember that the data indicate the large numbers of adolescents continued to have sexual experiences that were likely to result in pregnancy or abortion.

Many similar prevention programs for adolescent pregnancy have been disappointing. As Reppucci(1987) reiterated, “the limited effects of these changes are evident in the concomitant high rates of pregnancy, clinic dropouts, and contraceptive non-use.

What is perhaps needed is less focus on the individual level of analysis and more focus on an ecological or transactional approach to teen pregnancy.

One successful prevention program for teen pregnancy and school dropout is reported by Allen, Philliber, and Hoggson(1990) they attempt to assess which groups of participants and under what conditions a school-based prevention program was most effective. The program was the Teen Outreach Program of the Association of Junior Leagues. It used a curriculum that provided information on human development, information on skills for making life-option decisions, and supportive group decisions. The program also emphasized volunteer service to the community. Results indicated that the Teen Outreach participants had lower levels of suspension, school dropout, , and pregnancy. Moreover, the program worked best overall for older students and when the volunteer experience was emphasized. For younger students, the program worked best when the classroom component was intense.

A second sample program utilizes the mass media-Campaign for Our Children. This program is designed to promote abstinence among 9 to 14 year olds, an age group not yet likely to have experienced sexual intercourse. In this way, the program practices primary prevention. The program utilizes many forms of media.-print, television, radio, billboard, etc. the research-based

materials developed by Campaign for Our Children can be used in schools, by communities, and by parents and other individuals or groups. There is also an interactive website available where individuals can join chat groups and where teens, parents, public officials, health professionals, and others can look up relevant information.

Secondary Prevention: Working with Pregnant Teens

Because many prevention programs have failed, teenage pregnancy rates remain higher than desired. As mentioned earlier, the United States leads all industrialized countries in teenage pregnancy, abortion, and childbearing. Data indicate that there is a trend for teens to become pregnant at younger ages.

For those teens who become pregnant, primary prevention is too late. Programs are needed that will encourage them to continue their education and give them parenting skills. Seitz, Apfel, and Rosenbaum(1991) reported a successful school-based intervention program with inner-city African-American, low-income school-aged mothers. The young mothers-to-be were placed in the Polly T.McCabe-Center, a separate school for pregnant teens, yet fully a part of the New Haven(Connecticut) School System. The program was comprised of healthcare, education, and social services. Specifically, the program consisted of small academic classes augmented with counseling and prenatal health care services, as well as special classes to prepare the girls for parenthood. The parents of the pregnant girls were also invited to be involved in school events.

The primary concern of the researchers was what effect the program had on academic achievement, especially for those girls who had been poor students before becoming pregnant . Overall, 51 percent of the girls at two years postpartum were academically successful. what was most striking was that students who had never received grades as high as Cs were now successful. in fact, the poorer students became indistinguishable from the better students in terms of academic success.

4.4. THE ELDERLY

Scope of the Issue

The population of US is aging. As the swell of baby boomers moves through time, the ranks of the aged are increasing. Medical advances allow people to live longer, with most women

out living men. At the beginning of the 20th c, only 4.1 percent of the total U.S. population was elderly. Today, approximately 35 million Americans, or about 13 percent, are 65 years or older. By the year 2030, that percent is expected to increase to 21.2%. the stereotypes of the elderly in the U.S. is that of a wrinkled, incoherent person rocking in a chair in a nursing home. Obviously, this stereotype is incorrect. This is not to say that the aging population is not without problems, however. For example, two frequent and particularly important transitions of aging are loss of health and loss of spouse.

Loss of spouse and significant others in an elderly person's life can cause depression and stress. in addition, declining health is exacerbated by perceived lack of control over health matter, personal barriers such as memory deficient, and societal barriers such as lack of transportation and high cost of health care. Families of the elderly who provide care giving can also find themselves under stress, especially employed family members.

4.4.1. Prevention Programs

A.Social support

One well-examined approach to preserving the emotional well-being and sense of security of the elderly is to provide them with social support. Social support by means of informal networks of family. Confidants or other social support has been reputed to increase morale, buffer the effects of loss of loved ones, and slow deterioration of health.

Enhancing the self-esteem of the elderly has been another approach in the literature. A favored approach is to encourage the elderly to feel productive. Various projects employing senior citizens as voluntary helpers, senior companions, or peer counselors, report positive effect

A. Sense of Personal Control

Every facet of aging, such as health and cognitive functioning, involves the issue of personal control. Increasing the sense of personal control of the elderly is also a technique that has proven to produce positive results. An enhanced sense of control leads to feelings of empowerment, a coveted principle of community psychology.

Finally, health education has the potential to have sweeping preventive effects on future generations as they age.

If it were possible to help our citizens more thoughtfully direct the course of their lives , prepare in advance, for retirement, maintain appropriate habits, develop satisfying a vocational interests, and maintain a healthy self-esteem., the despair of millions of Americans could be drastically reduced(Lombana, 1976)

4.5. HOMELESSNESS

Very often, when people see homeless individual on the street, they believe that these individuals caused their own problems. For example, many stereotype the homeless as drunk or mentally disabled old men who deserve what they get-a life of misery on the streets. However, research clearly demonstrates that many of today's homeless are victims of problems they, themselves, did not create, such as lack of affordable housing and other structural (societal) problems.

Scope of the Issue

The extent of the problem of homelessness is difficult to determine. One reason for the difficulty in making accurate estimates is that the homeless are a heterogeneous group; the group includes people of all races, families with or without children, single individuals, individuals who move from temporary shelters to homelessness and back to some type of shelter, as well as many others. Second, estimates vary depending on the motives of the groups doing the estimating. Dowell and Farmer (1992) contended that because the image of homelessness in a community is not good for business, community officials often underestimate or minimize the problem.

Who are today's homeless?

Morse, Calsyn, and Burger (1992) found four types of homeless individuals:

1. An economically disadvantaged group
2. An alcoholic group
3. A mentally disordered group((Deinstitutionalized individuals), and
4. A somewhat advantaged group who nonetheless remain homeless

Mowbray, Bybee, and Cohn(1993) also found four clusters of homeless whom they call

1. The depressed group
2. The substance abusers
3. The hostile-psychotics(mentally disordered), and

4. The best-functioning group(advantaged group)

Rossi (1990) has devised yet another way of classifying the homeless. He suggested that there are old homeless and new homeless. The old homeless are the individuals who are generally stereotyped as homeless. These are older, alcoholic men who sleep in cheap flop-houses or skid – row hotels. The new homeless are indeed truly homeless. They do not sleep in cheap hotels but rather sleep on the streets or find public building to escape into during inclement weather. The new homeless include many women and children. Rossi (1990) estimated that among the old homeless, women made up fewer than 5 percent of the population; today, women comprise 25 percent of the homeless population. Likewise, there are age differences between the new and old homeless, with the new homeless being much younger. The National Coalition for the Homeless (1999) estimated that children under the age of 18 accounted for 25 percent of the urban homeless population.

Homeless children suffer a number of compounding problems, largely due to their homelessness. Studies have consistently shown that homeless children have elevated levels of acute and chronic health problems compared to housed children, as well as poorer nutrition. Homeless children are also more likely to experience developmental delays such as short attention spans, speech delays, inappropriate social interactions, and psychological problems in the areas of anxiety, behavioral problems, and depression. Also, achievement scores on standardized tests for homeless children are well below those of housed children. These children often move from school to school when they are lucky enough to be enrolled in school.

4.5.1. Causes of Homelessness

Studies show that homelessness is episodic, or at least is not a chronic condition for most individuals; thus, environmental situations may account for much homelessness. For instance, the rate of psychiatric hospitalization for today's homeless is as 4 percent when the whole family is homeless. As for the homeless mentally ill, a lack of housing may be more critical to the likelihood of their re-hospitalization than is the quality of their psychiatric care. Unemployment is also a major consideration. Poverty is probably a better explanation than unemployment. A minimum wage worker typically needs to work 87 hours a week (two full-time jobs) to afford a two-bedroom apartment.

The National Coalition for the Homeless also identifies lack of affordable healthcare and disability as causes of homelessness. Individuals who are struggling to pay the rent and who also have a serious illness or disability can start a downward spiral into homelessness when payment of medical bills results in lack of funds to pay rent. Domestic violence also results in homelessness. Women who have to choose between abuse and homelessness often choose homelessness.

4.5.2. Prevention Programs

A suggestion for addressing homelessness has already been reviewed-increasing the amount of affordable housing. Given that this approach takes much time and money, what else is available to address homelessness?

Providing job skills and job relevant knowledge (e.g., the importance of meeting deadlines and respecting lines of authority) to those who want them can and does result in employment opportunities.

Another solution to homelessness has been the APA's *pro bono* program for the homeless. APA wanted to provide psychologists with the opportunity to volunteer their services, and the APA wanted to provide psychologists and other professionals with a *pro bono or volunteer service deliver model*.

The best solution to the homeless problem is public policy program.

Grant and demonstration programs-for example, for drug and alcohol abuse treatment. A coherent policy of federal legislation needs to continue to pursue increased low-income housing, treatments for the mentally disabled and substance –abusing homeless, and education and job training for homeless individuals.

Providing more affordable housing, pro bono services from professionals, and better and coordinated public policies will go a long way toward solving this problem.

? What have we learned by examining child maltreatment, teen pregnancy, the elderly, and the homeless? Messages for community psychologists and others cut across these groups:

❖ The types of individuals affected by these problems are diverse

- ❖ There are multiple causes for each of these social problems, few of which are created by the individuals affected by the issue.
- ❖ Single solutions for these problems probably will not work ; multipronged, coordinated efforts will yield better results.
- ❖ When various social service agencies are involved in interventions-whether the interventions be primary or secondary in nature-efforts need to be coordinated in order to be effective.
- ❖ Affected individuals need to participate in designing and implementing the interventions.
- ❖ Government officials, affected individuals, and social service agencies need to work together to coordinate their efforts in order to address these social issues.

4.6. SOCIAL SERVICES IN COMMUNITY

- **Basic Social Services** - social services designated to provide meaningful opportunities for social and economic growth of the disadvantaged sector of the population in order to develop them into productive and self-reliant citizens and promote social equity.

Basic social services of the government include Self-employment Assistance and Practical Skills Development Assistance, among others. A major goal of social services is to ensure and maintain a productive workforce via prevention or intervention of social ills.

- **Social Welfare Services** - include care of the aged, care of the disabled and mentally defective, childcare, and other welfare services.

One objective of public assistance or welfare is to lift people from their misery so that they can move on to better life.

A. Community organizational issues

UNIT FIVE

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Community organizations (sometimes known as community-based organizations) are civil society (non-profits) that operate within a single local community. They are essentially a subset of the wider group of nonprofits. Like other nonprofits they are often run on a voluntary basis and are self funding. Within community organizations there are many variations in terms of size and organizational structure. Some are formally incorporated, with a written constitution and a board of directors (also known as a committee), while others are much smaller and are more informal.

The recent evolution of community organizations, especially in developing countries, has strengthened the view that these "bottom-up" organizations are more effective addressing local needs than larger charitable organizations. People spend a great deal of their adult lives in organizations, particularly in their place of employment but also in volunteer, recreational, educational, and other organizations. One's organizational affiliations often bring economic well-being, emotional security, happiness, a sense of self-esteem and status, as well as the social rewards of belonging to a group and a sense of accomplishment. On the other hand, organizations can also frustrate and alienate people and cause much stress.

5.1 STRESS

Stress is defined as a call for action when one's capabilities are perceived as falling short of the needed personal resources. For instance, changes in the environment, especially unpredictable or uncontrollable ones can be stressful when they exceed one's coping resources. That means that even positive changes can bring stress. Receiving a promotion can be as stressful as being fired. But remember, these situations are constructed as stressful only if the individual perceives them as taxing or exceeding his/her resources and endangering well-being.

Major readjustments, such as a new job, as well as every day hassles like rising prices, too many things to do, and being late for work, can be stressful. New job, dissatisfaction, and eventual unemployment.

Stress can occur in any facet of people's lives, but the concern here is with causes of stress in organizations.

5.1.1 CAUSES OF STRESS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Organizational causes of stress are varied and sometimes complex. Organizational members can be too busy or too bored, both of which can cause stress. Interpersonal conflicts between coworkers may exist, or the individual may not feel competent or sufficiently trained to do the work. Likewise, the individual may have a dangerous job, such as working on a ward with violent individuals, or be in a demanding environment where noise, fumes, poor lighting, or other environmental conditions produce stress. The person might also have a supervisor with whom s/he does not get along. There may be too many or too few rules or too much or too little structure. Or the individual might have problems at home that s/he brings to work or feel deprived when work detracts from family activities.

5.2 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Why is it that as individuals come and go from organizations, organizations do not seem to change much, even though their members do? The answer is organizational culture. Organizational culture consists of the beliefs, attitudes, values, and expectations shared by most members of the organization (Schein, 1990). Once these beliefs and values are established, they tend to persist over time as the organization shapes and molds its members in its image. For example, can you recall how different all of the freshman looked in appearance and dress the first week of classes? By senior year, many of these same students looked more similar because other students pressured them to conform to the organization's image. Those students who most deviated from the norm of the campus often left rather than change.

Besides influencing conformity, the prevailing organizational culture guides the organization's structure. How decisions are made in the organization relates to its structure. For instance, whether decisions originate from the bottom, as when average organizational citizens participate in decisions, or from the top, when a centralized management makes the decisions, is part of the organization's structure.

The organizational structure, including the decision making system, also determines class distinctions within organizations, such as status differences between executives and middle managers. The distribution of power in the organization is likely to be affected by the organization's culture, too. If lower-level members make decisions, they will have more power

than if they are not allowed to participate in decision making. Finally, organizational culture affects the ideology of the organization. If the organization views human nature as good, it will lead to allow subordinate participation. If the organizational culture emphasizes the development of human potential, then the members are more likely to be allowed to develop and create new ideas without much interference from the organization.

An open culture, one appreciative of human dignity and one that enhances human growth, is preferred by most organizational members and by most community psychologists. Open cultures fosters a sense of community, better communication, and more empowerment, which can exist in an organization just as in neighborhoods. Such organizational cultures tend to foster employee commitment among their other positive effects. However, when the culture is repressive in that it inhibits human growth or when there are huge gaps in what the organization professes to be (e.g., professing to have a positive culture that is negative in reality), then high levels of member cynicism develop, performance deteriorates and cohesiveness drops.

Community psychologists are studying a phenomenon related to organizational culture: the sense of community within an organization.

Another aspect of organizational culture is the extent to which staff in the organization perceives a sense of empowerment; in fact, organizational culture provides an excellent framework for understanding and assessing the person-environment fit needed if empowerment is to succeed in organizations. Empowerment in organizations has been found to be directly related to employee effectiveness. What are those organizational characteristics that inspire empowerment? Maton and Salem (1995) found at least four:

A belief system that inspires growth, is strength based, and focuses beyond the individual

An opportunity structure that is highly accessible.

A support system that is encompassing, is peer based, and provides a sense of community

Leadership that is inspiring, talented, shared, and committed to both the setting and the members

5.3. BURNOUT

It is a concept related to but slightly different from stress is burnout. Burnout is a feeling of overall exhaustion that is the result of too much pressure and not enough sources of satisfaction.

Burnout has three components:

The feeling of being drained or exhausted

Depersonalization or insensitivity to others, including clients (which, in human services, certainly is counterproductive).

A sense of low personal accomplishment or the feeling that one's efforts are futile.

Symptoms of burnout include loss of interest in one's job, apathy, depression, irritability, and finding fault with others. The quality of the individual's work also deteriorates and the individual often blindly and superficially follows rules and procedures.

Burnout is most likely to affect those organizational members who are initially eager, motivated, and perhaps idealistic. Because many community activists and human services professionals fit this description, burnout should be a major concern to community psychologists. Research has demonstrated that many individuals in community service organizations-including police officers, social security employees, social workers, teachers, and nurses-indeed suffer from burnout. In fact, you may have realized that many of these occupations are primarily filled by women; it will not surprise you, then, to know that women suffer more from burnout than men. Poor fit between the person and the organization can also result in burnout. For example, Xie and Johns (1995) examined the roles of job scope or job-related activities performed by the employee and burnout. They found that individuals who perceived a misfit between their abilities and the demands or scope of the job experienced higher burnout and stress.

5.4. Ecological Culture

Today, people know that physical conditions in organizations affect what goes on in them, so the health of the national workforce has become one of the most significant issues of modern time. Temperature and humidity are known to affect performance, and excessive noise creates hearing loss.

The size of the organizations is important, too. Members of small organizations report more supportive environments, less discrimination, and more loyalty to the organization. On the other hand, large organizations often create negative conditions. Researchers found that the larger the program, the more the members experienced anxiety, held negative views of the psychosocial aspects of the organization, and perceived greater psychological distance from the organization. Beyond that, though, even the use of space in organizations affects comfort level; when the space is crowded, individuals in it feel most uncomfortable. Organizations that care about their members will create safe and comfortable environments for them. The social environment also plays a large role. Hughes and Dodge (1997) found that bias was the most important predictor of job quality than any other stressors, such as low task variety, heavy workloads, and poor supervision.

Other environmental factors can affect one's working life; these factors originate in the environment at large. Such factors as the economy, competition from other organizations, the introduction of new technologies, and so forth, can add to work-related stress.

Community psychology is the psychology that examines the effects of social and environmental factors on behavior as it occurs in various levels in communities, including the organizational level, in order to produce beneficial change. To understand the effects of environmental factors, or settings on individuals, one must understand something about the setting—in this case, organizations, whether they be private sector businesses, mental health clinics, prisons, or any other community organization.

UNIT SIX

Scientific Research Methods in Community Psychology

6.1. What is Knowledge

- (1) Information about or awareness of something, an issue, a fact;
- (2) An understanding of a matter, a fact, an issue.

We have access to books written many years ago or more recently, we can log on to current information gathered on the other side of the world via the internet, we hear of research being done that predicts what will happen in the future using, for example, climate change models.

6.1.1. Methods of acquiring knowledge

The means by which people come to understand their world may be classified into two broad categories:

1. Common sense and
2. Scientific approach

1. Common Sense

Common sense knowledge is the result of our day-to-day living- heavily dependent upon experience and subjective interpretation of our real world. Personal experiences provide richly fertile sources of hypotheses and questions about the world.

Common sense knowing differs from scientific approach to problem solving in terms of:

- the way in which theories are used
- the concept of control
- attitude to the relationships among phenomena

Major ways of knowing in common sense

A. Belief: Sometimes we hold on to what we know because we believe it to be true. Strong beliefs may not be changed even when there is contrary evidence.

For example: I may believe that it is always better for children to be brought up with two biological parents – my deeply felt belief may come from a combination of my own and observed experience, and perhaps my moral values or religious faith, and my belief may be strong enough for me to ignore other examples that differ from my own; when, for example, children brought up with only one parent present or in a stepfamily do well, or when a child is abused by one of its biological parents.

▲ As social researchers we may need to challenge our own beliefs and assumptions.

B) Authoritative knowledge: We may feel convinced that something is true because an authority (the Bible, Koran, a leader or teacher) tells us it is true. We perceive such knowledge to have a higher authority than knowledge gained from our own experience.

For example: I may feel that I know it is true that marriage between a man and a woman is the best form of relationship because I have been told by a religious authority or a leader, or I may know because ‘my mother told me’.

▲ As social researchers we may have to question the authority of such sources of knowledge.

C) Experiential knowing: Knowledge can be built up from experience over many years.


This can be knowledge we do not realize we have – and it may be difficult to express to others.

For example: As a grandmother I have had experience of children being brought up in a range of different family units and from my experience I would find it hard to argue that children brought up by two biological parents always do better than those brought up in other family situations. My experiences of spending time with young children has also helped me to develop my practical skills in relating to and caring for young children.

▲ As social researchers we may need to reflect on the knowledge and skills we have gained from our experience and how this influences what we are interested in and what we do.

2. Scientific Approach

The *second means* by which we set out to discover truth is scientific approach (research).

What is . . . 

Research

.....is defined as the systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena

- systematic and controlled/other things remain constant/do not occur haphazardly
- Empirical/based on experience, observation & experimentation/
- self-correcting/checking z ways that we have passed/

Research is a step-by-step process that involves collecting and examining information. We do research to improve our knowledge and understanding about the world we live in. It almost always involves finding out something new. It is also a search or investigation directed to the discovery of some fact by careful consideration or study of a subject.

Research also understood *as original investigation undertaken in order to gain knowledge and understanding*. It includes work of direct relevance to the needs of commerce, industry, and to the public and voluntary sectors; scholarship; the invention and generation of ideas, images, performances, artifacts including design, where these lead to new or substantially improved insights; and the use of existing knowledge in experimental development to produce new or substantially improved materials, devices, products and processes, including design and construction.

Major ways of knowing in scientific methods

A) Theoretical knowing: Having a theory or set of ideas helps us to work out a response to a problem or to explain an aspect of our social world.

For example: If I think (have a theory) that there are a number of different factors that affect the way a child develops, including the people the child lives with on a day-to-day basis, the school

they go to, the neighborhood they live in and so on, then I am likely to try to explain the behavior of young people in these terms and not simply in terms of their family composition.

▲ As social researchers we can begin to identify the theories we use in everyday life and the theories that are used by others studying the same aspects of the social world.

B) Empirical knowledge: This is knowledge based on available research evidence – data that have been gathered to answer research questions or test hypotheses which can be checked through further research.

▲ As social researchers we need to develop the skills to enable us to gather data to answer research questions or test hypotheses, to develop knowledge-based theories.

6.2. Traditional Scientific Methods

6.2.1. Correlation research

Correlational research techniques are generally intended to answer three questions about two variables or two sets of data

- First, Is there a relationship between the two variables (or sets of data)?
- If the answer to this question is ‘yes’, then two other questions follow:
 - What is the direction of the relationship?’ and ‘
 - What is the magnitude?

You may wish to know, for example:

- How delinquency is related to child upbringing?
- Whether an association exists between anxiety levels and the amount of exercise an individual makes?
- Whether there is a link between personality type and the likely of developing behavior disorder?

- Whether association exists between stress and the development of psychosomatic problems?
- The link between the use of treatment modalities and success in treating mental illness?

6.2.2. Experimental research design

We begin with the experimental research design that, paradoxically, is the research design you are least likely to find or use when conducting social research! However, there are good reasons for beginning here, as some of the features of an experimental design form the basis for variations that meet the criteria of quality research and are useful to social researchers.

The experimental research design underpins much scientific research, and begins with the assumption that the material or cases that are being studied can be manipulated by the researcher in some way so that some change or difference can be measured. For example: a series of identical plants are exposed to different amounts of light and their growth rates measured and related to the amount of light exposure. In experimental research examples like these, the researcher deliberately *does* something *to* something, in order to provoke and then *measure* a reaction.

However, often we cannot manipulate the data sources used most frequently in social research in this way. We cannot, for example, deliberately deprive a child of schooling to see how far they would develop without that sort of education. This is because such a course would, on the one hand, be regarded as highly unethical, but it would also be impractical since there are so many other aspects of a normal child's life which we would be unable to control. Children will have inherited different skills and attributes; some children may be educated by their parents at home; others may be neglected by their parents. The results of our experiment would be inconclusive because we would not be able to control all the possible influences on each child.

However, there are ways in which the principal characteristics of an experiment can be helpful in designing social research that approximates to an experiment. An experiment usually has two key elements:

1. **Experimental group**— this is the group of people or materials that are manipulated or changed in some way.

2. Control group – this is a group of people or materials that are the same as the experimental group in every way *except* the aspect of manipulation or change.

An experiment typically is set up to test a hypothesis that is related to the change that is introduced: For example, if *A* is added to *B*, then *C* (change) will occur.

If an experiment is carefully conducted and the variation between the two groups is confined to the intervention or change, then the experiment can claim that it is likely that the effect of the intervention or change on the experimental group has been caused by the intervention or change.

In order to control such experiments and eliminate any other variation between groups, most experiments are carried out under controlled conditions, for example, in a laboratory, and indeed some of the most significant social research experiments in the field of social psychology have been carried out in such controlled conditions.

6.2.3. Quasi-experimental research

As social researchers, we are generally looking for opportunities to collect data in ‘natural’ situations – in other words, to collect data about situations, issues or opinions that exist in everyday life rather than constructing laboratory simulations. A **quasi-experimental research design can** be used in some situations where two or more ‘naturally’ different groups of participants or data can be identified, and one used as the control and the other as the experimental group.

As an example of the new teaching method for reading, it may not have been possible to allocate children at random to the class groups – this could be deemed very disruptive to the children and might risk affecting their learning in other ways. Yet it would still be possible to consider one class as a control group (using the traditional method) and the other as the experimental group (using the new method), and to compare the outcomes in terms of the measurement of levels of reading skills before and after the teaching has taken place. This would be regarded as a quasi-experiment because the makeup of the control and experimental groups would be prearranged. However, it would be more ‘natural’ because the children would not be aware of any changes.

6.3. Other research methods used in community psychology

6.3.1 Ethnography

What makes an ethnographical study different from other types of study is the relationship of the researcher with the data that is collected. In ethnographical research the researcher spends time (sometimes a number of years) immersed within the research context, seeing and hearing the data at first hand. This is often called 'the field' or 'a natural setting'. Typically the researcher takes a role within the setting that will allow him to participate in the research context as a researcher and as a participant.

The researcher keeps a reflective diary and his reflections become part of the data that is worked with. Data is analyzed as it is collected, and this may then influence the way further data is collected. Data is typically collected using participant observation, conversations and sometimes more formal interviews. Relevant documents may also be included. Data may also be gathered using visual recording through photographs or videos.

Effectively, ethnography follows a case study design. However, there is the added dimension of the researcher participating in the social phenomenon under study and seeking, through that participation and regular data collection and reflection, to gain a deeper understanding of the culture of the group, organization or community. This is gained by observing how people construct social meaning and actions in everyday life.

Although a lengthy ethnographical study is unlikely to be feasible for most students, it is possible to design a shorter study, perhaps focused in an organization or group of which you are already a member or in a parttime job, over a period of weeks rather than years.

An ethnographical study is not about just gathering as much data as possible. There must be a focus – a research question to address – which may be related to the way people interact, what hierarchies can be observed in the way people work together and how participants organize themselves.

6.3.2. Epidemiology

Epidemiological research methods are the methods that are used to identify and classify the origins and spread of epidemic situations especially epidemic related disease.

Epidemiological- based research is the cornerstone of clinical psychology. So, Psychiatric epidemiology can be defined as the distribution and determinants of a disorder in a specific population. This entry begins with the definition of psychiatric epidemiology and its contribution to scientific understanding of psychiatric disorders and public health policy.

6.4. program evaluation and Need assessment

6.4.1. Program Evaluation

Program evaluation is the application of social research tools that contribute to decisions on installation, continuation, expansion, certification or modification of programs.

Program evaluation may be used to rally support or opposition to a program.

Program evaluation is a systematic method for collecting, analyzing, and using information to answer questions about projects, policies and programs, particularly about their effectiveness and efficiency. In both the public and private sectors, stakeholders often want to know whether the programs they are funding, implementing, voting for, receiving or objecting to are producing the intended effect. While program evaluation first focuses around this definition, important considerations often include how much the program costs per participant, how the program could be improved, whether the program is worthwhile, whether there are better alternatives, if there are unintended outcomes, and whether the program goals are appropriate and useful. Evaluators help to answer these questions, but the best way to answer the questions is for the evaluation to be a joint project between evaluators and stakeholders.

Program evaluations can involve both quantitative and qualitative methods of social research. People who do program evaluation come from many different backgrounds, such as sociology, psychology, economics, social work, and public policy. Some graduate schools also have specific training programs for program evaluation.

6.4.2. Need assessment

Needs assessment involves the processes or methods used by evaluators to describe and diagnose social needs. This is essential for evaluators because they need to identify whether programs are effective and they cannot do this unless they have identified what the problem/need is. A needs assessment examines the population that the program intends to target, to see whether the need as conceptualized in the program actually exists in the population; whether it is, in fact, a problem; and if so, how it might best be dealt with. This includes identifying and diagnosing the actual problem the program is trying to address, who or what is affected by the problem, how widespread the problem is, and what are the measurable effects that are caused by the problem. For example, for a housing program aimed at mitigating homelessness, a program evaluator may want to find out how many people are homeless in a given geographic area and what their demographics are.

Needs assessment involves research and regular consultation with community stakeholders and with the people that will benefit from the project before the program can be developed and implemented. Hence it should be a bottom-up approach. In this way potential problems can be realized early because the process would have involved the community in identifying the need and thereby allowed the opportunity to identify potential barriers.

The important task of a program evaluator is thus to: First, construct a precise definition of what the problem is. Evaluators need to first identify the problem/need. This is most effectively done by collaboratively including all possible stakeholders, i.e., the community impacted by the potential problem, the agents/actors working to address and resolve the problem, funders, etc. Second, assess the extent of the problem. Having clearly identified what the problem is, evaluators need to then assess the extent of the problem. They need to answer the 'where' and 'how big' questions. Evaluators need to work out where the problem is located and how big it is. Pointing out that a problem exists is much easier than having to specify where it is located and how rife it is.

There are two more questions that need to be answered:^[8] Evaluators need to also answer the 'how' and 'what' questions. The 'how' question requires that evaluators determine how the need will be addressed. Having identified the need and having familiarized oneself with the community evaluators should conduct a performance analysis to identify whether the proposed plan in the program will actually be able to eliminate the need. The 'what' question requires that evaluators

conduct a task analysis to find out what the best way to perform would be? Third, define and identify the target of interventions and accurately describe the nature of the service needs of that population. It is important to know what/who the target population is/are – it might be individuals, groups, communities, etc. There are three units of the population: population at risk, population in need and population in demand

Population at risk: are people with a significant probability of developing the risk e.g. the population at risk for birth control programs are women of child bearing age.

Population in need: are people with the condition that the program seeks to address; e.g. the population in need for a program that aims to provide ARV's to HIV positive people are people that are HIV positive.

Population in demand: that part of the population in need that agrees to be having the need and are willing to take part in what the program has to offer e.g. not all HIV positive people will be willing to take ARV's.

Being able to specify what/who the target is will assist in establishing appropriate boundaries, so that interventions can correctly address the target population and be feasible to apply

There are four steps in conducting a needs assessment:

A) Perform a 'gap' analyses

Evaluators need to compare current situation to the desired or necessary situation. The difference or the gap between the two situations will help identify the need, purpose and aims of the program.

B) Identify priorities and importance

In the first step above, evaluators would have identified a number of interventions that could potentially address the need e.g. training and development, organization development etc. These must now be examined in view of their significance to the program's goals and constraints. This must be done by considering the following factors: cost effectiveness (considers the budget of the program, assess cost/benefit ratio), executive pressure (whether top management expects a solution) and population (whether many key people are involved).

C) Identify causes of performance problems and/or opportunities

When the needs have been prioritized the next step is to identify specific problem areas within the need to be addressed. And to also assess the skills of the people that will be carrying out the interventions.

D) Identify possible solutions and growth opportunities

Compare the consequences of the interventions if it was to be implemented or not.

Needs analysis is hence a very crucial step in evaluating programs because the effectiveness of a program cannot be assessed unless we know what the problem was in the first place.