

Glossary of Key Terms

Chapter 1: The Fundamentals of Community Psychology

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.

Context: Encapsulates all the structural forces that influence an individual's life, including family and social relationships, neighborhood, school, religious and community organizations, cultural norms, gender roles, and socioeconomic status. Not adequately accounting for these structural forces leads to flawed research and practice, which is called context minimization error.

Distributive justice: An aspect of social justice that involves the fair and equitable allocation of resources (e.g., money, access to quality education and healthcare) among community members.

Errors of logical typing: Taking action at the wrong ecological level (e.g., city ordinances that limit panhandling, which targets individual behaviors resulting from homelessness, not the root causes of homelessness within localities and macrosystems).

First-order change: Altering, rearranging, or replacing the individual members of a group without addressing the structural issues that are the root cause of the problem.

Individual: The smallest ecological level, it involves total consideration of a person's experiences, memories, thoughts, feelings, relationships, culture, and other defining factors.

Individualistic perspective: Focuses on the life choices and behaviors of individuals when addressing societal problems.

Localities: Geographic settings within an ecological framework—such as counties, towns, neighborhoods, or even entire cities— that often contain multiple organizations or microsystems, including governments, economies, media outlets, and educational and health systems.

Macrosystems: The largest systems within an ecological framework that form contexts that influence individuals, microsystems, organizations, and localities. These other ecological systems can in turn influence macrosystems through social advocacy or widespread action. Example macrosystems include cultures, political parties, corporations, religions, and governments.

Mediating structures: Institutions that link individuals to public life, including formal organizations and settings (e.g., schools, churches) and less formal ones (e.g., self-help groups, clubs, organized supporters' groups for a favorite sports team). They can act as a

buffer in dealing with stressors from larger institutions (e.g., unemployment, discrimination) and can be important intervention points when helping communities.

Microsystems: Smaller environments or groups within an ecological framework where the individual often communicates or interacts directly with others (e.g., families, classrooms, musical groups, sports teams).

Organizations: Large ecological systems with solid, clearly defined structures, including titles, missions, rules and policies, schedules, and hierarchies, among other things (e.g., workplaces, religious congregations, neighborhood associations, schools). They often consist of multiple microsystems and can be part of larger social units (e.g., a neighborhood association operates within a city).

Populations: A broadly shared characteristic that links people together within a macrosystem. They can form the basis of a community (e.g., the Deaf community).

Procedural justice: An aspect of social justice ensuring that everyone within a setting has the same rights and is subject to the same rules and procedures. In law, it is understood as due process, but it applies to other settings as well.

Second order change: Resolving a problem by changing relationships within a community, which includes shared goals, roles, rules, and power dynamics. This approach requires more extensive and dynamic efforts but is more likely to result in positive, long-term change.

Setting: An important concept in community psychology that encompasses physical surroundings and relationships among individuals. It can span multiple places and can apply to microsystems and larger organizations.

Structural perspective: Also referred to as an ecological perspective, it examines how systemic factors at various levels impact the lives of individuals, families, and other groups within a community.

Values: Deeply held ideals in individuals and communities about what is considered moral, right, or good. They can influence goals, the means to achieve those goals, or both. Community psychology is guided by eight core values, as shown in Exhibit 1.1.

Chapter 2: The Development and Practice of Community Psychology

Action research: Research that informs and contributes to positive social change. Participatory action research in particular is collaborative in nature, empowering community members to be active participants who guide the research process.

Blaming the victim: Thinking about societal problems from an individualistic perspective, assuming they are caused by individual deficits and life choices rather than broader

macrosystem factors, and focusing on one ecological level rather than looking at factors across multiple levels.

Bottom-up approaches: Grassroots strategies for creating social change that come from citizens instead of professionals and powerful stakeholders. They are grounded in the experiences and ideas of the people who are affected the most by community or social issues.

Divergent reasoning: An approach to social issues that avoids simplistic, one-sided answers and recognizes that conflicting viewpoints can coexist and lead to more effective solutions. It also involves questioning the status quo or commonly accepted viewpoints and welcoming new perspectives.

Fair play: One definition of equality that seeks to ensure fairness in competition for social, educational, or economic advancement. It assumes that everyone starts in the same place and that different results are due to individual merit, talent, or effort.

Fair shares: Another definition of equality that focuses on lessening extreme outcome inequalities while also ensuring that fair procedures are set in place. It looks beyond individual factors and considers broader influences, such as access to resources or opportunities, to ensure equal competition for social, educational, and economic advancement.

Group dynamics: The study of how groups form, how people interact with each other in groups, and how groups can impact their members attitudes and behaviors.

Liberation psychology: Inspired by liberation theology in Latin America, this approach seeks to understand and address the situation of oppressed and impoverished communities by challenging the sociopolitical structure they currently exist in. It emphasizes values like citizen empowerment and social justice and has influenced community psychology's development.

Linking practice: Brings together multiple community stakeholders, including members who are often overlooked, to address community issues. Community psychology uses this approach to develop comprehensive, collaborative interventions.

Linking science: Looks for relationships among factors across multiple ecological levels, including individuals, microsystems, localities, and macrosystems. Through this approach, community psychology seeks a comprehensive understanding of what influences the health and well-being of individuals and communities.

Participant conceptualizer: Used to describe an important role for a community psychologist, this refers to someone who contributes their expertise in research and/or intervention methods to creating positive social change in collaboration with community members.

Top-down approaches: Strategies for creating social change that are developed by professionals, leaders, or other elites. Their strategies are rooted in empirical research and

often backed by more resources, but they can also reflect biases and interests of the powerful and privileged.

Chapter 3: The Aims of Community Research

Assumption of methodological equivalence: Assuming that research methods work equally well in multiple cultural settings without modification and not properly evaluating how cultural differences can impact research findings. This can occur even if culture is not the topic being studied.

Assumption of population homogeneity: Categorizing all individuals within a cultural group as being alike without properly acknowledging differences.

Attending to marginalized voices: Conducting research that draws attention to and incorporates the knowledge and experiences of communities who are overlooked, identifying community strengths and resources.

Constructivist philosophies of science: These approaches openly acknowledge and evaluate researcher biases rather than trying to avoid them. Researchers are considered coproducers of knowledge alongside community members.

Critical philosophies of science: Similar but not identical to constructivist philosophies, these approaches assume that knowledge is shaped by power relationships created and maintained by social institutions and belief systems. They encourage researchers to question who holds the power to state what is true, who defines research relationships, and how their background influences the research process. Critical researchers are activists who challenge injustices.

Heart work: Incorporating values, emotions, and personal relationships into collaborative community research, in addition to expert knowledge.

Reciprocity: Creating an atmosphere of trust in a relationship between researchers and community members in which the partners focus on outcomes that benefit everyone, rather than focusing solely on one's own interests.

Reflexivity: A process through which researchers seek to understand how their values, biases, and positions as experts influence their findings and relationships with community partners.

Research ethics: A values-focused framework that ensures the well-being of participants, both individuals and groups, during the research process by avoiding paternalistic stances and respecting persons, partnerships, communities, and cultures. It helps researchers bridge the gap between the abstract goals of research and the actual practice of research in a community setting.

Positivism: The dominant philosophy of science during psychology's development that emphasizes objectivity, value-free neutrality in research, understanding cause-and-effect

relationships through hypothesis testing and controlling external variables, and quantifiable data. It seeks universal laws and findings that apply to multiple contexts.

Postpositivist philosophies of science: These approaches recognize that no researcher is truly objective yet aim to reduce bias as much as possible. They adapt positivist methods based on the community being studied.

Voice: A metaphor drawn from feminist thinking that refers to a person's knowledge, experiences, words, intuitions, and insights.

Chapter 4: Methods of Community Psychology Research

Case studies: A qualitative research approach that uses multiple qualitative methods, possibly existing data and quantitative methods as well, to develop a deep understanding of a single person, setting, locality, phenomenon, or system. Case studies are usually longitudinal, lasting for an extended period of time, and can identify complex patterns in natural settings. Multiple case studies can be conducted in one analysis to improve generalizability.

Coding: Identifying current and repeating themes or categorizing and comparing different sets of data or stages in the research process. Using multiple coders and checking the level of agreement between the coders strengthens the data's reliability.

Community surveys: A quantitative method that uses standardized questionnaires or other measurements to gather quantitative data from community samples that identify defining factors of that group.

Complementarity: Where quantitative or qualitative methods that complement each other achieve something that the other cannot do. Quantitative methods are more effective at determining cause-and-effect relationships, while qualitative methods provide deeper knowledge about the lived experiences of individuals and communities.

Convergence: Using multiple different research methods to study the same individual, group, or phenomenon to determine the credibility of the findings based on how similar the results are across methods.

Credibility: How accurate research findings are at presenting individuals, communities, systems, and related phenomena in a realistic manner. This can be enhanced through deep, detailed qualitative research.

Decontextualized knowledge: Knowledge provided by quantitative methods that is gathered from individuals but not associated with existing settings, communities, or cultures. It can lead to wider sampling, but it limits knowledge of contextual factors and causal relationships.

Divergence: Key differences that emerge between qualitative and quantitative results. These differences can lead to constructive dialogues and a more complete picture of a complex situation than just one method type could.

Epidemiology: The study of the frequency and distribution of disorders, as well as related risk and protective factors. It is generally a precursor to experimental studies looking for factors that cause these disorders and is essential in prevention and treatment interventions.

Focus groups: A qualitative research method consisting of a discussion with a small group of people who share a characteristic the researcher wants to study. A moderator encourages natural dialogue among the participants with open-ended questions and discussion prompts. Researchers compare and contrast differences between individuals and observe reactions elicited by fellow community members to develop a contextual understanding of their shared experiences. Group sizes are generally small and can limit generalizability.

Geographic information systems (GIS): A method of mapping physical and social environments by plotting data on a map that connects physical–spatial aspects of a community with psychosocial qualities.

Incidence: In epidemiology it is the rate of new occurrences of a disorder in a population within a specific time period—usually a year. It is the primary target of prevention efforts in community psychology.

Interrupted time-series designs: A quantitative method for studying an intervention by repeatedly measuring the same individual, setting, locality, etc. using the same method across a period of time. A baseline measure is taken before implementing the intervention then compared with data collected after the implementation to study the effects of the intervention.

Mixed-methods research: Research that combines qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study. Sometimes qualitative methods are used first to identify variables that then inform the design of quantitative approaches. Other times quantitative methods are used first and are followed by qualitative methods that help explain why the research found the quantitative results that they did.

Multiple baseline designs: A form of interrupted time-series design that involves multiple time-series studies conducted with different communities to compare the effects of an intervention in these communities. Each community is studied at a different time so that external factors that affect all the communities at the same time are not confounded with the effects of the intervention.

Narratives: Shared stories, myths, and traditions that communicate important events, values, and other themes that are important for the community's identity and sustainability.

Nonequivalent comparison group designs: A quantitative method that is used when assignment to experimental and control groups cannot be randomized. It relies on existing groups as comparison points, such as different classes within the same school or different schools within the same locality.

Participant observation: A qualitative research method that involves interviews and conversations with community members while taking careful, detailed notes and performing conceptual interpretations. The researcher becomes part of the community and participates in community life, allowing the researcher to develop deeper knowledge of the community. Limitations of this method include limited generalizability of findings to other communities and the potential for researcher bias in their observations and interpretations.

Personal stories: Similar to narratives, an individual's own unique accounts they create to make sense of their life.

Prevalence: In epidemiology it is the rate of existing occurrences of a disorder in a population within a time period. It includes new cases and continuing cases that began before the time period being examined and can inform mutual help or mental health services and policy.

Protective factors: Factors that are associated with a lower likelihood of a disorder. They can counteract the effects of a disorder or strengthen resistance to them, or they can be indirect, correlated factors. Social support is an example protective factor in community settings.

Qualitative interviewing: A qualitative research method in which the researcher asks open-ended questions about the lived experiences of an individual and the meaning they make from those experiences. The questions and research protocols are established before the interview but are flexible enough to adapt to unanticipated questions that arise. Data collection is more standardized, reducing the potential for researcher bias, but the sample sizes are typically small, which limits generalizability to the wider community.

Qualitative research: Research methods that seek to understand social, behavioral, and other phenomena in their natural environments, not in a laboratory setting. These methods provide detailed analysis of complex, dynamic, and meaningful life experiences; study phenomena based on the meanings people bring to them; and give voice to perspectives not fully articulated in existing studies.

Quantitative research: Methods that seek specific cause-and-effect relationships and emphasize obtaining and analyzing numerical data through standardized measures, statistical analysis, and experimental or statistical controls. They are most useful for studying generalizable conclusions about how environmental factors affect health and well-being across contexts, settings, and communities at various levels.

Randomized field experiments: A quantitative method used to test the effectiveness of an intervention by randomly assigning individuals or settings to experimental or control groups. The experimental group receives the intervention being studied while the control group does not. Comparisons between the experimental and control groups are conducted before and after testing to identify whether the intervention had any notable effects.

Risk factors: Factors that are associated with an increased likelihood of a disorder. These can range from direct causes to correlated factors. Example risk factors include exposure to stressors and limited resources.

Thick description: An important aspect of qualitative data presented in written form as notes or transcripts, it is a thorough account of the research participants' experiences that is detailed enough to clearly reflect reality, document key information and patterns, and allow for later analysis and interpretation by the original research team and other researchers.

Verisimilitude: A common goal of qualitative research, it entails eliciting a powerful, emotional response in a reader that is similar to the response of the research participant being described.

Chapter 5: Understanding Individuals Within Environments

Activity settings: The integration of the physical setting and behavior of the people conducting an activity with their beliefs, participant roles, and the relationships they form and experience over time.

Acts of resistance: Deliberately behaving in ways that protest oppression or that embrace suppressed cultural behaviors, such as wearing nonmainstream clothes.

Adaptation: Focuses on interactions between people and their environments and specifically, how an environment can restrict or form people's behavior, and, conversely, how environments can change because of their members.

Alternative settings: New and different initiatives created to address the unmet needs of those who are not helped by existing options.

Behavior settings: A specific place with recurring patterns of conduct for specific times. The patterns of behavior are predictable because of demands of the setting and time.

Counterspaces: Alternative activity settings that are developed to provide safety and well-being to individuals who typically face oppression, isolation, and marginalization in existing settings.

Cycling of resources: Refers to the process of understanding a system by examining how resources are used, allocated, preserved, and transformed.

Direct relational transactions: Social exchanges between members of a counterspace that create social support by offering guidance, opportunities for emotional release, and encouragement in the face of oppression.

Distal processes: Within an ecological framework, these systems are not as immediate to the individual yet have substantial impacts on their life (e.g., cultures, governments, corporations, ideologies, mass media).

Environmental design: Developing architecture, neighborhood features, and other elements of a constructed setting with consideration for the psychological effects they will have.

Environmental psychology: Studies the relationship between physical environments, especially human-constructed environments, and human behavior.

Environmental stressors: Environmental stimuli that negatively impact physical and mental health. Examples include noise, air pollution, hazardous waste, and crowded living spaces.

Interdependence: Mutual reliance and connectivity among systems; alterations to one portion of a system can impact relationships within that system or other systems.

Intersubjectivity: The process and outcome of sharing experiences, knowledge, understanding, and expectations with others; shared knowledge that is understood among community members but difficult to relay to strangers.

Narrative identity work: The effort of counterspace members to develop positive personal and group identities that work against the internalization of negative stereotypes.

Neighborhood protective processes: Strength or resources that provide positive individual outcomes and may guard against the impact of risk processes.

Neighborhood risk processes: Neighborhood practices that increase an individual's risk for mental disorders, behavioral issues, and distress.

Optimally populated settings: Environments where most people are actively involved and feel appreciated.

Overpopulated settings: Environments where too many people are available to fill roles and some people feel marginalized or excluded.

Personal development: The process of fostering an individual's autonomy, growth, and skills within a social setting.

Personal resources: An individual person's skills, expertise, experiences, strengths, or other attributes that can be used to address challenges.

Physical resources: The tangible, material features of a location that individuals can utilize, such as specific types of rooms in a building and the objects they contain.

Proximal processes: Within an ecological framework, these are the systems closest to the individual that involve the most face-to-face interactions (e.g., families, neighborhoods, classrooms, religious congregations, workplaces).

Social climate approach: The method for evaluating perceptions of a social environment that are shared among its members; a key framework for understanding environments that stresses how people experience and comprehend settings.

Social regularities: Routine patterns of social interactions among the people within a setting that can affect resource allocation, access to opportunities, and power to impact social issues.

Social relationships: The connections that occur between people who interact in a social setting, including mutual social support, involvement, and coordination.

Social resources: Collective beliefs, values, rules and other assets that come from having shared connections and relationships within a community.

Succession: The understanding that settings and social systems are in an ongoing process of change.

System maintenance and change: Involves the preservation of order, relaying rules and expectations and monitoring behavior in a system, as well as the need for adaptation, innovation, and positive change.

Underpopulated settings: Environments where there aren't enough people available to fill roles; if people are committed to maintaining the setting, then members may try to develop these skills personally or teach others these skills; in severely underpopulated settings, members may be too overstretched and the setting may ultimately be abandoned.

Chapter 6: What Defines Community?

Bonding social capital: Elements like trust, reciprocity, and shared values within a social network that create group cohesion.

Boundaries: A set of standards for defining who is member of the community and who is excluded. These can include geographic boundaries in a locality-based community or shared characteristics or goals in a relational community.

Bridging social capital: Building and maintaining connections between different social networks, establishing links between individuals with different values and experiences.

Common symbols: Easily identifiable markers that denote membership, including visual elements, like colors and symbols, and audible elements, like slang, jargon, and anthems.

Ecological-transactional model of community: The reciprocal interactions between us and the communities we encounter.

Emotional safety: This can refer to a sense of security from crime and harm or to a deeper sense of having secure relationships within a community that are created through group acceptance and mutual processes for sharing emotions and concerns.

Exchange of resources: Also referred to as fulfillment of needs, refers to meeting community members' needs and sharing the means to achieve those ends.

Hope: Trusting the future will bring better circumstances and that things can and will change in a positive manner. It is essential for motivating community social change.

Influence: An aspect of sense of community that refers to the amount of persuasion a specific individual or group dynamic can have on members of the community. It is a reciprocal relationship in which the individual can influence the community and the community in turn influences the individual.

Integration: Refers to how much relationships within a community contribute to an overall sense of community. It is defined by two elements: shared values and exchange of resources.

Locality-based communities: The traditional view of community, such as city blocks, neighborhoods, and towns.

Membership: One aspect of sense of community, it is the feeling of being an integral member of one's community. Membership is defined by five attributes: boundaries, common symbols, emotional safety, personal investment, and sense of belonging and identification.

Myth of "we": Ignoring the differences in a community and focusing solely on what is similar between individuals, idealizing a sense of community while ignoring diversity.

Neighboring: Personal interactions among neighbors, who are often acquainted but not close friends, that includes informal contacts and assistance. It can refer to a sense of comfort, trust, and shared mutual interests and needs that overlap with sense of community but is distinct.

Personal investment: The level of long-term commitment, effort, and participation one has in a community. Examples include buying a home, joining a club or organization, or volunteering within the community.

Relational communities: Communities that are defined more by shared goals, interests, activities, or social identities than by geographical location or physical proximity. Examples include online discussion groups, religious congregations, workplaces, and political parties.

Sense of belonging and identification: Feeling accepted by other community members and having one's membership in their community being part of their personal identity.

Sense of community responsibility: A feeling of personal responsibility for the individual and collective well-being of a community of people not directly rooted in an expectation of personal gain.

Sense of the transcendent: A spiritual experience beyond oneself and one's immediate world.

Shared emotional connection: An aspect of sense of community, it is a common bond that unites community members that isn't easily defined but is understood by those who share it.

This spiritual bond can be expressed through behavior, speech, or other elements and is developed through shared narrative of the community.

Shared values: Goals and ideals that are agreed upon by members and contribute to community involvement.

Social capital: Social capital on a community level refers to features of social life—networks, norms and trust—that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives.

Social support: Is help provided by others to promote coping with stress.

Spirituality: The sense of connection one feels to something beyond themselves and their immediate world that is expressed through beliefs and practices.

Spiritual communities: Religious, spiritual, or faith-based institutions, organizations, or setting that can serve as mediating structures between their members and larger communities.

Chapter 7: Understanding Human Diversity in Context

Acculturation: When an individual or group changes because of contact between multiple cultures.

Assimilation: When an individual or group identifies with their dominant or host culture and loses ties with their culture of origin.

Bicultural integration: When an individual identifies or participates with both their culture of origin and the dominant or host culture in meaningful ways.

Brave spaces: Spaces in which individuals can proactively engage with and learn from each other despite cultural tension and discomfort.

Cultural humility: Openness to continuous learning and personal growth, curiosity and genuine respect for other cultures and their traditions, a willingness to confront differences in privilege and power, and self-reflection and critique of one's personal and cultural biases.

Decentering: Weaving together knowledge and experiences across many communities around the world and beyond academic institutions.

Decoloniality: Drawing attention to what and whose knowledge counts as legitimate and powerful or as being presented as “other,” challenging oppressive conditions around the world, and collaborating with communities historically excluded from action and research.

Deep structure: The less tangible aspects of a community program, including core cultural beliefs, values, and practices. Historical, psychological, and social knowledge of a culture are required.

Dominant or privileged group: The more powerful group in an oppressive hierarchy.

Enculturation: The process of transmitting culture, including language, knowledge, rituals and other behaviors, and social roles and norms for thinking, feeling, and acting.

Ethnocentrism: Understanding or defining communities and community problems using a limited perspective based on the norms and beliefs of one's own group.

Immersion: The second stage of identity development in which an individual becomes more involved in activities in one's own social group, developing a sense of cultural heritage.

Implicit bias: The mental associations individuals make based on social categories (e.g., race, socioeconomic status, gender) that are often influenced by societal biases.

Internalized oppression: A sense of inferiority developed by members of oppressed or subordinated groups based on beliefs and myths perpetuated by oppressive or privileged groups.

Intersectionality: The idea that each person is composed of multiple convergent identities, including culture, race, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, religion, disability status, and others and these multiple identities can affect power, opportunity, functioning, and access.

Labyrinth: The array of obstacles that women and minorities must face to achieve success in the workplace, often because White men have more power that they can wield to take advantage of opportunities more readily.

Liberation perspective: A call to action that explains injustices, shines light on the oppressive system, and provides a plan for changing the system and achieving social justice. Exhibit 7.2 reviews the key principles of the liberation perspective.

Marginality: When an individual does not or cannot identify with either their culture of origin or the dominant or host culture.

Oppressed or subordinated group: The less powerful group in an oppressive hierarchy.

Oppression: Occurs in a hierarchical relationship in which a dominant group unjustly holds power and resources, withholding them from one or more other groups.

Patriarchy: The system of unearned male power based on long-standing historical beliefs about male superiority and gender role expectations that harms everyone regardless of gender.

Pluralism: The idea that no culture or group should represent the norm; that each individual, group, and culture has a place and must be understood on its own terms; but not assuming that all beliefs and behaviors are okay.

Privilege: Unearned advantages that arise from one's social identity.

Separation: When an individual strongly identifies with their culture of origin, develops language and other skills for participating mostly in that culture, lives primarily in communities of that culture, and interacts with the host or dominant culture in limited ways.

Social equality: Treating all communities equally, including the amount of resources and attention they receive.

Social equity: Ensuring that each community has what it needs to thrive while recognizing that disadvantaged communities may require more resources and attention than privileged communities.

Social inequity: When a lack of resources leads to fewer education, health care, and work opportunities for a community, as well as community members' property rights, voting, rights, freedom of speech and assembly, and citizenship being challenged in extreme cases. Lack of opportunities need be considered relative to the availability of those opportunities.

Surface structure: The observable aspects of a community program, including the race, ethnicity, and gender of its staff, the language(s) used, the choice of cultural elements such as food or music, and the setting.

Tokens: A small number of individuals from oppressed or subordinated groups who enjoy the privileges of the dominant or host group to make the dominant group seem less exclusionary to the public.

Transformed relations: The third stage of identity development in which, after forming new social identity and committing to their social group, an individual interacts with the larger society in ways that reflect their new social identity.

Unexamined identity: The first stage of identity development in which an individual identifies with mainstream cultural ideals and ignores or denies their social group status (e.g., racial, ethnic, gender, or sexual orientation).

Chapter 8: Empowerment and Citizen Participation

Boundary spanning: Bridging mechanisms that connect different groups within an organization, foster the understanding of one another, and strengthen collaborative efforts.

Citizen participation: The involvement individuals have in community decision-making processes that impact them, having their voices heard and being able to influence these decisions in a democratic manner.

Critical awareness: The knowledge of how power and political forces can change, improve, or interrupt community and personal life. It includes knowledge of and questioning oppressive

hierarchies and how social myths maintain them. Critical awareness arises from life experiences, reflections on those experiences, and dialogue with others.

Empowered settings: Settings that utilize power to influence the macrosystem level and impact broader social and community change.

Empowering practices: Collaborative efforts that lead to more empowering settings and organizations. Community psychologists focus on daily activities that maintain or change role relationships within in a community, focusing on how diverse experiences and strengths are developed and affirmed in everyday routines.

Empowering settings: Settings that encourage member participation and sharing of power in group decisions and actions.

Empowerment: An intentional, ongoing process centered in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of resources gain greater access to and control over those resources.

Expert power: The power related to an individual or group's knowledge, skills, and experiences. Community psychologists rely on their own expert power while also questioning its limits and criticizing expert power used by others to marginalize some individuals and groups.

Integrative power: Sometimes called "people power," it is the capacity of individuals to collaborate, create and sustain groups, unify under a common cause, and inspire loyalty, allowing them to exhibit power to and power over.

Participatory practices: Practices that challenge existing processes and hierarchies, provide more opportunities for collaboration, and promote individuals' strengths to better serve the interests of the community and its members.

Participatory skills: A person's ability to communicate, organize, solve problems, and identify and obtain material and social resources to address community issues.

Power from: The ability to resist the unwanted power or unwanted demands of others that inhibit one's own needs, which includes resisting oppression and domination by another individual or group.

Power of "spin": The ability to shape the terms used to define an issue in public discourse. It can be used responsibly to help people understand an issue, but it can also be used to mislead some individuals and groups through lies or censorship that limit their power. It can also be used to amplify one's perspective while minimizing different viewpoints.

Power over: The amount of influence a person or group has over controlling resources and influencing community decisions. This power can be overt or covert and can be used by

those with more power in hierarchical, inequal settings to oppress those with less power. Those with less power can exert more power over through acts of resistance.

Power to: The capability individuals and groups have to pursue their own goals and develop their capacities. It can involve individual self-determination.

Sense of collective efficacy: The belief that coming together and working collaboratively will lead to social change and improve community life.

Sense of personal participatory efficacy: An individual's level of belief and confidence in their ability to engage in effective citizen participation and impact community decisions. It is contextual in nature, meaning that it can feel more effective in some settings than others.

Three instruments of social power: Three ways that power is expressed in community and social life: (a) controlling resources that can be used to bargain, reward, and punish; (b) controlling avenues for participating in community decisions; and (c) defining community issues and conflicts.

Tokenism: Involving community members, particularly those who are marginalized, in a superficial manner to indicate empowerment without actually providing the members with any voice or influence in community decisions.

Chapter 9: Understanding Stress and Coping in Context

Cognitive appraisal: The ongoing assessment of a situation or event in order to evaluate its meaning. This also entails reappraisal, which involves revisiting and perhaps changing one's interpretation of an event.

Community narratives: A shared story among participants that explains the focal problem, draws meaning from it, helps participants to transform one's identity, and provides a clear path to recovery or coping.

Cultural resources: Traditions, rituals, and beliefs from one's culture that provide ways to understand stressors and models for coping with them.

Daily hassles: Everyday challenges on a short-term, smaller scale than major life events. Examples include traffic, family arguments, and workplace conflicts.

Daily uplifts: Everyday mood-lifters on a short-term, smaller scale than major life events. Examples include an act of kindness from a coworker or a phone call from a loved one.

Density: A measurement of one's social network determined by the relationship ties between network members.

Disasters: A form of proximal stressor, these are extremely disruptive events that affect entire communities, regions, or nations. They include natural disasters, technological disasters, and mass violence.

Distal contextual factors: Ongoing societal or community conditions, including cultural beliefs and traditions, that can interact in various domains of life. They can promote strength and resilience, but they can also create stressors.

Distal factors: Factors that contribute to the probability of a problem or that protect against a problem but are not directly visible or obvious; these factors are more “distant” from an individual.

Distal personal factors: Aspects of an individual that are generally not observable, such as biological factors, personality traits, thought patterns, and personal life experiences.

Emotion-focused coping: A coping response where the individual addresses the feelings that accompany the stressors and outcomes.

Eustress: Stress that has a positive, adaptive effect and can be beneficial or productive, such as by instilling hope and meaning into a bad situation.

Experiential knowledge: Wisdom from someone who has direct personal experience managing the focal concern.

Generalized support: Help and caring that are continued over time and that offer basic security for living and coping; not focused on a particular stressor.

Helper therapy principle: The belief that helping others will also support one’s own well-being.

Life transitions: Transitions that present challenges for coping as part of regular human development; these transitions can include the need to adapt to change, acquire new skills, and adopt new roles.

Major life events: Events that are stressful and demand sizable kinds of change; examples include marriage and the birth of a child (“entrances”) or the death of a loved one, divorce, or unemployment (“exits”).

Material resources: Physical items used in daily life that meet personal and basic needs and provide opportunities to achieve objectives.

Meaning-focused coping: A coping response where the individual determines the significance in the stressor by reappraising it, which can result in personal growth and learning.

Microaggressions: Commonplace actions or incidents of indirect, subtle, or unintentional discrimination toward a member of a marginalized group. These are experienced as slights, insults, or demeaning incidents.

Minority-related and acculturative stressors: Stressful events or circumstances due to the experience of being a member of a group that is marginalized in society.

Multidimensional relationships: Associations where the two people involved take on multiple role relationships and the responsibilities and activities of these roles. An example is someone who is both a friend and a neighbor.

Mutual assistance groups: Self-help groups facilitated by a peer where the participants share a similar concern, such as Alcoholics Anonymous.

Perceived support: A measurement of the value or availability of support determined by an individual's subjective judgment.

Posttraumatic growth: Positive psychological outcomes resulting from experiencing suffering or facing challenging situations or events, such as a greater appreciation for life.

Problem-focused coping: A coping response where the individual addresses the problem directly by making and implementing a plan to change the situation in order to cope.

Proximal factors: Factors that directly contribute to a problem or the buffering against a problem; these factors are "closer" to the individual, with the individual usually being more aware of their link to the development or prevention of a problem.

Proximal stressors: Situations or events that characterize a threatened or actual loss of resources; they can differ in duration, severity, quantity, personal meaning and impact.

Resilience: The ability to adapt positively and behave capably after experiencing hardships, trauma, or other stressful events.

Social-emotional competencies: Individual qualities that include self-regulation skills that are needed for personal connection with others; examples include empathy, developing relationships, managing conflict, etc.

Social settings: Communal contexts where people interact such as youth groups, mutual help organizations, and religious congregations that provide social resources for community members.

Specific support: Also called enacted support, it is help that is tailored to an explicit stressor that is actively present in an individual's life, such as advice, monetary support, or emotional encouragement.

Stress reactions: The instant response a person has when they face a stressor. Reactions can vary from mild irritation to critical health issues, and they can take many forms—physical, emotional, social, etc. One stress reaction can often trigger another, creating a cycle of stress.

Thriving: Positive growth development in the face of adversity that leads an individual to function better than they did before their adverse experience.

Unidimensional relationships: Associations that are limited to one role, such as a classmate you only ever see in class.

Vicious spirals: When the loss of one resource leads to additional losses; a downward pattern of many stressors that then multiply the effects of risk factors. They are especially common for those who have few resources to begin with.

Virtuous spirals: When increased access to coping resources and the successful utilization of these resources can build upon each other to create an upward pattern of growth by diminishing risk and encouraging health functioning.

Wellness: A state of positive health outcomes and personal well-being.

Chapter 10: Key Concepts in the Science of Prevention and Promotion

Best practices approach: A qualitative way to understand effectiveness by analyzing current best practice research and conducting site visits to further discover and examine common characteristics that could lead to continued and future success.

Cost-benefit analysis: A comparison of the costs spent to implement an intervention against the economic benefits gained. It must also address the complex question of how much money was saved by preventing something that did not happen.

Cost-effectiveness analysis: An evaluative process used to determine if the value of an intervention, program, or service justifies its cost; research has been limited because it is difficult to conduct, and evaluations are complicated.

Cumulative-risk hypothesis: The theory that multiple risk factors during childhood when taken all together raise the likelihood of negative mental and behavioral health outcomes exponentially.

Developmental assets: Factors within the child; the child's family; or the child's school, neighborhood, or community that promote healthy child and youth development.

Effect size: A quantitative way to determine the effectiveness of a program by reporting the strength of the effect of an intervention.

Indicated preventive measures: Interventions provided to those individuals who are associated with high risk for development of mental health or behavioral disorders, particularly if they demonstrate initial symptoms but have not been fully diagnosed with a disorder.

Prevention: Taking steps to ensure a negative event does not occur, rather than having to deal with the negative impact of that event.

Primary prevention: To reduce potentially harmful circumstances before they have a chance to create difficulty.

Promotion: Encouraging positive, healthy behaviors to replace maladaptive behaviors that could lead to problems.

Resiliency: The ability of some individuals to overcome adverse conditions and experience healthy development.

Secondary prevention: Actions that are taken as initial signs of a disorder or difficulty appear; also known as “early intervention.”

Selective preventive measures: Interventions provided to a population of individuals who carry an above-average risk to develop a mental health or behavioral disorder.

Tertiary prevention: Actions that are taken to decrease the intensity, length, and lasting effects of mental health or behavioral disorders; these programs usually encompass a group of people and are offered at the systems level.

Universal preventive measures: Similar to primary prevention, these are interventions provided to an entire population group even though these populations are usually not in distress.

Chapter 11: Implementing Prevention and Promotion Programs

Adaptive components: Aspects of a program that can be modified to fit the culture or practical limitations of a new setting when adapting a program; also referred to as key characteristics.

Capacity: Possessing the resources, knowledge, and ability to achieve a goal.

Community and organizational capacity: The resources present in a setting that would be available to help implement a new program or other types of innovation. Resources can exist at the individual, organizational, or community level.

Community-centered models: Focus on the desire of community members to identify and successfully adopt programs that they believe fit the unique needs, strengths and values of their community (e.g., “These are the issues in our community, now how do we find programs that address these needs and successfully adopt them?”).

Core components: Aspects of a program that are critical to the program's identity and effectiveness and need to be implemented with adherence to their original design when adapting the program to a new setting.

Emic perspective: A perspective grounded in and arising from the community itself.

General capacity: The skills and resources needed to accomplish any type of program.

Iatrogenic effects: Unintended, harmful consequences of what is planned as a helpful intervention.

Implementation: The process of executing a program in a real-life setting. Implementation science is a discipline dedicated to studying the best methods of delivering programs.

Innovation-specific capacity: The skills and resources needed to implement a specific program in addition to general capacity of an organization. This capacity needs to be developed as dictated by the innovation.

Institutionalized: Established as part of a setting's routine functioning.

Longitudinal: Taking place over a length of time.

Prevention delivery system: Includes the groups (organizations, communities, or governmental agencies) that are involved in implementing the new program or innovation in a real-life setting.

Prevention support system: Consists of the ability of organizations and communities to deliver the support necessary to adopt new innovations, including all aspects involved in developing capacity.

Prevention synthesis and translation system: Highlights the issues related to accessing helpful prevention approaches and stresses the need to locate, combine, and explain this information in a way that is helpful for program adopters.

Readiness: The degree to which one is prepared and willing to tackle a goal based on motivation, general capacity, and innovation-specific capacity.

Research-to-practice models: Focus on the desire of researchers and policymakers to "push" communities and organizations to adopt evidence-based programs (e.g., "Research shows this is effective, now how do we adapt it to real life?").

Scaling up: The process of expanding a program's original concept to a more widespread application.

Setting context: Includes all features of a pertinent environment, such as cultural traditions and norms; the historical experiences of that environment; the abilities, objectives, and apprehensions of the individuals; and all aspects of community capacity.

Small wins: Minor yet concrete changes that can lead to a pattern of accomplishment and feeling of momentum.

Theory of change: A group's concept of how an intervention will lead to an intended outcome. This theory can be broad at the beginning but be expanded and more detailed as a community intervention continues to be applied and addressed.

Chapter 12: Program Development, Evaluation, and Improvement

Activities: The tasks and actions that are completed to address the conditions; also known as program of intervention.

Conditions: Identify the needs of a program; examples include risk factors, community issues, and organizational challenges that the program will tackle.

Critical friend: A supportive person who provides feedback about program implementation that is honest and constructive, encouraging program practitioners to recognize their biases and identifying strengths, weaknesses, and emotionally sensitive issues.

Empowerment evaluation: An evaluation approach designed for community members to monitor and evaluate their own performance.

Formative evaluation: An assessment that takes place while a program is being implemented and provides information for making program improvements.

Impact evaluation: An examination of the long-term effects of a program on its participants or recipients to compare the final effects with the planned outcomes.

Impacts: Indirect, long-term results or changes related to the program that impact the community at large.

Inputs: The various resources available to address the conditions.

Logic model: A visual diagram that illustrates how a program will work to fill a community need by illustrating connections between community conditions, inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts.

Opportunity cost: The loss of potential gain or value when one alternative is selected over others.

Outcome evaluation: An examination of the instant, short-term effects of a program on its participants or recipients; includes both output and outcomes data.

Outcomes: Direct, short-term results or changes related to the program activities.

Outputs: The immediate product of a program's activities.

Process evaluation: The assessment of the implementation part of a program; focuses on studying the program's activities to find out what worked well and what didn't work as well.

Results-based accountability: The need to evaluate a program in order to show proven results.

Summative evaluation: A collective summary of the effects of a program.

Chapter 13: Improving Society Through Community Action

Community coalitions: A group of representatives from local organizations or constituencies who work together to focus on solving community issues by identifying problems and developing action plans. They can be both drivers and outcomes of community development.

Community development: A process whereby government, nonprofit organizations, volunteer associations, or public-private partnerships ameliorate or prevent adversities and develop strengths in a community's economic, political, social, or physical environment.

Community organizing: Coordinated, cooperative work undertaken by community residents to improve their community and achieve social change.

Community readiness: The degree to which a locality recognizes a problem and is willing to devote resources to address or prevent it.

Consciousness raising: Increasing citizens' critical awareness of social conditions that affect them and energizing their involvement in challenging and changing those conditions. This is achieved by developing awareness of personal experiences of systemic oppression.

Direct actions: Identify specific obstacles to community development and then create constructive, nonviolent, public conflict to hold powerful entities (people or organizations) responsible for removing those obstacles.

Public policy: The laws, regulations, and policies established by a government or public institution. Changing public policy is an essential mechanism for achieving social change in communities and in society at large.

Social change: A complex, long-term process by which human interactions and relationships transform cultural and social institutions.

Chapter 14: Emerging Challenges and Opportunities: Shifting Perspective to Promote Change

Affective ontology: The emotional understanding of being human; considering what it means to be human and how that sentiment impacts one's knowledge and actions.

Community-diversity dialectic: The discussion arising from the productive tension between two seemingly conflicting concepts that should be seen as interdependent and essential to community development.

Decolonialism: A process that requires conscious examination, acknowledgment, and undoing of unearned privilege resulting from historical and current inequality. It examines and challenges the patterns and hierarchies of power that were caused by colonialism, including how knowledge from various communities is produced and valued, as well as the limitations of our current knowledge.

Globalization: The process of interaction and centralization among companies and governments across national boundaries by international trade, technology, and investment.

Indigenization: The recognition of traditional values and communal bonds among members of native ethnic cultures and local communities.

Seizing the day: Being ready and willing to collaborate and take effective action to implement social change when the time comes.

Taking the long view: Understanding that implementing social and community change takes a long time and continued persistence, even after some substantial changes have been achieved.