Dominance and Marginality in Community Psychology Knowledge Production: A Critical Analysis of Published Work

by

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submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the subject of

PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

Supervisor: Prof. Carol Long

Declaration

I declare that this thesis, entitled 'Dominance and marginality in community psychology knowledge production: A critical analysis of published work', is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

_____

Tanya Monique Graham

Signed this 8th day of July, 2014

Acknowledgements

Without the support of many others, the fruition of this project would not have been possible. I would therefore like to extend my deepest gratitude to:

Prof. Carol Long for your intellectual guidance, fortitude and encouragement in supervising this thesis

Althea Sherry for your assistance with the electronic data retrieval, cataloguing and storage

Natasha Govender and Lauren Fitchet for your assistance with data capturing and coding

Hugo Canham and the Carnegie Corporation for the Large Research Grant awarded for this research

Prof. Susan van Zyl at the Graduate School of the Faculty of Humanities, and Prof. Maria Marchetti-Mercer at the School of Human and Community Development, at Wits for supporting writers with your much treasured writing retreats

Guy McIlroy, for your editorial comments on sections of this manuscript

Tasneem van den Biezen and Amy Shirley for collaborating with me in independent complementary studies that drew on selected conceptual and methodological aspects of this research, and are published as Graham and Ismail (2011) and Graham and Shirley (in press).

My mentors in community psychology, especially Prof. Norman Duncan, Prof. Mohamed Seedat, and Prof. Vijé Franchi, for shaping my thinking, practice and writing in this field

My colleagues at Wits, especially Garth Stevens, Malose Langa, Vinitha Jithoo, Brett Bowman, Kevin Whitehead, Lakeasha Sullivan, Francine Masson, Aline Ferreira-Correia and Gill Mooney for your amity, good humour and camaraderie

My colleagues at Rahima Moosa hospital, especially Julie Koursaris, Salisha Maharaj, Judy van Rooyen, Nkokone Tema, and Elsabe Jordaan for being part of my ‘real world’ and my escape from the perils of academia

My students, especially the MACC class of 2013, for your grounding presence and affirmations in the final parts of this work

My family and friends, especially Carren Ginsburg, Jade Richards, Kerry Gordon, Farzana Sader, Sarah Uren, Ella Kotze, and Kim Serebro for solace and companionship in this process

My parents, for the love of learning and for teaching me about what is most important in life

My husband, my love, for the passion, joy, music, and laughter we have shared for 20 years. Your sense of adventure, intellect, soulfulness, compassionate nature, and incisive wit never fail to inspire me, and make me wiser. Thank you for loving me.

And finally, the authors in my study, for engaging in the pleasures and dilemmas of writing

Dedication

For my son

"To change the world, one has to change the ways of world-making"

(Bourdieu, 1989, p. 23)

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Research Summary

The current global formation, characterised by a burgeoning knowledge economy alongside widespread social discontent and economic upheaval, situates the study of knowledge production in the field of community psychology at a timely socio-historical juncture. Community psychology has a long-standing tradition of introspection about its identity, achievements and future direction, established historically through the analysis of published work. This research engages with this tradition, foregrounding the intellectual role and social position of scholars in the field, and the tensions that are collectively evident their work. The study critically appraises the characteristics of published work over a decade with a view to distilling the topics of interest, the preferred methodological choices and the predominant theoretical concerns of the sub-discipline of community psychology. The study employs a mixed methodology to highlight patterns of dominance and marginality in these elements that situates South African scholarship in the field within the global arena.

The study presents a content analysis of trends in 2 229 published articles drawn from two local South African journals (*South African Journal of Psychology* and *Psychology in Society*) and four international journals (*American Journal of Community Psychology*, *Journal of Community Psychology*, *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology* and *Journal of Prevention and Intervention in the Community*) that were published between 1 January 2000 and 31 December 2009. Among the variables investigated in the quantitative data analysis were constitutive of the authorship characteristics, publication types, topics, theoretical choices, research methods and participant characteristics appearing in published work, including the representation of marginalised groups. The discursive analysis that follows, presents an in-depth reading of selected texts drawn from this dataset though the use of a critical discursive frame to illustrate of how power and the tensions between dominant narratives and marginal positions in community psychology manifest in published work. This serves to foreground contradictions in the identity, values and foci of the field, and some of the discourses implicated in how these disparities are perpetuated.

The thesis contends that knowledge production is a contested site where attention to patterns of dominance and marginality reveal how the workings of power can be detected using both quantitative and qualitative analytic methods to investigate the state of published work. Though vastly different in the quantity of publications generated, and the field's stage of development, the theoretical and methodological features of articles published internationally and in South Africa were remarkably alike. Across both contexts, results showed the prominent use of preventionist, traditional and ecological theories, rather than

critical or social perspectives. This reveals the pervasive influence of biomedical epistemologies in the field. Authors were primarily located in academia rather than in applied community contexts. They published empirical articles most often, and showed an affinity for positivist research approaches and the survey method of data collection. The use of a critical paradigm and associated methodological choices, such as discourse analysis, was rare. Most studies did not focus specifically on marginalised groups, although the presence of forms of structural marginality by race, gender and socio-economic status were similarly proportionate across local and international research. Results suggest a persistent neglect of researching specific marginalised groups, such as those socially excluded due to age, HIV status, migration and sexual orientation. Differences across contexts were especially evident in the choice of research topics, rather than approaches used. On the whole, international research has a much greater emphasis on research topics related to child, youth and family development.

Findings suggest that disciplinary forces in the field heavily influence the form of articles and their theoretical and methodological features, across local and international research. However, journal topics are more context-sensitive aspects of publications, and reflect local concerns. In addition to publication trends, the thesis identifies several discourses present in published work that show how the field is constructed and its ideological tensions. The thesis considers these findings in view of the power relations they represent and critically reflects on the intrinsic and extrinsic issues at stake in defining the field of community psychology in light of global knowledge production imperatives.

Key words: Community Psychology, Content Analysis; Critical Psychology; Discourse Analysis; Dominance; Journals; Knowledge Production; Intellectuals; Marginality; Power; South Africa

List of Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
AJCP	American Journal of Community Psychology
AJPH	American Journal of Public Health
APA	American Psychological Association
ASR	American Sociological Review
AU	Australia
BPA	British Psychological Association
CBO	Community-based Organisation
CP	Community Psychology
CSP	Community-Social Psychology
DST	Department of Science and Technology
EEC	European Economic Community
EEG	Electroencephalograph
EU	European Union
GT	Grounded Theory
HAART	HIV/AIDS Anti-Retroviral Therapy
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HPCSA	Health Professions Council of South Africa
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
GIS	Geographic Information Systems
IK	Indigenous Knowledge
IP	Interpretive Phenomenology
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISI	Institute for Scientific Information
JASP	Journal of Applied Social Psychology
JCCP	Journal of Clinical and Consulting Psychology
JCP	Journal of Community Psychology
JCASP	Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology
JJCP	Japanese Journal of Community Psychology
JPIC	Journal of Prevention and Intervention in the Community
KBE	Knowledge-Based Economy
KEI	Knowledge Economy Indicator
LMIC	Low- to Middle-Income Countries
MRC	Medical Research Council

NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NMMU	Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
NZ	New Zealand
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PINS	Psychology in Society
SA	South Africa
SAP	South African Psychologist
SAJP	South African Journal of Psychology
SCP	Social-Community Psychology
SCRA	Society for Community Research and Action
SES	Socio-Economic Status
SPD	Socio-political Development
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
TRC	Truth and Reconciliation Commission
TUT	Tshwane University of Technology
UCT	University of Cape Town
UFH	University of Fort Hare
UFS	University of the Free State
UJ	University of Johannesburg
UK	United Kingdom
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UL	University of Limpopo
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNIVEN	University of Venda
UP	University of Pretoria
US	United States of America
UT	University of Thoyahandou
UWC	University of the Western Cape
UZ	University of Zululand
WSU	Walter Sisulu University
Y2K	Year Two Thousand

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1. Preamble

The point of departure that this thesis takes is not a novel one in the field of community psychology (CP). The process of questioning the identity, foci, and values of CP, and engaging in debates about the theories and methods it employs, has been a hallmark of the field since its inception, and this is perhaps its most distinctive attribute. Novaco and Monahan (1980) argue that there is indeed a moral and ethical obligation for CP to reflect on its accomplishments and efficacy, to ensure its accountability. This implies the value of reflexivity, directed towards the field itself. As a socially transformative project, the importance of reflexivity is embodied in the concept of praxis that unifies theory and action (Freire, 1970; Osorio, 2009; Prilleltensky, 2001). Such reflexivity is widely endorsed as part of a critical transformative approach to research (Reed, Miller, Nnawulezi, & Valenti, 2012), as well as for community engagement (Seedat & Suffla, 2012). Yet, despite its heralded importance to the field, it is rarely evident in CP (Reed et al., 2012). In the midst of these tensions, the thesis approaches this endeavour from an original stance in focus and methodological approach. The argument used here dialogues with, adds to, and critiques existing forms of knowledge in this area, as well as the approaches used to gain such knowledge, and ultimately, reflects on this process of questioning the state of the field itself.

The thesis engages with the imperative to evaluate the current state of CP from the perspective of examining its manifestations that are evident in international and local[1] scholarly work. Therefore, this inquiry therefore upholds the need for an introspective gaze at contemporary developments, but situates its position and commentary within this debate in CP around formal knowledge production. It may seem somewhat ironic to raise the question of the value and role of knowledge in a doctoral thesis. Notwithstanding this seeming paradox, the thesis engages with the process of unravelling some of the intricacies connected to reflexive questions about the nature and function of publications in CP. In this way, such an endeavour focuses on unearthing more about the relationship between the written text and the social world it is located in. The analysis of published work in CP is situated within a framework of socio-political influences and psychological disciplinary

[1] I have purposefully used the term 'local' here in preference to 'South African' in recognition of my position as a scholar in relation to this work, in acknowledgement of critiques that those writing from the global margins are frequently called to identify their work as being from a specific country, whereas those from dominant, minority world countries such as the US, are not required to identify their work in this way. This term is therefore deliberately used as a form of resistance to a US-centric knowledge base for CP.

power. Scholars are quite familiar with the routine procedures of academic knowledge production, and the culmination of intellectual assertion, exchange and censure in the formulation of a written knowledge product. However, authors of academic writing in CP may not always be cognisant of the broader state of the knowledge that is produced, the ideological forces within and beyond our field that we enact and generate as a collective, and the influences from our unique social context and global positioning, that come to be represented in published work.

In an age of rapid globalisation, burgeoning information technology and the birth of a knowledge economy, questions surrounding the dynamics of knowledge production on a global scale are now more pressing than ever before. This is particularly important for CP practitioners in light of the unequal economic and political power of different regions, and their implications (Moahi, 2007). The contribution this thesis makes to knowledge brings together evidence from a mixed method analysis of both local and international publications to bear on discussions about the strengths, weaknesses and future directions of CP. This comparative emphasis enriches the insights gained from previous studies by adding a new dimension to contemporary debates on this issue. It therefore seeks to evaluate knowledge production against the standards to which the field aspires, as well as to investigate the relevance of continuities and discontinuities that come to the fore in this analysis for constructing the identity of CP from various disciplinary and contextual vantage points. Of particular interest in this inquiry is the exploration of patterns of power, dominance and marginalisation that exist in CP knowledge production, within and across different contexts, and this is a theme that threads together the diverse aspects of this study.

2. Rationale

2.1. Global Community Psychologies

This research is concerned with examining knowledge production trends within CP, and situating the trends within South African articles in the context of international scholarship. The study is therefore situated at the nexus of three forces: the historical development of CP, the global imperatives of academic psychology, and the role of socio-political context in knowledge production. The momentum for this project is conveniently located within a global impetus in contemporary CP towards tracing the historical development of the field in different parts of the world, as well as consolidating the body of knowledge about CP theory and practice that has been developed in different contexts around the world, and considering its diverse identities and ultimately CP's future prospects (see Fowler & Toro,

2008; Jozefowicz-Simbeni, Israel, Braciszewski, & Hobden, 2005; Marsella, 1998; Montero, 2002a; 2010; Reich, Reimer, Prilleltensky, & Montero, 2007a; Reich, Reimer, Prilleltensky, & Montero, 2007b; Stevens, 2007a; Toro, 2005). With nearly half a century having passed since CP's official establishment in 1965 (Bennett et al., 1966), contemporary scholars have devoted particular attention to establishing whether growth has occurred within the parameters and goals set out by the original architects of CP (Martin, Lounsbury, & Davidson, 2004; Montero, 2010), tracing its unique development and permutations in specific countries (e.g. Reich et al., 2007a), and considering new criteria against which the field's accomplishments should be appraised (e.g. Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005; Toro, 2005). Some scholars have advocated for a greater recognition of the contributions of the range of international scholarship and for distancing this from the dominant presence of US-based CP (Bishop, Sonn, Drew, & Contos, 2002; Francescato & Tomei, 2001; Fryer, 2008a; Kloos, Hill, Thomas, Wandersman, Elias, & Dalton, 2012; Seedat & Lazarus, 2011). Some scholars have called for a greater understanding of the institutional and historical factors and constraints that have shaped the field (Reich et al., 2007a), and located themselves as community psychologists as "products of history" (Kelly & Chang, 2008, p. 675-691). This body of knowledge has played an instrumental role in mapping the potential coordinates for its continued growth in a globalised world. Montero (2010, p. 520) argues, "In order to know where we are going, we need to have an idea of where we stand". The inclusion of a greater diversity of international perspectives in CP is necessary for better representation of developments that have informed the field around the globe (Kloos et al., 2012; Marsella, 1998; Reich et al., 2007a). However, comparative analyses such as this on knowledge production in CP are exceedingly rare, and only a few scholars have sought to specifically evaluate CP across contexts within the sphere of knowledge production (e.g. Shirley, 2010; Yasuda & Sasao, 2007). In particular, the international inclusion of perspectives from majority world scholarship in CP is limited. South African CP has a rich history but its scholarship has largely been studied in isolation from international trends. An investigation into South African knowledge production in relation to international trends thus provides a unique dimension to this type of inquiry. In so doing, the study situates South African publications within a broader global scope of CP. It seeks to respond to the gap from the lack of African contributions to understandings about the international status of CP (Seedat & Lazarus, 2011). This research, therefore, offers a distinctive voice to these debates about the contemporary identity and position of CP in South Africa and internationally. In so doing, it gives particular credence to addressing the global under-representation of African perspectives in this field (Seedat & Lazarus, 2011).

This view is premised on locating knowledge production within its multiple contextual frames, and then in highlighting global and local issues, within and beyond, CP. This thesis approaches this task through the use of a mixed methodological approach in order to expand existing insights about the sub-discipline.

2.2. An Empirical, Mixed-Method Focus

By virtue of its use of empirical data on CP within a critical paradigm, this study falls within the tradition of critical empirical psychology (Teo, 1999). Fowler and Toro (2008) contend that the extensive development of CP across the globe offers a timely opportunity to examine where the field has come from and where it is headed, but uphold the value of using a systematic approach. Much of the contemporary writing on CP's past, present and future is theoretical in nature (e.g. Reich et al., 2007a; Stevens, 2007a; Toro, 2005). Critically orientated empirical work on the current status of CP through the lens of its representation in knowledge production is scarce. The empirical analysis of published work has historically been a powerful vehicle through which to explore the theoretical, practical and axiological tensions in CP. The published literature is a rich source from which to learn about the patterns that occur in the creation and dissemination of knowledge (Jason, Pokorny, Patka, Adams, & Morello, 2007). For this purpose, the existing archival studies of the trends in CP have played a significant role in providing "healthy feedback to the field, and identified shortcomings where the empirical basis of the field did not match the stated ideology" (Jason et al., 2007, p. 969).

Previous international empirical work on knowledge production in CP has typically selected a circumscribed focus over a long period of time (e.g. as long as 20-30 years) or a broad focus over a short period of time (e.g. up to 5 years) (Graham & Ismail, 2011). Most existing trend analyses appear to either offer general descriptive information or critical discursive appraisal on selected topics, but most fail to consider how broad and nuanced trends operate in tandem. Previous studies have also failed to consider the implications of contemporary publication trends in CP, in relation to global knowledge production processes. A pluralistic approach with multiple methods, levels and theories has much to offer such analyses (Kelly & Chang, 2008). This study seeks to balance the breadth and depth in focus by combining quantitative and qualitative research tools. The use of a mixed method approach in such analyses can harness insights about broad features of articles, as well as more nuanced aspects of how the finer workings of power can be detected in such work. Thus, the study embraces the methodological principles of holism and particularism (Langhout, 2003), and seeks to uncover how both of these principles can be used to shed

further light on CP knowledge production.

2.3. Uncovering Patterns of Power, Dominance and Marginalisation

This study approaches these issues with a transformative agenda to highlight the power relations in CP knowledge production through interrogating the published texts for patterns of dominance and marginalisation. The study, therefore, applies a critical-emancipatory lens that draws on the theories within CP and other traditions of social scientific thought, offered by theorists such as Antonio Gramsci, Michel Foucault and Pierre Bourdieu to interpret empirically derived patterns. As a study rooted within CP, the choice of this approach is based on the foundational principles of CP: addressing oppression, social inequality and circumstances that create disempowerment (Prilleltensky, 2001). This perspective is especially relevant in countries like South Africa, that have long-standing histories of colonialism and oppression, as a means for exploring how local knowledge production is situated in relation to more historically dominant forms of international scholarship. Within a critical-emancipatory approach, the analysis of social power is integral (Angelique, Rodriguez, Culley, Brown, & Binette, 2013). Critical scholarship in CP is targeted towards exposing the power relations that are embedded in ideologies and discerning "who benefits and who loses out" (Fisher, Sonn, & Evans, 2007, p. 260).

Whilst CP has typically defined itself as being a critically oriented, socially responsive branch of psychology (Orford, 2008), these features of the field's identity have not always translated into the foci and methods in published works (Angelique & Culley, 2007). CP is characterised by "an organic, ever-present tendency to distinguish its identity through critique", but its roots are steeped in the muddy waters of oppressive ideologies, especially those associated with white male power and privilege (Angelique & Culley, 2007, p. 37). In fact, publications in CP have consistently been implicated in giving preference to individualist constructs, positivist and acontextual methodologies, and deficit-oriented theories, and show inadequate attention to the unequal power relations in society and against socially marginalised groups (Seedat et al., 2004). In attempting to unravel this problematic, contemporary scholars have alerted us to the potential for knowledge production in CP to persist with reproducing ideologies that promote social inequalities, such as racism and sexism (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2007; Fisher et al., 2007; Seedat, Mackenzie, & Stevens, 2004), and called for CP to disrupt this knowledge with new forms of knowledge that considers the role of power more closely (Fisher et al., 2007).

This disjuncture highlights the extent of the knowledge gap in the scholarly production of knowledge. In this way, this thesis casts a critical lens inward on the field of

CP itself as it is represented in knowledge production, and holds CP accountable to its own ideals and rhetoric. Here, this positioning of knowledge production in South Africa against an international backdrop of scholarship adds an additional dimension to exploring the manifestations of dominance and marginality within the various arenas globally. Furthermore, this serves to foreground the areas of overlap and departure in the field across contexts.

This research seeks to investigate the overarching characteristics of contemporary knowledge production in CP globally. Secondly, it seeks to illustrate the local and global ideological agendas, continuities and discontinuities that exist between the stated purpose of the field and its representation in academic scholarship. This has relevance for developing its direction and future, and for considering connections between CP theory and practice, and how these are represented in formal academia. The assumptions this research makes are that knowledge is not neutral and that knowledge enacts relations of power. It also refutes the assertion that CP is necessarily a politically progressive and critically oriented sub-discipline. Rather, this research contends that knowledge has the potential to re-inscribe and resist the dominant power relations that exist both within and outside of CP, through its choices of theories, methods and discursive constructions of the field. This is important because it has implications for how community psychologists represent, think about and practice in the communities they serve.

2.4. Selecting Exemplars of Published Work

Whilst knowledge within CP is produced in a diversity of forms, this study has selected a sample of journal articles that are instructive exemplars of published work in CP. Journals were chosen as an academic mode for disseminating knowledge generated from research and practice into the public domain. Journals also provide a template in which professionals can subject their work for review and scrutiny by their colleagues (Seedat, 1990). Therefore, journals represent a forum for reflecting on scholarship in a field and stimulating the further production of knowledge. The framing of theoretical debates and empirical findings in journals therefore provide a powerful medium through which to understand "the nature of the discipline and its dominant concerns" (Seedat, 1990, p. 24). Thus, journal articles shape the ongoing development of theory and research, as well as how the field is conceptualised by professionals and trainees. Thus, publications in journals collectively form an important body of knowledge that constructs a common understanding of what constitutes the boundaries of a disciplinary domain. In addition, these journals provide a forum where the politics of knowledge production are played out. Journal articles are key

outputs in a knowledge economy (Blankley & Booyens, 2010). Journals are also highly complex sites of knowledge production that reflect the nexus of intrinsic and extrinsic knowledge and power unique to each discipline. Moreover, Martin et al. (2004, p. 163) notes that articles in CP journals signal the focus of research in the field, and highlight "the people, places, events, and ideas that shape it". Consequently, this study is concerned with sourcing an inclusive dataset of CP articles of both international and South African publications. The *American Journal of Community Psychology* (AJCP), *Journal of Community Psychology*, *Journal of Prevention and Intervention in the Community* (JPIC) and *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology* (JCASP) journals were chosen because these reflect the contemporary global publication trends and debates in CP. Each of these four journals occupies an esteemed position within the international community of CP.

The AJCP and JCP are journals that have already frequently appeared in several other studies of research on CP knowledge production (see Angelique & Culley, 2000, 2003; Angelique et al., 2013; Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus, 1994; Boyd, 2014; Boyd & Angelique, 2002; Duncan, 1991b; Graham & Ismail, 2011; Gutierrez, 2010; Leonard, Pokorny, Patka, Adams, & Morello, 2007; Loo, Fong, & Iwamasa, 1988; Lounsbury, Leader, & Meares, 1980; Luke, 2005; Martin et al., 2004; Novaco & Monahan, 1980; Sasao & Yasuda, 2007; Speer, Dey, Griggs, Gibson, Lubin, & Hughey, 1992; Watling Neal, Janulis, & Collins, 2013). The JCASP and JPIC journals were included because although these are considered valuable sources of international contributions, these journals have been entirely overlooked in previous studies on this research topic.

Since there are no formal journals of CP in South Africa, the study drew on CP articles published in the *South African Journal of Psychology* (SAJP) and *Psychology in Society* (PINS). These journals have been utilised exclusively or in combination with other journals in several other studies of knowledge production in South African psychology (see Duncan, 2001; Duncan, van Niekerk, & Townsend, 2004; Durrheim & Mokeki, 1997; Kiguwa & Langa, 2011; Macleod, 2001; 2003a; 2003b; 2004; Macleod & Howell, 2013; Seedat, 1990; 1998; 2001a; 2001b; Shefer, Shabalala, & Townsend, 2004; Stevens, 2003; Visser & van Staden, 1990; van Staden & Visser, 1990) and in CP (see Seedat et al., 2004).

The study's selection of six journals for analysis provides a sufficient breadth of coverage that is necessary for a comparative appraisal of current publication trends and discourses. In sum, this dataset spans across a wider scope of coverage and magnitude (cf. the studies detailed in Appendix B 1 and B 2), than any of the international studies on knowledge production in CP, or in any of South African studies of knowledge production in

psychology or CP previously undertaken.

2.5. Establishing the Historical Parameters

The years 2000-2009 were demarcated as parameters that would offer insights into the contemporary state of published work in CP. This decade was characterised by a lack of research, both locally and internationally. In some ways, the selection of the exact temporal limits can be disputed when investigating trends in published work, since articles reflect only the final product of a lengthy publication process that is often started several years prior to publication. However, the demarcation of a time period is useful in establishing the temporal boundaries of a dataset for comparative purposes as well as locating the dataset within a broad socio-political milieu. It identifies the study as being primarily concerned with developments in knowledge production unique to that timeframe and provides a basis from which to consider the significance of key developments.

Before looking at the data, there are several global and local features of this decade that are worth highlighting here. Despite having no universally accepted name, the decade from 2000-2009 is a highly momentous and historic one (Garton Ash, 2011). This decade is distinguished as a period of substantial global social, economic, political and environmental change. Hence, it is been described as being 'a hinge of history' that witnessed the decline of the US as the only true global power at that time and the rise of new front-runners on this horizon (Wolf, 2009, para. 1). This decade is noteworthy as it not only signalled the end of US global domination, but it also earmarked the beginnings of the demise of Western supremacy broadly, and more specifically the conclusion of Anglo-American domination (Wolf, 2009). It is also a pivotal decade to focus on understanding the global shifts towards a knowledge economy (Houghton & Sheehan, 2000).

Whilst the major global developments in the 2000s, such as the Global Financial Crisis also reverberated strongly in South Africa (Steytler & Powell, 2010), this decade witnessed unique challenges to this country's fledgling democracy. The shift from transitional democracy to the consolidation of democracy ushered in a distinctive new phase within the democratisation process (Mottiar, 2002). Far from the idealism of the transitional period, the country's populace voiced a greater sense of discontent with social challenges such as high rates of poverty, violence and HIV infection, as well as pervasive racial mistrust (Rohleder, Swartz, Bozalek, Carolissen, & Leibowitz, 2008). Whilst CP had great political currency in South African psychology in the 1980s and 1990s, the conditions of the post-transition period, within the context of a wider state of global devastation and change, have arguably shifted the forces of knowledge production in the field. Such significant local

and global changes within this decade, together with the burgeoning importance of published work within an age of information and a growing knowledge economy, make this a timely study.

3. Aims

The thesis aims to critically examine the state of contemporary knowledge production in CP. This study assesses the characteristics of CP knowledge production in both local and international journals in order to ascertain the ways in which the knowledge of the CP sub-discipline is constructed through a sample of its publications. It provides a critical empirical analysis of articles published in four international CP journals (AJCP, JCP, JCASP and JPIC), and two South African journals (SAJP and PINS), over a 10-year period (January 2000 to December 2009). This includes identifying the epistemological, methodological and axiological features of contemporary scholarship in the sub-discipline of CP, in order to highlight the power relations and contextual influences that have influenced these trends. The inquiry aims to critically examine the features of published work from six journals from the South African and international contexts. This will form the basis for understanding the ways in which dominant power relations are manifested in the various publications.

4. Objectives

The study's objectives articulate how its overarching aims will be achieved. The first objective is to elucidate the features of contemporary scholarly publications along a range of dimensions that are central to understanding the content and form of knowledge production in CP. This will involve highlighting the trends from the types of publications, authorship characteristics, topic areas, theories, methods and population groups that appear in each of the journals in the dataset. By investigating these publication trends, the study will look for patterns of dominance and marginality that emerge theoretically and methodologically in journal articles, as well as examine how marginalised groups are represented in each of these journals. Overall, this analysis of publication trends will assist in understanding the ways in which the identity of contemporary CP is collectively constructed through the publications of scholarly work.

Secondly, the study seeks to group the analysis of trends within these articles into a series of meaningful comparisons to show more detailed thematic patterns. These comparisons present different ways in which to make sense of the dataset along knowledge production and contextual dimensions. The first part includes a comparison of the

characteristics of CP articles in the South African publications with the trends in South African psychology more broadly. This pairing serves to situate South African CP in relation to psychology in South Africa, thus allowing for a closer inspection of the relationship between CP and its parent discipline. This component of the study is followed by a breakdown of the characteristics of published work in different international CP journals. This aspect of the research explores the similarities and differences between international journals, and in order to identify the contribution of each journal to the trends observed as well as providing a holistic picture of the contemporary international trends of that period. This analysis allows for a closer inspection of features that are continuous across, and those that are particular to, individual journals. The final comparative dimension seeks to compare the combined characteristics of CP articles that are authored by South Africans with those authored by international scholars, irrespective of which these appeared in. This juxtaposition serves to disaggregate the data according to the contextual location of the authors from the locus of publication. The comparison of the context of authorship permits a deeper investigation of the characteristics of a larger subset of South African articles, in relation to the international articles, and further sets out some of the overlapping and distinguishing elements of CP scholarship within and across contexts. These trends will be critically assessed through examining their similarities to and departures from the founding ideals as articulated by the original founders in this field.

Thirdly, the study seeks utilise the insights gained from the comparative analyses to guide an in-depth critical qualitative reading of selected texts in CP. This involves providing an alternative methodology for interpreting patterns within publications to offer insight into some of the mechanisms of power and how these function in forums of knowledge production. This analysis of allows for the identification of the central discourses that contribute to the construction of CP in published work, and serve to both maintain and contest the patterns of dominance and marginality that are evident. It also illustrates how a different approach contributes to uncovering of power relations in scholarly publications, and provides an additional form of introspection and reflexivity of the sub-discipline.

The final objective is to reflect on the overall state of contemporary scholarship, by synthesising tensions between marginality and dominance that emerge in published work. Then, it seeks to interpret what the observed trends reveal about the state of the field, and the power relations that underpin CP knowledge production. This includes highlighting the interface between knowledge production trends and the social, material and disciplinary conditions at a local and global level that are represented in this scholarship. It also involves

carefully considering the implications of how these trends position the field, and highlights the issues at stake for its future global trajectory.

5. Chapter Organisation

This thesis is presented in twelve chapters. Chapter One introduced the study and provided a brief overview of its scope, purpose and intentions. It highlighted the study's significance and raised the central conceptual issues with which it seeks to grapple. The thesis is positioned as an empirical analysis of published work in CP over a specific decade and outlined how a critical-emancipatory paradigm and a mixed methodological approach will be utilised. This chapter introduces the dimensions of local and international scholarship, as well as the qualitative and quantitative approaches, and themes of dominance and marginality that will be investigated in selected published works in CP.

Chapter Two introduces the theoretical perspectives on the role of the intellectual and academia in order to place the process of knowledge production in its socio-historical context, and introduces the conceptual tensions between the representation of dominant and marginalised group interests in academic work. Then the chapter discusses contemporary global issues and debates in knowledge production, and the emergence of a knowledge economy, discussing its implications for South Africa and for CP. Since the study deals with knowledge production in CP, this chapter draws from critical social theory to further enhance understandings of trends within published work.

Chapter Three continues with a historical synopsis of the development of CP across the world. Since a major focus in the study is the comparison of international and local published work, this chapter provides a backdrop to the stages and influences of CP's development in different regions. This chapter explores the interface between psychology, socio-political context and knowledge production. This discussion sets the scene for the local-international comparisons that are drawn upon later in the analysis of the data.

Chapter Four provides an account of the power relations related to the major theoretical traditions in the field: prevention, ecology, empowerment, liberation and feminist writing, and post-structuralism, as well as the contemporary theoretical concepts of psychopolitical validity and socio-political development. This outline provides the conceptual basis for interpreting the results of the study. The chapter considers the dominant ways in which power has been approached in CP, sketching the framework of the sub-discipline's conceptual boundaries, and its implications.

Chapter Five then presents a synopsis of the international studies in CP, by detailing the foci and methods of these studies, as well as their most salient findings. The chapter also

draws attention to under-researched areas in the realm of existing knowledge production studies in the field.

Due to the limited number of studies on knowledge production in CP in South Africa, Chapter Six continues with an explication of several empirical studies of knowledge production in psychology more broadly. The characteristics of existing knowledge production studies, as well as their implications for and their findings about the publications produced in South Africa, are assessed. The few studies of knowledge production in South African CP are then situated within this chapter. The knowledge gaps in local studies are similarly highlighted as in the previous chapter. This provides a basis for delineating the contributions of the current study in relation to existing research of this nature in local and international contexts, and provides the platform for the study's argument for the value of a comparative focus in the study of knowledge production in CP.

Chapter Seven details the methodology employed in the study. This chapter is central to outlining the paradigmatic approach and design parameters of the study. The chapter argues for the value of a mixed method approach in observing patterns in the data that combines the holistic, bird's eye view of a descriptive quantitative analysis, in conjunction with the discerning qualitative observations gained from a close critical interpretation of selected extracts in the data, that together enhance an understanding of knowledge production. This chapter includes an explication of the development of mixed method research, the dimensions and variations of mixed method approaches, and how this overarching paradigmatic framework was applied to the dataset. The chapter then maps the process of data collection, the data coding procedures, and the methods of data analysis used to generate the study's findings. Lastly, it considers the ethical concerns raised by the study and engages with the imperatives of reflexivity.

The results of the study are set out over the course of four chapters, each with its own comparative focus. Chapter Eight is the first chapter in which findings are presented. This chapter provides a descriptive comparison of contemporary features of scholarly work in psychology and in CP that was published in South African journals. The purpose of this chapter is to situate knowledge production in CP within the broader landscape of developments in knowledge production within psychology as a whole in South Africa.

Chapter Nine is the second chapter on the results and provides an analysis of the articles published in the international CP journals. This chapter details the characteristics of knowledge production in CP within the international arena, and compares differences and similarities evident between international journals.

Chapter Ten presents a comparison of locally and internationally authored

publications in CP. This chapter allows for the comparison of context-related and intra-disciplinary features of articles, and shows patterns of dominance and marginality in publications between and across the South African and global contexts.

Chapter Eleven follows with a critical qualitative reading of selected exemplars of articles in the dataset that illustrate how power is exercised in knowledge production. It presents insights gained from appraising the data qualitatively to illustrate the issues at stake for the field of CP and to foreground some of the ways in which the themes of dominance and marginality are discursively represented in published work.

Chapter Twelve concludes the thesis, highlighting implications of the findings for intra-disciplinary development more broadly, as well as within both the local and international domains. The discussion presented here draws together insights generated across the previous analyses, and discusses their significance for CP, for knowledge production processes and for broader social change.

6. Conclusion

This chapter has set out to orientate the reader to the scope of the study outlined in this thesis. The chapter elaborated on the important aspects of its value, including its engagement with the imperative to introspectively and critically reflect on CP through the lens of knowledge production. The chapter set forth the study's interest in exploring the manifestations of dominance and marginality in knowledge production in order to illustrate how power operates in this arena. The chapter then discussed the structure of the thesis, in order to highlight the logic of how the conceptual and methodological aspects of study are reported. The forthcoming chapter proceeds with a discussion of the defining characteristics of CP, and tracing its international emergence.

Chapter 2

Beyond Community Psychology: Global and Institutional Dynamics of Knowledge Production

1. Introduction

CP as a field is situated within the dialectic between the psychological and social realms. Therefore, analysis of knowledge production in CP is an interdisciplinary concern (Watling Neal et al., 2013) that draws from a range of disciplines, including sociology, education, political studies, history, philosophy, economics and development studies. Understanding knowledge production therefore implies a broader social scientific conceptualisation of these disciplines in action. In recent years, critical social theory has increasingly cast its gaze on investigating the types of knowledge being produced on a global scale, the processes of producing and consuming knowledge, and the functions that this knowledge serves in different societies. Knowledge production has been significantly affected by the global domination of the neo-liberalist capitalist democratic social order and the burgeoning age of information. In turn, this has influenced a range of social institutions, which have traditionally been responsible for scientific knowledge production, including the academe.

This research is primarily interested in studying the patterns of dominance and marginalisation that are embedded in published CP work. As such, the notions of social power and power asymmetry are paramount to the focus of the study. It thus engages with published work as a form of representation and expression that draws out the power relations that uphold specific ideological agendas. The study views published work as a fruitful site for uncovering a variety of tensions that emerge from the social-political, institutional, and disciplinary context in which this knowledge is produced. The power relations that are manifested in publications convey the dominant ideologies of the prevailing social order, including those that uphold the interests of global capital in a knowledge economy, the ideals of advanced post-industrial democracy, the objectives and methods of the scientific enterprise, and the legitimation of structures of oppression. CP simultaneously is a site of resistance against the existing power structures in psychology.

This chapter begins by considering the historical role of the intellectual enterprise in society more broadly, and the relationship of academics to the prevailing socio-economic order and employs a critical social perspective on the nature of power and knowledge in the academic sphere as well as the mechanisms of knowledge in the sub-discipline of CP. This

chapter elaborates briefly on a selection of historical contributions that social theorists such as Karl Marx, Antonio Gramsci, Karl Mannheim, Michael Foucault, Pierre Bourdieu and others, have made to our understandings of academic knowledge production. The chapter then continues with an overview of the key features of the decade of 2000s by way of introducing the extrinsic context of knowledge production internationally and in South Africa. It moves on to provide an exposition of current drivers of the global knowledge economy, and situates South Africa within this context. It then continues with a discussion of contemporary global debates about the changes in the role of academics in an information society, and shifts in the ways in which knowledge is being produced as a result of changing social, political and economic conditions. In doing so, this serves to locate CP within the context of broader debates on knowledge production.

2. Situating the Intellectual Role

Knowledge production in academic journals is part of the historical function of academics, as well as the contemporary intellectual role in a knowledge-based economy. However, the purpose of the sub-discipline of CP means that it also asserts its own ideologies related to social justice and transformation, which have implications for knowledge production. Thus, it is useful to reflect on the various historical social positions of intellectual work in the light of insights from critical social theory, in order to situate this debate in relation to its implications for CP. At this point, it is important to also highlight that the use of the term 'intellectual' itself invokes a set of power relations within the social order (Foucault, 1982). The major conceptualisations of these power relations from different theoretical traditions are elaborated briefly.

2.1. Intellectuals as Class-bound

The role of intellectuals can be identified in all societies (Brym, in press), but there is considerable variation in the understandings of this role. Perspectives about the role of intellectuals in societies can be grouped within three traditions – as: "class-bound", "class-less", and a "class-in-themselves" (Kurzman & Owens, 2002, p. 63). Thus, a definition of the intellectual is necessarily located as a position within the social structure (Karabel, 1996). Views about the social position of intellectuals are drawn from a diverse range of conceptual premises. However, it is instructive to begin a discussion of the intellectual role from a critical realist perspective of the social order.

In classical Marxist theory, social relations are quintessentially defined by social class positions, as well as each group's relationship to the means of production (Marx

1932). The intellectual and ideological superstructure of society is superimposed on the economic substructure (Doyle McCarthy, 2002; Hodges, 1963). The 'intelligentsia' have the task of generating and disseminating knowledge in society and therefore they adopt the intellectual role. The social position of the intelligentsia is contingent on their relationship to the means of production, and the productive outputs of their labour (Marx, 1932). However, placing the intelligentsia within the classical Marxist undemanding of the class structure has been a notoriously problematic issue within this tradition. This is largely due to the contradictory description of the intelligentsia in Marx's accounts (Hodges, 1963; Ollman, 1968). Intellectuals are a complex group for Marxists to theorise: They sell their labour like the 'proletariat' class, and they may be similarly exploited in a capitalist economy; but they also resemble the 'bourgeoisie' due to their higher social status and income (Hodges, 1963). Classical Marxism distinguishes the intelligentsia from the proletariat as part of the ideological class that serves the interests of the bourgeoisie. However, contemporary Marxist thought suggests that even if intellectuals initially fall within the social class of the bourgeoisie, they will ultimately become subsumed into the proletariat with the gradual advancement of capitalism (Brym, in press).

Antonio Gramsci, a well-known critical theorist and Marxist, elaborated on the social position and function of the intellectual as being class-bound (Kurzman & Owens, 2002). Gramsci (1971) supported the Marxist analysis of the capitalist structure and the economic basis of society. Gramsci (1971) held that their class or group of origin binds the intellectual, and that each social class produces its own subset of intellectuals. Gramsci (1971) distinguishes between the 'traditional' and the 'organic' intellectuals. The traditional intellectual functions as a professional intellectual and in academia, as part of the ruling class of the prevailing social order. The traditional intellectual is a functionary that preserves the status quo through the production of conservative intellectual knowledge, which ultimately acts as a barrier to progressive social transformation (Gramsci, 1971). Though the traditional intellectual stands apart from their class, it is through their intellectual work that he/she maintains the cultural hegemony of the privileged, and represents dominant class interests as universal interests (Gramsci, 1971). For Gramsci (1971), one could consequently detect the workings of capitalism and class conflicts in traditional intellectual activities. Thus, Gramsci (1971) argues that intellectual work is a cultural product that offers equally valuable insight into the state of economic production as the labour practices of the working classes. Gramsci (1971) contrasts these traditional intellectuals with organic intellectuals, which grow organically from within each social group. Organic intellectuals maintain their fidelity to their class of origin through their

political interests and activities. Organic intellectuals that are part of the ruling class are most responsible for preserving the political interests of the dominant hegemonic order. However, organic intellectuals may also emerge from the subordinate classes, where they fulfil an intellectual function within popular grassroots organisations and activist groups (Gramsci, 1971). The distinction between traditional and organic intellectuals embodies the difference between the imperatives of 'common sense', which heeds the imperatives of tradition, and 'good sense', which articulates the popular need (Gramsci, 1971).

In attempting to remedy the neglect of understanding the relationship between social movements and science, other scholars have added to this conceptualisation of intellectuals within a class-bound tradition. Similarly, Eyerman and Jamieson (1991) differentiate between 'established' and 'movement' intellectuals. The latter are associated with social movements and the generation of new knowledge through the mechanisms of 'cognitive praxis' (Eyerman & Jamieson, 1991, p. 55). Here, cognitive praxis is used to conceptualise the forms of knowledge creation that occur within the context of some social movements (Jamieson, 2006). Though not a role in all social movements, the movement intellectual has a discernible identity as initiators in processes of knowledge 'hybridisation', which result in new forms of disciplines and practices (Jamieson, 2006, p. 47). Barker and Cox (2002, p. 2) combine the influences of these scholars by referring to them as 'academic' and 'movement' intellectuals. They argue that these distinctions hold relevance for understanding their guiding goals and tasks, the groups they are accountable to and accredited by, and the types of knowledge they produce (Barker & Cox, 2002).

In CP specifically, we find a similar division, albeit in a slightly different form, as an 'academic/applied split' (Dorr, 1986), or between what have more recently been termed 'academic' and 'real world' community psychologists (Wolff & Swift, 2008). Barker and Cox (2002) maintain that traditional academic intellectuals produce static, explanatory research that is validated by the academe, whereas movement intellectuals produce dynamic knowledge that inspires and is validated by social movements. In this line, Eyerman and Jamieson (1991), argue that social movements arise at specific historical junctures, and if this occurs in the midst of an auspicious set of social and political conditions, it may generate the potential for new knowledge that could disrupt traditional forms of knowledge. These authors contend that, "no social movement emerges until there is a political opportunity available, a context of social problem as well as a context of communication, opening up the potential for problem articulation and knowledge dissemination" (Eyerman & Jamieson, 1991, p. 56). Thus, movement intellectuals play a key role in the communication and embodiment of particular ideas in the convergence of political

opportunities and social problems. Therefore, movement intellectuals may be considered important in view of the genesis of a sub-discipline like CP. As we will see in the chapter that follows, CP first emerged from mainstream psychology in a period of intense social unrest in the US, and likewise has developed during a similar social and economic climate or aligned itself with grassroots social movements elsewhere in the world. Whilst this view of the importance of intellectuals within a class-bound framework has been significant to the evolution of social theory, critiques of this approach to understanding the intellectual role centre on its neglect of the ideological heterogeneity among intellectuals (Brym, in press). This raises the possibility of there being different types of intellectuals in CP that are aligned to different ideological agendas.

2.2. Intellectuals as Class-less

Theorists such as Karl Mannheim maintained that intellectuals are essentially detached from a class position (Kurzman & Owens, 2002). Mannheim's work upheld the view that the intellectual's capacity for agency and self-reflexivity serves as the means through which they were able to transcend their class (Tamdgidi, 2002), and that they were therefore fundamentally 'class-less' (Brym, in press; Kurzman & Owens, 2002). Mannheim (1936) argued that beliefs were contextually and socially embedded, and identified social class, location and generation as being the central determinants of knowledge production. He broadened the Marxist notion that the proletariat and bourgeoisie developed different collective belief systems based on these elements, which results in social conflict. However, Mannheim (1936) did not view intellectuals themselves as bound to a class structure. For Mannheim, their shared education served to suppress the influence of class (Brym, in press), and afforded intellectuals with the capacity to align with different classes (Kurzman & Owens, 2002). Mannheim's theory distinguished between intellectual thought that is 'ideological' (supportive of the bourgeoisie or politically conservative) and intellectual thought that is 'socially utopian' (such as the socialist, communist or liberal-humanitarian traditions) (Tamdgidi, 2002). Mannheim believed intellectuals had the capacity to understand opposing social positions and hence view the social and political order in its totality (Kurzman & Owens, 2002).

2.3. Intellectuals as Class-in-themselves

A third approach to conceptualising the role of intellectuals in society views these intellectuals as being in a class of their own (Kurzman & Owens, 2002). This perspective represents an attempt to reconcile the problems of class-bound and class-less approaches

(Brym, in press). In this approach, the intellectual is autonomous and serves a role in elaborating on the symbolic system of all social groups, rather than themselves being representatives of social groups (Kurzman & Owens, 2002).

The work of Pierre Bourdieu falls within this tradition (Kurzman & Owens, 2002). For Bourdieu (1986), social space is divided into unique constellations of dominant and dominated classes in specific fields. Dominant classes are those that hold capital, but are polarised between those with economic and those with cultural capital. For Bourdieu (1986), the tension between economic and cultural forms of capital within the dominant class is particularly evident in universities. In contrast to many other social spheres, academia relies predominantly on the use of cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986). Bourdieu (1984) describes intellectuals as constituting "the dominated fraction of the dominant class", due to their relative distance from economic power, and use of cultural capital over economic capital. Bourdieu viewed intellectuals as a self-preoccupied class, with idiosyncratic interests (Kurzman & Owens, 2002). Despite this, the intellectual could still fulfil a role in social transformation through the activities of public engagement (Wacquant, 2006). Thus, Bourdieu (1989) maintained the intellectual's quintessential duality or "bi-dimensional" nature. For Bourdieu, the intellectual's existence attests to the autonomy of the intellectual field from the economic sphere, yet also positions the intellectual as dedicated to serving collective, public interests (Wacquant, 2006). Therefore, the intellectual is fundamentally torn between the imperatives of social disinterest and those of social involvement (Bourdieu, 1989).

Highlighting the contested nature of the conceptualisation of the role of intellectuals in critical theory, Kurzman and Owens (2002) suggest that intellectuals inhabit a site of tension between the ideological positions of elitism and egalitarianism. These authors believe that the materiality in which intellectual life is rooted may be foregrounded through comparative empirical research across geographical and temporal contexts (Kurzman & Owens, 2002). Applied to the focus of this thesis, these insights suggest the value of an analysis of published work to a field such as CP, which directly connects with interrogating the power imbalances and social inequality in its value orientation. However, it also raises the question of the extent to which publications represent or upholds the values and views of the dominant classes, and the extent to which it has the potential to support a social transformation agenda, which is found in much theorising about community problems in CP. In addition, understanding the contested role of the intellectual foregrounds the potential of including a contextually and temporally comparative dimension to published work, and its relevance not only to CP, but also to the understanding of knowledge

production more widely. In this line, Kurzman and Owens (2002) maintain the importance not only of studying notions of what intellectuals should be, but of studying intellectual practice as well. This is where an investigation of academic practice within the domain of knowledge production becomes especially significant.

3. Theoretical Perspectives on Knowledge Production

3.1. The Academic Field

Bourdieu (1990) sought to describe the properties and hierarchical structures of the intellectual field broadly as a social entity that functions in a relatively autonomous manner. Within this domain, Bourdieu (1990) identifies the intellectual field as comprised of numerous sub-fields, among which is the academic field. Academic knowledge production is located within the structures and functions of academia. Bourdieu's notion of the distinctive nature of each field provides a conceptual tool through which to understand the relationship between the economic and the political in these contexts (Albert, 2002). In *Homo academicus,* Bourdieu (1988) describes the characteristics of the academic, drawing from his analysis of academia in France. This includes the social actions arising from the interrelationship between the academic '*habitus*' and the academic '*field*'. Habitus and field constitute two of the core concepts in Bourdieu's theory, which represent his reformulation of dualisms such as agency and structural determinism, objectivity and subjectivity, as being inseparable and dialectical (Ernste, 2006; Wacquant, 2006). The habitus are the largely unconscious mental structures of social phenomena that exist internally in social agents within a particular social arena. They represent the shared generative dispositions of possibilities and constraints that exist within actors in a social space (Bourdieu, 2004). The mental structures of the habitus are both conditioned by the social structures of the past and made malleable by exposure to changing social conditions (Wacquant, 2006). The field is comprised of a set of positions present in a social space (Bourdieu, 2004). The social structure of a particular field is reproduced in the convergence of the internalised possibilities and constraints of the habitus and the external possibilities and constraints in a field; and likewise contested when there are ruptures between the habitus and field (Wacquant, 2006). A circular, self-fulfilling logic is created through this interplay between the dispositions of the habitus and the positions of a field (Bourdieu, 1988).

Bourdieu further maintained that individuals within each field develop their own '*doxa*' – an unquestioned set of commonly held beliefs and opinions that would serve to unite them and would also direct their practices (Guzzini, 2006; Wacquant, 2006). In CP,

the habitus is present in how community psychologists theorise mental health and community problems, and how this informs modes of practice. The doxa of CP are the assumptions held by community psychologists about the field, its values and principles, and its views about the social world. However, the forms of scholarly knowledge in CP are also located with the realm of academia. The academic field in itself has its own structure and forms of practice. A dominant social agent in a field is a person who is well positioned to take advantage of its social structure (Bourdieu, 2004).

Bourdieu's (1988) conception of the academic field denotes the rivalries that exist between counterparts in the same arena who all engage in a common search for the truth about the social world. Yet, despite these rivalries, he emphasises the shared interests that exist among individuals, despite their apparent disagreements (Wacquant, 2006). Like all fields, the academic field for Bourdieu (1988, p. 11), is "the locus of a struggle to determine the conditions and criteria of legitimate membership and legitimate hierarchy". The academic field is therefore one in which there is a persistent struggle for domination, inclusion and exclusion (Bourdieu, 1988). This perspective suggests that the mechanisms of policing in the academic field are constituted by the endorsed criteria for establishing academic credentials, recognition and progression, as well as the nature of academic work (Bourdieu, 1988). In CP scholarship, this would manifest in the approval and disapproval of specific types of theory development and research, and the use of publication as a route to gain academic status and credentials, rather than as a vehicle to serve community interests. Bourdieu (1988) argued that academics were all invested in maintaining the unity and independence of the academic field, and therefore were agreeable to playing by a set of sanctioned rules. The rules of the academic field were established for the purpose of harnessing, manipulating and exploiting specific forms of capital (Bourdieu, 1986). For Bourdieu (1986) the primary form of capital at play in the academic field is cultural capital. In academia, the individuals are constituted into groups by different criteria, and they compete for cultural capital. Thus, the opposing principles of competition and collusion co-exist within this field. For Bourdieu, if scholars invest in and abide by the established criteria for academic credentials and the sanctioned order of progression and succession serves to increase their potential gain of an institutionalised form of cultural capital within this field of struggle for "each against all" (Bourdieu, 1988, p. 87). The exercise of academic power requires the exploitation of the opportunities offered by the field, in ways that show investment in the game, credence to more advanced players, but also function by limiting the pool of potential competitors (Bourdieu, 1988). The accumulation of cultural capital within the academe requires the expenditure of one's own time in various academic

activities, which means that age becomes an important signifier of the academic order and of academic authority. Bourdieu (1988, p. 98) therefore refers to this field as having power relations that function within a "time-economy", where academics gain power by investing their time through the production of intellectual instruments like books or lectures, or participating in political forms of public engagement. Thus, the publication of scholarly work, as part of evidence for the accumulation of cultural capital, serves an important role in establishing and reinforcing this order (Bourdieu, 1988).

Wacquant (2006) highlighted that Bourdieu's concept of field has two important properties. Firstly, it describes a structured space of positions that comprise a "force field" (Wacquant, 2006, p. 222-223). In addition, carefully constructed criteria serve to sustain power relations that form the boundaries of this force field. For this reason, the academic field also refers to a "battlefield", as it is a site where social agents and institutions seek to maintain or challenge the hierarchical distribution of cultural capital (Wacquant, 2006, p. 223). In the scientific intellectual arena, this cultural capital is manifested through the ranking of institutions, disciplines, theories, methods, topics and journals. This perpetual struggle for dominance culminates in fields having a mutable and temporal quality. Thus it is said that "all fields are historical constellations that arise, grow, change shape, and sometimes wane or perish, over time" (Wacquant, 2006, p. 223). Each discipline within a field operates according to its own logic, within which each sub-field is nested. The fragmentation of these fields into areas of specialisation offers scholars a wider scope for attaining scientific legitimacy through increasing the range of potential knowledge production fora (Albert, 2002). Here, it is worthwhile to consider how CP as a historical constellation of theories, methods and topics is represented not only in applied forms of community practice, but also in the scientifically endorsed articles that appear in CP journals as currency that is subject to the power relations, both housed within psychology, and in the academic field. Psychology itself cannot be understood without comprehending the nature of the academic sphere (Drury, 2003), and thus CP must also be situated within these realms. It is important to remember that CP has not always existed, nor had an academic foothold. CP as a sub-discipline is therefore a manifestation of a form of cultural capital that arose and at a specific time, became embedded institutionally within the discipline of professional and academic psychology. Consequently, CP has continually grappled with its potential for growth and the demise of its existence in different institutional and geographical contexts over the past 50 years since its inception.

Bourdieu (2008) maintains that within academia, it is necessary to understand the logic that operates in each particular discipline, including the nuances and complexities of

its systems of classification and how class interests and power are represented and mediated therein. Here, Bourdieu attributes vital importance to the concept of symbolic domination, which is defined as domination that is masked, and through its disguise is geared towards maintaining itself (Buroway & van Holdt, 2012). The dominant classes have no interest in dislodging the existing forms of symbolic domination, whereas the dominated classes do not have the capacity to do so, by virtue of their lack of cultural capital (Buroway & van Holdt, 2012). This makes the likelihood of intellectuals' exposure of symbolic domination, especially at the hands of the intellectual classes themselves, and within the intellectual field, highly improbable. If the representation of CP in journal articles is implicated in such an agenda, it poses the question of whether symbolic domination embedded in published work can indeed be unmasked within the intellectual sphere.

3.2. Disciplinary Knowledge and Power

Also relevant to the discussion on the conceptualisation of CP as a distinct sub-discipline of psychology that is constructed through knowledge production, are considerations about how power operates in academic disciplines and how disciplines are constituted through knowledge. Seidman (2004) notes that since the 1970s, social knowledge has been located within an academic culture that separates disciplines. Each discipline is demarcated according to its own subject matter and methods. Within academia, a 'discipline' refers to a branch of learning or a particular body of knowledge (Moran, 2010 cited in Repko, 2012). CP as an academic discipline originated in the mid-1960s in the US and became formalised in the early 1970s, though its temporal emergence has varied in other contexts (Kloos et al., 2012). The emergence of disciplines in the academe was accompanied by robust mechanisms of governmentality that functioned to regulate the boundaries of knowledge possibilities (Smith, 2003). Academic disciplines are knowledge domains that have their own intellectual traditions shaped by their preferred concepts, theories and methods (Repko, 2012). Consequently, social scientific practices are implicated in the power relations associated with translating cultural values into authoritative knowledge (Smith, 2003). While there has traditionally been a significant amount of dispute and contestation about the preferred theories and methods between disciplines of social enquiry, more recently, there has been a substantially greater focus on interdisciplinarity (Repko, 2012). Thus, these contemporary shifts have been noted as ways of maintaining the boundaries of disciplines, but also in destabilising the disciplines.

In *Discipline and Punish*, Foucault (1977) maintains that disciplinary power is captured in the emergence of the disciplines as the regimes created through the regulation of

human bodies and behaviours. Foucault (1982) views power as a productive network that permeates throughout the entire social formation, including the structure of academia, in this case. Disciplinary power operates through "homogenous circuits capable of operating everywhere, in a continuous way" (Foucault, 1977, p. 80). In Foucault's formulation, disciplinary power is omnipresent, insidious and obedient only to its own rules of ordering and self-governance (Butchart, 1997). However, the exercise of disciplinary power always manufactures both the mechanisms for its perpetuation and the mechanisms of resistance. Foucault's (1982) coupling of power/knowledge illustrates that knowledge is part of the mechanism of power relations. For Foucault (1982, p.752) "the exercise of power creates and causes to emerge new objects of knowledge and accumulates new bodies of information…the exercise of power perpetually creates knowledge and, conversely, knowledge constantly induces effects of power". This is relevant if one considers how power is constituted within disciplinary boundaries and how these boundaries are increasingly becoming less distinct and more contested (Seidman, 2004).

For Foucault (1982), ideas can never be isolated from the institutions and the power relations that exist in a specific historical, geographical and social context. Or to state another way, institutions, laws and ideologies based in a particular context are the structures or mechanisms through which power is exercised (Foucault, 1982). It is therefore crucial to consider contextual dimensions of knowledge production in CP. Constructing a "history of the present" is simply the excavation of a battleground of power relations, and to this end Foucault privileged the question "What are we today?" (Foucault, 1988 cited in May & Powell, 2008, p. 200). And this question implies that we need to consider the current state of CP through its representation in knowledge production. Thus, this thesis grapples with aspects of this question through examining what the status of the sub-discipline of CP is today in terms of its preferred topics, theories and methods, and this necessarily implies explicating the dominant and marginal trends and discourses. However, in contrast to Marxist critical theory, Foucault (1982) does not conceive of a binary between the powerful and powerless, but the constant reengagement of power relations. Foucault's analysis of how power operates fundamentally challenges the Marxist idea that power is a commodity possessed by some and not others, and questions the prospect of attaining a utopic society (Butchart, 1997). Rather, Foucault's theory describes "an endlessly repeated play of domination" (Hindess, 1998), with no definite direction for resistance or social change (Hoy, 1998). An objective reality for Foucault was non-existent, and the use of any method of analysis is simply one reading of reality that is made possible by the relations of power it evokes (Foucault, 1982). Therefore, all analytic techniques by which knowledge is produced

are simply different ways of sustaining the existence of different realities (Butchart, 1997). This assertion is relevant to the current study as it invokes the importance of subjectivity in any form of research. However, Foucault's views of power are somewhat contentious in terms of their implications for a field like CP. Critiques have been levelled at Foucault's theorisation of power as being ubiquitous, and for its sundering of power from the conceptualisation of oppression (Hindess, 1998). These critiques are of vital importance in a field such as CP that is essentially action- and social justice-oriented. However, Foucault does, suggest that it is a worthwhile pursuit to strive for the absence of any forms of domination. In the pursuit of this ideal, power relations are present but in the absence of domination, these power relations are unstable and reversible (Hindess, 1998).

3.3. The Author Function

Authorship and its role and implications are important considerations in the realm of knowledge production. Foucault (1986) provides further insight into the coupling of power/knowledge in his discussion of the power relations between a text and its author. Foucault (1986) contends that an author of a text can be distinguished from its writer. This distinction is brought to bear by the existence of a set of discourses that are endowed in an 'author function' (Foucault, 1986). The author function is linked to an "institutional system that encompasses, determines, and articulates the universe of discourses" that exist within writing (Foucault, 1986, p. 113). It does not refer purely to an individual, but gives rise to a set of positions that may be adopted by different types of individuals (Foucault, 1986). Thus, the production of a set of discourses in textual, authored form is an act of power that draws on multiple power relations from an institutional and social context. The author function is a principle of presenting "a certain unity in writing" in which incompatible elements are tied together and resolved within an order that disguises their contradictory aspects (Foucault, 1986). Such authors are termed the "founders of discursivity", and they produce more than a specific text, but create a theory, tradition or discipline, which extend beyond the text (Foucault, 1986). Foucault (1986) argued that these authors were unique in that they produced the possibilities and the rules for the formation and divergences of other texts. Thus, the theoretical validity of a proposition would be defined with reference to the perspective offered by its original proponent, but later interpretations may leave out theoretical aspects deemed non-essential or irrelevant (Foucault, 1986). However, the author function is critical in the generation of acceptable forms of knowledge. Thus, each field has its founding discursive authors that prescribe both the dominant concepts, as well as the ways in which these concepts may be resisted. In CP, the author function is found in the

dominant epistemological frameworks, some of which still refer to their discursive founders, while others simply adopt the central tenets of approaches endorsed by these founders. The author function is one mechanism in which the boundaries of a discipline are established and maintained over time. Thus, Foucault draws our attention to the role of the author function as a means of establishing the continuity of published work.

3.4. Reflexivity and Knowledge

In studying knowledge production, various theories and approaches have been advocated. Bourdieu's idea about the role of reflexivity for the scholar in academic knowledge production has relevance to the present research, as this relates to the wider importance of reflexivity advocated in CP. Bourdieu (1988), describes the academic is "the supreme classifier of classifiers", and his/her endeavour to study the mechanisms of academia represents an attempt to "trap [the academic] in the net of his own classifications" (Bourdieu, 1988, p. xi). This suggests that the academic study of academia immediately creates and imposes its own limits in its conceptualisation of the social world. However, it is also Bourdieu's (2004) contention that social science can be used to resolve the self-same problem that it itself has generated. For this reason, reflexivity is a necessary part of empirical work. Scientific or empirical activity does not need to be jettisoned in generating critical understandings (Bourdieu, 2004), and that it is possible to use historically located empirical work reflexively to obtain a form of universal validity (Bourdieu, 1998). Thus, Bourdieu therefore theorised about the possibility of an "activist science" that considered the intersection of social positions related to power, class, gender, ethnicity, nationality and culture (Wacquant, 2006, p. 215). Contrary to the claims in both positivist and critical theory that the assumptions of these approaches are irreconcilable, Bourdieu maintained that the scientific and social engagement endeavours of the scientist were not antithetical but complementary; the former is the necessary condition for the latter (Wacquant, 2006). Moreover, Bourdieu (2004, p.4) argued "Casting an ironic gaze on the social world, a gaze which unveils, unmasks, brings to light what it hidden, it cannot avoid casting this gaze on itself". However, Bourdieu (2004) argues that reflexivity should not simply turn itself to the scholar as an object to discredit this knowledge, but rather serve to do so in order "to check and strengthen it" (p. 4). This work is important for the current study as it supports the notion of using science in the form of empirical work for the purposes of maintaining an agenda of critical engagement and social change. He argues that empirical work has the potential to reveal the logic of the social world (Bourdieu, 1998). Bourdieu (2004) argues that this reflexivity in scholarly work should extend beyond reflection on the identity

attributes of the academic. It should also include the reflexive analysis about the location of the scholar within the intellectual field, and the wider scholastic universe (Bourdieu, 2004). Such reflexive engagement must include consideration of the concepts and methods of the particular area of study:

> …each discipline having its own traditions and national particularities, its obligatory problematics, its habits of thought, its shared beliefs and self-evidences, its rituals and consecrations, its constraints regarding the publication of findings, its specific forms of censorship, not to mention the whole set of presuppositions inscribed in the collective history of the speciality (the academic unconscious). (Bourdieu, 2004 p. 94).

Drawing on this perspective, this research sees the critique of knowledge in CP, as well as the critical study of its theories, topics and methods, as a necessary component of strengthening the field. This chapter now turns to a closer investigation of the contemporary local and global context of knowledge production.

4. Contemporary Features of Knowledge Production

4.1. Global Developments in the 2000s

The 2000s were distinguished as a period of substantial global social, economic, political and environmental change. It was named in Time Magazine as 'the Worst Decade Ever', and is also variously titled as 'the Reckoning', the 'Decade from Hell', or the 'Lost Decade' (Server, 2009, para. 2). This decade began the turn of a new century and a new millennium, with epic anticipation and fear, as the world prepared for the dreaded Y2K moment that elapsed with bewildering uneventfulness (Serwer, 2009, para. 1). The sentiment of fear expressed at its outset, though, would come to characterise a central theme of this period (Shephard, 2011). Among the defining events, the 9/11 destruction of the World Trade Centre in 2001 had far-reaching global repercussions. This attack established the tenor of global violence for the century (Done, 2012). It cemented the alliance between the US and UK, along with other nations, in the controversial 'War on Terrorism' in the years that followed. This war began with the military invasion of Afghanistan in 2001 and then incorporated the invasion of Iraq in 2003, and a decade-long search for Al-Qaida leader Osama Bin Laden, which ended with his assassination in 2011 (Done, 2012). War was a prominent feature in international politics over this time, extending in many regions beyond these countries, with ongoing conflicts reported in the Middle East, North Africa and Eastern Europe (Done, 2012).

Against the backdrop of global conflict, the world suffered immense economic

turbulence in this decade with associated devastation to livelihoods. It witnessed the rapid and unsustainable expansion of neo-liberal capitalism in the US (Kotz, 2009), along with the depletion of the world's energy resources and the food crisis in the early 2000s (Ghemawat, 2011). This was followed by the systemic implosion of this form of capitalism, and the advent of a historic economic recession that commenced with the Global Financial Crisis of the late 2000s (Gore, 2010; Kotz, 2009; Kotz, 2013). The ripple effects of the economic crises in the minority world countries reverberated particularly harshly in poorer nations, reflecting the skewed impact of globalisation worldwide (Ghemawat, 2011; Moghaddam, 2009), and exacerbating the existing lacuna between many wealthy and poverty-stricken nations (Kotz, 2009). Internationally, economic crisis and political instability were accompanied by a resurgence of doctrines of conservativism, fundamentalism, and dictatorial regimes (Moghaddam, 2009), along with a receding presence of social revolutionary movements and systems of thought. The shift in neo-liberal business interests and consumerism to younger generational strata coincided with the global dearth of youth driven social transformation (Sukarieh & Tannock, 2008). The second wave of the Green Revolution emerged in this decade as agricultural investment gained popularity, especially in low-income countries (Pingali, 2012). The rise of electronic knowledge dissemination and communication was one of the defining features of globalisation (Crafts, 2000; Smith, Owens, & Balis, 2011). The growth of the Internet and its applications signalled a second generation of information technologies, popularly termed Web 2.0 (O'Reilly, 2009), which was characterised by an explosion of information technology into social media and unprecedented levels of information access, brokering and exchange.

This was also a time of astonishing global environmental disasters, including earthquakes, floods, tsunamis and the like, that led to staggering figures in losses of human life and injury, along with extensive economic and environmental damage to affected areas. The number of people that suffered the impact of natural disasters in this decade is truly astonishing, with an average of 227 378 014 people affected each year from 2000-2009 (Done, 2012). Among the disasters experienced in this decade, the Sumatra–Andaman earthquake on 26 December 2004 was the third worst in recorded history (Bilek, Sataki, & Sieh, 2007). The devastating tsunami that followed this earthquake led to the death of more than a quarter million people (Lay et al., 2005). Moreover, 500 000 people were left injured and more than a million displaced, prompting a worldwide humanitarian response (Kohl, O'Rourke, Schmidman, Dopkin, & Birnbaum, 2005).

Such massive international conflicts and crises, marked significant shifts in the

economic, political, social and environmental spheres, arguably posed significant contextual challenges for social responsiveness around the globe. These are also arguably the conditions that affected the production of knowledge.

4.2. Local Developments in the 2000s

In South African history, the years 2000-2009 represented a shift from transitional democracy to democratic dispensation and a distinctive new phase in the process of democratisation (Mottiar, 2002). The early 1990s were earmarked by the formation of transitional governance structures, the development of an interim constitution, the negotiated settlement around the transfer of power, and the first democratic elections in 1994. The latter part of the 1990s, overlapping with the Mandela presidency from 1994-1999, witnessed more important changes such as the TRC hearings established by the Promotion of National Unity and Reconciliation Act to promote restorative justice (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1995), and the adoption of the 1996 Constitution (RSA, 1996). The decade from 2000-2009 had an entirely different tone. It was largely a decade that began the process of democratic consolidation in South Africa, and was a period that was far from utopic. Along with controversial movements to centralise power within the presidency, the leadership of the ANC was a highly contested feature of the political landscape in South Africa during this period (Wieczorek, 2012). Prominent shifts in the Executive arm of government included the Mbeki Presidency from 1999-2008, the firing of Jacob Zuma as deputy president by Mbeki in 2005, the recall of Mbeki as Head of State in 2008, and the brief course of the Motlanthe presidency that followed from 2008-2009. These changes arguably signalled that there was a crisis of national leadership, despite the ANC's continued political dominance (Wieczorek, 2012). This was also the decade in which there were persistent allegations of corruption within the leadership ranks.

Several significant legislative changes were also instituted in this decade, including the framework endorsed within the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act of 2003, which was geared towards promoting greater economic inclusivity of the country's disenfranchised black majority (RSA, 2005). Despite progressive political developments such as this that targeted the redress of social inequality, the country was severely impacted by the Global Financial Crisis (Steytler & Powell, 2010). The country felt the impact of the economic recession, with unemployment soaring to 40% of the working population (Bhorat, 2010), along with increased strike action related to poor working conditions. In 2009 alone, there were almost a million job losses and rising poverty in the country has increased the demand of the State on the delivery of resources and services (Steytler & Powell, 2010).

This amplified the pre-existing structural problems along racial lines and resulted in South Africa having the highest level of income inequality in the world (Bhorat, 2010).

Added to this, the country continued to struggle with the apartheid legacy of a crippled education system, with poor rates of participation and throughput in primary, secondary and tertiary education (see Case, Marshall, & Grayson, 2013; Letseka & Maile, 2008; Sheppard, 2009). South Africa also suffered the mental health and social impact of being a country with staggering rates of homicide, rape, sexual abuse, domestic violence, and other forms of violent crime such as hijacking and armed robbery (see Crimestatssa, 2013). Furthermore, South Africa continued to bear the brunt of the global HIV/AIDS pandemic, with 5.6 million people living with the disease (UNAIDS, 2012). With the widespread reverberation of the effects of social, economic and structural problems, the country suffered a growing level of dissatisfaction. Far removed from the euphoria of the post-1994 transitional period, the nation's populace voiced a great sense of disillusionment about conditions in the country and became more strident in its criticism of the systems and people responsible for governance under the democratic dispensation. In this decade, significant tensions emerged between government and media. This escalated in the mid-2000s with the highly contested process of replacing the Protection of Information Act (RSA, 1982) with the Protection of State Information Bill (RSA, 2010), due to its implications for preventing public access to state information and its potential implications resulted in censuring of information to the media.

This decade of democratic consolidation represents a significant historical interval in which to study knowledge production in CP for several reasons. While the field had great growth and political currency in psychology in the 1980s and 1990s, the shift to a post-transition democratic consolidation, with all of its political, economic and social challenges, has arguably altered the material and disciplinary conditions of possibility for knowledge production within the country. With CP positioned against a backdrop of substantial global and local change, knowledge production in the 2000s is intricately tied to the continued growth and more prominent global presence of a knowledge economy. All of these developments have brought substantial changes to the role of knowledge in South African society and brought particular challenges to academia. The section that follows considers the increasing prominence of the knowledge as a key driver of economic development in the 2000s, both globally and in the South African context.

4.3. The Knowledge Economy

Over the past two decades, knowledge innovation and technological change have become

the primary global indicators of progress and wealth in leading economies (Blankley & Booyens, 2010). This has meant fundamental change in the meaning of knowledge and knowledge production, although the precise contours of this meaning have been contested (Smith, 2003). The term "knowledge-based economy" (KBE) was first coined by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (1996). The KBE, also termed the "knowledge economy" refers to the overall economic structure that is emerging globally in relation to complex sequences that link the processes of knowledge generation, knowledge production, and knowledge circulation (Houghton & Sheehan, 2000). Within a knowledge economy, a country's system of science is viewed as being of greater significance within the economic structure as the core propeller of its growth (OECD, 1996; Smith, 2002). In the science system of a knowledge economy, knowledge products, like journal articles, literally manifest a form of economic investment and currency. Knowledge is therefore the primary resource of a knowledge economy (Houghton & Sheehan, 2000), and is the key force that is driving economic growth (OECD, 1996). While the use of knowledge is a fundamental component of all economies (OECD, 1996), the tremendous growth in knowledge intensity along with the globalisation of economic systems has amplified the economic value of knowledge in a knowledge economy (Houghton & Sheehan, 2000). For Leydesdorff (2012), the notion of a knowledge economy is a highly popular contemporary concept, but knowledge has always been a crucial part of social formations across historical periods. Thus, asserting the centrality of the role of knowledge in any economy is not an especially novel contention (Leydesdorff, 2012; OECD, 1996). Moreover, it is problematic to place something as mutable as knowledge at the heart of an economy (Leydesdorff, 2012; Smith, 2002). However, in the previous century, theorists such as Bell (1973), argued that although knowledge has always played a central role in economic arrangements, a new era of knowledge production was encroaching, characterised by a unique amalgamation of science and innovation, which had profound implications for institutional configurations. Bell's (1973) forecast of a 'post-industrial age' was postulated to be information-led and service-oriented, and premised on the importance of science. Contemporary manifestations of this vision are easily seen in the features of the knowledge economy, and its ripple effect on academic institutions. In the knowledge economy, the science system of a country, which primarily operates through universities and government funded research institutions, is required to balance its roles of knowledge production (in the form of research) and knowledge transmission (in the form of education and training), as well as manage the transfer of knowledge to the economic and social domains, where this knowledge may be utilised and exploited (OECD, 1996). Some scholars have argued that

the knowledge economy does not represent a change in the value of knowledge within society, but rather as a shift that has occurred in way that knowledge is codified (Abramowitz & David, 1996; Houghton & Sheehan, 2000; Leydesdorff, 2012; Smith, 2002; Smith, 2003). In a knowledge economy, new parameters of knowledge development and new forms of information codification have been introduced, which act as social communication and coordination mechanisms (Leydesdorff, 2012).

4.4. Knowledge Economy Indicators

Contemporary scholars have set out to measure the growth of a knowledge economy through the establishment of Knowledge Economy Indicators (KEIs). These indicators are part of how knowledge growth is assessed. Patents and publications are some of the scientific and technological indicators used to quantify the outputs of research and development innovation (Blankley & Booyens, 2010). Publications in scientific journals are the KEIs used to represent the outputs of academic research and measure the rate and potency of knowledge production. In this system, journals are defined as "peer-reviewed periodical publications devoted to disseminating original research and new developments within specific disciplines, sub-disciplines or field of study" (Academy of Science of South Africa [ASSAF], 2010, p. 7). In addition to journal publications, other types of indicators have also become crucial in the knowledge economy. For instance, journal article citations are frequently used as proxies of the utility and dissemination of knowledge, as are measures of the rate of accessing publications. Postgraduate qualification, and in particular, the rate of PhD completion, is one of the pivotal markers used to benchmark growth in world-class research expertise (Department of Science and Technology [DET], 2008). Such indicators represent some of the human capital measures that are used to establish the rate of return on investments in education and training, and the production of knowledge workers (OECD, 1996).

4.5. The Triple Helix Model

Within the context of a burgeoning k-economy, significant changes are afoot regarding the institutional role of the university, the ways in which scientific knowledge is produced, and its societal function (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 1995; 1997; 2000). At the institutional level, some scholars have argued that an alliance has emerged between the university, industry and the bureaucracy, which has called the traditional role of the university into question (Jacob, 2000; Etzkowitz, Webster, Gebhardt, & Terra, 2000). This new set of relationships between the university, industry and government, referred to as the 'triple helix' (Etzkowitz

& Leydesdorff, 1995; 1997; 2000), have been brought about by complex structural shifts in the economies of industrialised countries within the post-industrial era (see Bell, 1973). In the post-industrial society, knowledge is the primary driver of economic growth (Jacob, 2000). Whilst there has been an increasing significance accorded to scientific knowledge in the domain of public policy, such as health and environmental policy development, this has been accompanied by changes in the state and corporate funding of scientific projects (Jacob, 2000). The fundamental changes have been witnessed in the existing arrangements in the state-society contract since the 1980s. Using the triple helix model of university-industry-government relations, the functions of a knowledge economy are translated into the generation of economic wealth, knowledge-innovation, and social and political control (Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000). The knowledge economy has therefore blurred the lines between science and technology (Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott, & Trow, 1994). Gradually, the knowledge base that is produced through this alliance has incrementally consolidated into local industry or has been streamed globally (Leydesdorff, 2012).

These developments have led to what some have perceived as a crisis within academia, and to fundamental changes in its role in this new social and economic order (Jacob, 2000). This 'crisis' has heralded a new era of knowledge production, referred to as 'Mode 2' (Gibbons et al., 1994; Scott, 1995) or as 'post-normal science' (Funtowitz & Ravetz, 1993). The influential works by Gibbons et al. (1994) and Scott (1995) initially set forth the debate about the emergence of a new mode of knowledge production (known as the Mode 2 debate). Gibbons et al. (1994) and Scott (1995) earmarked the occurrence of a shift from Mode 1 to Mode 2 knowledge production. This shift was set against the backdrop of changes in the international political and economic landscape and their effects on the spheres of education and training (Kraak, 2001). Gibbons et al. (1994) and Scott (1995) contended that the social forces of globalisation and democratisation underpinned the shift to Mode 2 knowledge production, and altered the structure and function of academic institutions. Academic institutions have become less insular and this has opened up a new mode of knowledge production premised on transdisciplinary problem-solving.

4.5.1. Mode 1 Knowledge Production

In order to elaborate on the characteristics of the shift in knowledge production to Mode 2, it is first necessary to describe the characteristics of Mode 1 knowledge production. Within Gibbons et al.'s (1994) thesis, Mode 1 knowledge production is defined as knowledge produced within traditional, hierarchically organised scientific disciplines in an academic

institution. Mode 1 knowledge production is therefore distinguished as fundamentally disciplinary (Moravec, 2007). Within this mode of knowledge production, accountability is located in the academic mechanisms of peer review (Smith, 2003). In this system, the academic leadership function as a custodian of academic rule that regulates advances in both academic knowledge and academic standing. Mode 1 knowledge production is governed by an established set of scientific ideas, values, methods and norms (Smith, 2003). Knowledge in Mode 1 form is viewed as homogenous and disciplinary, and problems are both posed by and solved in the academe (Jacobs, 2000; Smith, 2003). Individual creativity is emphasised, and the image of the scientist as a 'lone investigator' is promoted, even though scientific work is increasingly becoming dependent on larger teams of researchers (Jacobs, 2000). Knowledge is disseminated through the formally sanctioned channels of peer-reviewed journals, books and conferences (Smith, 2003). These serve to entrench the role of quality control, one of the hallmarks of Mode 1 knowledge production (Jacobs, 2000). The diffusion of knowledge through academic journals often involves the culmination of an intricate process of selecting editors, associate editors, consulting editors and reviewers, the formation of committees, and the generation of editorial and manuscript review criteria, as stages which govern the solicitation, scrutiny, endorsement and selection of knowledge (Eichorn & van den Bos, 1985). Within Mode 1, research at universities and government laboratories are the primary producers of new knowledge (OECD, 1996).

4.5.2. Mode 2 Knowledge Production

In contrast, Mode 2 knowledge production is non-hierarchical, heterogeneous and emerges from practice, not within academia. It is trans-disciplinary and problem-solving oriented (Moravec, 2007). Problems are posed by and solved in new contexts of application (Smith, 2003). The boundaries of disciplines in Mode 2 knowledge production are permeable, and permit the formation of hybrid knowledge structures (Kraak, 2001) that combine professional and tacit knowledge (Jacob, 2000). This type of knowledge production therefore includes the participatory collaboration of diverse actors in addressing specific localised problems. Mechanisms of accountability extend beyond academia, and knowledge is diffused through the generation of informal networks centred on dilemmas of practice (Smith, 2003). Mode 2 knowledge production is more responsive and attuned to the realities of society and the practical needs of the economy (Kraak, 2001). It also permits the participation of a more diverse student constituency in higher education, including groups marginalised by race, class and gender (Kraak, 2001). It advocates the empowerment of the research community as stakeholders in the knowledge production process, as well as of

stakeholders that are the focus or objects of research (Jacobs, 2000). Quality control in Mode 2 knowledge production takes diverse forms, including: market effectiveness, social acceptability, peer review and cost-effectiveness (Jacobs, 2000).

4.6. Global and Disciplinary Differences in Knowledge Production

While Gibbons et al. (1994) and Scott (1995) maintain that there has been a movement from Mode 1 to Mode 2 knowledge production, and concomitant qualitative difference in contemporary knowledge production, this assertion has generated furious debate. For Smith (2003) a clear shift in this direction from the idea of disciplines previously being discrete entities to that these disciplines are now becoming more diffuse or destabilised. However, this characterisation of disciplinary knowledge is questionable since disciplines in the social sciences have typically developed in patchy, uneven formations, some of which have transdisciplinary foundations (Smith, 2003). Moreover, Smith (2003) maintains that disciplinary tendencies that have emerged from clinical practice, such as psychology, still have fairly strong boundaries. Smith (2003) argues that these tendencies are present in academic research, but these modes of knowledge production are not discrete entities. They are among several tendencies that are operating in knowledge production simultaneously.

Whilst changes in knowledge production are afoot, the precise contours of these changes remain somewhat contested (Smith, 2003). Some authors such as Huff (2000) suggest a third mode of knowledge production may be apparent (Mode 1.5), though it is generally established that knowledge production occurs in Mode 1 and Mode 2 forms (Onyancha & Maluleka, 2010). There also appears to be some consensus about a dialectical or interdependent relationship between Mode 1 and Mode 2 forms of knowledge production (Jacob, 2000; Onyancha & Maluleka, 2010). Smith (2003) argues that our thoughts on knowledge production are better organised by departing from the Mode 2 debate. Instead, we need to focus on several elements, namely, the language used in social scientific practice, the institutional content within which knowledge is generated (e.g. department, research centre, clinical practice); the authoritative basis of research; the rules of conduct with which scholars appraise their place and function, and the cultural conditions and power relations in which people are organised (Smith, 2003). Modes 1 and 2 are co-evolving forms of knowledge production and their development varies within different fields of knowledge (Jacob, 2000; Onyancha & Maluleka, 2010).

In academia, knowledge production mechanisms in the social sciences are tied to changes in relations of power, which are located within the broader social, political and economic movements (Smith, 2003). Therefore, knowledge production needs to be

understood with reference to both the extrinsic factors in the social-political and economic context of knowledge production, and intrinsic factors in the cultural/institutional politics of academia (Smith, 2003). The triple helix model substantiates and operationalises the idea that a knowledge economy functions as a self-organising system (Krugman, 1996; Leydesdorff, 2012).

From the debates about democratisation and globalisation, and its effects on academia and the emergence of a knowledge economy, it is vital to acknowledge the positionality of a country in relation to Euro-centric power relations. Most theories about knowledge production have emerged from 'post-industrial', 'high-income', 'developed' contexts, but do not consider the realities of less established democracies or of countries governed by dictatorial political regimes (Jazeel & McFarlane, 2010. The age of information has profoundly different implications on the development of societies throughout the world, and the location from which knowledge is produced, consumed and exchanged. This includes the implications and dynamics of transferring knowledge between the North and South (Jazeel & McFarlane, 2010), and the types of relationships that emerge between knowledge production and identity in different regions (constituted through the social lenses of nationality, race, gender, class, religion and the like) (Anyidoho, 2008). Onyancha and Maluleka (2010) examined the levels of co-authorship and the citations of research articles in citation indexes to assess knowledge co-production and its impact in selected sub-Saharan African countries. The study found minimal collaborative research among sub-Saharan African countries, but noted that collaborations between sub-Saharan African and foreign countries were more common. In addition, the scientific impact of international collaboration was higher than that of continental collaboration (Onyancha & Maluleka, 2010). Thus the development of a knowledge economy in different societies has been uneven. However, this type of collaboration may be beneficial for African scholars, but also suggests the potential for indigenous knowledge to be appropriated by international k-economies. Moahi (2007) highlights the positive benefits of the knowledge economy for showcasing the indigenous knowledge (IK) of majority world countries like South Africa, Brazil and India, but simultaneously cautioned that it may also lead indigenous knowledge systems being eroded if these are not adequately protected by governments through laws that prevent their misappropriation (Moahi, 2007). Globalisation and the knowledge economy have exposed the potential value of IK to the global interests of capital, but whilst this promotes its value, globalisation has also negated IK by disregarding it as unscientific unless it is validated using the technological methods of Western civilisation (Moahi, 2007).

4.7. Knowledge Production in South Africa

For academics in South Africa, knowledge has predominantly developed within disciplinary domains, which have been represented in the academia by departments and faculties, or various branches of research and recognised forms of specialisation within them (Winberg, 2006). However, discipline-specific forms of academic knowledge are increasingly being challenged by 'real world' dilemmas in South Africa (Winberg, 2006). The idea of transdisciplinary forms of knowledge that are negotiated and responsive to multiple stakeholders was set forth by Gibbons et al. (1994) and Scott (1995), which have resonated strongly in the circles of higher education policy makers in South Africa (Winberg, 2006). This position on the most advantageous forms of knowledge production has thus been advocated as a solution to generating knowledge that is better suited to the needs of the country (Kraak, 2001).

Despite the opportunities presented by technological advancement for the global exchange of knowledge, the capacity for generating knowledge and contributing to knowledge innovation in African countries is low, due to a historical legacy of underdeveloped research infrastructure, human resource constraints in the education sector, a paucity of research funding and poor skill development (Blankley & Booyens, 2010). South Africa admits only a small proportion of its population to higher education, especially at postgraduate level. From 1999-2009, the US was ranked first in ISI citations in all fields, and country comparisons of the number of publications and citations placed South Africa well behind other developing countries (Blankey & Booyens, 2010). From 1990 to 2004, South Africa's output of scientific articles averaged approximately 7 000 a year, despite increased research funding. From 1999-2003, South Africa produced only 0.05 PhDs per 1 000 people, a figure that not only fell well below that of leading knowledge economies, but also fared poorly in comparison to other developing countries (DET, 2008). This has flagged an identified need in the country for the creation of 'knowledge workers' through building "a human capital pipeline" which converts postgraduate students into doctoral scholars, as well as streamlining its flow to generate greater efficiency and productivity in the knowledge production system (DET, 2008, p. 29). To become a successful knowledge economy, a country must simultaneously develop its education and human capital base, innovation systems and information and communication technology infrastructure, while also creating a conducive economic and institutional climate (Kefela, 2010). But the most critical of these areas is the requisite investment in human resources that is required in higher education to address the persistent shortage of skills in the country (Fisher & Scott, 2011). This is a particularly fraught area in South Africa, with its severely strained

education sector and high levels of inequality in education access, educational infrastructure and human resource capacity. The dangers of the knowledge economy for majority world countries like South Africa are that it may be easily left behind or fall out of knowledge-based economic activity, thereby further increasing the gulf between richer and poorer nations, but also between a nation's citizens (Kefela, 2010).

In 2008, the DET announced its 10-year strategic plan, directed towards establishing the conditions necessary for the transformation of the knowledge sector towards a knowledge economy, in which knowledge production and distribution would yield economic benefits for the country (DET, 2008). This strategic plan included a system of policies and economic development strategies that revolved around knowledge innovation and exploitation, the development of human capital, as well as robust organisational structures able to withstand global competition and market forces, and provide the necessary infrastructure to bridge the divide between research outcomes and their translation into economic wealth (DET, 2008). The global shift towards a knowledge economy has added new institutional pressures to academic life. This has been popularly captured locally in academic psychology by the 'publish or perish' dictum (Duncan et al., 2004), and South African scholars of all disciplines have increasingly been co-opted into producing the recognised outputs to align with the goal of becoming a knowledge economy. The imagery of a human production line is palpable in the country's vision for research and technology development, bringing the academic and scholarly work in much closer proximity to and direct relationship with the mode of economic production. This has relevance for the nature of the relationship between government and universities (Mthembu, 2009), as well as the type of work that is published and the social interests it upholds.

2.5. Conclusion

This chapter highlights that CP is situated within a complex configuration of social, global and institutional power relations that shape and are shaped by knowledge production. These aspects of this broader framework inform this study because its central focus lies with exploring the patterns of dominance and marginality within scholarly knowledge, and its central project is to view knowledge (in this case, knowledge bounded within the frame of CP) as an object constructed through a matrix of relations of power (Foucault, 1982). This discussion alerts us to the social, economic and institutional aspects of this knowledge and the social role that intellectual knowledge may serve. These ideas alert us to the imperative to note forms of dominance and marginality in knowledge production, to observe power relations that are enduring over time, and to consider their function and implications. These

conceptual debates form part of the backdrop for the present study on knowledge production in CP internationally and in South Africa. While this thesis does not explicitly examine these processes in the discipline of psychology or in the sub-disciplinary specialisation of CP, they are connected to the institutional and ideological foundation in which the present study is anchored, and of the central object of its analysis. Thus, these debates filter into and dialogue with the study's analysis of the characteristics of journal articles and their authors over the past decade. These are also concerns that are reflected in existing empirical studies of knowledge production and underpin the choice of particular aspects of knowledge production that are studied. In order to bring these concepts into CP, the chapter that follows focuses on defining the field's identity, characteristics, internal conceptual parameters and historical emergence.

Chapter 3

Community Psychology: Central Tenets and Historical Development

1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the defining tenets of CP and its socio-historical development. Since the thesis is concerned with the translation of CP's goals, theories and methods within published work, it is essential to engage with the conceptual parameters that characterise the field. In order to understand its domain and phenomena of interest, it is also valuable to track its permutations of development across the world, and foreground the ways in which socio-political influences have shaped its identity and scope. This is imperative to the study's focus on the ways in which CP is constructed through the topics, methods and theories contained in the journal articles, and to situating the characteristics of published work within the global terrain.

2. The Scope of Community Psychology

Many authors have attempted to provide an all-encompassing description of CP and distil its unique composition. Historically, these definitions have differed in terms of emphasis and theoretical preference, and tend to reflect the lack of coherent unifying agreement as to what defines this field (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001). Even in its early years, arriving at a consensus regarding what CP is has been a notoriously 'troublesome' endeavour, and perspectives on the common denominators that constitute the sub-discipline have varied widely (Scribner, 1970). Rappaport (1977) also noted this difficulty, and viewed CP rather as an emerging paradigm with shifting boundaries. Pretorius-Heuchert and Ahmed (2001) understand this heterogeneity as one of the characteristics of CP, and this feature is similarly highlighted in Toro's (2005) "big tent" and Lazarus's "umbrella" (cited in Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000) as metaphors for encapsulating its diversity. Within this broad structure though, a common philosophy, approach and set of ideological assumptions are evident (Seedat, Duncan, & Lazarus, 2001). Naidoo, Duncan, Roos, Pillay and Bowman (2007, p. 12) describe CP as:

> an emerging branch of applied psychology that is concerned with understanding people in the context of their communities, using a variety of interventions, to facilitate change and improved mental health and social conditions for individuals, groups, organisations and communities.

This definition reflects several of the overarching features that appear to differentiate CP. Firstly, CP is an applied field and it is not solely devoted to understanding but also to intervention, especially in everyday social contexts (Orford, 2008). CP seeks to develop psychological knowledge that is relevant to community life while being responsive to psycho-social and wellness issues affecting communities, practically oriented, and aimed at creating positive community change (Seedat et al., 2001).

Secondly, CP adopts a contextualist or ecological focus (Kelly, 2006; Orford, 2008; Rappaport, 1977; Tolan, Chertok, Keys, & Jason, 1990; Trickett, 2009; Visser, 2007b). This strand is captured in the idea of CP being concerned with "the person in context and the context in persons" (Tolan et al., 1990, p. 4). The ecological and systemic focus in CP draws from the work of theorists like Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979), Gregory Bateson (1972; 1979) and Kurt Lewin (1936). It emphasises the mutual influence and complex interactions that occur between individuals and their families, communities and social structures (Orford, 2008). This is reflected in a broader understanding of psychosocial and mental health problems, and an attempt to provide an analysis of the interface between contextual issues in communities and psychological wellbeing (Seedat et al., 2001; Trickett, 2009). Spielberger and Iscoe (1970, p. 244) highlight this feature, stating that CP is: "… concerned with clarifying the complex inter-relationships between individuals and their environment". This contextualist orientation is shown in the goal of producing diversity and holism in ways of approaching and understanding community phenomena (Tolan et al., 1990; Trickett, 1984; Trickett, 1996), in the importance of generating divergent solutions to human problems, and correctly targeting their correct at causes at different ecological levels (Rappaport, 1981; Tolan et al., 1990; Watling Neal et al., 2013).

The third feature of CP is its characteristic use of a broader array of intervention approaches and strategies than are typically used in mainstream psychology, such as: consciousness-raising, prevention, social action, organisational development, advocacy and lobbying, community development and mobilisation, and policy formulation (Kloos et al., 2012; Seedat et al., 2001). These intervention strategies are geared towards transforming psychological service delivery (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001) and facilitating change at different ecological levels (Angelique & Culley, 2007; Visser, 2007a). Using a wider range of intervention approaches, CP is geared towards the prevention and mitigation of psycho-social problems, as well as the elimination of individual and socio-political conditions that produce these problems (Pretorius Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Rappaport, 1981), or what Nelson and Prilleltensky (2010d) describe as the imperative to implement both socially ameliorative and transformative interventions. Many definitions of CP also

emphasise the promotion of individual and community factors that facilitate wellness, and an emphasis on community competencies, resources and strengths (Kloos et al., 2012). For example, at the 1975 APA Austin conference it was argued that CP aims to ameliorate "situational and social forces that contribute to problem behaviours while enhancing those factors conducive to psychological strength and competence" (Heller & Monahan, 1977, p. ix). Furthermore, CP advocates the evaluation of community interventions (Bennett, 1970; Seedat et al., 2001).

A fourth feature of CP is its focus on socially marginalised populations. CP's research and action agenda is directed towards countering suffering and oppression in communities (Angelique & Culley, 2007; Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010b). This aspect of CP is reflected in its emphasis on contextual issues and social inequalities that affect particular groups, as well as in the types of groups that are targeted in service delivery. Seedat et al. (2001, p. 4) state that CP seeks "to reform, re-direct or revolutionise the theory, method and practice of psychology in the interest of disadvantaged groups". Thus, CP aims to ensure that psychological service delivery extends to all sectors of the population, particularly those who have historically not received them (Seedat et al., 2001), and operates from a rights-based perspective with regards to access to resources (Rappaport, 1981). It also aims to understand and address the situation of groups that are marginalised or are vulnerable in the context of structural inequalities and social issues (Naidoo et al., 2007). Such groups include the poor, women, children, people of colour, the elderly, disabled persons, homosexuals and migrant populations (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006). CP is applied to health and social phenomena that affect the wellbeing of communities, especially those affecting marginalised groups, including HIV/AIDS, crime and violence, substance abuse, poverty and homelessness, amongst others (Martin et al., 2004; Naidoo et al., 2007).

As a result of this commitment to improving the quality of life of marginalised groups, CP is associated with politically progressive values and ideals that several scholars hold, best define the field (e.g. Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010c; Prilleltensky, 2001; Rappaport, 1977). As such, CP rejects the notion that it is politically neutral and attempts to be self-conscious and transparent about its value base (Prinsloo 1989 cited in Yen, 2008). Among these values are a belief in social justice, respect for human diversity, citizen participation and collaboration (Kloos et al., 2012). These values inform the ways in which CP is practiced. In this line, Chavis, Stucky and Wandersman (1983) contend that CP is not only about what type of work is done, but also the way it is done.

Rappaport (1977) summarises these important features by suggesting that the field is denoted by a confluence of scientific enquiry and political action that is underpinned by a

coherent set of values. CP has a wide variety of influences both within and outside of psychology, which has led to the development of different theoretical models and the differential emphasis of certain elements. CP is a field that transgresses disciplinary boundaries within academia (Yen, 2008). The most influential sub-disciplines within psychology include social, developmental, critical, cross-cultural, organisational, experimental, and health psychology (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Tolan et al., 1990). In fact, CP "depends upon and interacts with all major areas of psychological knowledge" (Bennett, 1970, p. 8). In elaborating the Toro (2005) metaphor, Kloos et al. (2012, p. 476) refer to CP as "a conversation in a big tent", which captures the idea of its dynamic and evolving quality. This dialogue extends beyond psychology to include a cross-disciplinary perspective as an inherent part of the community psychologist's role (Toro, 2005; Watling Neal et al., 2013). Such inter-disciplinarity was stipulated as part of its formation at the Swampscott conference, including intersections with disciplines within the social sciences and humanities, like political science, anthropology, sociology, social work and education, and the health sciences, such as nursing, public health and community mental health, as well as other fields such as business administration and urban planning (Bennett et al., 1966). These diverse influences not only emerge in different theoretical models of CP but also in the preferences of CP approaches in the different parts of the world due to the prevailing socio-political conditions.

3.3. The Global Development of Community Psychology

With such a nebulous identity and diverse range of theoretical influences, it is little wonder that people think it is difficult to conceive of CP as a uniform field. Rather, it is more fitting to speak of a multitude of community psychologies that exist across the globe (Fryer, 2008a; Stevens, 2007a). However, in each context, CP has emerged from dissatisfaction with mainstream psychology, and related to this, it remains a marginalised field in relation to psychology in each context (Carolissen & Swartz, 2009; Kagan, Burton, Duckett, Lawthom, & Siddiquee, 2011). Though only has been acknowledgment of, or interest in, its global development (Reich et al., 2007a). When looking at its international genesis, there is a varied pattern emerging. In some regions, CP is still experiencing tremendous growth; in other regions, it is relatively well established; and elsewhere, its popularity is waning (Reich et al., 2007a). Some countries have formally classified community-oriented theory and practice as CP, and have distinct linkages with the field's origins in the US, whereas in others, there is greater alignment with local social needs and developments and little reference to or influence from the US (Fryer, 2008a; Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000).

Tracing the history of CP in different parts of the world offers insight into what is most definitive and essential to CP, and those aspects that vary contextually (Bishop & D'Rozario, 2002). Thus, the section that follows provides a synopsis of the history of CP and its contemporary status in the major regions of the world, beginning with its formal emergence in North America.

3.1. Community Psychology in North America

The formal origins of CP are typically traced to the Swampscott Conference held in May 1965 in Swampscott – a suburb of Boston, Massachusetts (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2007; Kagan et al., 2011; Kloos et al., 2012; Montero, 1996; Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a; Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Stevens, 2007a; Toro, 2005; Wiesenfeld, 1998; Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). However, a period of socio-political unrest in the preceding decade and a progression of developments both inside and outside of psychology and across contexts led up to the field's official birth at this point in 1965 (Angelique & Culley, 2007; Fryer, 2008a; Heller & Monahan, 1977). Suffice it to say, locating the global history of a field to a singular event has not gone uncontested for its inherent US-centric discourse (e.g. Fryer, 2008a). Nevertheless, the Swampscott conference is undoubtedly of historical and mythical significance. At the conference, the theme was titled "Education of Psychologists for Community Mental Health", where 39 psychologists convened to reflect on psychology's contribution to the community mental health movement, and to consider future training and research imperatives, as well as emergent roles for psychologists in relation to community mental health needs (Bennett et al., 1966). Because their values, interests and skills had been shaped by their involvement in community work, most of the participants held divergent views from those endorsed by mainstream psychology (Kloos et al., 2012). Whilst the mandate of the conference was to design a training model, the conference was actually used as a platform for discussing the parameters of this new sub-discipline (Heller & Monahan, 1977). The atmosphere at the conference itself was charged with enthusiasm and excitement at these developments (Kelly, 2002). It was decided that this new field of CP would examine "psychological processes that link social systems with individual behaviour in complex interaction" (Bennett et al., 1966, p. 48). Despite this fervour, there was some dissent about adopting a singular focus in CP.

Whilst the Swampscott conference is credited with the birth of CP, the field had been evolving prior to this within a particular intellectual and social milieu (Heller & Monahan, 1977; Kloos et al., 2012). This was a period of political conservatism within the US and an emphasis on individualism in mainstream psychology after the turn of the 20th

century was influential in the development of a more contextualist emphasis in psychology (Kloos et al., 2012). Thereafter, the Second World War and its aftermath set the processes of social change in motion in the US that led to significant mental health system reforms (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). The increasing number of war veterans returning to the US, as well as increased immigration due to global conflict, swelled client populations in mental health institutions to the point of incapacity (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001). In addition, the post-war social upheaval shifted the focus of mental health towards understanding the socio-political and environmental determinants of mental health and led to a re-examining of the forms of treatment and service delivery (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a; Seedat, Cloete, & Shochet, 1988; Stevens, 2007a). Unable to accommodate the mental health demand, services were rapidly decentralised to community level, a process facilitated by advances in developing psychotropic medication and associated out-patient care (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001). The development of CP was further fuelled by the post-war global crisis in capitalism, the proliferation of human and civil rights movements, and the failures of social psychology in addressing social problems (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Stevens, 2007a).

Following the Swampscott conference, informal discussions took place around the feasibility of forming a division of CP within the APA and the career progression of community psychologists (Iscoe, Bloom, & Spielberger, 1977). This division was officially approved in 1967 and CP became Division 27 of the American Psychological Association, presently known as the Society for Community Research and Action (SCRA). Journals, books, edited volumes and textbooks represent typical sources of knowledge production in any field. In 1972, Division 27 started its own journal, the *American Journal of Community Psychology*. The first issue of the AJCP was published in 1973 (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). SCRA continues to publish the AJCP in association with the APA (APA, 2013). Thus, while CP contested much of the deficits of mainstream psychology, it continued its relationship of convenience with the APA for publication purposes. The *Journal of Community Psychology* was also launched in the US in 1973 as an alternative forum for CP publication that incorporated a more international focus (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). Before the 1990s, both journals published articles based on the traditional scientific method, with only a few studies of a qualitative or participatory nature (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). As the journals with the longest history, the AJCP and JCP have played a powerful role in shaping what we call CP today.

Postgraduate training programmes were established at the same time and several influential textbooks also began to emerge, such as Zax and Spector's (1974) *Introduction*

to Community Psychology, Heller and Monahan's (1977) *Psychology and Community Change*, Sarason's (1974) *The Psychological Sense of Community* and Rappaport's (1977) *Community Psychology: Values, Research and Action*. The Swampscott conference was a catalytic event that prompted the generation of publications and organised activities, which in turn opened the path to systematic theoretical inquiry in CP and formalised its development as a sub-discipline (Montero, 1996). Edited volumes containing chapters inspired by the key papers at APA conferences also played a significant role in contributing to knowledge and stimulated its further growth (Tolan et al., 1990). These include Cook's (1970) *Community Psychology and Community Mental Health*, produced following the Swampscott conference, and Iscoe et al.'s (1977) *Community Psychology in Transition*, published after the 1975 National Conference on Training in CP held in Austin, Texas. Other edited books such as Gibbs, Lachemeyer and Sigal's (1980) *Community Psychology*, were inspired by ideas that emerged in the context of teaching CP courses.

Newbrough (1992) identifies three stages in the development of CP in the US. Stage one (from 1965 to 1975) included a focus on definitions of CP and models for training community psychologists (Newbrough, 1992). Stage two (1975 to 1989) is characterised by a preventative and ecological focus, and an emphasis on the prevention of community mental health problems among disadvantaged groups (Newbrough, 1992). Stage three (from 1989 onwards) coincides with the renaming of Division 27 of the APA to the SCRA, and the repositioning of this unit in relation to the APA (Newbrough, 1992). This structure still remains the official body representing CP in the US. Arguably, the present status of CP has signalled a phase of stagnation or crisis in US CP, with directions for re-invigoration being sought through establishing global ties and areas of development (Toro, 2005).

The history of CP in the US is extensively detailed, but the field also has a long history in other parts of North America, such as Canada. Whilst the term 'community psychology' was utilised in Canada as early as 1951 (Babarik, 1979), a community orientation and prevention emphasis was temporarily abandoned in the 1950s (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). The formal training and practice of the field formally emerged in the 1970s (Nelson, Lavoie, & Mitchell, 2007). The development of CP here was influenced by its growth in the US in the 1960s and 1970s, and was formalised institutionally in 1981 (Nelson et al., 2007). This included the cross-national training of Canadian and US scholars in the US who subsequently became established in Canadian universities (Nelson et al., 2007). Like the US, key influences included the decentralisation of mental health services and the community mental health movement (Davidson, 1981; Nelson et al., 2007; Walsh-Bowers, 1998). Davidson (1981) identifies other professional and socio-political influences

on Canadian CP. These include: Canada's federal policies on health care; an absence of inner-city poverty but a sparsely populated geographical terrain with limited access to services in some territories; and a weaker presence of clinical psychology in Canadian psychological training (Davidson, 1981). These factors have led to an emphasis on community mental health, health promotion and risk prevention, as well as social network intervention, social support and mutual aid, especially in remote rural areas (Nelson, et al., 2007). While the field became nationally established in the 1980s, it has subsequently been strengthened and infused by specialised Masters and Doctoral training programmes and the establishment of the *Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health* in 1982, as well as the publication of several prominent books (Nelson, et al, 2007; Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). These included influential books published in French, such as Guay (1987) and Dufort and Guay (2001), as well as in English, such as Bennett (1987), Bennett and Tefft (1985) and Nelson and Prilleltensky (2005; [2010]) (cited in Nelson et al., 2007).

3.2. Community Psychology in Latin America

The Latin American region is a large contingent of countries that vary considerably in stages of development, but which hold common traditions (Ardila, 1982). The formal origins of CP in Latin America are complex and dispersed across the region (Montero, 1996). This is attributed to the vastness of the continent, the diversity of Latin American countries and their idiosyncrasies in terms of languages and cultures, and the isolation between these countries at the time of CP's emergence (Montero, 1996; Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). CP in Latin America was first established in countries around the Caribbean (Serrano-García & Alvarez, 1985 cited in Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). These countries share a history of colonisation by a specific European region, as well as a common experience and influence of indigenous cultures and multilingualism (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). Montero (2008) traces influences in its emergence to social, political and economic movements in the 1960s and 1970s, which profoundly affected the social sciences and their response to social problems. This in turn began to shape ideas in psychology, extending the boundaries of accepted knowledge and practice (Montero, 2008). Psychology in Latin America was initially characterised by the appropriation of the conceptual and methodological tools of the established sub-discipline in centres of global geopolitical importance like the US and Europe, and sought to replicate the status the field had achieved elsewhere (Martín-Baró, 1996a; Montero & Montenegro, 2006). Later political developments shifted this orientation to the relevance of psychology in professional and academic contexts and its responsiveness to local conditions (Montero & Montenegro,

2006).

As in the US, the emergence of CP in Latin America is linked to a crisis in social psychology and its revitalisation in the form of a community emphasis – yielding a social-community psychology (SCP) that sought to merge theory and action in order to more effectively address internal social problems such as poverty and social inequality (Montero, 1996). Therefore, social psychology was the conceptual basis from which CP developed (Ardila, 1982; Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). More recently, the term community-social psychology (CSP) has been utilised instead (Burton & Kagan, 2005).

The formal inclusion of a community orientation within academic psychology in the 1970s provided this sub-discipline with a distinct identity and allowed for the development of a unique praxis. Whilst community practice was incorporated into existing programmes from the early 1970s, the mid-1970s witnessed the inclusion of CP as a freestanding course in addition to continued infusion of this emphasis into other programmes (Montero, 1996). By the late 1970s, new conceptions about redefining the role of psychologists, moving psychology towards focussing on social problems and circumstances and viewing people as social actors in their environments had begun to take hold in opposition to psychology's individualistic focus and view of people as socially passive subjects (Montero, 2008). The institutional structures supporting SCP have existed in Latin America since the late 1970s (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000).

The conceptual influences of CP in Latin America are traced to several traditions of thought. Firstly, Lewin's (1946) work on action research was influential in the social sciences in Columbia and Brazil in the 1960s, particularly in the fields of sociology and education (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). These ideas were later translated and developed in the work of Brazilian theorist of critical pedagogy Paulo Freire (1970; 1972; 1973; 1976), as well as by the writings of Columbian sociologist and researcher Orlando Fals Borda (1969; 1985; 1988), who was one of the founders of Participatory Action Research (PAR). Latin American theories of dependency were also notable influences for CP (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). Theorists such as Amin (1976) and Cardozo and Faletto (1979) linked economic, political and social underdevelopment to the foreign economic policies of external centres of wealth and power, as well as internal variables within societies, and highlighted the seemingly paradoxical flow of resources from poorer countries in the periphery to the core countries of capitalist power. The combination of internal and external factors in determining relationships of dominance and submission that emerged in this scholarship led social theorists in Latin America to look more closely at internal variables within their societies and generate internally derived forms of social analysis (Montero &

Varas-Díaz, 2007).

The work of Marx, Engels and other scholars in the Frankfurt school (e.g. in concepts such as 'praxis', 'ideology' and 'dialectics') was another visible influence in the 1970s, used to understand the schism between rich and poor (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). This strongly Marxist tradition distinguishes CP in Latin America from CP in North America (Gokani, 2011). In CP, Marxist thought and the commitment to the socially oppressed was also fuelled by the work of Freire (1970; 1972; 1973; 1976) and is evident in concepts such as 'problematisation', 'de-ideologisation' and 'conscientisation', as well as in the work of Fals Borda (1969; 1985; 1988) and his colleagues (Fals Borda & Rahman, 1991) on PAR as a form of community praxis and a methodology for challenging power asymmetries between dominant and marginalised groups.

CP was formalised in Latin America in the early 1980s, and primarily represented the culmination of social responsiveness, theoretical plurality and a methodology based in action and participation (Montero, 2008). In her meta-analysis of Latin American countries, Montero (2008) argues that CP has developed through five distinctive phases: (1) attempts to orientate practice towards social problem-solving; (2) efforts at defining itself as a new field of psychology; (3) theory generation and critical introspection; (4) a widening of the field through intra-disciplinary specialisation; and (5) the development of a paradigmatic structure with ontological, epistemological, methodological, ethical and political aspects (Montero, 2008).

Within academia, CP in Latin America is more closely allied to fields in the social and political sciences than to clinical psychology, public health or community mental health (Montero, 1996). In certain countries, there are some departures from this overall trend. For instance, in Cuba, the field has a strong emphasis on community mental health (Montero, 2008; Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). But for the most part, CP in Latin America has retained a distinctly political quality (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). Interestingly, the emergence of CP in Latin America is linked to the US in its origins but its ongoing development is articulated as an independent and parallel process (Montero, 1996), and the dialectic between these continents, particularly with regard to the reactive dynamics between minority and majority world nations and the development of CP, appears to have been omitted.

Despite regional commonalities, specific countries of Latin America have their own particular historical events and intra-disciplinary influences that are relevant to the development of CP. Here, it is useful to highlight some of these permutations in Latin America with a few exemplars. Mexico was one of the first countries to introduce academic

CP programmes in the 1970s (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007; Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). In Mexico, the roots of CP are traced to community practice in pre-Hispanic indigenous and rural populations, through colonial rule, 20th century Republican regimes, the post-Mexican Revolution, rural education programs and community development initiatives at a governmental and civic level (Acosta, 2012). As an academic field, CP became established in the late 1960s to early 1970s in centres created by US-trained psychologists (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). The first undergraduate and Masters courses in CP were established in 1977, in which prominent community psychologist J.R. Newbrough was a participant (Gomez del Campo, cited in Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). Five other universities included CP theories at this time, but these were infused into other courses. The academic field of CP largely continued informally and is not firmly established in higher education (Acosta, 2012). Programmes offered by institutions like the Community Centre at *Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México* are notable exceptions (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). Theoretical variety and pluralism is common in Mexico and there is no dominant theoretical model (Reid & Aguilar, 1991; Wiesenfeld, 1998). Rather, CP is characterised by a critical analysis of traditional developmental theories and an attempt to link community praxis with prevailing social issues (Wiesenfeld, 1998). The clinical focus of CP in North America has been influential in some work, as has Latin American CP with its emphasis on critical social psychology (Acosta, 2012). The work in Mexico is differentiated into groups, rather than on the basis of theoretical models, and methodologies likewise vary situationally (Wiesenfeld, 1998). The field has continued to evolve as psychologists have been confronted by the necessity to develop more relevant and responsive forms of theory and practice to address pressing social problems (Acosta, 2012).

Like Mexico, Puerto Rico was one of the earliest countries to establish formal training in CP (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007; Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). The first Masters programme in SCP was established in 1975 in response to the social needs of the country (Rivera-Medina, Cintrón, & Bauermeister, 1978). The programme was distinctly inter-disciplinary and emphasised the social determinants of mental health problems, with the possibility of further specialisation at doctoral level (Rivera-Medina et al., 1978). In contrast to Mexico, Puerto Rico shows more theoretical and methodological uniformity (Wiesenfeld, 1998) that has been attributed to its strong foundations within academia (Serrano-García & López-Sánchez, 1991). The conceptual basis of the field was informed by the social constructionist work of Berger and Luckman (1967), with an intervention methodology that is action-research based and emphasises empowerment, social change, understanding social conditions and addressing the needs of oppressed groups (Serrano-

García, López, & Rivera, 1987; Serrano-García & López-Sánchez, 1991). This homogenous conceptual foundation and intervention framework of CP on creating liberation from oppression is linked to its long-standing history of colonisation and its post-colonial identity (Varas-Díaz & Serrano-García, 2003).

The speed of CP's diffusion across Latin America was variable, but by the late 1980s, most universities included undergraduate and postgraduate training, and had begun community intervention programmes. In many countries, such as Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Peru, and Venezuela, CP initially entered academia in the 1970s as an applied form of social psychology (Montero & Varas-Díaz, 2007). In the River Plate Region, including Argentina and Uruguay, CP developed only in the late 1980s. Its growth was impeded in comparison to elsewhere on the continent (Saforcada et al., 2007). This was partly due to the political strife occurring in the region in the 1970s, followed by political transitions, and an economic crisis in the 2000s, as well as the location of CP within a clinical model, rather than one linked to social psychology (Saforcada et al., 2007).

3.3. Community Psychology in Europe and the Middle East

In Europe, the origins of a socially responsive psychology are drawn from its philosophical traditions of critical social-scientific intellectual thought and practice (Stevens, 2007a). Europe also has an established history of social welfare community practice, mental health service provision and social policies directed towards the protection of the poor (Stevens, 2007a). In contrast to the US-centric history of CP, Fryer (2008a) argues for a Eurocentric history of the field, rooted in an analysis of exemplars of such community-based research and intervention from the 1930s. As a formal discipline though, CP in Europe has had a differential pattern of development, ranging from those countries with established to those with more emergent identities. Here, a brief illustration of the field's emergence in specific countries is provided to highlight the differences and areas of overlap in the development of CP in Europe.

The origins of CP in Italy are long-standing and can be traced to the 1970s (Santinello, Martini, & Perkins, 2010). Its thirty-year history was celebrated in 2007 with a conference in Naples (Santinello et al., 2010). The field's emergence here is traced back to political and cultural movements that targeted change at psychiatric hospitals and the welfare system. The distinguished work by Donata Francescato (1977) presented the guidelines for establishing CP in the Italian context (cited in Francescato, Arcidiacono, Albanesi, & Mannarini, 2007). Francescato, who had studied CP in her clinical doctoral training in the US, returned to Italy in 1973, and introduced the field to the academic institution where she

was based (Francescato et al., 2007). The Division of Community Psychology was later created within the Italian Psychological Association in 1980; and in 1985, CP was formally introduced in academia (Francescato & Tomei, 2001). The field became recognised as an academic rather than an applied field (Santinello et al., 2010). Many scholars have drawn conceptual areas of interest from US CP (Santinello et al., 2010), but have highlighted differences in the values underpinning CP in the US and Europe (Francescato & Tomei, 2001). The European approach infuses more theory, history and political awareness into CP, and seeks to balance individual autonomy with the development of social capital (Francescato & Tomei, 2001). Santinello et al. (2010) identify 'sense of community' as the most important theoretical concept in Italian CP. However, 'quality of neighbourhood life', 'fear of crime', 'community participation' and 'empowerment', are also influential constructs (Santinello et al., 2010). Linkages between like-minded scholars in continental countries such as Italy, Germany and Portugal were instrumental in the establishment of the European Network of CP in 1995 (Francescato & Tomei, 2001).

The origins of CP in Spain are also traced to the 1970s, and its emergence is associated with the transition from dictatorial rule to democracy, and its subsequent inclusion in the European Economic Community (EEC), now the European Union (EU) (Martin & Lopez, 2007). As in Germany, CP in Spain developed closely with social work and shared common influences. Academic and professional psychologists committed to social justice found the proposals of CP encountered from the English-speaking world a compelling conceptual and intervention tool, and combined these influences with those of critical Latin American and European scholars (Martin & Lopez, 2007). However, institutionally, CP was less oriented towards social action, and had a strong assistance-based focus, which manifested in more top-down, palliative community interventions (Martin & Lopez, 2007). CP has been consolidated over the past decade within academia, though lacks a uniformly accepted professional qualification (Martin & Lopez, 2007). The field currently faces issues of strengthening its social penetration, and addressing social problems in Europe, including apathy and new forms of alienation and exclusion (Martin & Lopez, 2007).

The evolution of CP in Portugal shares elements with other Southern European countries, such as Spain, Greece and Italy, as well as with South America due to its cultural and political linkages (Menezes, Texeira, & Fidalgo, 2007). Also noteworthy is the history of Portugal for its prolonged period of dictatorial governance from 1926-1974, followed by its emancipation in the mid-1970s, and its entrance into the EEC (now EU) (Menezes et al., 2007). The post-regime period from the mid-1980s was a time in which psychology, and

CP, flourished (Menezes et al., 2007). Despite similarities that resonated with community work in response to Portugal's repressive education policies with the writings of Paulo Freire (1970; 1972; 1973), North American scholars were the key theorists that influenced the growth of CP (Menezes et al., 2007). Since the mid-1980s, community-oriented values and practice had gained greater popularity and professional footing (Menezes et al., 2007). The US and European influences, together with Portugal's history of fascism, revolution and transition to empowered citizenship, which culminated in a greater need for a politicised CP in the country (Menezes et al., 2007). Most public universities offer courses in CP, and some have specialised Masters level training. Currently, US theories predominate in CP courses, along with scholarship from Italy and Spain (Menezes et al., 2007).

CP in Germany has contrasting identities as both a critical 'attitude' in professional practice, and as an independent psychological discipline (Berol & Seckinger, 2007; Keup & Stark in Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). Like in Italy, CP in Germany was stimulated by the field's development in the US and the community mental health movement (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). It emerged during a period of radical social change in Germany in the 1970s, and was influenced by the politicisation of psychology, the student protest movement, the social critique of psychiatric institutions, and favourable economic and political conditions (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). Under the Nazi regime, many renowned Jewish psychologists (such as Kurt Lewin) were forced to leave Germany, and psychology at this time developed in line with Nazi ideology (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). The subsequent ramifications of this history are an intrinsic scepticism about neoconservative policies in the guise of community discourse (Keup & Stark in Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000).

Then, in the 1970s, the popularity of the community mental health and social psychiatry movements in the US propelled the emergence of CP in Germany, and CP became a tool for linking individual distress and social conditions in psychology within a more progressive political climate (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). Critical theory, social psychiatry and community mental health became key influences in German CP (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000), which became formally established in the early 1980s (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). The reunification of Germany in 1990 brought new challenges to CP, including the new values, economic problems and challenges to social integration (Keup & Stark in Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). Linkages established between German scholars like Wolfgang Stark with scholars in Italy and Portugal were instrumental in contributing to the 'European approach' to CP (Francescato & Tomei, 2001, p. 371), but full institutionalisation in Germany has never been achieved (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). This

is in part due to tensions between clinical and community psychologists, as well as a lack of a cohesive political standpoint among community psychologists themselves (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). This has led to "problems of academic and professional identity" (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007, p. 238). In Germany, CP research has retained a strong link to community mental health and its ideas and principles have greater popularity in applied practice as a professional attitude (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). The field ironically is threatened with marginalisation in academia through the lack of visibility and recognition. There are other significant competing challenges such as from fields such as social work, and the increasing popularity of biological concepts in psychology (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007). The key foci in German CP remains illness prevention and health promotion, crisis intervention, social support and social networks, and self and mutual help groups (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007; Cramer cited in Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000), as well as environmental risk, and structural aspects of the health and psychiatric institutions (Bergold & Seckinger, 2007).

In the United Kingdom (UK) CP is a significantly underdeveloped sub-discipline of psychology, and is mostly diffusely spread across other fields of psychology (Burton, Boyle, Harris, & Kagan, 2007; Burton & Kagan, 2003). There are no prominent social movements linked to CPs emergence here in the 1990s, uncharacteristically in a period of conservativism and economic prosperity. Conceptual precursors are traced to shifts in social psychology from experimental to social constructionist approaches, as well as the influence of feminist psychoanalysis and Paulo Freire's concept of conscientisation within the education field (Burton et al., 2007). These linkages are seen in the contemporary theoretical currents, including critical CP and community educational psychology. Despite its late emergence, notable growth in CP includes the establishment of the *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology* in 1991 under the editorship of Jim Orford, and *Community, Work and Family* in 1998 (Burton & Kagan, 2003), and the publication of prominent textbooks (e.g. Orford, 1992; 2008). Jim Orford, Mark Wilson and David Fryer have been instrumental in driving the formalisation of CP in the UK (Burton et al., 2007). They formed part of the working group that transformed the *European Community Psychology Network* into the *European Community Psychology Association* in 2005 (Fryer, 2005). Added institutional support has been given by the British Psychological Association (BPA) in the form of establishing CP as a special section of psychology in 2010 (Lewis & Law, 2013). However, this special section locates the field as an interest area rather than as a specialised professional category (Burton et al., 2007). Nevertheless, the BPA has funded international exchanges and conferences to encourage its growth (Burton et al., 2007). In

comparison to other parts of the world like Africa and Latin America, CP in the UK is distinctly more post-industrial rather than post-colonial, and remains "a minority pursuit" (Burton et al., 2007, p. 232). Common topics include informal social support and social exclusion (Burton et al., 2007).

CP is still emerging in some European and Middle Eastern countries, such as Turkey, Greece, Norway, Israel and Poland. CP has appealed to Turkey's emphasis on developing a culturally situated psychology, given its rich political, cultural and geographical diversity (Degirmencioglu, 2007). However, in Turkey, CP is not yet a formally developed area of psychology, and is predominantly practice-based rather than a consolidated research or training domain (Degirmencioglu, 2007). Psychologists practicing in this area have adopted the theoretical models of CP from the US, where many scholars are trained (Degirmencioglu, 2007).

In Greece, psychology is a young discipline and profession, although the country has a long tradition of philosophical inquiry into and about understandings of the human condition (Dafermos, Marvakis, & Triliva, 2006), yet only in the last two decades has psychology become more established. Prior to this, most psychologists completed their training in psychology at universities in North America and Northern Europe (predominantly the UK, Germany, the US and France) (Dafermos et al., 2006). CP is itself still in a state of emergence and is not formalised in academic curricula, professional training, publications or professional associations (Triliva & Marvakis, 2007). Like in Turkey, various forms of applied community practice are evident, such as the prominence of community mental health centres, school and parental training programmes, immigrant assistance centres, and programmes for substance abuse prevention (Triliva & Marvakis, 2007). These interventions developed in the 1980s out of the community mental health movement, and emulated psychology in North America and Western Europe, although these were not labelled as CP (Triliva & Marvakis, 2007).

Similarly in Norway, there is little work that is formally defined as CP, although many psychologists embrace CP values in their practice, and these values are also strongly integrated in Norway's welfare system (Carlquist, Nafstad, & Blakar, 2007). Where CP exists, it typically has a public health and ecological emphasis but the critical or political aspect is largely absent (Carlquist et al., 2007).

In Israel, the concept of CP barely exists (Raviv, Zeira, & Sharvit, 2007), but Israel nevertheless has a strong affinity for community approaches linked to its socialist and humanist political traditions (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). Psychologists extensively use principles of CP such as prevention, mental health consultation, crisis intervention, and

the use of community resources and strengths, but there are no formal training programmes or institutional bodies representing this specialisation (Raviv et al., 2007). In Poland, the influence of US CP has been negligible (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). CP has not yet entered the vocabulary of psychologists, yet there is some research in related topics of interest (Bokszczanin, Kaniasty, & Szarzynska, 2007). Its relative absence in this country is also attributed to its political history of communism, in which the presence of social communitarian values and practices in its governance impeded its growth (Bokszczanin et al., 2007).

3.4. Community Psychology in the Australasia Region

CP emerged in Australia and Aotearoa/New Zealand in the mid-1970s due to dissatisfaction with traditional mental health service delivery, and its impetus was drawn from the US (Bishop & D'Rozario, 2002; Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). At the time, several scholars in Australia began to question the adequacy of community mental health care and the roles of psychologists in community mental health settings (see Kirby, 1978; Smith, 1977; Viney, 1974). Likewise, in Aotearoa/New Zealand, the community mental health movement was a significant driver and the New Zealand Mental Health Foundation was influential in funding the first major community-based research (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). CP was officially established in Australasia in the early 1980s (Gridley & Breen, 2007), but began to have a more consistent profile in the late 1990s with the establishment of a formal society and the first local textbook (Bishop, Sonn, Fisher, & Drew, 2001). Despite the initial US influences, CP in this region is still somewhat sceptical of the cultural assumptions inherent in US CP, has been wary of its intellectual domination, and has sought to retain an emphasis on indigenous perspectives (Bishop et al., 2001).

Socio-political factors in the 1970s that contributed to the development of CP in Australia included changes from conservative to socialist political systems, the expansion of national health insurance, the adoption of free tertiary education policies, as well as the de-institutionalisation of the mental health and disability field, and the prominence of indigenous activism (Gridley & Breen, 2007). Other more contemporary social conditions that further propelled the development of CP include the immigration of people from South East Asia and other parts of the world, as well as the socio-historical consequences of colonisation (Stevens, 2007a). This has led to the development of a CP that has a shared history but is regionally distinct (Gridley & Breen, 2007). Variations draw from clinical psychology, cross-cultural and indigenous psychology, and applied social and environmental psychology (Bishop et al., 2001). Issues affecting migrants and indigenous

groups, as well as cultural plurality influenced the focus of CP on marginalisation as a result of racism, xenophobia, cultural imperialism and decolonisation (Reyes Cruz & Sonn, 2011; Stevens, 2007a).

CP in Australia has been closely aligned to the Aboriginal psychology interest group within the Australian Psychological Society (Bishop & D'Rozario, 2002). However, ethical tensions and conceptual dilemmas have arisen in relation to fit between indigenous issues and the principles in CP, and this has led to a sense of caution towards transformative community development initiatives in favour of a strengths promotion approach (Bishop & D'Rozario, 2002).

Though CP was established in Aotearoa/New Zealand in the 1970s, its roots can be traced to the turn of the 20th century as it has a strong conceptual foundation in Anthropology (Robertson & Masters-Awatere, 2007). Aotearoa/New Zealand has been forged through relations of colonisation and resistance between British settler populations and the indigenous Maori, and the development of CP is seen as part of this history (Robertson & Masters-Awatere, 2007). Britain's entry into the EEC (now EU) re-oriented the country's view of Britain towards the US, and the US was highly influential in the local popular media as well as academic psychology. Though the term CP in Aotearoa/New Zealand has been appropriated from the US, some scholars have highlighted the long-standing existence of similar collectivist values and principles in the British and indigenous and settler cultures. In particular, parallels and commonalities have been noted between the principles and worldview of CP with those of Maori culture (Gregory, 2001; Robertson & Masters-Awatere, 2007). Principles such as valuing local language and knowledge, promoting a sense of community, using a systemic and ecological approach, providing mutual support, an emphasis on prevention and empowerment, and a long-term approach are compatible with the collectivist traditions (Ashwood & Gregory, 2006; Gregory, 2001). However, socialist and liberal values are also identified within the British settler traditions, which have synergy with those of CP (Robertson & Masters-Awatere, 2007). CP is seen as a useful tool for offering an understanding of the dynamics between majority and minority cultures, and improving the quality of life for the socially marginalised (Gregory, 2001). Much of the work of community psychologists in this context is practice-based in meso- and macro-systemic level settings, including health and social policy analysis, programme evaluation, community development, research, and advocacy (Robertson & Masters-Awatere, 2007). Whilst the use of CP concepts has had benefits for improving the situation of the marginalised, psychology (including CP) has yet to seriously engage with the pressing issues of social change (Gregory, 2001). Scholars in the Australasia region have

produced several noteworthy publications, including books like *The Psychological Sense of Community: Research, Applications and Implications* by Fisher and Sonn (2002), and journals, such as the *Australian Community Psychologist*.

3.5. Community Psychology in Asia

In much of Asia, CP is not visible (Stevens, 2007a), although in some countries, like Japan, CP has a notable and long-standing presence (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007). Western psychology was introduced to Japan as a form of 'new knowledge' in the late 19th century with the translation of fundamental psychological texts, and was taught as a subject in teachers' training colleges (Igarashi, 2006). In the 20th century, psychology in Japan was strongly affected by the US occupation in the Second World War and subsequent US foreign policy (Igarashi, 2006). US intellectual and cultural commodities were increasingly introduced in the subsequent period of post-war social change (Igarashi, 2006). The initial emergence of CP was strongly influenced by developments in the US, and was introduced to the country in several symposia, the first of which was the *Issues in Community Psychology* symposium in 1969, only a few years after the Swampscott conference (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007). While similar concepts proposed by CP were already evident in fields such as Public Health, Social Work and Sociology, this symposium formalised CP (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007). In Japan, CP initially passed through a stage of rapid growth in the late 1960s called the *quickening period* (Ando, 1989). The field was initially regarded as a variant of clinical psychology taken from the US, with a strong emphasis on community mental health (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007). In the 1970s, during its 'birth to toddling' stage, CP began to diversify from its community mental health focus (Ando, 1989). A subsequent period of 'development and independence' in the 1980s, witnessed increased efforts to incorporate indigenous theories and practices, along with a greater availability of translated international texts (Ando, 1989). This independence was consolidated with the launch of the *Japanese Society of Community Psychology* in the late 1998, and the establishment of the *Japanese Journal of Community Psychology* (JJCP) in 1997 (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007). Thirty years of growth of the field in Japan have led to the development of various sub-specialisations, although issues of the cultural validity of theoretical models of CP and the lack of professional training opportunities remain a significant challenge (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007).

In contrast to Japan, CP is a new term in India (Bhatia & Sethi, 2007). Whilst the field has gained increasing presence in the last decade, it remains largely overshadowed by the more dominant presence of its concepts in allied fields, such as Social Work (Bhatia & Sethi, 2007). Nevertheless, important developments in its formalisation include the

establishment of the Community Psychology Association of India in 1987, and the launch of the *Indian Journal of Community Psychology* in 2004. Like many countries elsewhere where CP has thrived, India has a long history of colonial rule that ended in 1947. However, psychology has not historically flourished in India, in part due to the stigma and prejudice associated with mental illness, as well as its Western individualist focus in a country with strong collectivist values (Bhatia & Sethi, 2007). Other significant distinguishing contextual issues in India include the hierarchical social classification based on class and caste, which regulates relationships between rich and poor (Bhatia & Sethi, 2007). This runs contrary to some of the key principles in community psychology, for instance, those related to empowerment and social transformation related to shifting inequality. The country also faces the challenge of integrating indigenous knowledges and practices with a Western psychological paradigm, but this has been facilitated by the recognition of Indian scholarship, as well as traditions, values and ways of being in cross-cultural psychology (Roland, 1988). Whilst prominent texts of community theory and practice are evident in Social Work, such as Siddiqui's (1997) *Working with Communities: An Introduction to Community Work*, there is a dearth of similar literature in CP (cited in Bhatia & Sethi, 2007).

In China, CP does not have a strong presence, and there is a paucity of information on its history (Chan, 2010). In the territory of Hong Kong, CP like India, has no distinct events that mark its birth and professionals trained within a community orientation practice in an idiosyncratic manner (Cheng & Mak, 2007). Here, the practice of CP is strongly linked to academic psychology (Lam & Ho, 1989). However, the emergence of CP in Hong Kong has similar precursors as in the US, such as the decentralisation of psychiatric services into community clinics in the early 1960s, the patients' rights advocacy, and the emergence of applied branches of psychology in the late 1960s (Lam & Ho, 1989). The field was well positioned to gain greater currency in the socio-political transformation of Hong Kong from a British colony to a governed territory of China (Lam & Ho, 1989). CP is currently taught in few undergraduate and postgraduate programmes, and is typically combined with health psychology in professional clinical training (Cheng & Mak, 2007). Its identity is rooted in the application of psychological knowledge within the context of service delivery in community-based settings. However, the strong emphasis on economic progress and stability in Hong Kong poses some challenges to the value attributed to more social development orientated interventions in CP. CP is generally understood as being synonymous with community mental health, and thus importance is placed on maintaining cultural sensitivity (Cheng & Mak, 2007). CP's low visibility in Asia is attributed to

regional socio-political conditions, collectivist cultural values, the underdevelopment of psychology in some countries, and a unique Asian psychology in others (Stevens, 2007a). CPs institutional presence in Japan is perhaps an exception compared to its lack of formalisation elsewhere in Asia, which appears to be intertwined with its political history in relation to the US.

3.6. Community Psychology in Africa

Although community practice has a long history in many African countries (Angelique & Culley, 2007), psychology, including CP, it is not firmly established in the African continent (Stevens, 2007a). Formal knowledge sources about the development and presence of CP in African countries are scarce. The presence of CP in a few African countries has been traced to selected scholars receiving professional training in North America (Angelique & Cully, 2007). This section briefly reviews developments in psychology, CP and community practice in several African countries, before a discussion of the situation in South Africa.

In Cameroon, CP does not formally exist as a part of academic psychology (Lazarus et al., 2006; Tchombe & Kassea, 2006), but is an emerging field (Nsamenang, Fru, & Browne, 2007; Tchombe & Kassea, 2006). Its evolution in this country is part of a historical process that reflects a European colonial and modernist imprint on indigenous communitarian principles and practices that were present in this country (Nsamenang et al., 2007). Psychology itself, as the root discipline of CP, is criticised as being an imported form of social Darwinism that represents "the intellectual arm of Europe's civilising mission" in Africa (Nsamenang et al., 2007, p. 396). Its historical alignment with colonialism has resulted in psychology being an inchoate discipline in Cameroon, which has resultantly stifled the growth of CP (Nsamenang et al., 2007). Professional psychology training programmes are under-developed, with many students seeking such training abroad (Tchombe & Kassea, 2006). The development of psychology has been hindered by tribalism, pedagogic weaknesses, underdeveloped understandings of social problems and a lack of institutional capacity (Tchombe, 1999). Added to the paucity of psychologists, there are very few health and mental health professionals in this country. Community psychiatrists, nurses and indigenous healers typically perform community work (Tchombe & Kassea, 2006). The emerging CP in Cameroon reflects an emphasis on reclaiming community principles and practices related to indigenous knowledge systems, embracing liberation theory and associated notions of people-centred development (Nsamenang et al., 2007).

In Ghana, CP is also not yet formally recognised but is in the process of establishing its identity (Akotia & Barimah, 2006; 2007; Lazarus et al., 2006). Socio-political crisis in the country and a vacuum of welfare provision, along with the rapid social changes associated with urbanisation, has created social stress and unrest in Ghana, which have heightened the need for preventative mental health services (Akotia & Barimah, 2007). The development of CP has been stimulated by the work of the NGO sector and a paucity of health and mental health professionals (Akotia & Barimah, 2006; 2007). CP was first introduced in 1996 at the University of Ghana as an undergraduate course by scholars professionally trained in Canada (Akotia & Barimah, 2006; 2007). Whilst it is currently only offered there at undergraduate level at this university or as part of a course on 'Social Analysis' at the Catholic University College of Ghana, several students have pursued their studies in CP in the US and Canada (Akotia & Barimah, 2006). Principles of CP espoused in the US and Canada, such as the emphasis on prevention, ecological analysis and empowerment, are a "natural fit in the Ghanaian society" (Akotia & Barimah, 2007, p. 410). However, CP is comparatively more academic than practical in Ghana, due to the paucity of psychologists (Akotia & Barimah, 2006).

CP in Tanzania is not well established either and growth has been hampered by the prominence of traditional healing modalities, a focus on basic survival needs, a lack of financial resources and infrastructure both within and outside of academia, few individuals with psychological training, and a lack of opportunities for careers in psychology (Gormley & Mwamwenda, 2006). Like in Cameroon and Ghana, the underdevelopment of CP is strongly related to psychology's marginality as a Western colonial discourse, but there is also a greater emphasis on social welfare provision than on managing social processes (Gormley & Mwamwenda, 2006). Whilst CP has struggled to find a strong footing, community work continues informally in government, NGOs and academia (Gormley & Mwamwenda, 2006).

In Zambia, efforts to institutionalise psychology began in the 1960s and psychological services were included in government service delivery (Chamvu, Jere-Folotiya, & Kalima, 2006). A landmark public outreach campaign around child disability in the early to mid-1980s, in which psychologists were active collaborators, is credited as a break-through event in the development of CP practice in this country (Chamvu et al., 2006). CP has been further stimulated by ongoing work in the governmental and NGO sectors but community work is not the exclusive domain of community psychologists. CP is not a specialist field though and a community emphasis is diffused across many academic training programmes (Chamvu et al., 2006).

The distinction between CP and community practice is similarly evident in Zimbabwe. Whilst CP is not prominent in this country (Lazarus et al., 2006), community practice occurs widely (Chireshe, Kasayira, Mudhovozi, Mapfumo, & Gwandure, 2006). The profession of psychology became regulated in Zimbabwe in 1971. Despite formalisation of psychology, there are no regulations pertaining to the practice of CP, and community-based psychological services are provided by a vast array of professionals in the health, legal and education sectors as well as by traditional and faith healers (Chireshe et al., 2006). The first undergraduate courses in CP were offered at Zimbabwe Open University in 2003 and more recently, a CP module has been offered at Midlands State University since 2006 (Chireshe et al., 2006). A post-graduate level CP programme is not offered but a CP emphasis is infused in the training of clinical, educational and industrial psychologists (Chireshe et al., 2006).

CP has been formalised to some extent in Egypt, but is considered to be a field that is a colonial import and training is limited (Lazarus et al., 2006). In Nigeria, while CP is not recognised, a range of practitioners in related health and social disciplines conduct community work (Lazarus et al., 2006).

It is striking that CP has not developed prominently in Africa, since this continent is the location of some of the world's poorest and most marginalised populations. CP in Africa is far less developed than indigenous community values, principles and forms of practice (Stevens, 2007a), perhaps suggesting that it is not actually needed. It appears though that CP may be becoming more formalised in several countries (Stevens, 2007a). In some areas, community practice seems to vary in its relationship to the various disciplines in the humanities, law, education, commerce and the health sciences, as well as to religious and indigenous healing modalities, and these variations are important to preserve in order to understand the interplay between the prominence of psychology, the development of CP and other factors within the cultural and socio-political context in these countries. Antecedents to formalised CP are evident in Africa in the presence of collectivist values and the emphasis on community-driven action, inclusivity and local knowledge. In countries where psychology features more prominently, there is less emphasis on separating community practice from other fields in psychology. Unlike in the US, Latin America and in South Africa, CP is not aligned with social revolutionary movements on the broader African continent (Stevens, 2007a). The reasons for this appear to be more complex than the accounts of the development of CP in Africa suggest. Like in some parts of Asia, this is in part to the differences in understanding psychological dysfunction, selfhood or wellness between African cosmology and Western epistemological frames (Mokwena, 2007). CP

appears to have largely emerged around the world in opposition or resistance to the exercise of imperialist power within the highly individual-focussed discipline of psychology. On the African continent, psychology does not have a strong power base and has struggled to find its footing, thus leaving little room for alternative discourses that resist this hegemony and strengthen CP as a counter-hegemonic discourse. In spite of an underdeveloped CP on the continent, community practice occurs widely and it is questionable whether CP is a desirable field at all, or whether this would simply reflect the colonisation of existing knowledge and practice that is already being conducted within other fields. This opens the debates about the flow of knowledge in colonial and post-colonial contexts, intellectual domination and colonisation, and the institutionalised appropriation of knowledge. Reflection on the development of CP on the African continent suggests that the field has flourished in conditions where there is social inequality, and that these are necessary but not sufficient drivers of its growth. It gains particular traction in transitional social formations where the conditions for knowledge production and its insertion into institutional psychology courses are also present – be it in professional or academic spheres. It draws together social processes and processes within psychology, but also requires an institutional conduit between the two in order to become CP.

3.7. Community Psychology in South Africa

CP in South Africa is an anomaly in comparison to its standing elsewhere on the continent. Several factors play a role in this situation. Firstly, South Africa's dominant socio-political position in Africa must be highlighted. As the economic hub of the continent, the country is a comparatively more powerful economically, politically stable and strategically important for the continent in the global arena, than many other African countries. Yet, despite this is also marred by profound levels of social inequality (Bhorat, 2010). Psychology is also far more developed institutionally than in any other country on the African continent.

Like psychology, the birth of CP in South Africa is intricately tied to the country's history of colonisation and the liberation struggle (Stevens, 2007a). Seedat and Lazarus (2011) identified the first Carnegie Commission Study in 1932 as the beginning of the trajectory of CP's emergence in South Africa, in that this commission represented one of the first wide scale social-community interventions, and one that was inherently racialised, as it served to preserve and advance white privilege and was underpinned by a segregationist ideology. As a field, critical forms CP emerged in South Africa much later as part of an activist agenda (Seedat & Lazarus, 2011). This history outlines how conceptualisations of 'community' are highly contested and racialised in the country (Butchart & Seedat, 1990),

and the term has, at different points, reflected conservative and progressive ideological underpinnings.

Whilst notions of community were historically deployed in political discourses of separate development for different race groups, the birth of CP itself is situated as part of the political resistance movement and the intense period of social unrest and activism against the apartheid state in the late 1970s and 1980s, and the parallel 'crisis' in social psychology (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Stevens, 2007a; Yen, 2008). Unlike in the US, CP in South Africa emerged in opposition to the state but similarly began to coalesce during this period of social unrest and transformation (Yen, 2008).

At the time of CP's official formation in the 1980s, South African society was characterised by massive social upheaval and intensified resistance to apartheid from many different sectors of civil society (Bhana, Petersen & Rochat, 2007; Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Stevens, 2007a). The reactive violence by the apartheid state heightened South Africa's visibility in the international arena and consolidated the armed struggle and liberation movement. A minority group of activist psychologists aligned with the liberation struggle (Stevens, 2007a), establishing organisations such as Psychologists Against Apartheid and the Organisation for Appropriate Social Services in South Africa to coordinate these activities (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Seedat & Lazarus, 2011; Yen, 2008). Academically, scholars questioned the relevance of psychology in understanding and addressing the needs of the country's black majority (Butchart & Seedat, 1990; Dawes, 1985; Vogelman, Perkel & Strebel, 1992). The mental health needs of marginalised communities were neglected under apartheid, reflecting broader social inequalities in South Africa according to race, class, gender and geographical location (Naidoo, 2000; Seedat et al., 2004). Psychological services were provided by and targeted solely towards the privileged minority white, middle-class population (Bhana et al., 2007; Naidoo, 2000) and were Eurocentric, individualistic, decontextualised and ameliorative in orientation (Butchart & Seedat, 1990; Seedat et al., 2004). CP emerged due to a confluence of growing political pressure and psychology's unresponsivess to the social upheaval and the crisis in mental health service provision created by the apartheid system (Bhana et al., 2007). CP was used to challenge the relevance of, and to transform, psychological theory and practice in the 1980s and 1990s (Naidoo, 2000). At this time, CP became increasingly popular as a framework for initiating applied psychosocial interventions aimed towards individual and collective empowerment (Butchart & Seedat, 1990; Seedat et al., 2004). Following the emergence of CP and the resistance and transitional periods in South Africa's socio-political history, democratic consolidation brought successes and challenges.

Whilst CP emerged in South Africa as a set of ideological, theoretical and practical tools with which to transform psychology to be relevant and progressive, the political images associated with the term 'community' in South Africa are complex. Butchart and Seedat (1990) highlight that the term 'community' was used in South Africa under apartheid to implicitly support the state's segregationist policies of separate development and legislated racial difference, which reproduced and maintained social inequalities. These authors cautioned that CP does not occupy a scientifically neutral domain, but remains a highly politicalised field in communities with a particular ideological context (Butchart & Seedat, 1990). This insight points to the tensions in the ways that community is conceptualised within South Africa, and foregrounds the inherent racialisation of communities in this context (Carolissen, Rohleder, Bozalek, & Leibowitz, 2010). This legacy has imbued CP with connotations of relevance that suits only those groups that are politically, economically and socially disadvantaged (Carolissen et al., 2010; Ngonyama ka Sigogo & Modipa, 2004). The racialisation of the term 'community' has brought contention to the impetus towards developing CP itself. Some scholars have also critiqued CP for perpetuating racialised divisions in psychology, without adequate considerations of intersecting forms of social exclusion (Carolissen & Swartz, 2009). Others have argued that CP is simply an adjunct to the ideological dominance of psychology and an Anglo-American academic discourse that has been imposed on African local knowledges (Painter & Terre Blanche, 2004). What is clear from examining the history and development of CP in South Africa is that it has a contested identity, is embedded in relations of disciplinary power, intertwined with dynamics of structural inequality and oppression, and has never stood apart from colonisation and racism.

Literature on the history of CP in South Africa closely ties its legitimation to its association with anti-apartheid activism in the 1980s (Suffla & Seedat, 2004). However, South Africa's political transition in 1994 has arguably produced a shift of power relations that changed the political agenda of CP in this country. The change to a democratic dispensation has therefore ushered in a new phase in the evolution of the sub-discipline. In the post-1994 period, there has been an upsurge of community-oriented interventions, linked to government and NGO projects (Yen, 2007). However, disparities in levels of attention given to different psychosocial issues affecting the country were noted. For example: violence and trauma formed a significant focus in CP, particularly in light of the events and processes connected to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission hearings, whilst issues such as HIV/AIDS received a delayed response from community psychologists (Yen, 2008).

In South Africa, CP secured its foothold and is broadly represented in many undergraduate, postgraduate and professional training courses (Bhana et al., 2007; de la Rey & Ipser, 2004), although little information exists about the nature or content of these courses and programmes (Yen, 2008). The presence of CP in professional training programmes since the 1990s signals the specialisation and formalisation of the field. A dedicated professional registration and training category in CP was proposed in the late 1990s (see Naidoo, 2000) but this was abandoned in favour of a more infused approach within a range of specialisations. There is presently no separate professional category (Bhana et al., 2007), no organised CP association in the country, no specialised doctoral study programmes, no dedicated journal and no CP national conferences. All of these have been present in the US and other countries for some time. However, in 2011, a Community and Social Psychology division was established in the Psychological Society of South Africa (PsySSA), the national professional association for psychology in the country (PsySSA, 2014).

In the early 2000s, formal textbooks about CP began to emerge in South Africa. The first of these, *Community Psychology: Theory, Method and Practice*, an edited volume by Seedat, Duncan and Lazarus (2001) was primarily targeted at a postgraduate and professional level. Another edited volume, *Self, Community and Psychology* by Ratele, Duncan, Hook, Mkize, Kiguwa and Collins (2004), was developed for undergraduate teaching at Unisa. Additional textbooks targeted at an undergraduate audience only surfaced in 2007. These were: *Contextualising Community Psychology in South Africa* by Visser (2007a) and *Community psychology: Analysis, Context and Action* by Duncan, Bowman, Naidoo, Pillay and Roos (2007). The text by Visser (2007a) is now in its second edition as Visser and Moleko (2012). Each of these textbooks combines the contributions from academics, researchers and practitioners across the country. Both of these textbooks are tied to teaching collectives and informal networks of community psychologists. All of the South African texts include a focus on theoretical perspectives, methodological issues and applied contextual issues, and the alignment of CP with critical psychology is evident in all of these texts. In line with trajectories of knowledge production elsewhere, the presence of four new South African books over the course of this decade suggests that there is important growth in CP within this country.

Some writers have alluded to the ways in which CP has been deployed to serve a political purpose of highlighting one's alignment with the new socio-political structures of power in contemporary South African society. Gibson and Swartz (2004) cautioned that the historical alignment of CP with an activist agenda could lead to a sense of complacency among community psychologists about the need to critically examine their own practices

and assumptions. Such statements suggest that CP could serve as a vehicle to usurp political power in the new dispensation or be used to find a platform that is beyond critical interrogation. In contrast, other scholars have highlighted the importance of setting the agenda and developing strategies for a liberation psychology in South Africa (Duncan & Bowman, 2009; Foster, 2004).

4. Community Psychology in the Global Terrain: Between Dominance and Marginality

Ultimately, this chapter raises the question of the significance of understanding the history of CP. Fryer (2008a, p. 584) holds that the ‘‘historical pasts’’ of CP are linked to its ‘‘potential futures’’. This insight draws our attention to the implicit relationship created between past and future through conducting historical analyses. There is little dispute that the formalisation and development of CP in the US has been extremely influential in the development of the field globally (Yen, 2008). In some regions this influence is explicit and in others, local social conditions and needs have been more prominent in the development of community-oriented work (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). This examination of the history and contemporary status of CP in different parts of the world reflects the field’s contested nature and its various positions in relation to both vested interests in psychology and contextual factors (Stevens, 2007a). Montero (2010) highlighted that one of the impacts of globalisation in knowledge production has mostly been unidirectional, with knowledge “flowing mostly from the West to the East and from the North to the South” (Montero, 2010, p. 528). In the same way, knowledge development within CP has followed this pattern. Scholars such as Fryer (2008a) and Seedat and Lazarus (2011) dispute the prevailing historical accounts of US dominance by maintaining that alternative histories need to be introduced into our understandings of the genesis of the field. From this brief account of the history of CP, it is evident that the processes of influence involved in CP’s precursors, origins and ongoing growth are extremely complex and that these multiple factors require closer scrutiny in order to understand this field of psychology.

This chapter has sought to foreground the global and local tensions in the development of CP. The history of the field is one that is integrally linked to power relations - between colonising and colonised countries, oppressive regimes and movements for liberation from oppression, between rich and poor, between dominant and subordinate groups, between the mainstream and the peripheral – it echoes the themes of the interconnectedness of dynamics of dominance and marginality. In academia, CP is often regarded as a “fringe discipline, perpetually fighting for legitimacy, space and support” (Reich et al., 2007a, p. 5). CP has often been a site of resistance to the hegemony within

psychology, and occupies a position of tension between the dialectic between individual and social. CP thrives in transitional socio-political spaces where psychology has a firm power base yet cannot provide the answers to social problems people face as a consequence of extreme inequality and social injustice. CP then becomes an expression of the dynamics and clashes between dominant and marginal positions, and resistance to domination from within psychology. What is clear from the above literature from many regions is that collectivist values and principles embodied in CP are endemic across the globe, and can be found in various indigenous cultures and social practices. Thus, a valuable distinction to draw is the difference between community work and community psychology (Bujuwoye, 2006). However, it was not termed CP until it was officially sanctioned with disciplinary authority. This either occurs through the path of institutionalised professional psychology or in academia, or in both. Yet, CP remains a peripheral part of psychology, which has consistently failed to fundamentally transform the discipline. As such, CP remains the 'dominated fraction' of the prevailing order.

In looking at this outline of the field's development globally, CP has thrived in English-speaking countries that are ex–colonies of Britain (including the US, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Hong Kong) and ex-colonies of Spain, reflecting a strong, yet understated European influence (Wingenfeld & Newbrough, 2000). Ironically, perhaps this accounts for the field's belated emergence in Britain itself. What is also clear from this chapter is that CP has a sponge-like quality. It has the capacity to absorb the contextually derived substance of the tensions between the dominant and marginal in the individual-social dialectic of particular socio-political milieus without losing its quintessential form. Its unique constellation of ideological influences manifested itself through its complex and malleable identity resonates with the realities of various socio-political contexts, and through this CP is able to attach itself and become embedded in diverse institutional and professional structures. This supports the theoretical supposition of Eyerman and Jamieson (1991) with regard to the genesis of social movements. CP has emerged at specific historical junctures due to an auspicious set of socio-political conditions that generate the opportunity for new knowledge to be conveyed and gain momentum, but that specific forms of communication were required for these ideas to prosper. Forums of knowledge production - be these in the form of journals, books, conferences, international exchanges or academic teaching fora - were and are, an important part of this process. Thus, CP only became instilled as a field when this knowledge was incorporated and communicated by professionals and intellectuals in institutional contexts with a district boundary as a sub-discipline of psychology. Interestingly, the role of professionals and

intellectuals as conduits in embedding CP within their countries, fields of expertise and institutions has received little attention in writing on the history of CP, but appears to be an important one. Thus, a conducive configuration of socio-political momentum, and transitional pressures within psychology, is necessary, but not sufficient, for CP to grow. These tensions need to collide and be produced in spaces of psychological knowledge production. The pressure for transformation in society and in the profession emerges from factors extrinsic to psychology and is fuelled by the conflicts between the dominant and marginal positions in social spaces. But these ideas only became rooted as a sub-discipline when they were thought, taught and written about by intellectuals in psychology as a legitimate way of making psychological sense of the world.

5. Conclusion

This chapter has explored ideas that emerge from a reading of the history of CP internationally and in South Africa. This reading has examined the influence of disciplinarity and context in shaping the character of CP, and highlighted the ways in which power relations between dominant and marginal ideologies, groups and positions are part of how these forces converge. Power relations are intrinsic to how the field is formed. However, as noted previously, discrepancies between the values of CP around issues of social justice and its representation in publications can also be noted. The chapter that follows pursues the theme of power in CP and how it is manifested through the key theoretical perspectives contained within its sub-disciplinary boundaries. The chapter presents the ways in which power is conveyed through a conceptual lens in order to deepen an understanding of the ways in which the field is constituted and its inherent ideological tensions.

Chapter 4

Theoretical Perspectives in Community Psychology: Implications for Knowledge Production

1. Introduction

By definition, CP is concerned with the power differentials in society, and the ways in which power relations affect the mental and physical state of individuals, groups and communities (Fisher et al., 2007). Power also features as a prominent aspect of some of the core values and principles guiding the field, such as social justice and empowerment (Angelique et al., 2013). However, surprisingly, published work in CP has neglected the centrality of power relations in both its content and methods. In much of the literature, the analysis of power as a construct is virtually ignored or features only peripherally (Angelique et al., 2013; Fisher & Sonn, 2007). Moreover, published work that does incorporate a focus on power tends to be individualistic, and focuses on intrapsychic psychological concepts (Smail, 1994). Even when focussing on the construct of power, published literature in CP shows little consideration of the workings of power relations at the societal and ideological levels. This has contributed to a de-politicised, de-contextual knowledge base, which has tacitly reinforced structural inequalities and perpetuated victim-blaming tendencies evident in psychology more broadly.

The lack of attention to the workings of social power in CP theory and practice has, in part, been attributed to the scientist-practitioner model in which community-psychologists are trained. In contrast to a critical theory emphasis that foregrounds the workings of power relations, the scientist-practitioner model draws predominantly from a biomedical tradition. This tradition reifies the idea of scientific neutrality and the establishment of universal truths through the use of empirical research methods (Fisher et al., 2007). Whilst the emphasis on value-free scientific understandings of communities has advanced the status and credibility of the field and consolidated its growth internationally, it has simultaneously detracted from the socio-political aspects of its stated ideals and their translation into published work. As a result, the relevance of the knowledge generated in CP to the realities of everyday people, especially those who are socially marginalised and living in adverse social conditions, is questionable. This highlights a central epistemological paradox on which CP is based – one that is patently evident in its scholarship. Whilst striving for social transformation, published work consistently shows that most scholars value individualised,

objective rather than contextual and politicised models of theory and practice. The lack of attention given to issues of power in scholarly work is therefore implicated in perpetuating the domination of socially powerful groups.

Several scholars have recently voiced the need for considering the role of power in CP theory and practice (Angelique et al., 2013; Angelique & Culley, 2007; Fisher & Sonn, 2007). They have argued that social power and power differentials, as a subject of analysis, should be brought into the forefront of scholarship in order to strengthen efforts towards social change (Angelique et al., 2013; Fisher & Sonn, 2007). Scholars have also raised questions for CP about the relationship between epistemology and power. This period in the history of CP signals a crucial stage in the development of the field as it seeks to uncover its theoretical structure and interrogate its modes of knowledge production (Montero, 2002a). Montero (2002a) considers this decade as an epistemologically "reflective moment" that has thrown up questions about the producers of knowledge and the types of knowledge that are generated. In these debates, CP is presented with the task of examining the interests of those served by the content and methods of published work. This has reinforced the imperative to critically investigate the nature and function of knowledge production, including the role of power in the generation and dissemination of knowledge (Fisher et al., 2007). This endeavour is vital to reflexive engagement with the ideological underpinnings of current forms and practices of knowledge production.

The purpose of this chapter is to elucidate the ways in which power has been addressed as a line of theoretical development within CP literature. Angelique and Culley (2007) argue that attention to power has historically been neglected in CP, but that the concept has now become assimilated in the field's lexicon. This chapter takes a somewhat different stance, holding that power, whilst not a foregrounded concept, has been silent but omnipresent in CP theory. The chapter provides an overview of the main approaches to conceptualising and writing about power by community psychologists. This thematic synopsis of perspectives on power forms a backdrop to the present study's focus on the power relations that are revealed within published work. The chapter begins by reviewing the principal understandings of empowerment theory that have developed over the past four decades within CP, as well as the critiques that have emerged of this theoretical tradition. The chapter continues with an exposition of the ways in which power and empowerment are understood within the literature that promotes social justice and liberation. It examines the extent to which an empowerment agenda provides tools for critically assessing knowledge production. The chapter then introduces contemporary concepts and debates that have emerged surrounding the notion of power in CP, that have attempted to re-politicise its

identity. These include a critical discussion of ideas about the stages of socio-political development and the psychopolitical validity of community theory and practice. Finally, the chapter considers the importance of these theoretical debates about power to understanding the patterns evident in the focus of publications work.

2. Theoretical Traditions of Power in Community Psychology Scholarship

2.1. Power in Prevention

Prevention is one of the major theoretical strands in CP that has been present since its inception (Toro, 2005). Preventionist theories and methodologies are rooted in a biomedical model (Ross & Deverell, 2007). Therefore, the conceptualisation of power is most closely tied to professionalised and medicalised discourses in this framework. In CP, the epistemology of prevention emerged from the community mental health movement and its view of psychological disturbance as mental illness, and therefore as disease (Ahmed & Suffla, 2007; Seedat et al., 1988; Seedat et al., 2004). Power in this approach originates from the identification of risk factors through diagnostic methods, and stems from the expert's authoritative standing and ability to identify objective indicators of pathology. The mentally ill are regarded as passive recipients of expert intervention (Ross & Deverell, 2007), and treatment is decentralised to the community level (Ahmed & Suffla, 2007). Most clearly embodied in the mental health model of CP, its primary focus is on the prevention of mental health problems or mental illness and its associated impacts on individual wellbeing through strengthening human resource capacity and extending service delivery (Ahmed & Pretorius-Heuchert, 2001; Seedat et al., 1988). The model therefore advocates making mental health services more accessible at a community level and engaging in prevention efforts with individuals and groups within communities to avert the development of psychological problems (Ahmed & Pretorius-Heuchert, 2001; Ahmed & Suffla, 2007). A mental health model in CP is primarily identified in the use of the terms "mental illness prevention" and "mental health promotion". More recently, this theoretical strand has extended its original emphasis on prevention to include a focus on the promotion of mental health and wellbeing, as more than the absence of disease (Kloos et al., 2012; Petersen, 2010). The mental health promotion efforts seek to alleviate or ameliorate harmful environmental conditions that may impact on mental wellbeing, minimise the extent of psychological distress experienced, strengthen coping capacities or improve resilience to social stressors (Petersen, 2010). Here, prevention is used to stipulate a focus on the reduction in the incidence, prevalence, duration and recurrence of mental disorders (WHO,

2004 cited in Petersen, 2010). Preventionist approaches do not advocate for the fundamental transformation of the existing mental health system, but rather the extension of it into more decentralised forms, and therefore represents a more politically conservative model in CP (Seedat et al., 1988). The public health model utilises a similar perspective but focuses on the prevention of broader health concerns at the population level. Public health and community mental health approaches to prevention have utilised Caplan's (1964) distinction between *primary*, *secondary* and *tertiary* prevention, which has been very influential in all approaches to prevention work in CP. In the decades that followed, Cowan (1977; 1980) further elaborated on the criteria of primary prevention efforts in order to introduce greater rigour into its use within CP. Further conceptual development of this approach within public health was offered by the alternative categorisation of prevention approaches offered by Gordon (1983) into *universal*, *selective* and *indicated* interventions. Additional terminology associated with the mental health and public health models of prevention includes terms such as "epidemiology", "incidence", "prevalence", "risk factors" and "protective factors" (Ahmed & Suffla, 2007). These models mostly advocate for ameliorative forms of intervention practice (Ngonyama ka Sigogo, Hooper, Long, Lykes, Wilson, & Zietkiewicz, 2004; Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010d). As such, preventionist approaches are frequently de-politicised, top-down, and social change occurs incidentally rather than as a direct focal point (Seedat et al., 1988). Rappaport (1981) highlights the dangers inherent in prevention discourse, in that it can be used as a mechanism of social control through which mental illness is contained instead of having its root societal causes addressed. It thus retains existing systems of power and knowledge (Rappaport, 1981).

Some theorists have attempted to bring more politicised notions of prevention into CP, and their work represents a form of resistance to the dominant biomedical preventionist approach. For instance, the work of George Albee and colleagues (e.g. Albee, 1981; Albee & Joffe, 1977; Albee & Gulotta, 1997; Albee, Joffe, & Dusenbury, 1988; Joffe & Albee, 1981) was instrumental in introducing greater attention to social and political transformation as a form of primary prevention for the genesis of psychopathology than is typical in the field. The concept of prevention has also been criticised extensively by writers such as Rappaport (1981; 1987), who proposed that CP should be based on social action oriented and contextualist epistemologies. More recently, scholars such as Kenny and Hage (2009) have argued for the integration of prevention with a social justice orientation. However, by and large, preventionist work is a politically barren strand in its conceptualisation of community life, and its conservative political orientation is concealed within scientific medicalised discourse.

2.2. Ecological Power

The concept of ecology has its epistemological roots in the natural sciences, and therefore draws its conceptual authority from the observable and experimental emphasis of the traditional scientific method. Biological concepts drawn from the environmental adaptation of living organisms in natural ecosystems are used to describe the reciprocal interaction between persons and their environments, where specific emphasis is placed on the degree of adaptation and fit between individuals and where they live (Sands, 2001), also referred to as *person-environmental fit* (Martin et al., 2004; Orford, 2008).

In the 1960's and 1970's, systems theory, which was initially applied to family systems, was expanded to incorporate an ecological approach. The early work by Kurt Lewin (1936) was profoundly influential in the ecological and systemic focus in CP, which then later incorporated theorists like Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) and Gregory Bateson (1972; 1979). The systemic approach to the ecological study of human development and interaction now combined a focus on individual and family influences with added broader social elements to conceptualise the interactive process of human development outcomes. This included breaking down the concept of the "environment" or ecological context into a multi-tiered organising framework of social determinants with varied levels of power and influence on the individual, according to their proximity to the individual and level of connectedness (Kloos et al., 2012). This synthesis of social and ecological concepts is embodied in the social ecological model.

The social ecological model in CP premises the study of the person in relation to his/her physical, social, political and economic environments (Kloos et al., 2012). This model assumes that behaviour results from the interaction between individuals and contexts they experience (Visser, 2007a). This suggests that behaviour changes with changes in the context individuals are located in (Orford, 2008). This epistemological framework values the analysis of social and environmental context, and the development of interventions at different levels of contextual influence (Kloos et al., 2012). Important aspects of this model include examining the distribution of resources, mechanisms of adaptation, coping and forms of resilience, and processes of succession and change in communities (Kelly, 2006; Visser, 2007a). Interventions are context-specific, based on collaboration and partnerships, the establishment of shared goals and values, and an emphasis on capacity building, and programme monitoring (Visser, 2007a). However, they are typically located at the levels of organisational development or proximal systems, rather than being directed towards social transformation. The social ecological model has an empirical emphasis and research in this approach can be classified as post-positivist (Kingry-Westergaard & Kelly, 1990.

Interventions within a social ecological framework are typically ameliorative rather than socially transformative (Ngonyama ka Sigogo et al., 2004). The political nature of power relations within this contextualist orientation are sterilised by being simplified into a multitude of ecological influences. The model is thus critiqued as reductionist, and lacking attention to the salience of macro-economic influences on community life. In CP, frequently the power of ecology is overlaid with preventionist frameworks, as is evident in the community mental health and public health domain (e.g. Petersen, 2010). The synergy of these theoretical approaches has been evident since earliest applications of this epistemology in CP and is rooted in their scientific cores. It was present in the earliest works of theorists such as Kelly (1968) who initially voiced this approach in the field as a means of proposing ideas for preventative interventions (cited in Kelly, 2006). The impetus for suggesting the use of this framework served to counter reductionist tendencies in psychology (Kelly, 2006). However, the ecological approach itself suffers this self-same critique. Explicit notions of power are inherent to the scientific discourse it employs, but are not addressed directly as areas affecting communities.

2.3. Power in Empowerment

A large proportion of the conceptual knowledge about power within CP is nested within empowerment theory and social action epistemologies, although there is surprisingly little attention to the concept of power despite the prominence of empowerment in health promotion literature (Labonte, 1989; Fisher & Sonn, 2007). Community psychologists have typically been more concerned with empowerment than power itself (Angelique et al., 2013; Angelique & Culley, 2007; Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010d), and yet the concept of empowerment is inherently focussed on power differentials, and is tied to the concepts of both power and powerlessness (Moscovitch & Drover, 1981). When one looks at empowerment, it is clear that the term is utilised in various ways that reveal contrasting ideologies, even in CP. In the US, empowerment theory is philosophically and politically based within its own history of democracy. Empowerment in this context reflected the democratic ideals of encouraging citizens to exercise their rights over decisions that affect them, and influence the course of political action. The struggle for the realisation of civil rights for all citizens within the US was a major point of social crisis that set several social movements in motion that demanded the equal recognition of disenfranchised and socially marginalised groups. This added momentum to the challenges of social relevance posed to existing forms of knowledge and practice in social scientific disciplines. The crisis in clinical service delivery that followed the post-war economic depression and climate of

protest is an integral part of the story of CP. Thus, it is not surprising that ideas such as empowerment gained currency within a context of socio-political struggle, and eventually became embedded as a guiding principle of CP (Rappaport, 1981; 1987; Toro, 2005).

Empowerment was initially appropriated by social movements in the 1960s, such as the civil rights and feminist movements, to advance their aims of achieving equality for groups that were politically, economically and socially marginalised. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, empowerment increasingly captured the imagination of scholars and social activists from a range of disciplines (Moscovitch & Drover, 1981; Swift & Levin, 1987). A sociological journal search revealed there were 861 articles published on empowerment in this field between 1974 and 1994 (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). Similarly, a review of published educational research showed an increase from 66 articles on empowerment in the period of 1966-1981 to a staggering 2261 articles from 1982-1994 (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). In the social sciences, empowerment became closely associated with Alinsky's acclaimed (1971) social action model of community organisation, but was also incorporated in the community development movement (Ife & Tesoreiro, 2006). The social action model attempted to radicalise understandings of psychological and social problems through proposing that high visibility psychological and social problems emerge from structural inequalities in society and a lack of political power (Seedat et al., 1988). It was therefore geared towards the mobilisation of collective action against problematic social structures and conditions, to equalise opportunities for upward mobility in society and make more social resources available to the poor. Indicators of this epistemology are found in the presence of terminology such as "social action", "social change", "collaboration", "community mobilisation", "self-determination" and "conscientisation" and the situation of ideas for intervention and research within a discourse of "liberation" and conflict with those in power. As such the model is political and radical in its ideas and forms of practice (Ngonyama ka Sigogo et al., 2004).

Scholars in the mental health field lagged behind others in adopting the empowerment focus, finding certain versions of the term difficult to reconcile with the individualistic orientation of mainstream psychology (Swift & Levin, 1987). From 1974 to 1986, a review of PsycLit revealed only 96 articles that referred to empowerment, whilst there were 686 articles and 283 book chapters identified between 1987 and 1993 that used this term (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). By the 1990s, though, empowerment had entered into popular discourse.

Whilst CP has always been concerned with issues of power, this was initially articulated as opposition to the shortfalls of clinical psychology and a call for a more

contextualised conceptual emphasis (Varas-Díaz & Serrano-García, 2003). It was not until the 1980s that the term empowerment gained currency for expressing ideas about power relations. Julian Rappaport (1981) famously introduced the concept of empowerment to CP in his 1980 APA Presidential Address, and argued that it should form the guiding theoretical basis for research and intervention. Rappaport (1981) defined empowerment as an ideology that seeks to understand how people have successfully solved social problems in diverse settings, and then publicising these solutions to assist others in gaining control over their lives. He argued that divergent thinking was needed in forming policies and social programmes to promote human rights. For Rappaport (1981), CP was a social movement, and empowerment is consistent with this agenda. Rappaport (1981) argued that prevention is an inherently bio-medically orientated hierarchical construct that supported the view of individuals as being passive and deficient in their abilities to resolve problems of living, and upheld the view that people were in need of external forms of assistance from expert outsiders. Prevention therefore reinforces existing relations of authority versus dependency, and power versus powerlessness, is essentially deficit- and illness orientated (Rappaport, 1981). Rappaport (1981) conversely believed that people have the potential to generate unique solutions to their problems given the appropriate circumstances and opportunities that allow them to do so. He therefore viewed people as having innate capacities, and argued that an empowerment approach capitalised on their ability to act decisively regarding problems they face in their lives. For Rappaport (1981, p. 15) an empowerment approach aims "to enhance the possibilities for people to control their own lives".

Rappaport (1987, p. 122) later described empowerment as "a process: a mechanism by which people, organisations and communities gain mastery over their affairs". Rappaport (1987) revoked his disavowal of prevention. Instead of presenting prevention and empowerment as irreconcilable, he highlighted the central role they both play in CP. He sought to resolve the tensions between them through distinguishing between phenomena of interest to CP and exemplars of CP interventions (Rappaport, 1987). In this formulation, Rappaport (1987) suggested that empowerment best captured the phenomena of interest to CP, and was therefore the leading candidate for theory development in the field. He conceptualised prevention as an exemplar of how empowerment could be achieved, that is, as one of several strategies that could be used to promote empowerment. This perspective stood in opposition to the inverse position of empowerment being viewed as a strategy to achieve the goals of primary prevention (Joffe & Albee, 1981). Rappaport (1987) described empowerment as a multilevel construct that is expressed both individually and collectively. It not only involves personal control, but social influence, political power and legal rights as

well. The Cornell Empowerment Group (1989, p. 2) defined empowerment as: "an intentional ongoing process centred in the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain greater access to and control over those resources". This definition emphasised the cognitive, emotional and behavioural components of empowerment, which are all individually based, but sought to immerse them within a collective process. Rappaport (1990) more explicitly linked empowerment to social marginalisation: "empowerment is by definition concerned with many who are excluded by the majority society on the basis of their demographic characteristics or of their physical or emotional difficulties, experienced either in the past or in the present". However, the emphasis on processes of social exclusion here is based more on the attributes of individuals than on structural disadvantage.

The most dominant lines of development in empowerment theory in CP have been focused on conceptualising different forms of empowerment and measuring how empowerment operates in different settings and ecological levels of analysis (e.g. Speer, 2000; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). Various typologies of empowerment have emerged. *Individual empowerment* has been distinguished from *psychological empowerment* (Speer, 2000; Zimmerman & Rappaport, 1988). The latter concept refers to "the connection between a sense of personal competence, a desire for and willingness to take action in, the public domain" (1988, p. 746). Psychological empowerment carries personality, cognitive and motivational dimensions, but emphasises the interaction of macro and micro level factors (Speer, 2000). By contrast, individual empowerment focuses solely on individual influences, to the exclusion of other systemic influences. Speer (2000) further distinguishes between *intrapersonal empowerment* – one's perceived sense of self-efficacy and control, and *interactional empowerment* – one's intellectual understandings of power and social change. Other areas of empowerment research have focused on empowering processes in organisational settings, such as collective decision-making, organisational participation and shared leadership. Empowerment has also been viewed as a community outcome that is aided by promoting pluralism, coalition building and access to community resources (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995).

Empowerment theory asserts that the term empowerment has several meanings, which are unique to particular contexts and populations (Rappaport, 1984; Zimmerman, 1995; Zimmerman, 2000). The contextually embedded quality of empowerment contributes to its dynamic character and it multifarious manifestations across different ecological settings (Foster-Fishman, Salem, Chibnall, Legler, & Yapchai, 1998). This has culminated

in empowerment being referred to as a process, an outcome, a guiding value and an ideological framework. Empowerment theory is typically directed at the micro-level, whereas empowerment ideology is directed at a macro-level (Perkins & Zimmerman, 1995). Whilst Rappaport's work has arguably shifted CP towards a greater understanding of power relations, the nature and mechanism of power, processes of changing power relations and the conditions that necessitate empowerment are largely left unexplored (Fisher et al., 2007). Use of the term is often devoid of an explanation of the epistemological assumptions or connotations of power that underpin it. While arguably, empowerment is a noble concept, the redistribution of political and economic power is not mutually beneficial for both powerful and disadvantaged groups, and does not culminate in win-win situations (Labonte, 1989). In addition, the multiple meanings ascribed to the term highlight that empowerment is a particularly elusive but fundamentally depoliticised construct in CP. Moreover, the differential meanings of the concept have been critiqued for suggesting "conceptual confusion" (Smail, 1994, p. 5), and its overuse has placed it "in danger of losing any substantive meaning" (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006, p. 65).

The key concepts and definitions in empowerment theory typically reflect the individual values of autonomy and self-determination in CP that are inherent in the notions of control and mastery (Prilleltensky, 2001). Empowerment is limited to the perceived capacity for effective action (Watts, Chioke Williams, & Jagers, 2003). Thus, ideas of power that have dominated the empowerment theory literature are predominantly psychological, even when they emphasise the role of broader social factors, and typically emphasise perceived sense of control rather than actual structural influence (Riger, 1993). In this way, empowerment theory supports the political status quo by reducing political processes to personal processes, which has led empowerment to become a depoliticised, inherently problematic concept in CP (Riger, 1993). At closer inspection, much of the traditional empowerment literature in CP implicitly supports a normative western patriarchal, capitalist, ideology (Riger, 1993). It also predominantly supports a pluralist view that different groups in society with different levels of power and control over resources are in conflict with one another (Gutierrez, 1990; Ife & Tesoriero, 2006). Here, power is a commodity that is linked to one's capacity to engage in and exert influence within an institution or political system. From this perspective, empowerment promotes the participation of disadvantaged groups without substantially challenging the legitimacy of existing political structures (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006). Ultimately, this diverts attention away from the role of structural inequality in perpetuating social injustice. The conceptualisation of issues of power within empowerment literature is varied, and the extent to which an

empowerment perspective challenges power relations is contested. Nevertheless the empowerment approach has a significant presence in CP literature, with some scholars holding that it is one of its defining elements. Certainly, it remains one of the dominant ways in which the field has approached the understanding of power relations and addressing power imbalances. The social action epistemologies are criticised for romanticising the concept of community and tacitly reinforcing social divisions, but are one of the few approaches that address the structural basis of psychosocial problems (Seedat et al., 1988) and advocate for transformative social interventions (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010e).

The people-centred development approach is a more recent theoretical permutation of empowerment theory within a community development framework, and draws principally from an anthropological epistemology. This approach emerged in the 1980s and has been pioneered by David Korten (van Vlaenderen & Neves, 2004). People centred community development occurs within the framework of achieving a balance between central planning and autonomy in communities, between the powers of civil society and the state. As such, it does not advocate conflict between communities and the state, like traditional empowerment approaches, but rather emphasises the role of local beneficiaries of development as participants in development initiatives (van Vlaenderen & Neves, 2004; van Vlaenderen & Nkwinti, 1993). This requires processes of community empowerment and capacity building based on their local knowledge and resources. The people-centred development approach aims to bridge the gap between local and external knowledge by creating an environment where both can emerge and facilitating communication between local and external groups to create shared knowledge and goals. Community development of this nature aims to assist with establishing local community networks and strengthening local leadership to take responsibility for development (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006). Therefore, key concepts for this approach are "participation", "empowerment", "problem-solving", "capacity-building" and "local knowledge". This approach may involve political, social, environmental, or economic development initiatives in communities, and advocates for both ameliorative and transformative intervention practices at a local community level (van Vlaenderen & Neves, 2004), but lacks the radical, conflict oriented flavour of traditional notions of social action. This approach has frequently drawn on the PAR frameworks, which also commonly build on the fusion of practice and research methodology evident in feminist, Marxist and liberation approaches to CP.

2.4. Power in Feminist Writing

Another important area in which we see scholars in CP grappling with conceptualising issues of power and power imbalances is in the area of feminist writing within the sub-discipline. Whilst feminist scholarship in general is vast and diverse, it is principally defined by the traditions of liberal feminism, radical feminism, socialist feminism and womanism. Each of these traditions suggests a different approach to social change (Campbell & Wasco, 2000), which rests on a different analysis of power relations and understanding of the effects of power. Whilst liberal feminism holds that the social and economic structure of society is sound but that gender-based discrimination in social institutions should be eliminated, the radical, socialist, and womanist feminists hold that the social and economic basis of society is fundamentally flawed and requires total transformation (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). The latter feminist traditions similarly conceptualise of the roots of power imbalances as being based within broader social structures (Campbell & Wasco, 2000).

Several scholars have heralded the synergies between CP and feminism (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2007; Mulvey, 1988; St. Germaine-Small, Walsh-Bowers, & Mitchell, 2012; Wasco & Bond, 2010). Their values and processes define both CP and feminism (Mulvey, 1988), and each of these traditions of scholarship has compatible, mutually informative agendas (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). Commonalities between feminism and CP have been identified as a mutual endorsement of empowerment initiatives, the promotion of equality and social justice, recognition of structural determinants of wellbeing, integration of research and action, and an emphasis on the significance of reflexivity (Wasco & Bond, 2010). Further to this, CP and feminist literature both display an acknowledgement of gender as a central component of how human differences are constructed as well as gender's intersectionality with other forms of human diversity (St. Germaine-Small et al., 2012; Wasco & Bond, 2010). Initial feminist writing in CP focussed on issues of institutional representation. Arguments about women being excluded from positions of power and decision-making in CP emerged early on in the field's development. Bennett et al. (1966) highlighted the absence of women's participation in the historic Swampscott conference that is credited with the formal emergence of CP, and noted that as the only woman at the conference, she was given the task of organising the tea. While she was the second author of the Swampscott report, little else is known about her. While substantial efforts were made to promote the attendance of women at subsequent APA conferences, these events were still marred by a silencing of women's voices. For instance, Leidig (1977) notes that significant efforts were made to promote the attendance of women graduate and PhD students at the Austin Conference on Training in CP, but that women had experienced a lack of validation

at this conference. Leidig (1977) noted a disjuncture between the expressed ideology of CP and the experiences of women scholars, who felt relegated to being passive and powerless spectators. Leidig (1977) also highlighted the need for conferences to include topics relevant to women's concerns. Feminist CP scholarship was only consolidated a few years later with the publication of several influential Special Issue publications in CP journals. Mulvey, D'Ercole and Blair (1988) explored the synergies between CP and feminism in an edited volume of the JCP, titled *Women in the community*. These authors articulated their frustration with CP's neglect of women's issues and women's lives, and sought to express their commitment to the development of a "feminist community psychology" (Mulvey et al., 1988). This volume brought to the fore the contributions of scholars writing on topics relevant to both women's issues and community issues, in order to promote dialogue between the two, as well as to challenge CP to engage more directly with feminist perspectives (Mulvey et al., 1988). Within this edited volume, the contribution by Mulvey (1988) set the agenda of explicitly examining tensions and commonalities between the feminist tradition and CP literature. Mulvey (1988) emphasised CP's failure to incorporate a feminist agenda, which contributed to its failure in achieving its broader goals. She further argued that both CP and feminist movements emerged from a similar socio-political climate of activism in the 1960s, and for this reason has theoretical and ideological similarities (Mulvey, 1988). These include housing diverse theoretical perspectives, supporting the imperative of promoting action to achieve social change, and recognising the inter-relationships that exist between wider social structures, the immediate environmental context and individual wellness (Mulvey, 1988). Values of CP and feminism were also noted as complementary, with both domains emphasising empowerment, social justice, collaboration and respect for diversity (Mulvey, 1988).

Bond and Mulvey (2000) identified the 1990s as the historical period in which feminist work was enhanced by the creation and nurturance of supportive settings, the redefinition of professional roles, and the inclusion of marginal voices within the women's movement. Two special issues of the AJCP were produced in this time period that played a significant role in foregrounding and developing the theoretical aspects of this feminist CP. The first of these, titled *Feminism and Community Psychology*, focused on foregrounding the role of historical context in understanding the position of women in CP (Bond & Mulvey, 2000), looking at articulations between feminist theory and CP in relation to specific social issues (e.g. Hamby, 2000; Riger & Krieglstein, 2000; Sprague & Hayes, 2000), and highlighting empowering settings for women and girls (e.g. Bertram, Hall, Fine, & Weis, 2000; Bond, Belenky, & Weinstock, 2000). This collection of articles highlighted

the first three of seven identified imperatives of a feminist CP. These were to 1) integrate contextual understandings of people; 2) foreground issues of diversity; and 3) speak from the standpoint of oppressed groups (Bond, Hill, Mulvey, & Terenzio, 2000).

Promoting contextualised understandings of people includes incorporating the analysis of historical, economic and political forces, gendered power relations, and local community structures and values (Bond et al., 2000). The emphasis on issues of diversity interpolates one of the foundational principles of CP of valuing human diversity (Kloos et al., 2012; Rappaport, 1977). Feminist CP has embraced the need to examine intersections of gender and other forms of social oppression, and the complexities of position and privilege (Bond et al., 2000), as simply emphasising comparative dimensions of different groups may overlook these multifarious dynamics (Trickett, 1996). In its commitment to oppressed groups, feminist CP emphasises the importance of understanding the experiences of the oppressed, and holds that social phenomena should be viewed from the perspective of the margins of social hierarchies (Bond et al., 2000). Feminist standpoint theories highlight the ways in which our interpretations of reality are shaped by our social positions (Kingry-Westergaard & Kelly, 1990), and thus emphasises the role of positionality in generating knowledge, and foregrounds contextualist epistemological frameworks that support the recognition of subjective experiences. However, they also serve to go beyond contextualist epistemologies by highlighting the role of social power in determining which perspectives are most valued in society. Standpoint theories highlight the ways in which dominant forms of knowledge are created by those in positions of privilege, and how these forms of knowledge also affect the meanings that oppressed groups make about their own experiences (Bond et al., 2000).

The second of the special issues on feminist CP in the AJCP, titled *Methodological Issues and Challenges for a Feminist Community Psychology*, adopted a focus on the remaining four identified imperatives of a feminist CP, namely 4) the use of collaborative approaches, 5) the use of multi-method, multilevel analyses, 6) the use of reflective practices, and 7) the use of knowledge in promoting social change (Bond et al., 2000; Hill, Bond, Mulvey, & Terenzio, 2000). A collaborative approach reflects the establishment of a partnership between researcher and researched, altering traditional power differentials in this dynamic. Employing multi-method, multi-level research approaches calls for more complex research solutions to understanding community problems (Hill et al., 2000). An action-oriented research approach suggests that research should be the catalyst for activating social action (Swart & Bowman, 2007). This perspective draws on Marxist notions of praxis. Overall, the contributions to this volume highlighted the relationship between how

knowledge is gained and the types of realities that this knowledge is used to construct (Hill et al., 2000). This serves to emphasise the interconnectedness between what is known and how this knowledge is produced. The processes undertaken and methods used to produce knowledge are therefore central to a feminist CP, and have important ethical implications (Paradis, 2000). Feminism's emphasis on self-reflexivity also permits a more critical engagement with the role of the researcher than is typically found in CP scholarship (Cosgrove & McHugh, 2000; Mulvey et al,, 2000). In this process, notions of objectivity and subjectivity become indistinguishable with the recognition of the link between power and knowledge formation (Starr in Hill, Bond, Mulvey, & Terenzio, 2000). Collectively, the principles outlined in feminist CP set a particular agenda with specific coordinates for scrutinising power relations within scholarly work (Bond et al., 2000).

Swift, Bond and Serrano-García (2000) reviewed the contribution of scholarship in CP to women's empowerment and the prevention of adverse outcomes for women. This included examining women's family patterns, the experiences of women at work, the care of dependent family members, health and reproduction, and the experiences of women who are minorities, poor or homeless, or affected by violence (Swift et al., 2000). The authors concluded that despite the impact of the feminist movement on CP scholarship, most of the literature on women's concerns was individually focused. Multi-level analyses of the structural variables in society were largely absent, as was the recognition of the power imbalances that affect women's lives. The majority of feminist writing in CP failed to take issues of power into account, and a consciousness about issues of gender was poorly developed (Swift et al., 2000). Nevertheless, feminist writing has foregrounded the importance of examining gender as a crucial component of power (Bond & Mulvey, 2000). The most recent special issue on feminism in CP appeared in the JCP in 2011, titled *Feminist Community Psychology: The Dynamic Co-creation of Identities in Multi-layered Contexts*. This special issue was stimulated by the contributions at a SCRA 2009 symposium and developed to facilitate the "re-creation and co-creation" of feminist CP (Angelique & Mulvey, 2011, p. 1). The issue echoed the emphasis of some of the previous feminist work, such as the methodological importance of critical reflexivity (e.g. Reed et al., 2011), as well as multi-layered, intersecting and marginalised identities (e.g. Angelique, 2011; Wolfe, 2011), but it also included a focus on feminist pedagogy (e.g. St. Germaine-Small, 2012). Another interesting addition to this body of feminist research was the recognition and inclusion of global issues of identity and scholarship outside of the US, such as Ireland (Moane & Quilty, 2011) and Afghanistan (Brodsky, Portnoy, Scheibler, Weish, Talwar, & Carrillo, 2011).

In the last five years, a distinctive type of post-feminist work has arguably also emerged. Several contemporary scholars working in the area of gender have turned their attention to addressing the lack of systemic analysis of men and masculinity in CP (Wasco & Bond, 2010). In an edited special section of the AJCP on *A Community Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, Mankowski and Maton (2010) drew together a collection of articles seeking to address this gap within the literature. Mankowski and Maton (2010) argued that second wave feminism incorporates the critical analysis of masculinity. This perspective highlights the value of examining gendered dynamics from the vantage point of those in positions of power or privilege. Mankowski and Maton (2010) maintained that the interests of social justice and wellness are not only served by examining women's interests, but that CP scholarship needs to also look at expressions and manifestations of different forms of masculinity. Thus, these authors supported the notion that the construction of discrete domains of 'women's concerns', such as violence against women, is counterproductive in achieving equality and social justice. Men increasingly are being engaged to support initiatives against gender-based discrimination (Mankowski & Maton, 2010). This perspective holds that both women and men are damaged by unequal power relations premised on gender divides, and thus a focus on men and masculinity can ultimately aid a feminist agenda. However, this perspective can also be critiqued for re-centring masculinity, and thereby perpetuating patriarchal dominance.

The shifting concerns of feminist CP show that this tradition has moved through different phases in its analysis of power, and draws on different meta-theoretical influences. Initially this analysis has targeted issues of professional representivity in institutional structures and ownership of scholarship within academia in the US, largely nested within notions of a liberal democracy and drawn from traditions of liberal feminism. Structuralist feminist approaches to the conceptualisation of power differentials became gradually more prominent in the 1980s and 1990s. In more recent literature, there is more attention to intersecting and compounded forms of oppression among women (Angelique & Culley, 2000; 2003). Some research has focussed on the topics and methods that are definitive of this form of scholarship, the values that are supported, and the relevance of the types of groups that are studied. In general, the popularity of feminist notions of power in CP was stronger in the 1980s and 1990s, and has waned in the first decade of the 2000s. However, some interest in a feminist approach to CP has recently resurfaced, as well as some areas of research that have focused on men and masculinities.

2.5. Power in Writings on Oppression and Liberation

Another prominent area where the focus on power has emerged within CP is as part of the work on liberation and oppression, which draws from predominantly structuralist epistemologies. A liberatory approach is primarily concerned with how unjust political and social power structures shape, influence and disrupt the lives of collectives (Montero & Sonn, 2009). CP strives to promote wellness and eliminate the oppressive social conditions that create problems of living (Prilleltensky, 2001). Thus, addressing oppression and its effects are a priority. "Conditions of domination, exploitation, and oppression lead to many of the social and psychological problems that community psychologists struggle with" (Prilleltensky, 2001, p. 750). This places social justice at the forefront of a transformative CP agenda (Davidson et al., 2006). However, promoting social justice also threatens the interests of those in positions of greater power, who are invested in maintaining the status quo (Albee, 1981; 1982). Thus, working towards social justice presents a fundamental challenge to existing power relations. A social justice orientation has typically been part of the political rhetoric of CP. However, this has not always been followed through with the required transformative action (Prilleltensky, 2003). Indeed, in this regard, CP's bark may well be accused of being worse than its bite.

Several contemporary scholars, both internationally and locally, have attempted to re-introduce more politicised understandings of power relations, and argued for a CP that incorporates the mandate of liberation psychology, with its emphasis placed on social justice, social transformation and emancipation from oppression, exploitation and marginalisation (e.g. Carolissen & Swartz, 2009; Fisher & Sonn, 2007; Moane, 2006; 2008; Reyes Cruz & Sonn, 2011). A liberatory CP has predominantly been advocated by scholars in regions such as Latin America, Africa, the Caribbean, the UK, parts of Europe, as well as a limited grouping of community psychologists in the US (Watts & Serrano-García, 2003). On the whole, the liberation psychology approach has been more developed in contexts where manifestations of oppression, such as collective violence, poverty, discrimination and social exclusion, are prominent social features and where social oppression has been integral to social structures (Moane, 2008). Its origins are traced to paradigmatic shifts within Latin American social sciences in the second half of the twentieth century (Montero & Sonn, 2009). These changes included discussions about ideas related to the political and social movements in this region between the 1960s and mid-1980s, and the denunciation of forms of social and political oppression and exploitation (Montero & Sonn, 2009). Ignacio Martín-Baró (1996a; 1996b; 1996c; 1996d) is credited as the founder of a psychology of liberation, and stands out as one of the most significant and influential writers for his

development of a theoretical line of thought within CP. However, liberation psychology also secured its foothold in CP globally through the work of scholars such as Montero (1996; 2002a; 2002b), and is also found in several other branches of psychology and the social sciences (Montero & Sonn, 2009). The sustained development of the liberation tradition of scholarship in CP has continued to be particularly salient in Latin America.

Martín-Baró (1996b) used the name 'liberation psychology' to denote a distinctive new psychological approach, and is credited as its founder. As part of the foundational tenets of this approach in his initial writings, Martín-Baró (1996a; 1996b; 1996c; 1996d) argued that psychology should direct the search for ultimate truth towards the oppressed masses, devote itself to the problems of the oppressed and use its practice to transform people and society. Liberation psychology has a diverse epistemological basis, and typically draws on a wide range of work on the dynamics of oppression, including post-colonial theory (e.g. Fanon, 1952; 1963), feminist theory, classical Marxist theory, liberation theology and critical pedagogy (e.g. Freire, 1970; 1972; 1973). Within a liberatory framework, the analysis of social and political power is paramount, and theorists are primarily concerned with explicating the role of oppressive processes such as racism, sexism and colonisation in shaping psychosocial realities (Moane, 2006; Watts & Serrano-García, 2003). From a liberatory CP framework, suffering and oppression is linked to power imbalances that stem from material and ideological domination, as well as social and political exclusion. Therefore, a defining characteristic of a psychology of liberation is the emphasis that is placed on the analysis of social and political power (Watts & Serrano-García, 2003). Social power refers to the "control of one group over other groups and their members" (van Dijk, 2008, p. 9). This type of control is essentially control over the actions of others. If this control serves the interests of those who exercise power, and is against the interests of those who are being controlled, this constitutes power abuse (van Dijk, 2008). The social power of groups is conventionally defined "in terms of their preferential access to, or control over, specific material resources, such as capital or land, to symbolic resources such as knowledge, education, fame or to physical force" (van Dijk, 2008, p. 13). A liberatory CP is committed to developing theories and interventions that are aimed at transforming the asymmetric power relations that serve to perpetuate the status quo (Prilleltensky, 2003). The liberation psychology approach begins with an analysis of the structural or socio-political context of oppression. This is followed by an analysis of the internal psychological patterns that relate to these social conditions. Finally, theoretical insights about the external and internal dynamics are used to create transformation at both of these levels (Moane, 2008).

In CP literature, oppression has been conceptualised as both an outcome and a process. Prilleltensky (2003, p.195) argues that oppression as an outcome refers to "a state of asymmetric power relations characterised by domination, subordination, and resistance, whereby the controlling person or group exercise its power by processes of political exclusion and violence and by psychological dynamics of deprecation". Watts, Abdul-Adil, Griffith and Wilson (1996 in Watts, Griffith, & Abdul-Adil, 1999, p. 258) describe the oppression process as "the unjust exercise of power and the control of ideas and coveted resources in a way that produces and sustains social inequality". Drawing on the work of Fanon (1952; 1963), oppression represents the abuse of social or political power that is propagated through material violence and ideological violence (Bulhan, 1985; Watts et al., 2003). Material violence includes instances of physical coercion, threat or harm, the control of mobility, the denial of resources and the failure to uphold human rights. Ideological violence is perpetrated through belief structures and practices that promote racism, sexism, classism and heterosexism, and related ideologies that seek to denigrate groups designated as marginal (Watts et al., 2003). For Bulhan (1985) the dynamics of oppression permeate human interactions. Watts et al. (2003) highlight that oppression creates the binaries of oppressors and oppressed, which are "dialectically dependent" on one another. The existence of these groups is perpetuated through institutions and ideologies. A psychology of liberation gives primacy to the empowerment of the oppressed as a collective (Bulhan, 1985). Broadly speaking, a liberation approach seeks to confront both internal and external forms of oppression (Bulhan, 1985; Moane, 2003; Prilleltensky, 2008a). Establishing a critical consciousness is necessary in targeting oppression (Watts et al., 1999). As consciousness develops, so do one's understandings of the historical, social, political, cultural and economic coordinates of social asymmetry. Whilst addressing oppression is differentially viewed in the literature as both a process and goal, the same is true for its inverse. Liberation is therefore also both an outcome and process (Watts et al., 2003).

The most salient forms of oppression in the contemporary world are those related to primary structural disadvantage that is created along class, gender, and racial/ethnic lines (Bulhan, 1985; Ife & Tesoriero, 2006). However, there are many other forms of social marginalisation, including oppression on the basis of age, disability, nationality and sexual orientation (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006; Prilleltensky, 2003). These forms of oppression are also embedded within large-scale exploitative processes such as colonialism and current practices of globalisation (Prilleltensky, 2003). The task of liberatory CP involves directing energies towards working with those with the least power (Kagan & Burton, 2001). Indeed, this feature has led to CP being critiqued as being a repository for socially marginalised

identities, especially in racialised contexts like South Africa (Carolissen & Swartz, 2009). Marginality is, however, central to a liberation framework. There can be no emancipation without a definition of those who are excluded from exercising power and relegated to the margins of society. However, the notion of marginality is highly complex, often contested and is often anchored within particular socio-historical contexts (Sonn & Fisher, 2003).

The shift towards a psychology of the socially marginalised has been accompanied by political language that more effectively denotes the exterior coordinates of the power relations at play in constituting these groups. Watts and Serrano-García (2003) call for the focus on "disadvantage", "empowerment", "diversity" and "minorities" within mainstream US CP to be replaced by a focus on hegemonic domination, political repression, structural violence, and the dynamics of privilege. They have also argued that knowledge and practice should ultimately be geared towards promoting a critical consciousness among oppressed groups, as well as resistance to and emancipation from domination. This has introduced a different form of conceptual language within CP that constitutes the discourse of a liberation psychology (Moane, 2003). In this discourse, several concepts, such as social power, resistance, oppression, social justice, privilege, critical consciousness, and praxis, are instructive of the primary concerns of this approach. Whilst the conceptualisation of the dynamics between oppressors and oppressed groups have been fundamental to the work of Fanon (1952; 1963), Martín-Baró (1996a; 1996b; 1996c; 1996d) and other influential liberation scholars, contemporary formulations of oppression suggest a more nuanced view of power that moves beyond viewing it as a finite commodity may be informative. Others such as Sonn and Fisher (2000; 2003) have argued for an understanding of oppression that is not dichotomous but that exists on a continuum. A continuum of oppression accommodates a range of identity positions, as not all groups are oppressed to the same extent, and some are afforded partial privileges relative to others (Sonn & Fisher, 2003). They refer to the "in-betweenity" or "semi-oppression" of groups neither at the margins nor the centre of power. Sonn and Fisher (2003) further caution that a focus on the dynamics of power between groups may mask the reality of power differentials within groups. In a similar vein, Carolissen and Swartz (2009), suggest that unitary categories of group identity may conceal very complex hierarchies of power and oppression. Prilleltensky (2008a) holds that oppression has both political and psychological dimensions, which are mutually determined and inseparable. Thus, achieving liberation from oppression requires an analysis of oppressive social conditions as well as an understanding of the ways in which oppression is internalised (Moane, 2003). Prilleltensky (2008a) argues further that our understanding of power needs to recognise the dynamics of being both an oppressive and an oppressed group,

and how this can shift in different settings.

Several scholars have alluded to the need not only to focus on the perspective of groups that are oppressed, but that the agenda of liberation may be served through the study of groups that have power. This trend is evident in the recent shift to examining and critiquing notions of whiteness in critical race studies, especially by South African and Australian scholars (see Green, Sonn, & Matsebula, 2007; Matsebula, Sonn, & Green, 2007; Ratele, 2007; Stevens, 2007; Steyn, 2007), and was similarly noted in the focus on masculinity in feminist research (Mancowski & Maton, 2010). Some scholars, like Langa (2009) have explored complex intersections of social categories of power and powerlessness, like intersecting identity positions of masculinity within poor, black adolescents.

Regional dynamics have also entered the forefront of discussions about investigating the perspectives of oppression in different contexts. Watts et al. (2003) speculate that there may be qualitative differences in the magnitude and content of oppression that is experienced the US, in comparison to other countries, which has implications for a CP premised on understandings on oppression. How oppression is viewed links to conceptualisations of dominance and marginality, social and economic rights, and quality of life.

There is great variation in the ways that CP concepts like empowerment, as well as those of prevention and collaboration, have been connected to a liberation psychology approach. Empowerment has differentially been viewed as an outcome of liberatory efforts and as a process that leads to liberation (Watts & Serrano-García, 2003). As an outcome, the goals of both liberation psychology and CP strive for the achievement of empowerment and social transformation. From a broadly structuralist perspective, empowerment has been viewed as part of a wider agenda of social change that challenges primary structural forms of oppression (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006). Whilst Varas-Díaz and Serrano-García (2003) see commonalities between liberation psychology and empowerment in terms of assuming personal control of one's circumstances, other scholars have distanced their ideas of liberation from the empowerment agenda because of the latter's individualistic bias. The ideas contained in the notions of liberation psychology and empowerment theory are dealt with in overlapping and discrete ways in the CP literature. However, they represent some of the central, most long-standing ways in which power has been thought and written about, and formed the basis for the translation of understandings of power into a practice framework. However, there are several more recent concepts that have emerged in the CP literature that have further developed these theoretical concepts and their implications for

community praxis.

2.6. Power in Sociopolitical Development

Contemporary theoretical developments reflect renewed efforts to re-centre notions of power within the agenda of CP, and to reformulate the relationship between empowerment and social change. Amongst these, the theory of the stages of *socio-political development* (SPD) (Watts et al., 1999; Watts, Williams, & Jagers, 2003) is one illustration of an attempt to connect empowerment with the broader ideological agenda of liberation and resistance to oppression. Watts et al. (2003) argue that current conceptualisations of empowerment fail to provide an analysis of the ways in which social power produces and perpetuates social inequity or its psychological, spiritual and material sequelae. Watts et al. (2003) view SPD as a relevant concept for all people living within an oppressive society, but focus more on groups deemed to be oppressed. Watts and colleagues specifically created this theory drawing on their applied work with African American men.

The theory of socio-political development also draws on post-colonial theory (e.g. Fanon, 1952; 1963), critical pedagogy (e.g. Freire, 1970; 1972), and liberation psychology (e.g. Martín-Baró, 1996a; 1996b; 1996c; 1996d). Watts et al., (1999) contend that socio-political development is the antidote to oppression. In this theory, Watts et al. (1999; 2003) assert that SPD develops through a series of stages. The initial *acritical* stage is characterised by a lack of awareness of the social-political roots of social asymmetry, and a belief that the world is fair and just, with inequalities primarily attributed to perceived differences in the capabilities of groups. In the *adaptive* stage, social asymmetry is recognised, but it is viewed as unchangeable. In the *precritical* stage, adaptation to or accommodation of the asymmetry is questioned. This is followed by the *critical* stage, characterised by the desire for social inquiry into asymmetry, oppression, injustice and liberation. In conditions that support critical consciousness and social action, the transition to the *liberation* stage can be made. In this final stage, the experience and awareness of oppression is central. Adaptive actions are replaced by liberation behaviour of rudimentary awareness is seen as being underpinned by an immutable social system (Watts et al., 1999; 2003). Empowerment is relevant at different stages of this model. Stages 1 and 2 require a change of attitude in favour of assuming greater sense of agency. Empowerment is also relevant in the enactment of liberation of behaviours associated with the liberation stage. Watts et al. (2003) expand on their initial ideas about this theory by introducing a focus on the importance of transactional processes and the role of ecological settings, which suggest that the process of moving towards enhanced SPD is not a simple linear movement. Watts et

al. (2003) suggest that we view SPD as the culmination of transactions directed towards increased socio-political understanding and the capacity for action. While the stage theory has great political potential, the inclusion of a transactional, ecological component arguably detracts from its political potency.

Watts et al. (2003) suggest that community psychologists fundamentally need to reflect on the extent to which we acknowledge oppression in the lives of those we work with, and play a role in facilitating liberation from oppression. They also advocate further refinement of the theory of SPD through further empirical work. Watts et al. (1999) do acknowledge the limitations of a stage theory such as theirs, and argue that perhaps a dimensional model with these elements may be preferable with no fixed sequence or progression. For Prilleltensky (1990), the development of a critical consciousness involves the task of denunciating erroneous perceptions of the causes of oppression, which is not discussed in the model of SPD. Whilst Watts et al. (2003) primarily focus on the SPD of the oppressed, they highlight that further investigation into the SPD of oppressors is also warranted, in order to understand how it is that some people who are the beneficiaries of privilege come to ally with oppressed groups.

These authors did not intend the application of the theory of SPD to the development of a corpus of scholarly knowledge or processes of knowledge production, but conceptualised its relevance to so-called 'real' world groups and settings. However, the theory offers some potential insights into the current state of knowledge production in CP itself, as well as the divergent perspectives about the centrality of the role of power in being its primary focus. In extending the application of this theory of SPD to the stages of development in CP's history, perhaps it is timely to consider the level of SPD of the field as a whole. This would lead us to reflect on the extent to which a critical or transformative awareness of the role of oppression as a determinant of wellness is evident, in our research foci, theories and methods. It may also be worthwhile to consider differences in the level of SPD in CP, as well as in its global permutations. In addition, it is useful to consider the extent of SPD in the field's different epistemological branches, which show varied approaches to the conceptualisation of power and degree of politicisation. These range from the decidedly acritical preventionist and ecological theories, to the more precritical and critical perspectives within the difference perspectives on empowerment theory, and then the most radical liberation and radical feminist approaches. This is therefore a useful lens to apply to the analysis of knowledge production in CP, and links to notions of psychopolitical validity, another contemporary theoretical concept that engages with power.

2.7. Power in Psychopolitical Validity

Discussions of power in CP have also been reinvigorated by the introduction of the concepts of *psychopolitical literacy* and *psychopolitical validity* (Prilleltensky, 2003; Prilleltensky & Fox, 2007; Prilleltensky, 2008a). Prilleltensky (2003) introduced the concepts of *psychopolitical validity*, and *psychopolitical literacy*, in an attempt to thread through a connection between understandings of power and its relationship to wellbeing at the personal, relational and collective levels. Prilleltensky and Fox (2007) describe psychopolitical literacy as "people's ability to understand the relationship between political and psychological factors that enhance or diminish wellness and justice" (Prilleltensky & Fox, 2007, p. 801). This suggests a form of conceptual awareness, along the lines of Freire's (1970) concept of *conscientisation*. Prilleltensky and Fox (2007) proceed to define psychopolitical validity as "whether research and action to improve the human condition take these [psychological and political] factors into account" (Prilleltensky & Fox, 2007, p. 801). More specifically, psychopolitical validity denotes "the extent to which studies and interventions in the community integrate (a) knowledge with respect to the multidisciplinary and multilevel sources, experiences, and consequences of oppression, and (b) effective strategies for promoting psychological and political liberation in the personal, relational, and collective domains" (Prilleltensky 2003, p. 199).

Prilleltensky (2003) and Prilleltensky and Fox (2007) further distinguish between the concepts of *epistemic* psychovalidity and *transformational* psychovalidity. By epistemic psychovalidity, these authors are referring to "the extent to which studies of wellness and justice take into account both positive and negative political and psychological dynamics that affect personal, relational and collective needs" (Prilleltensky & Fox, 2007, p. 801). For Prilleltensky (2003) epistemic validity is reflected in the extent to which knowledge on oppression is incorporated into research and action. This refers to the acknowledgement of power dynamics operating at psychological and political levels in understanding and accounting for community phenomena (Prilleltensky, 2003). Thus, epistemic psychovalidity is premised around maintaining an awareness of the workings of power in developing our theories of knowledge about communities.

While epistemic psychovalidity concerns our understanding of psychopolitical dynamics of oppression, transformative validity is directed towards establishing the extent to which knowledge and action are directed toward liberation in the personal, interpersonal, and structural domains (Prilleltensky, 2003, p. 200). Transformational psychopolitical validity refers to "the extent to which interventions reduce the negative and strengthen the positive political and psychological forces contributing to wellness and justice"

(Prilleltensky & Fox, 2007, p. 802). Transformative validity establishes the imperative to ensure that political literacy and social change are part of all interventions, and thus underscores the position that interventions should seek to alter oppressive configurations of power (Prilleltensky & Nelson, 1997).

The concept of psychopolitical validity attempts to stimulate "an awareness of the role of power in wellness, oppression, and liberation at the personal, relational and collective domains" (Prilleltensky, 2008a, p. 129). Prilleltensky (2008) argues that power is simultaneously psychological and political, and that CP needs to link these dimensions in its conceptualisation of how power operates, in order to apply these understandings in different domains. For Prilleltensky (2008a), power is described as being both multifarious and omnipresent. He defines power as the combination between the capacity and opportunity to influence a course of events. Power can be exercised consciously or unconsciously by capacities and opportunities that are afforded by personal, social or historical circumstances (Prilleltensky, 2008a). Implicit in the notion of psychopolitical validity is the critique of the concept of empowerment (Speer, 2008). Speer (2008) views the concept of psychopolitical validity as "a call to link empowerment processes with power outcomes" (p. 211).

Psychopolitical validity provides a framework for analysing trends in both the generation of knowledge in CP, as well as forms of practice. As such, it is a mechanism for redirecting CP and creating social change not only in practice but also within the field itself (Fox, 2008). Prilleltensky's definition of power within his formulation of psychopolitical validity attempts to merge elements of agency and structural determinism (Fryer, 2008b). Such 'middle ground' epistemological territory has also been adopted by other writers within the community development sector, as it allows for the recognition of structural factors that determine power inequalities, but also contains the possibility of social transformation.

The concept of psychopolitical validity has also been critiqued on several accounts. It has been criticised for its tendency to focus on constructs such as wellness, which are linked to a biomedical epistemology, as well as falling in the trap of psychologising political processes (Fryer, 2008b). In this sense, the concept of psychopolitical validity is reductionistic, and reliant on a model of disease and health, that is individualistic in emphasis and its core constructs are simply extended to broader ecological levels. For Fryer (2008b, p. 243), the conceptualisation of psychopolitical validity is flawed in several respects:

> the notion of power recommended has been found to be ill-defined, circular, question-begging, problematic in terms of community psychology with its dependence on need satisfaction, rooted in an

> underlying interpersonal relationship model, infected with individualism and psychologism, and problematically stuck within the old debate of agency and structure

According to Fryer's (2008b) critique, Prilleltensky (2008) adopts a model of power that falls into similar traps that have been noted in many of the prior attempts to foreground conceptualisations of power in CP literature. Other critiques of the concept have also emerged on similar grounds. For Fisher and Sonn (2008), the concept of psychopolitical validity also reflects an unstipulated North American worldview, which premises the reification of individualism, and thus neglects an understanding of the role of cultural systems and differences in other regions. It therefore provides an oversimplification of the relationship between power and wellness operating at different levels in different contexts (Fisher & Sonn, 2008). This sentiment is echoed by Christens and Perkins (2008) who highlight the generality of the model and the need for a more developed contextualised focus in its levels of analysis. Reich, Pinkard and Davidson (2008) suggest that the model lacks the inclusion of a historical dimension for understanding how power has been exercised to promote and perpetuate oppression. These authors suggest that achieving epistemic psychopolitical validity is only possible if one considers the role of historical context in dynamics of oppression (Reich et al., 2008). Despite these critiques and its limitations, the concept of psychopolitical validity has been instrumental in resurfacing debates about power and oppression in contemporary CP literature (see Angelique et al, 2013). It represents one of the most contemporary formulations of power and has been utilised as a conceptual tool to stimulate theoretical discussions and applied community research on this issue (see Angelique, 2008; Lorion & McMillan; 2008; Nation, 2008).

2.8. Power in Post-Structuralism

The post-structural perspective on power and empowerment is rare within the CP literature. However, some scholars have argued that community psychologists that operate from a liberatory framework need to take greater cognisance of the ways in which we operate and engage with communities at the level of representational politics (Lykes, Terre Blanche, & Hamber, 2003). At this level, the post-structuralist emphasis on discursive dimensions of power is instructive (Fisher et al., 2007). The post-structuralist view of power focuses on the ways in which power is understood, the use of language in defining relations of power and domination, the definition, construction and accumulation of knowledge, and the subjective experience of power (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006). Power is exercised through the control of discourse and the construction of particular forms of knowledge that maintain relations of power. From this perspective, empowerment is a process of challenging dominant

discourses. However, in general, the post-structuralist perspective on power in CP is far less developed than its structuralist counterpart, and tends to surface rather fleetingly in theoretical discussions, rather than being a sustained line of theoretical expansion. Some evidence of a post-structuralist emphasis can be found in feminist CP scholarship (e.g. Bertram et al., 2000; Cosgrove & McHugh, 2000), as well as in some forms of writing in liberation CP (e.g. Reyes Cruz & Sonn, 2011).

Other theories utilised in CP include classic Marxist theory (e.g. Hamber, Masilela, & Terre Blanche, 2001), social constructionist theory (e.g. Beyer, Du Preez, & Eskell-Blokland, 2007), psychoanalytic and psychodynamic theory (e.g. Swartz, Gibson, & Gelman, 2002) and African cosmology (e.g. Diale & Fritz, 2007; Mokwena, 2007). The presence of these theories in CP literature suggests possible attempts to bring new epistemological perspectives to bear on community phenomena and also represent sites where ideological tensions play out. On the one hand, the use of these theories could be seen as representing a type of theoretical innovation. On the other, it can be seen as departing from the main models endorsed by the field. In this way, dynamics exist between accepted forms of knowledge in CP and those that need to be sanctioned.

3. Rappaport's Leap

The divergent ways in which power has been approached among scholars in CP is exemplary of the competing agendas and ideological tensions within the arena of knowledge production. The introduction of contemporary ideas about conceptualising power has fuelled both praise and a string of critiques about the deficits of the field and contention in debates about its future trajectory. Often, one finds that the CP literature reflects a circular engagement with the same dilemmas over time; that the relationship between power and epistemology is unclear, or that there are multiple competing epistemologies; and that despite its valiant intentions, it has struggled to rid itself of the faults of psychology. In the last decade, a more radical voice has begun to emerge in CP scholarship, which has generated some speculation as to an appropriate future direction for CP. Rappaport (2000) suggests it is perhaps time for CP to let go of its individualistic bias and sever itself from its attachment to individualistic psychological concepts and the ideology of victim blaming. Following Rappaport (2000), Smail suggests that there is some consensus that CP is "teetering on the edge of a conceptual precipice, contemplating the dangers and difficulties of launching itself into the void" (Smail, 2001, p. 159). Smail (2001) argues that placing power at the heart of our understandings of how psychological distress is created is a promising start. Smail (2001) openly calls for a de-psychologising of CP. However,

following this path will lead community psychologists to confront difficult questions about the contribution of psychology to confronting social ills (Smail, 2001). When we accept that power influences what we do, we have to adopt a doubting attitude towards the social goals of our activities as psychologists (Smail, 2001). We also need to acknowledge the challenge to revolutionise our thinking about the relationship between social phenomena and human distress. Hagan and Smail (1997b) argue that power exercised over people is "the most central ingredient of distress and yet has consistently been overlooked or obscured in theories of mental health" (p. 269), and is as central to individual mental health as it is to the workings of society (Hagan & Smail, 1997a). These authors maintain that CP is one of the only approaches in psychology to seriously consider social power, but that CP often strays from a material appreciation of power towards psychological formulations of power like empowerment (Hagan & Smail, 1997a). For Smail (2001), abandoning the familiar language of psychology as an explanatory repertoire is a daunting task for community psychologists that stems from a fear that losing this vocabulary will perhaps leave us with little to say. This is perhaps compounded by the inadequacy of our social theorising in comparison to other disciplines with which we share concerns. He argues that internal experiences that emerge in psychological literature, or as he puts it "senses of this and that" (e.g. sense of power, sense of control, sense of mastery), should be viewed as "phenomena which the operations of power in the external world give rise to" (Smail, 2001, p. 165). By this, he suggests that community psychologists abandon 'interior' psychological theories for 'exterior' theories, whose fundamental concepts are material, social, historical and environmental. In this analytic framework, power should be the fundamental explanatory construct (Smail, 2001, p. 165). This notion is underpinned by the belief that power is "the medium of our social existence, the dynamic which moves the apparatus of our relations with each other" (Smail, 1995, p. 348). In psychology, power represents "the real repressed, that aspect of our relations which we veil most discretely" (Smail, 1995, p. 348). Similarly, scholars like Angelique and Culley (2007), Angelique et al. (2013) and Fisher and Sonn (2007) call for the intentional analysis of social power to ensure a critical perspective endures in the field's growth and development.

4. Conclusion

Concern about the marginal presence of power in CP theory and practice has been evident for some time (Fisher & Sonn, 2007). Historically, CP has grappled with different ways of introducing notions of power, which have emerged in the development of empowerment,

liberation, feminist, and post-structuralist approaches to thinking about and understanding power, and their manifestation in more contemporary theoretical concepts. More recently, several key international conferences and meetings have been strategic in bringing greater concentration on issues of the nature and role of power in CP (Fisher & Sonn, 2007). Whilst, contemporary discussions about power suggest widespread approval for the need to address issues of power, a consensual and coordinated approach for pursuing this trajectory has been lacking. In certain instances, the call for a more radical approach to conceptualising power in CP has been halted by views that have advocated a more tempered perspective in which the baby is not thrown out with the bathwater. However, the need for a more power-centric CP is unquestionable. Understandings of power need to be more clearly articulated and more systematic approaches to analysing how power operates are pivotal (Fisher & Sonn, 2007). Within this broader agenda, the need for an understanding of how power operates is not only necessary in its application to communities, but is also necessary in its application to processes that shape knowledge production about communities and about CP. To this end it is important to recognise that the workings of power exist not only in the 'real world' but also in contexts where we write about and represent that 'real world'. The production of scholarly knowledge in CP is not immune from re-inscribing and reinforcing unjust power relations and the interests of dominant social groups.

Chapter 5

International Studies of Published Work in Community Psychology

1. Introduction

The discussion of knowledge production presented in the previous chapter forms the background for examining the findings of empirical knowledge production studies in CP internationally. This chapter focuses specifically on reviewing the methods and findings of existing studies of knowledge production in international journals of CP. The chapter highlights the time periods investigated, the foci and data sources of existing international studies of published work. It highlights the central findings and the most salient contributions that each study has made to the understanding of knowledge production in CP, and maps the historical progression of these studies. It also presents the dominant themes that have emerged from this collection of studies as a whole, and provides a critical commentary on this collective work, foregrounding areas of greater focus and areas of omission that can be identified. This serves to situate the current study within the broader body of empirical research to which it belongs.

2. Empirical Studies of International Journals

In CP internationally, content analysis has largely been the method of choice for categorising various publication features, such as the types of articles written, the preferred topics, the theories and methods chosen, as well as the characteristics of authors. The observations generated from these studies have then been used to track and reflect on the identity, goals and values of the field since the first journals of CP, namely the AJCP and the JCP, were established in 1973. The studies that have empirically investigated the nature of knowledge production in the CP journals have included studies on the JCP, the AJCP and to a lesser extent, the *Community Mental Health Journal* (CMHJ) and the *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* (JASP). Knowledge production studies in CP have heavily focused on analyses of US publications, which include the work of Angelique and Culley (2000; 2003), Angelique et al. (2013), Bernal and Enchautegui-de-Jesus (1994), Boyd (2014), Boyd and Angelique (2002), Duncan (1991b), Graham and Ismail (2011), Gutierrez (2010), Loo et al. (1988), Lounsbury, Cook, Leader, Rubeiz and Meares (1979), Lounsbury et al. (1980), Lounsbury, Roisum, Pokorny, Sills and Meissen (1979), Luke (2005), Martin et al. (2004), McClure et al. (1980), Novaco and Monahan (1980), and Speer et al. (1992) (Refer to Appendix B Table B1 for a summary of the datasets, time-frames, focus and

methods of each of these studies). However, studies of this nature that analyse datasets from the first decade of the 2000s have been particularly scarce.

In examining the existing international empirical trend analysis studies of US journals more closely, these can be broadly categorised into two sub-types. The first of these are those that review general publication trends such as trends in article type, the topics of articles, the methods employed and the characteristics of authors. These studies typically observe the features of published work over a comparatively shorter time period of two to twelve years. The studies by Duncan (1991b), Graham and Ismail (2011), Lounsbury et al., (1979a), Lounsbury et al. (1979b), Lounsbury et al. (1980); Luke (2005); McClure et al. (1980), Martin et al. (2004), Novaco and Monahan (1980), and Sasao and Yasuda (2007) all fall within this category. Most of these studies have focused on journal data from the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s, and have been written by authors in the US. The exceptions within this grouping are the study by Graham and Ismail (2011) and Sasao and Yasuda (2007). Graham and Ismail (2011) report on trends in the JCP, as an independent preliminary study to this research, and authored by South Africans. The study by Sasao and Yasuda (2007) provides an analysis of trends in CP within Japanese CP publications only, and not of mainstream CP journals.

The second grouping of empirical trend analyses focusing on US journals reviews specific areas of focus, using changes over time as a major variable in their analysis. These have typically shown interest in issues of diversity and the representation of marginalised groups stratified along ethnic, cultural and gendered lines (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2000; Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus, 1994; Loo et al., 1988). More recently, studies have begun to consider diversity in terms of intersecting identities and multiple forms of social exclusion (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2003; Gutierrez, 2010; Shirley, 2010), as well as the representation of social power (Angelique et al., 2013). These studies with more specific foci tend to span a longer time period of 20 to 37 years. Most of these studies have focused solely on data from the 1970s to the 1990s (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2000; 2003; Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus, 1994; Loo et al., 1988). The most recent studies of this variety are those unpublished Masters studies by Gutierrez (2010) and Shirley (2010). Gutierrez (2010) included data from the 1970s to the 2000s. The study by Shirley (2010) examined a dataset from 1990 to 2009, and was supervised by the author as a complementary study to this one.

Beyond the studies of knowledge produced in the mainstream US CP journals, two further studies by Davidson et al. (2006) and Shruijer and Stephenson (2010) were identified that have made relevant contributions to understanding trends in published work. Davidson et al. (2006) present an interdisciplinary empirical analysis of journals in critical

theory outside of psychology and relate their findings to the development of CP. This study has relevance due to its focus on knowledge intersections with CP, which highlights that this occurs not only within the confines of psychology but also inter-disciplinarily. Shruijer and Stephenson (2010) present an analysis of selected publication trends in the JCASP. This article represents more of a review article or historical commentary than an empirical study, but has some empirical aspects. It also contains a rare focus on community and applied social psychology from a UK/European-based perspective that distinguishes it from the US tradition. Whilst the foci and approach of these articles have deviated slightly from the general thrust of empirical studies in this field, they are included in this review due to the relevance of their contributions in a relatively sparse landscape of empirical knowledge production studies emanating outside of a US dominated tradition. The section that follows presents the key findings and emerging debates raised by general empirical trend analyses of the content and methods of published work in CP internationally. This provides a perspective of how the field is defined through the lens of knowledge production studies.

3. The Content and Method Choices of Published Work

The focus on describing the subject matter of published articles has been a popular focus in empirical studies of knowledge production trends in CP. For Loo et al. (1988), the increased publication of particular types of content suggests an increase in a field's level of commitment to a knowledge domain (Loo et al., 1988). From this perspective, subject choice reflects the prioritisation of particular content areas over others. Examining trends over time thus has the potential to highlight shifts within content areas over time. These shifts are interpreted as being suggestive of a changing socio-political climate or changes within the sub-discipline of CP itself.

3.1. Content and Methods in the 1960s and 1970s

One of the first studies of knowledge production relevant to CP was that of Lounsbury et al. (1979b) of articles in the *Community Mental Health Journal* (CMHJ) from 1965-1977. Community mental health is a field with permeable boundaries that overlap with CP, in that it focuses on resolving mental health problems in community settings (Lounsbury et al., 1979b). This study did not investigate knowledge production in a dedicated CP journal per se as these were not yet established, but reflects on published work at the time in which CP was emerging. The general thrust of journal content in the CMHJ in this study focussed on organising mental health service delivery and mental health systems, and evaluating their effectiveness (Lounsbury et al., 1979b). The most common topics were on *general*

conceptualisation of community mental health (10.3%), *consultation* (8.3%), *administrative issues and personnel concerns* (7.9%), the *role of professionals* in community mental health (7.6%) and *training* imperatives (7.6%) (Lounsbury et al., 1979b). This study found that topics increasing over the 12-year time period were found in the areas of *training* (e.g. mental health service providers, students, volunteers), *measurement and research methodology* (e.g. test and scale development), and *intervention* (e.g. institutional intervention, non-institutional intervention and crisis intervention) (Lounsbury et al., 1979b).

The earliest empirical analyses of trends in published research within dedicated CP journals were those conducted by Lounsbury et al. (1979a; 1980) and Novaco and Monahan (1980). These studies reported on independent analyses of similar published work that emerged in the decade after the establishment of the AJCP and JCP. These studies focused predominantly on ascertaining the nature of the topics, theories and research methods favoured in published research, as well as the degree of synergy with the stated mandate of the fledgling field of CP.

Lounsbury et al. (1979a) selected a random subset of articles in the AJCP and JCP between 1973 and 1977. This study identified that 37% of the topics dealt with *social systems*, such as the mental health, educational or criminal justice systems; 24% focussed on *specific problems or issues*, including work-related concerns, adjustment issues, and substance-related topics. A further 16% concerned *human resources* (e.g. professional training, capacitation); as well as 11% on *measurement and research methodology*, 8% that centred on *definitions of CP;* and the remaining 19% related to *other* topics (Lounsbury et al., 1979). The study found that most articles (33%) comprised *policy research*, and 25% were *evaluated programmes*. The large majority of their subjects (59%) had an identified psychological problem, and 33% of these were sourced from a mental health centre, clinic or hospital (Lounsbury et al., 1979a). Futher to this, approximately one half of the articles assessed psychological variables measuring personality or adjustment, and one third measured attitudes and interests. Overall, Lounsbury et al. (1979a) further found that most of the studies focused on the effects of social systems on individual functioning, examining the effects of programmes, policies and interventions on psychological variables among mentally ill populations. The salient topics identified in this study reflect issues related to establishing the boundaries of CP, the training imperatives for emerging community psychologists, a broader conceptual understanding of mental illness and a set of interventions to improve the situation of the mentally ill (Lounsbury et al., 1979a). This shows significant overlap with the concerns identified in Lounsbury et al. (1979b). These

trends echo the priorities in the US to which the emergent field of CP was responsive, such as the decentralisation of mental health services and the associated training of psychologists based in communities instead of hospitals (Kloos et al., 2012; Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001), and a focus on environmental systems, and mental health and illness. However, there was a notable scarcity of socially orientated topics (Lounsbury et al., 1979a).

Novaco and Monahan (1980) also examined published work over the years 1973 to 1978, but focused solely on identifying trends in the AJCP, arguing that this journal was the most influential. This study differed in its methodology in that it utilised all of the articles published during this time period in its dataset, as well as in terms of its focus on the *conceptual and procedural structure* of this research. The study proceeded to analyse the research interests and the methods that were selected by the first community psychologists to pursue these interests (Novaco & Monahan, 1980). This included investigating the type or form of articles that were being published, as part of an endeavour to sketch the processes underway in accumulating a theoretical and empirical knowledge base. These authors also judged each article on its *level of theoretical linkage*; its *programmatic structure*; its assertion of central *hypotheses*; its choice of *institutional setting* and its *procedural focus*; its *prevention* orientation; and whether the emphasis was placed on the *deficits* and/or *competencies* of the subjects utilised (Novaco & Monahan, 1980). Of the studies analysed in this article, 51.8% used an experimental design, comprising one-off assessments or correlational analyses, with no comparison or controls and no linkages to an intervention. Less than a third of published studies were directly linked to a specific theory (29.7%), and of these, most were related to prevention (87.4%). A large proportion of studies (29.9%) addressed neither strengths nor deficits of their subjects, but it was noted that the proportion of deficit-focused research had declined over time (Novaco & Monahan, 1980). The majority of studies focused on micro-level variables at the expense of investigating environments or person-environment interactions (Novaco & Monahan, 1980). Novaco and Monahan (1980) concluded that published work in the early years of CP lacked a sound theoretical foundation, and tended to be methodologically unsophisticated when rated against the traditional ideals of empiricism. However, these authors also raised some debate over the appropriateness of the empiricist agenda.

Shortly thereafter, Lounsbury et al. (1980) presented an analysis of all of the articles published in this same five-year time period, in both the AJCP and JCP. Similar topic trends were identified as were reported in Lounsbury et al. (1979a) and Lounsbury et al. (1979b), with most studies being related to *general social systems* (44%), *specific issues* (44%) *provision of human resources* (18%) and *measurement and research methodology* (15%).

Other important trends noted were that subjects were drawn more frequently from mental health centres and the general community, and less so from schools, mental health hospitals and prisons. Of the studies, most were field studies (58%). The majority did not articulate a specific hypothesis (71%), but there was an increase noted in the presence of descriptive reporting and the use of more stringent significance testing over the time period under investigation. These early studies present divergent views of the success of CP in meeting its rhetoric and stated goals, with Novaco and Monahan (1980) presenting a far less favourable view of the early development of the field compared with Lounsbury et al. (1979a; 1980).

3.2. Content and Methods in the 1980s

In the decade that followed, Speer et al. (1992) investigated the content and methods of published work in the AJCP and JCP over the period 1984-1988 and compared these trends to those reported by Lounsbury et al. (1980). Articles categorised as dealing with *specific problem areas or issues* showed a substantial increase of 27% (Speer et al., 1992). Of these, the most notable was the 22% increase in studies that focused on *social support* and the 11% increase in studies related to *prevention* (Speer et al., 1992). Speer et al. (1992) also found that there was a 4% increase in articles on *measurement and methodology* related to methodological criticisms of published work in CP. At the same time, there was a 32% decrease in articles on mental health systems and a 7% decrease in topics related to the *provision of human resources*, as well as decreass in articles related to *attitudes/beliefs about mental illness* (12%) and *drugs and alcohol* (9%). Duncan (1991b) also investigated topic trends in the AJCP and JCP in the 1980s, but looked at a much shorter time period of 1988-1989, and compared these to the topics found in health psychology journals. Duncan (1991b) reported that the most common topics in CP journals were *social support* (16.2%), *prevention* (15.6%), and *stress* (12.3%). Duncan (1991b) further reported that distinct differences were found in the subject matter of the two CP journals investigated. The AJCP was more focussed on the topics of *prevention* (20.9%), *social support* (20.9%) and *children* (12.4%), whereas the JCP focussed more on the topics of *community* (20.3%), *stress* (14.9%) and *women* (12.2%) in the time period investigated.

Speer et al. (1992) also found important methodological changes in CP publications. There was a surge of 20% in the use of subjects from the general community and a decline of almost 20% in the use of subjects from mental health centres, clinics and hospitals. The reporting of hypotheses declined by a further 29%, and a decrease of 28% was found in the use of control or comparison groups. The proportion of field studies increased from 58% to

73%, whilst field experiments decreased from 39% to 22%. Speer et al. (1992) concluded that these results reflected broader changes in the social context. Increases in research within general community settings showed a commitment to those affected by pressing social problems and who are "very often poor, minority or powerless populations" (Speer et al., 1992, p. 207). Overall, this study suggested that a paradigmatic shift away from the quantitative/experimental research towards a naturalistic/qualitative research was evident in CP – a shift that echoed the chronology of methodological changes from the 1970s to the 1980s identified by Patton (1990) towards adopting a 'paradigm of choice'. Speer et al. (1992) concluded that gains in knowledge with social relevance are offset against losses in scientific rigour.

3.3. Content and Methods in the 1990s and Beyond

Martin et al. (2004) investigated trends in the AJCP from 1993-1998 – a further decade ahead of the previous analysis of journal articles for content and method trends. This study focused on examining the theoretical principles and methods used to define CP. The findings were compared to those of Lounsbury et al. (1980) and Speer et al. (1992) using similar coding categories. The authors also investigated the representation of theoretical concepts of *social action, diversity and cultural relativity* and *person-environmental fit* and provided general reflections on the contribution of the journal to enhancing community life. Martin et al. (2004) found that topics related to *personality, adjustment, mental health, stress, anxiety and coping* had decreased to 20.2%, whilst topics related to *achievement, learning, knowledge, skills and empowerment* had increased to 15.3%. Martin et al. (2004) argued that there was an increase in social action, suggestive of a strengthening in the translation of this strand within the field's publications. They found that articles classified as 'social action' accounted for the largest proportion of published articles, which included societal challenges and contextual factors, as well as human resource factors - referring here to empowerment and primary prevention. Martin et al. (2004) further noted an increase in articles that delat with diversity and cultural relativity, but found a declining interest in person-environmental fit.

Relative to Lounsbury et al. (1980) and Speer et al. (1992), Martin et al. (2004) reported a marked increase in publications dealing with *specific problem areas or issues* (82%). Certain topics, like *HIV/AIDS, violence/victimisation* and *prevention,* were sufficiently prominent to be coded as independent categories for the first time (Martin et al., 2004). Furthermore, the study found that articles related to research methodology and *community development* had increased. By contrast, articles dealing with *mental health*

services and the *provision of human resources* had declined (Martin et al., 2004). The study further confirmed that there have been substantial changes in the preferred research designs in published work, with shifts in popularity from experimental designs in Lounsbury et al. (1980), to correlational designs in Speer et al. (1992), and then towards quasi-experimental research in Martin et al. (2004). Martin et al. (2004) also reported that qualitative studies formed 19% of articles from 1993-1998. These authors concluded that these trends signalled the increasing methodological diversity of the field (Martin et al., 2004).

A decade later, two studies examined the content and methods in CP. The first, by Sasao and Yasuda (2007), set out to compare content and method trends in the JJCP from 2003-2007, with the results previously obtained by Lounsbury et al. (1980), Speer et al. (1992) and Martin et al., (2004), using the same coding framework as these studies, but a later timeframe. The emphasis in this study was on obtaining a US-Japanese comparison of CP content and methods. Results for the choice of research design showed *correlational* designs were used in preference to mixed method designs, showing greatest similarity with the results obtained for the mid-1980s by Speer et al. (1992), than with more recent trends found for the mid-1990s by Martin et al. (2004). In contrast to the previous studies, Sasao and Yasuda (2007) found that more than half of the studies in the JJCP were conducted in academic or scholastic settings (51.5%), which was approximately double the proportion constituted by these settings in the other studies. *Social support* (19.5%), *work adjustment* (22.0%) and *individual adjustment* (24.3%) were the most common topics in the JJCP. The focus on *prevention* found to be prominent in the previous trends analyses was absent in the JJCP. The study also found a preference for epistemologies related to person-environment fit (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007). A shortfall of this study is that the results of the JJCP are not compared to trends in US journals within the same time frame. Thus, the study shows the current state of scholarly work in Japanese CP, but compares these to past trends in US journals.

The second study in this decade, by Ismail (2008) included analysis of the trends in article type, content and methods in the JCP alone from 2003-2007. This study formed one of two supervised research projects that were complementary studies of this thesis that included independent data analysis, but drew on aspects of the conceptual and methodological framework provided by this study. The second of these projects by Shirley (2010) is reported later. Selected aspects of the study by Ismail (2008) were subsequently refined and published by Graham and Ismail (2011). Graham and Ismail (2011) found that most articles were *empirical* studies (61.2%), and most used a *positivist* methodology (53.7%). The use of action-oriented or applied community research methods was relatively

scarce (6.2%). Unlike the previous three analyses of topics and methods, topics were generated inductively from the dataset. The most frequent topics on published research were *mental health and mental illness* (33.5%); *sense of community and social support* (24.4%) and *dynamics of social exclusion* (22.7%), which echo the previous topics found to be most common. A limitation of this study is its selection of only one journal in which to investigate contemporary trends in CP.

Luke (2005) pursued the methodological aspects of CP in the AJCP, and assessed the extent to which research designs and analytic methods were consistent with the field's emphasis on contextualism. This study compared data from articles published between two periods, twenty years apart (1981-1983 and 2001-2003). The article found a marked decrease in the publication of empirical articles from 88% to 56%, and an increase in articles using qualitative methods from 4% to 17% (Luke, 2005). Principally exploring the use of statistical practices in published articles, Luke (2005) argues that researchers in CP utilise a narrow range of traditional statistical techniques that are not well-suited to capturing the complexities of contextual factors. The study advocates that research can be enhanced in capturing diversity in communities through the inclusion of a more diverse and sophisticated range of statistical modelling methods, including cluster analysis, multilevel modelling, GIS and network analysis (Luke, 2005).

Overall, the empirical studies of knowledge production have raised several debates about an appropriate focus for CP, as well as the choice of theories and the research methods that accompany them. These have highlighted conceptual and methodological tensions. The section that follows highlights the core debates that emerge from these studies.

4. Conceptual Debates in Studies of International Journals

4.1. Debates about Theory

Graham and Ismail (2011) included an examination of the major theoretical approaches in CP in their categorisation of article topics. Unlike Martin et al. (2004), Graham and Ismail (2011) coded *prevention* and *social action* as independent theoretical approaches. This study found that articles with a *prevention* orientation were by far the most common, followed by those focusing on *diversity*. The social action strand, represented by themes such as citizen participation, empowerment, conscientisation, and transforming social structures, was under-represented compared to other areas of theory (Graham & Ismail, 2011). Related to this trend, the analysis by Davidson et al. (2006) empirically investigated

features of knowledge production in critical theory journals from allied disciplines that focused on notions of social action and power. These authors attempted to distil areas of synergy between critical theory and CP by investigating existing critical theory studies and extracting their relevance to CP. Davidson et al. (2006) concluded that CP is more action-oriented than critical scholarship, but that its actions generally fall short of being transformative of the status quo by challenging institutional power structures in society. As such, CP still has much to learn concerning the application of critical theory insights (Davidson et al., 2006). This seems to confirm the underdevelopment of social action epistemologies and socially transformative interventions within published work in CP journals. In line with Martin et al. (2004), Graham and Ismail (2011) found that comparatively fewer studies focused on broader ecological systems beyond the family and school levels, suggesting a poorer presence of epistemologies related to person-environmental fit. By contrast Sasao and Yasuda (2007), showed that prevention was absent in Japanese CP publications. The preference for person-environment fit in this country was linked to the cultural emphasis on the importance of the work context in Japan (Sasao & Yasuda, 2007). Luke (2005) also raises the discrepancy between the value of contextual embeddedness and diversity in CP, and its translation into the methodological choices in empirical studies. These studies add evidence to debates about the choice of an appropriate epistemology for CP, and how this links to the contextual features of countries in which knowledge is generated. Whilst Toro (2005) argues for a necessarily multifarious group of theoretical strands in CP, studies of knowledge production have consistently shown that certain epistemologies are better represented than others.

4.2. Debates about the Representation of Social Issues

The shifting and disproportionate representation of social issues in published work has also emerged as an important area of focus with regard to the content of articles. When examining the presence of social issues over time, it is evident that social issues related to drugs and alcohol and criminal justice were evident from the earliest studies by Lounsbury et al. (1979a; 1979b; 1980) but emerged more prominently in the past decade than in previous time periods. For example, in Graham and Ismail (2011), specific social issues were some of the most prominent content areas. *Violence and abuse* was the best represented (14.2%), followed by *substance use and abuse* (7.4%), *sexual outcomes and HIV/AIDS* (4.1%), and *crime and fear of crime* (3.3%). Whilst substance abuse and crime have been consistent foci in published work in CP, the social issue of *violence/victimisation* and *HIV/AIDS* only emerged as standalone content areas in the study by Martin et al.

(2004). Interestingly, the focus on articles related to substance abuse seems to have fluctuated in published work. Only 2% of articles were on *drug and alcohol abuse* in Lounsbury (1979b); 5% in Lounsbury (1979a); 11% in Lounsbury et al. (1980); and 2% in Speer et al. (1992). Thus, more contemporary research shows a slight increase in articles of this nature than was the case 20 years ago.

4.3. Debates about Methodology

From the various studies that have investigated methodological trends in published work, it is evident that there have been significant shifts in the methods of choice over the past few decades. Whilst most of the trend analyses have identified an over-reliance on the traditional scientific approach to research, this was far more prominent in the earliest studies of knowledge production (e.g. Lounsbury et al., 1980; Novaco & Monahan, 1980). Speer et al. (1992) initially identified the increased use of qualitative research methods with a view to capturing contextual complexity. More recent studies (e.g. Graham & Ismail, 2011; Luke, 2005; Martin et al., 2004) have continued to identify the dominance of traditional scientific studies that use quantitative research methods. However, Luke (2005) questions the appropriateness of choices of statistical tools in these studies. There has been an increase in the use of qualitative methods and multi-method designs (Martin et al., 2004). For instance, Martin et al. (2004) identified that 19% of studies in their dataset employed qualitative methodologies, which is a similar proportion to the findings of Luke (2005). Most recently, Graham and Ismail (2011) reported that 29% of empirical articles in the JCP were *interpretive* studies, 10.8% were *critical* studies and 6.2% used *applied* research methods.

From this, it appears that published work has increasingly reflected that community psychologists are making use of all available research paradigms (i.e. positivist, interpretive and critical) and their inherent methodologies if and when they are appropriate to the particular community-related issue that is of interest (Swart & Bowman, 2007). Within South African literature, crossing paradigms and adopting a methodologically pluralist approach has been viewed as a valuable characteristic of research in CP (Bhana & Kanjee, 2001; Stevens, Seedat, Swart, & van der Walt, 2003), although when examining studies of knowledge production over the past four decades, it is evident that this approach has not been consistently evident within the arena of international published work. Some writers have argued that an interpretive or contextualist framework is most appropriate for CP (e.g. Kelly, 2006; Kingry-Westergaard & Kelly, 1990; Trickett, 2009; Tolan et al., 1990), whilst others have advocated for the use of a more critical paradigm (e.g. Kagan et al., 2011; Rappaport, 1990; Seedat et al., 2004). Debates about an appropriate methodological

approach are ongoing and linked to the preferred theoretical frameworks.

4.4. Debates about the Relationship between Research and Action

Another related theme that has emerged in the consideration of epistemological and methodological issues is the relationship between research and action in CP. Within the field, research and action are inextricably linked, with community psychologists adopting a middle-ground position in the scientist-practitioner ideological divide (Davidson et al., 2006; Newbrough, 1992). This position is embodied within the concept of community praxis, which refers to the action-reflection-action cycle of community intervention. The commitment to achieving synergy between theory and practice is articulated explicitly in the mandate of some CP journals such as the JCASP, which encourages the use of participatory methodologies, and the promotion of scholarly publications from practitioners (Schruijer & Stephenson, 2010).

As early as Swampscott, it was noted that the contributions of academic and 'real world' (applied) community psychologists were complementary and would strengthen the field (Wolff & Swift, 2008). 'Real world' community psychologists work outside the academic world and display a commitment to working with the real communities they serve at both governmental and non-governmental sites (Wolff & Swift, 2008). Lounsbury et al. (1980) initially investigated authorship characteristics and reported that most empirical studies (75%) were collaborative, and the vast majority involved academic researchers (62%). Subsequently, Speer et al. (1992) found that there was also an increase of 16% in collaboration among authors, and that authorship among authors affiliated to academic institutions had increased by 20% to 82%. Martin et al. (2004) relate the growing collaboration between authors to shifts in funding policies, which have tightened research networks. Martin et al. (2004) also found that most contributors to the AJCP were academics (81%) rather than being affiliated to community organisations, with little shift in the proportion of authors they represented. However, most of this research was conducted in community settings (Martin et al., 2004). The dominance of academics in published work has led authors such as Speer et al. (1992) to question the appropriateness of the scientist-practitioner model in CP.

Graham and Ismail (2011) approach this debate from a different angle. These authors noted that the use of action-oriented or applied research methods in empirical studies was scarce. Graham and Ismail (2011) argue that this signals that the increase in academic scholarship has been accompanied by the use of traditional research methods, instead of participatory approaches. This suggests that research is being conducted for

traditional scientific or academic purposes. This departs from approaches that argue research in CP should be a tool for establishing relationships with communities, participation, reciprocal influence, inclusiveness and community transformation (e.g. Brodsky, Senuta, Weiss, Marx, Loomis, Artega et al., 2004). Thus, this suggests that published work is becoming divorced from its links to social and community based action. Whilst the published work in CP has increasingly reflected a wider array of research methods to understand and benefit communities, there are clearly tensions between the underlying theoretical frameworks that inform research and practice. This suggests it has been difficult to balance a focus on research and action within published work, and knowledge production studies seem to support the presence of a more traditional relationship between the researcher and researched.

5. Group Representation in Published Work

Human diversity and cultural relativity are central aspects of CP (Rappaport, 1977). The value of human diversity embraces differences in social groups, and seeks to include those marginalised due to culture, ethnicity, race, age, disability, gender and sexual orientation (Kloos et al., 2012), whilst a commitment to cultural relativity represents maintaining the importance of understanding people within their own social milieu (Martin et al., 2004). Whilst issues of diversity emerged in the afore-mentioned trend analyses in relation to either content areas or methodological choices, this has not been a core emphasis in these studies, but rather was part of other general trends that have presented in the data. In trend analyses that have focused wholly on group representation, two areas of focus have dominated, namely, studies related to ethnic or cultural affiliation and those related to gender. Few studies have explicitly examined intersecting identities, and many forms of social marginalisation, particularly those related to disability, religion, and sexual orientation, have largely been excluded from formal research.

5.1. Studies of Culture and Ethnicity

Within the realm of culture and ethnicity, the predominant focus in empirical studies of published work has been on ethnic minority groups in the US. The first of these, conducted by Loo et al. (1988) analysed published articles over the period of 1965-1985 in the AJCP, JCP and CMHJ. The aim of this study was to investigate the extent to which published research fostered the goal of cultural diversity by focusing on the representation of the African American, Native American, Asian American and Hispanic/Puerto Rican groups in the selected journals. Loo et al. (1988) found that 5.5% of articles focused exclusively on

US ethnic minorities, and only a further 5% on comparisons between ethnic minorities and whites. Loo et al. (1988) also found that there was an increase in the proportion of articles devoted to cultural diversity over the 20 years they studied (from 5.5% to 11%). They concluded that there was a measure of progress in attaining cultural diversity in published work, but emphasised that more still needed to be done to ensure that the underrepresented did not remain on the margins of published work (Loo et al., 1988). Moreover, this study succeeded in illustrating that the representation of cultural minorities still fell well below the proportion of these groups within the US population at the time (over 20%). This is supported by the work of Lounsbury et al. (1979b), which reported on the presence of ethnic minorities in the topics of articles in the CMHJ from 1965-1977, and found that only 1.7% of articles dealt with *minority problems and concerns*.

Drawing on the work of Loo et al. (1988), Bernal and Enchautegui-de-Jesus (1994) examined the representation of ethnic minorities, and more specifically the Latino and Latina community, in the JCP and AJCP over the period 1973-1992. This study investigated the overall presence of ethnic minority content, the presence of ethnic minority groups as a whole (including Latinos/Latinas, Hispanics, African Americans, Asian Americans and Native Americans), and the specific presence of Latinos and Latinas within articles on ethnic minorities. The authors found that 79% of the studies did not include any ethnic minorities in their samples or content. Only 3.7% of published articles focused on Latinas/Latinos at least to a minimal extent (represented by at least 15% of the sample), while 7% focused on African Americans, 1.2% on Asians and 0.6% on Native Americans (Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus, 1994). Similarly to Loo et al. (1988), Bernal and Enchautegui-de-Jesus (1994) indicated that the representation of these groups fell well below the overall proportion they accounted for in the general population of the US. These authors noted that the comparative paucity of articles devoted to diversity issues, especially among specific underserved groups, suggested a gap between the ideals and practice of CP.

The knowledge gained from studies of cultural and ethnic representivity can be supplemented by the findings from the aforementioned general trend analyses. For instance, Lounsbury et al. (1979b) reported on the presence of ethnic minorities in the topics of articles in the CMHJ from 1965-1977 and found that only 1.7% of articles dealt with *minority problems and concerns*. Speer et al. (1992) found an increase in the reporting of the ethnic origin of participants from 27% in 1973-1978 to 48% in 1984-1988. Of the total samples, they reported that 81% of studies used *Caucasian* participants, 49% used *African American* participants, 27% used Hispanic participants and 25% coded other ethnic groups such as Native Americans (Speer et al., 1992). Martin et al. (2004) also indicated an

increase in diversity-oriented articles compared to the results found by Loo et al. (1988), Lounsbury et al. (1980) and Speer et al. (1992), but indicated that the articles generally included less depth in their analysis of diversity than can be found in the studies by Loo et al. (1988), and Bernal and Enchautegui-de-Jesus (1994). As in previous trend analyses, Martin et al. (2004) found that African Americans were the best represented of the marginalised groups, but in their study, Asian groups followed, and then groups defined by alternative sexual preferences. Most articles categorised as dealing with human diversity celebrated diversity by maintaining a strengths perspective, with the exception of those which compared groups of colour to white population groups, which presented a deficit approach (Martin et al., 2004).

The dissertation by Gutierrez (2010) is the most recent study with a specific focus on diversity in the JCP and AJCP. This study reports on trends in the representation of racial and ethnic groups, gender groups, sexual orientation groups, ability groups and the intersections between these groups over a 35-year time period, extending from 1973 to 2007. The study found that a large proportion of CP literature dealt with issues of race and ethnicity (16.25%). The majority of race-related articles focussed on groups coded as African Americans (29.8%), followed by Latinos/as (28.0%) and Asians (15.6%). It concludes that there has been an increase in the inclusion of race and ethnicity-related literature over the time period investigated, when segmenting the data into five year time periods, with 4.5% of articles from 1973 to 1977, and 17.9% from 2003 to 2007. However, it appears that a peak in race-related diversity articles was achieved in the period 1993 to 1997 (32.1%), and that there has subsequently been a decline in these articles since then. The study also reports that the rate of change for specific racial or ethnic groups differed substantially. Thus, while African Americans were most often included in studies of racial and ethnic diversity, there was an overall decline in the representation of this group over time. Roughly the same proportion of Latino/as and Hispanics are represented in 1973-1977 and 2003-2007 but a 25-year boom in studies focussing on this group was identified in between these points. The focus on Asian populations has gradually increased with time, whilst a focus on Native Americans has declined. Gutierrez (2010) found that the most substantial changes related to race-related diversity literature occurred in studies that explored racial differences, with a large proportion of these being identified in the 1973-1977 and 1978-1982 time periods (21.7% and 26.53%, respectively), and virtually none more recently (0.0% from 1998-2002 and 0.85 from 2003-2007). The study does not identify or report on racial or ethnic groups in populations outside the US.

In their analysis, Graham and Ismail (2011) noted that the exclusive use of participants from US minority groups was only represented in 14.5% of the articles between 2003 and 2007, which falls well below the proportion of these groups in the US population. As in previous studies, these authors found that most diversity-oriented articles were restricted to ethnic and cultural groups within the US. In the period 2003-2007, the use of international samples in empirical research was minimal (9.1%; n = 15) (Graham & Ismail, 2011). Other than the study by Gutierrez (2010), the proportion of samples outside the US has never been reported. Ismail (2008) had initially sought to research the nature and extent of South African scholarship in the JCP (in terms of both authorship representation and the representation in the use of data sources), but found only 3 articles authored by South Africans, and one additional article using a South African sample, which precluded the meaningful application of the quantitative analytic approach employed in this study (Ismail, 2008). However, this study signalled the importance of selecting both a broader dataset and approach to data analysis, in order to examine the representation of South African scholarship in international CP journals.

The prominence of diversity-oriented articles as a topic is shared in published work that extends to the interface between community and applied social psychology, as published in the JCASP. Within the JCASP, Schruijer and Stephenson (2010, p. 440) note that issues related to "ethnicity, ethnic identity, migration, acculturation, multiculturalism, racism and prejudice" are the most salient topics selected by its authors over the 20 years of the journal's existence. Overall, this work suggests that ongoing consideration is needed of the rhetoric of valuing diversity and its translation into published work. Moreover, when considering issues of diversity, inclusive of theories used to understand diversity, it is necessary to examine trends in the representation of social groups, and to critically assess the extent to which groups remain underrepresented.

5.2. Studies of Gender

The second major thrust of studies on group representation in CP publications focuses on gender. The marginalised position of women in CP has been noted in several studies and feminist scholarship in CP is considered rare (Angelique & Culley, 2003). Mulvey and Bond (2000) provided one of the first and most influential studies of women and feminist perspectives in mainstream CP. These authors examined activities by and for women within organised CP from 1965 onward until the 1990s. Mulvey and Bond (2000) utilised minutes and rosters from the SCRA Executive Committee and Task Force/Committee on Women, as well as *The Community Psychologist* (a newsletter of the APA), and reviewed the AJCP and

JCP's editorial boards for gender representivity. Interestingly, these authors found that in the first 10 years of CP, women and women's issues were largely absent. In the period 1975-1979, the invisibility of women was recognised, but women's issues and feminist analyses remained marginal and began with token inclusion. From 1980-1984, feminist developments focussed largely on representation but from 1985-1989, calls for action and mobilisation emerged, initially focusing on representation, but including women's professional development and the beginnings of a feminist intellectual agenda. In the 1990s, new settings were created within organised psychology to allow for networking, sharing concerns and bringing in marginal voices. Mulvey and Bond (2000) pointed to the need for a continued focus on gender and related forms of oppression due to sexuality, race, ethnicity and class and highlighted the continued under-representation of feminist scholarship. This study was technically not an empirical study of published work in CP, but rather focused on an analysis of grey literature. However, it was still significant in setting the stage for feminist projects of this nature to emerge.

Angelique and Culley (2000) conducted the first empirical trend analysis study of the representation of women's concerns in the JCP and AJCP, examining gender representivity in the authorship and content of published articles over the 25-year period from 1973-1997. This study reported that 9.8% of the articles reviewed were considered women-relevant, 4% recognised diversity among women, and 3% were considered feminist (Angelique & Culley, 2000). There was an average yearly increase in women-relevant and feminist articles from 7.3% pre-1990 to 11.2% post-1990, and from 1.6% pre-1990 to 4.6% post-1990, respectively (Angelique & Culley, 2000). The authors noted that this was a promising trend, but flagged the ongoing perpetuation of stereotypes of women and other oppressed groups within published work. In the articles classified as being feminist, gender roles and violence against women were the most salient topics. Race and SES were the most noted issues of diversity in both the women-relevant and feminist articles (Angelique & Culley, 2000).

Angelique and Culley (2003) then conducted an analysis of titles and abstracts in the AJCP and JCP that dealt with women's issues for feminist content over the period of 1973 to 2000. This analysis specifically explored themes related to the presence of gender consciousness (including power asymmetries, the link between individuals and environments, contextual analyses and a focus on competencies) as well as intersecting identities associated with race, class, sexual orientation and disabilities. They found some evidence of the presence of these themes in the studies examined, highlighted their complementarity with the overarching principles in CP, and considered the possibility of an emerging post-feminist climate (Angelique & Cully, 2003). These authors concluded that

CP had been more successful in translating its values into scholarly work in its feminist-orientated articles than in other domains.

Observations from the more general trend analyses on the issue of gender representation are mostly limited to the characteristics of participants in empirical studies. Speer et al. (1992) indicated that the reporting of gender among research participants increased from 57% in 1973-1978 to 81% in 1984-1988. This study found that the use of mixed gender samples increased by 10% across these time periods. Furthermore, the use of exclusively female samples increased by 3% to 12%, while the use of exclusively male samples decreased by 15% to 4%. Graham and Ismail (2011) found that all the articles included some form of gender reporting. A similar proportion of 79.4% of articles used mixed gender samples in their dataset, but the use of an all-female sample had increased to 17.6%, whilst the use of an all-male sample had decreased to 3.0% (Graham & Ismail, 2011).

The dissertation by Gutierrez (2010) reported that gender-related articles comprised 11.3% of the total articles in his dataset, with 8.2% being dedicated to women, 2.0% to men and 1.1% to gender differences. Generally, this study found an overall increase in the proportion of articles dealing with gender (from 7.5% in 1973 to 20.4% in 2007), but found substantial variation in different time periods, with peaks being reached between 1988-1992 and 2003-2007. Trends for the study of males were consistently low, with a slight peak in the 1988-1992 period, and trends for the study of gender differences as a topic also shows a low profile over time, with little variation.

5.3. Studies of other Diversity Issues

In the years from 1993-1998, Martin et al. (2004) noted that no articles in their study of the AJCP dealt with marginalisation due to religion, age or disability. Interestingly, Martin et al. (2004) noted that diversity issues related to religion and disability were not represented in previous knowledge production studies in this journal either, and issues of diversity related to sexual orientation and age emerged for the first time in their study.

While incorporating a focus on gender and race/ethnicity, Gutierrez (2010) also included an analysis of sexual orientation and disability in the JCP and AJCP. This study reported that articles that focussed on sexual orientation and identity comprised only 1.4% of the total articles in the dataset, and of all the dimensions of diversity examined in this study, sexual orientation was the least represented. The inclusion of gay and lesbian population groups was highest in the 2003-2007 period. The study found that articles that addressed sexual orientation were mostly focussed on gay and bisexual male groups

(59.1%), with far fewer studies of lesbian women (n = 6) and only one article on transgender groups.

With regard to trends in the study of disability, Gutierrez (2010) argued that a narrow definition of disability is predominantly found in CP literature. This approach identifies disability as related to impaired functioning in the physical, sensory, psycho-emotional or cognitive/developmental realms (Keys, McDonald, Myrick, & Williams, 2008). From this perspective, Gutierrez (2010) found that only 2.5% of articles dealt with disability over the 35-year period he selected. Of the various types of disability that were classified, most of the articles involved the study of psycho-emotional disabilities, rather than physical, sensory, developmental or cognitive disabilities (Gutierrez, 2010). The study further found that the proportion of articles dealing with psycho-emotional disabilities decreased dramatically over time, which was noted as being consistent with a decreasing focus on mental health service provision. However, particular mental illness categories showed an increasing representation in published work, namely depression and substance abuse. Interestingly, Gutierrez (2010) notes the methodological limitations the categories of disability used by researchers impose on the manner in which disability can be studied in studies of knowledge production. This observation is applicable beyond the area of disability, and is a limitation of all secondary forms of analysis that are found in studies of trends in published work. Essentially, this means that when analysing secondary sources, the researcher is confined to using the ways in which groups and problems have been classified in the original research.

Understandings of marginalised groups have also been enhanced by examining the nature of research topics in addition to the characteristics of research participants. For instance, Graham and Ismail (2011) report on topics dealing with the dynamics of social exclusion between socially marginalised and dominant groups, including those related to gender, race, culture, sexual orientation, age, religion and migration. This was one of the most common content areas addressed in the JCP in the past decade, although each of these areas is not equally represented and the major thrust of the work remains focused on issues of gender and culture (Graham & Ismail, 2011).

5.4. Studies of Intersecting Forms of Diversity

When looking at issues of representation among socially marginalised groups, it is evident the initial empirical studies largely dealt with gender trends and trends in cultural diversity as separate foci, and only more recently have intersecting and multiple forms of social exclusion been acknowledged, as evident in the work of Angelique and Culley (2003) and

Gutierrez (2010). Gutierrez (2010) specifically sought to examine the intersections between race/ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation and disability. This study found that research addressing intersecting identities was minimal in the 1970s, showed a gradual but steady increase in the 1980s and 1990s, and then dramatically increased in the 2000s, which was facilitated by several special issues that sought to capture elements of identity intersections.

Gutierrez (2010) further investigated the nature of the intersections included in published literature, and found that the intersection between race and psycho-emotional disability; gender and psycho-emotional disability; and race, gender and psycho-emotional disability were the most frequent diversity intersections in CP literature. In the realm of race and psycho-emotional disability, most articles were concerned with racial differences, followed by articles that focussed on ethnic minorities. These most often included Latinos, then African Americans, then Asian Americans, then Native Americans and lastly, other minorities. Substance abuse was by far the most prominent psycho-emotional difficulty associated with a focus on race (20.9%).

Gutierrez (2010) reports that the majority of articles that focussed on race and gender, focus on women of colour, and that African American women are the best represented among this group, followed by Latina women. Men of colour represented 9.8% of the articles on the intersection of race and gender, and focussed predominantly on African American men.

In the intersection of diversity categories defined by gender and psycho-emotional difficulty, Gutierrez (2010) found that psycho-emotional difficulties are most studied in women (82.6%). Most of these studies involved focussing on depression, followed by substance abuse, and several incorporated these as co-occurring conditions. In general, not only were the study of sexual orientation and disability (especially physical and sensory disability) neglected in CP literature, but so were the intersections between these domains. The results of this study suggest that attention to intersecting identities in CP literature is a recent phenomenon, but that not all identities are afforded the same prominence.

6. Sub-disciplinary Boundaries in Published Work

6.1. Community Psychology and Organisational Psychology

A few studies of knowledge production in CP, namely those by Boyd (2014), Boyd and Angelique (2002), Duncan (1991b) and McClure (1980), served a distinctly different purpose from those already discussed, which is worth noting. These studies were primarily concerned with the establishment of the overall boundaries and parameters of CP, and the

domains of interest that are unique or overlapping with other fields of psychology. Whilst also including a more general focus on publication features related to topic choices, these studies appear to serve a different purpose in that they not only seek to characterise what is published within CP, but to contrast this directly with other sub-disciplinary domains.

In their analysis of the AJCP and JCP from 1977 to 2000, Boyd and Angelique (2002) sought to examine research on organisations within published CP literature, as well as explore the ways in which organisational studies were represented, with a view to highlighting the ways in which CP contributes to the study of organisations. The study found that studies of organisations (including workplace, administrative, management or organisational issues) constituted only around 4% of articles in these journals, and this was more or less consistent over time. Articles of this nature were more common in the AJCP than the JCP (Boyd & Angelique, 2002). Boyd and Angelique (2002) found that the use of organisation theory was almost non-existent in CP literature (4.9%), and that CP research that focussed on organisations typically assessed traditional CP constructs such as sense of community, empowerment, social support, and stress and coping. This literature also seemed to be more concerned with individual or micro-level analysis, rather than wider organisational variables or macro-level factors (Boyd & Angelique, 2002).

In the most recent work in this area, Boyd (2014) extended the previous analysis by Boyd and Angelique (2002) through tracking the publication rate of articles on organisations in CP journals from 2001 and 2011. Boyd (2014) again posed the question of the extent to which organisation studies had permeated CP in published work, and found in this study that there was a substantial change in the representation of organisation studies in the same journals. This was evidenced by a publication rate that had increased to 21% overall (Boyd, 2014). This change was in part attributed by the author to an increase in Special Issue publications, as well as symposia on this area of inquiry. However, it was also noted that it was more common to find the use of organisational concepts and settings in CP research than a focus on using organisational theory to conceptually interpret findings (Boyd, 2014).

6.2. Community Psychology, Health Education and Health Psychology

Duncan (1990; 1991a; 1991b) approached the task of establishing disciplinary boundaries from a different vantage point of comparing and contrasting the topics of representative journals in distinct fields. Duncan (1991b) sought to establish areas of commonality and difference between the topics in health psychology and CP journals, following two previous studies of sub-disciplinary intersection between health education and health psychology

(Duncan, 1990) and health psychology and clinical psychology (Duncan, 1991a). Duncan (1991b) notes that both health psychology and CP are newer, developing branches of psychology. Using the AJCP and JCP as representative of CP publications, and the journals *Health Psychology* and *Psychology and Health* as representative of health psychology, Duncan (1991b) reports that commonalities between the two area of specialisation lie in areas related to *stress*, *coping* and *social support*. These topics were similarly found to be areas of overlapping concern between health psychology and clinical psychology (Duncan, 1991a), suggesting a convergence of interest in these topics across these domains of psychology (Duncan, 1991b). By contrast, health psychology and health education shared a preoccupation with the same chronic diseases (e.g. coronary heart disease, cancer, HIV/AIDS, diabetes and hypertension). However, health psychology was more focussed on clinical settings and applications, whilst health education focussed on school and occupational settings. Health education was also more focussed on primary prevention, whilst health psychology dealt more with secondary prevention (Duncan, 1991a). However, the analysis of the content of topics in CP and health psychology presented in Duncan (1991b) did not draw any distinctions in preference for settings or types of prevention work, although it was noted that certain topics such as empowerment were distinctive of this branch of psychology.

6.3. Community Psychology, Community Mental Health and Social Psychology

McClure et al. (1980) sought to establish the sub-disciplinary boundaries between community psychology, and its convergences and divergences with the fields of community mental health and applied social psychology. By including an analysis of the article content of journals in all of these areas, the study investigated the conceptual frameworks and levels of intervention used in published work within each field. McClure et al. (1980) devised a two by two matrix of conceptual variables, comprising of traditional versus systemic levels of analysis or intervention, by the use of a deficit-remediation orientation versus a competence enhancement approach (McClure, 1980). In addition, McClure et al. (1980) sought to establish whether methodological differences were evident between these sub-disciplines. In comparison to applied social psychology, research in CP and Community Mental Health typically used a more systemic conceptual approach (including the dimensions of both systemic competence enhancement and deficit remediation). However, these fields rarely intervened above an individual/small group level (McClure et al., 1980).

In their commentary on trends in the JCASP over the past 20 years, Schruijer and Stephenson (2010), also point to the issue of boundary delineation in CP, with reference to

the relationship between CP and applied social psychology. As part of the founding mission of the JCASP, the editors articulated the aim of creating rapprochement between applied social psychology and CP, and viewed social psychology as having the potential to theoretically enrich community practice (Schruijer & Stephenson, 2010). They therefore also sought to stimulate knowledge production that widened the boundaries of CP (Schruijer & Stephenson, 2010).

6.4. Community Psychology and Interdisciplinarity

Along a similar line as Boyd (2014), Boyd and Angelique (2002), Duncan (1991b), McClure et al. (1980), Schruijer and Stephenson (2010), Davidson et al. (2006) shared the purpose of exploring linkages between CP and another field of scholarship, but their focus is on establishing inter- rather than intra-disciplinary connections and points of departure. Davidson et al. (2006) focused on the relationship between CP and critical scholarship beyond the confines of the discipline of psychology, with a view to informing the development of a more critically oriented CP. This study is distinctive in that it theorises about this relationship through investigating published work in critical scholarship journals, rather than in journals of CP. The dataset used is interdisciplinary in that it includes journals with a tradition of critical scholarship in the areas of media studies, sociology, philosophy, education, politics, economics and education. The study examines the ways in which the constructs of power and the social are dealt with in critical scholarship more broadly, and uses this analysis to comment on the ways in which this differs in CP. Davidson et al. (2006) reported the results reflected an interesting paradox: CP was more action oriented than critical scholarship, but its actions typically fell short of seriously challenging existing institutionalised power structures or the status quo; while critical scholarship was much more focused on challenging existing institutional power structures in theory, but did not accompany these ideas with viable applied actions. These authors conclude that CP can be significantly enriched in its critical project through the more substantial inclusion of critical theory in its work to broaden its critique of the status quo, and by preventing insularity in its development by the strengthening of inter-disciplinary connections (Davidson et al., 2006).

The most recent study that focuses on contemporary inter-disciplinarity in the JCP and AJCP by Watling Neal et al. (2013) adopts a different approach by providing a network analysis of journal citations. Watling Neal et al. (2013) investigated the extent to which scholars in CP cited articles from allied disciplines in the social sciences. Although the network analysis suggests that scholars in CP cite journals from a wide range of disciplines, the citation relationships found in the study were weak (Watling Neal et al., 2013). The

authors argue that greater emphasis could be placed on strengthening the flow of knowledge across disciplines (Watling Neal et al., 2013).

7. The Study of Social Issues in Published Work

The study of social issues represented in international CP scholarship has typically been confined to trends in general topic areas, instead of more focussed longitudinal analysis of specific social issues. The study by Shirley (2010) represents an exception to this observation. Shirley (2010) sought to examine theoretical and methodological trends in community based HIV/AIDS research, and highlight their implications for the plight of socially marginalised groups. This study specifically investigated the convergence of topic, method, theory and group representation in published work on HIV/AIDS in CP over a 20-year time period, in both local and international journals. This study was supervised research linked to the current doctoral thesis. It thus shows synergies in its comparative focus, the inclusion of a broader range of journals in the dataset and in selected aspects of its coding framework, although it is focussed on a much longer timeframe and has a much more specific focus area. Although the study included one South African journal (SAJP), international articles constituted the majority of the dataset (almost 80%), and thus the study is included in this section on trends in international knowledge production.

Shirley (2010) reported a dearth of CP based HIV-related articles in the literature that was surveyed, yielding a sample of only 138 articles. The results showed a preference for empirical studies and positivist methodologies, with a predominant epistemological focus on risk factors and prevention. Both local and international community-based HIV/AIDS research focussed predominantly on hospitals and clinics (27.6%). Participants were mainly adult groups (74.2%), or were mixed age cohorts, with no studies exclusively on children or the elderly. In the local and international literature, the predominant ethnicity of participants was black/African (24.9%). Most studies used participants that were mixed in terms of gender (52.7%), level of education (22.8%), and employment (25.3%). A focus on student populations was common (21.5%). Race was the most frequent marker of marginalised group representation in HIV/AIDS research (28.5%), as well as being the most consistently researched marker of marginality over the 20 year time period. This indicates an association between studying black populations in HIV research within community psychology scholarship. However, no differences in the inclusion of group representation by race was noted between international studies and local studies, despite vastly different population proportions between groups identified as black between South Africa and international settings, as well as vastly different HIV prevalence rates. A focus on sexual

orientation was noted in international research, but absent from local research. No studies of the disabled, of migrants, the elderly or children, in relation to HIV, were identified.

8. The Study of Theoretical Concepts

The study by Angelique et al. (2013) is a recent addition to the study of trends in CP knowledge production that draws on the work by Davidson et al. (2006). This study investigates the use of social power as a theoretical concept appearing in journal articles. In this study, Angelique et al. (2013) examined the trends in the conceptualisation of power in 96 articles published in the JCP and AJCP over a 37-year period. The article was concerned with investigating trends in which social power was researched as an individual-level construct, a group-level construct and through a structural analysis, as well as to examine shifts in understandings of power that occurred over time (Angelique et al., 2013). The authors identify two time periods in which articles on power peaked, 30 years apart (Angelique et al., 2013). The first of these occurred in the early period of CP development, while more recently power emerged in relation to scholarship about psychopolitical validity. The analysis shows that special issues have been important part of foregrounding the concept of power. The authors also argue that power has been present beyond the conceptualisation of power inherent in the notion of empowerment, and has been studied at different ecological levels (Angelique et al., 2013). Therefore, the study is relevant in synthesising this body of research, but also shows a new trajectory of trend analyses that focuses specifically on investigating the presence of a particular theoretical concept in depth rather than the comprehensive study of all theoretical concepts in published research.

9. Conclusion

This chapter has illustrated the salient findings of empirical studies of knowledge production within international CP journals since their inception. There are several themes within the studies that were reviewed above, which have implications for both published work in CP, as well as its future development. These include insights and debates related to the preferred epistemological strands, appropriate methodologies, the salience of social issues, the research-action dichotomy, and the representation of marginalised groups. It has been argued that such tensions emerge predominantly due to the disjuncture in CP between the ideals and the realities of published research (Novaco & Monahan, 1980). Thus, CP has been typified by a sense of idealism, with knowledge production studies differentially reflecting a narrower or larger gap between notions of an ideal and the status quo.

Whilst recognising that these are conceptual debates with global significance, it is

important to also highlight at this point that the relevance, deficits and goals of CP more broadly, and in international published work, has predominantly been defined in terms of the realities of high-income countries, and particularly the US. Thus, reflecting on trends in international published work must be considered in relation to a socio-economic context of relative global affluence. The prevalence of social problems is far lower in the US and Europe than in majority world countries, and the available resources to deal with these problems are far higher. These resources also extend to the profession of psychology and CP, where there are substantially more trained professionals in minority world countries than in many other contexts. Thus, the proportion of published work generated in journals is also far higher. This contributes to global dominance in the representation of the US in domains of knowledge production. The significance of this knowledge to the substantially different social realities in majority world countries requires further exploration and contrast to the types of knowledge that emerge in societies characterised by conditions of poverty, inequality, under-development and social injustice, as well as a high prevalence of social ills such as violence and HIV/AIDS. With the future of CP under speculation in the North, and pressing contextual imperatives in the global landscape, the continual analysis of trends in CP knowledge production remains an important enterprise. In particular, it is useful to contrast trends in knowledge production between the global North and South, and examine how knowledge production functions relative to the contexts in which it is generated. This is especially relevant for the future development of CP, and the types of content and methods it endorses. The next chapter proceeds to look at studies of knowledge production in South African psychology, and where possible, in South African CP.

Chapter 6

Local Studies of Published Work in Psychology

6.1. Introduction

This chapter examines existing studies of knowledge production in South African journals. A dedicated South African journal of CP has not yet emerged within the knowledge production arena in this country. Local empirical studies of knowledge production have predominantly focused on features of published work within the discipline of psychology as a whole, or within critical psychology, with only one study by Seedat et al. (2004) that focuses specifically on published work in CP. This chapter will therefore review empirical studies of knowledge production within South Africa, locating themes emerging in CP within this body of work. (See Table C 1. for a summary of each of the studies included in this review).

The tradition of empirical studies of published work in South African journals has only emerged in the past two decades. These studies have investigated aspects of knowledge production in psychology as a whole, and they show greater variation in the selection of data sources, the choice of research methods and time periods investigated. However, in broad terms, the findings of these studies are grouped here into two generations of research on knowledge production – studies reflecting on knowledge production from the colonial period to the end of apartheid; and those that provide an analysis of knowledge production in the transitional and post-apartheid period. Not surprisingly, the focus on race and racism has been paramount in studies of knowledge production, with a focus on race under apartheid, as well as race in the post-1994 democracy. Much of the discussion of race has centred on cross-racial interaction, the 'relevance' of psychology to the country's black majority, and the discursive construction of race. Whilst issues of gender have also emerged as an important theme in studies of published work, this has been to a lesser extent, or has been incorporated as an intersecting issue with race. Theoretical and methodological trends have also come under scrutiny, but to a far lesser extent. This section reviews the contributions of local empirical studies to understanding knowledge production in psychology, foregrounding their significance for CP where appropriate. The findings of studies in each of these generations are addressed chronologically.

2. Knowledge Production in Psychology under Apartheid

The first published empirical studies of knowledge production emerged in the early 1990s. According to Seedat (1998), these studies could be classified into occupying one of two positions in their analysis of the discipline of psychology, namely the *universalist* and *particularist* perspectives. The studies by van Staden and Visser (1990), Visser and van Staden (1990), and to a lesser extent, Mauer, Marais and Prinsloo (1991) are grouped by Seedat (1990, 1998) within the universalist tradition.

Van Staden and Visser (1990) and Visser and van Staden (1990) content analysed the subject matter of articles, article types and preferred methods in the SAJP. Van Staden and Visser (1990) focused on highlighting the broad domains of psychology that were most represented in published work from 1979-1989. This study found that published work in the SAJP was predominantly focused on *clinical/counselling psychology* (13.0%), *personality* (10.8%), and *developmental psychology* (11.7%). CP had not yet emerged as a distinct domain of psychology in the analysis provided by these authors. They also highlighted that most articles were *review/analysis* articles. Only 14.3% were focused on *theory development*, which the authors attributed to a lack of interest in or capacity to devote to theory development (van Staden & Visser, 1990). These authors also reported on trends in the use of statistical tests among the articles analysed, indicating that the large majority of studies used basic statistical techniques. They argued that the lack of research using intermediate- or advanced-level techniques merited significant attention, speculating that this possibly suggested a lack of skills, a paradigm shift or a lack of necessity in using these techniques in terms of addressing research questions (van Staden & Visser, 1990). Visser and van Staden (1990) subsequently extended this analysis by reporting on the *type of study*, *population* characteristics, *methods of sample selection*, *sample composition*; and the dominant *knowledge building approach*. Sample composition was described in terms of racial classification, with an analysis of *intra-cultural* (within race group) and *cross-cultural* (between race groups) trends. Findings revealed that cross-cultural (cross-racial) research was minimal (17.4% of studies), and most of the within-group comparisons used white samples (Visser & van Staden, 1990). Correlational designs were most common (45.3%), and most studies were geared towards *extending findings* as a knowledge-building approach (57.2%) (Visser & van Staden, 1990). The first studies by van Staden and Visser (1990) and by Visser and van Staden (1990) reflect much of the dominant trends in international knowledge production that appear to be characteristics of global features of psychology more generally, but also some important differences, such as a far more prominent focus on race. Whilst the studies by van Staden and Visser (1990) and Visser and

van Staden (1990) have been viewed as significant thematic characterisations of psychology, they were also critiqued for being narrow in their focus and intent (Seedat, 1998). Seedat (1998) argues that their interpretations of the data neglect "how colonial praxis and the legacy of apartheid knowledge production preferred, encouraged and enabled certain kinds of research over others" (Seedat, 1998, p. 75). Such studies collude with the silence around psychology's immersion in the ideology of apartheid (Seedat, 1998).

Mauer et al. (1991) investigated general domains of psychology in South African journal articles, dissertations and research reports in the preceding five-year period, but found that a focus on *social issues and processes*, *applied psychology* and *general psychology* were most common, and were mostly consistent foci across these types of knowledge products. Mauer et al. (1991) used their findings to motivate for a more relevant psychology in South Africa by arguing that much of the research neglected the socio-political issues facing the country at the time. Whilst acknowledging the disjuncture between psychology and the types of issues facing the country, this study too fails to explicitly link psychosocial problems to the system of apartheid, and thus presents a more pragmatic than politicised analysis of the debate for a more relevant psychology.

Seedat (1990) presented a comparison of publication trends in the SAJP and PINS over a five-year period in the 1980s. He presented the first empirical content analysis with a clear political agenda of locating knowledge production within the framework of apartheid. He presented an analysis of silenced topics in psychology, and examined the exclusion of blacks and women in processes of knowledge production. This study can be classified as stemming from the "particularist" tradition, which locates psychology within the specific contextual and socio-historical formations and structures of apartheid (Seedat, 1998). The analysis presented by Seedat (1990) served as a precursor to a larger doctoral study conducted by Seedat (1993) on knowledge production in psychology journals under apartheid. Seedat's (1993) doctoral work was later published in several articles and book chapters, which will be discussed here. The first article on this work focussed specifically on highlighting the exclusionary ideology in the work published in 7 psychology journals over the period 1948-1988. Seedat (1998) reported on the global results obtained for the institutional affiliation of authors, the collaboration between authors, the language of publication, the article type, the participant characteristics, and the article topics in the journals analysed. This study found that most authors were affiliated to *university settings* (62%), *white* (75%) and *male* (65.5%). Most articles were *empirical* in nature (62.4%), *single authored* (75.2%) and written in *English* (82.8%). Most empirical articles used *white* participants (58.7%), and most included samples with both *males and females* (56.9%). The

most well represented fields of psychology were *psychometrics* (28.4%), *industrial psychology* (24.1%), *developmental psychology* (14.3%), *general psychology* (13.7%) and *educational psychology* (12.9%), which together constituted 93.4% of the total areas. Of the total empirical articles, 2.2% (n = 22) were classified as being CP articles (Seedat, 1998). Articles on CP included the topics of skills training, alternative community services, prevention programmes, theory and methodology, and international community health services (Seedat, 1998). Seedat (1998) argued that the ideological biases of psychology journals were reflected in the research agendas of published studies and their selection of research participants. Overall, the study concluded that psychology had alienated and neglected the experiences of women and blacks. Furthermore, Seedat (1998, p. 74) maintained that knowledge production in psychology reflected that the discipline was "an extension of the colonial and western ethnoscientific enterprise".

Appearing at a similar time in the late 1990s, Durrheim and Mokeki (1997) also presented a *particularist* analysis of race in knowledge production under apartheid. Durrheim and Mokeki (1997) content analysed articles in the SAJP from 1970-1995, which specifically investigated race and racism, as a means of uncovering the complicity of psychology in maintaining the apartheid ideology. They found that 31.7% of all the articles dealt with racial themes, and distinguished between articles that addressed race explicitly and politically versus those that dealt with race in a scientific or neutral manner. Approximately half of the articles on race could be grouped in each category but the proportion of *scientific* approaches to race declined over time to 13.3% in the early 1990s, whilst *political* articles on race increased to 25.4% at this time. Political articles about race were mostly found in *educational* and *social* psychology, and were least considered in *clinical* and *industrial* psychology. Political articles were also more likely to be *theoretical* or to use *qualitative* methods, whilst those that were scientific were more likely to use *quantitative* methods. Similarly to Seedat (1990; 1998), Durrheim and Mokeki (1997) argued that psychology had not been immune to the ideological forces in South African society under apartheid. Furthermore, they reflected that psychology was likewise affected by shifts in this ideology over time (Durrheim & Mokeki, 1997).

A few years later, an edited volume titled *Race, Racism and Knowledge Production in South Africa* (Duncan, van Niekerk, De la Rey, & Seedat, 2001) consolidated a number of empirical and theoretical chapters on racism in knowledge production under apartheid. In this book, the studies by Duncan (2001), Seedat (2001a; 2001b), and Terre Blanche and Seedat (2001), each empirically addressed issues of racism in knowledge production, using different data sources and methods that drew on both content and discourse analysis. Seedat

(2001a; 2001b) presented additional aspects of the larger doctoral study by Seedat (1993). Seedat (2001a; 2001b) focused on the invisibility of black people in published work, specifically examining shifts from 1948 to 1988. Seedat (2001a) reported on the characteristics of authors, the topics, the characteristics of research subjects and the research methodologies employed in published work. The study found that the proportions of *female* and *black* authors had shown only marginal increases over the 40-year period (4% and 0.3%, respectively). Authors from university settings increased dramatically from 4.8% to 84.2% over this time, with an associated decline in authors from non-university settings such as government departments, hospitals, private practice, research institutes and the business/industrial sector. There was also a 16.1% increase in articles authored in Afrikaans. *Descriptive* and *review* articles decreased by 8.6% and 5.6% each, but *empirical* and *theoretical* articles both increased, by 4.9% and 8.7% respectively. The focus on *white* participants increased consistently in published work under apartheid from 53.8% to 61.5%, whilst the use of only *male* participants declined from 75.7% to 17.3%. Participants were increasingly drawn from *universities, colleges, secondary schools* and *primary schools*, whilst research in *hospitals, health centres* and *industry* declined. Seedat (2001a) reported that 0.3% of articles focussed on CP from 1968 to 1977, but this had grown to 5.4% from 1978 to 1988.

Seedat (2001b) then presented a critical comparative analysis of these variables in the same seven local psychological journals to highlight how issues of race and gender were represented differently based on the affiliation of the journals. Whilst Seedat (2001b) reports on some gendered trends, the overriding emphasis of his analysis of knowledge production is on race and forms of racism evident in different publication forums. Seedat (2001b) found that the *South African Psychologist* and *Psygram* "tended to regard blacks as invisible or marginal beings whose psychosocial life did not warrant academic inquiry", and "unashamedly excluded blacks as beneficiaries and producers of knowledge" (Seedat, 2001b, p. 119). This journal also showed a strong preference for articles written in Afrikaans, which was one of the official languages of the apartheid state. Seedat (2001b) argued that *Psychologia Africana*, the SAJP, *Psygram* and the *Journal of Behavioural Science* showed a less explicit but more insidious form of racism that unreflectively aimed to 'civilise', 'domesticate' and 'acculturate' the African psyche according to Western ideals. *Humanitas* displayed a nationalist character and embodied the apartheid state agenda of using science to uphold its policies. Finally, PINS and to a lesser degree, the SAJP (in the 1980s), were sites where knowledge production showed an anti-apartheid activist flavour and aimed to "revolutionise the assumptions and applications of psychology in the interests

of the marginalised" (Seedat, 2001b, p. 120). Thus, the study illustrated the presence of knowledge in academic journals that was overtly aligned with apartheid ideology, which contained more subtle forms of racism, and those that resisted the socio-political status quo.

In the same volume, Duncan (2001) presented selected aspects of a larger doctoral study on discourses of racism by Duncan (1993). Duncan (2001) analysed a corpus of articles drawn from journals dating back from the 1900s to 1988 that focused on racism and racism-related issues. The chapter reported on themes related to race and racism that were represented in this body of work. Duncan (2001) highlighted thematic categories related to *apartheid and its consequences*; *discrimination and its responses to discrimination*; *prejudiced attitudes*; *race relations*; and *race differences*. He then presented a discursive analysis of the representation of blacks in the articles in the pre-apartheid and apartheid years. Duncan (2001) identified the salient discourses of blacks as *victims*, *inferior*, *culturally different*, *racially divided/fragmented* and *alien*. He argued that these discourses present similar images of blacks that are evident in apartheid political discourse, highlighting the influential role of academics in reproducing the ideology of racism.

Terre Blanche and Seedat (2001) also investigated race and racism, but focused on exploring these issues within industrial psychology, which had emerged as a prominent domain in previous trend analyses. This study looked at National Institute for Personnel Research project titles for words used to frame the work as being scientific, words used to frame industrial research, words used to refer to individual psychological differences and terms used to describe racial groups. Terre Blanche and Seedat (2001) identified racial discourses related to blacks as containing essentialist ideas, using functionalist terms, making reference to placement in the industrial economy, and reflecting ideas about race and occupational level. Discourses around whites included the threat of mixing class and race, lack of understanding or essentialising the inner life of whites, defining racism as a mental aberration and maintaining an apolitical stance (Terre Blanche & Seedat, 2001). Terre Blanche and Seedat (2001) concluded that many of these discourses were stable and demonstrated the contribution of industry to maintaining racist ideology. Whilst gender was also a focus in this study, Terre Blanche and Seedat (2001) reported that gendered discourses did not emerge as prominently.

The doctoral study by Macleod (1999) has generated another line of empirical work on knowledge production in South Africa, specifically oriented towards understanding the construction of teenage pregnancy as a topic of focus in published work, which includes the elements of marginalisation by age, race and gender. Although Macleod's (1999) analysis extends a few years after the end of apartheid, it mainly deals with knowledge production

under the time period in which apartheid existed and in the time of the transitional government in South Africa. Macleod's (1999) doctoral thesis presents a deconstructive analysis of teenage pregnancy in grey and published South African literature over the years 1970-1997. Various aspects of this work were subsequently published in different academic journals. Publications that deal with the empirical data from the larger study report on trends in knowledge production related to: constructions of mothering (Macleod, 2001); the racialisation of teenage pregnancy (Macleod & Durrheim, 2002); constructions of adolescence (Macleod, 2003a); and the emergence of teenage pregnancy as a social problem (Macleod 2003b). In examining published and grey teenage pregnancy literature, Macleod (2001) focuses on assumptions of motherhood underlying ideas about teenage pregnancy, including the invention of the notion of 'good mothering', gendered implications of constructions of mothering, the regulation of mothering, as well as the pathologisation of teenage mothers. Macleod and Durrheim (2002) present an analysis of the ways in which literature on teenage pregnancy entrenches the existence of racial signifiers as natural and fixed. They highlight how these discourses serve to construct black people as 'other', and deploy notions of culture and tradition to disguise an underlying racialising objective. Macleod (2003a) presents an analysis of the construction of adolescence as a transitional stage and its collapse around notions of teenage pregnancy, the relationship of power between parents/experts and adolescents, as well as gendered power relations. Macleod (2003b) focuses predominantly on the emergence of the category of teenage pregnancy in published work, tracing permutations that preceded the existence of this topic. She explores the challenge that teenage pregnancy represents to the status of the adult and the child in a society that advocates for a nuclear family model, and the social dilemma of reproduction in unwed adolescents (Macleod 2003b). This body of work collectively examines the challenge that teenage pregnancy presents to society in terms of disrupting the status quo in society and the ways in which prevailing discourses attempt to manage this threat. It also includes an analysis of discourses of gender and race that emerge from South African literature on teenage pregnancy. Macleod's study focuses on teenage pregnancy as a topic, and the emergence of teenage pregnancy as a social problem in South African literature. However, through her analysis of published work, similar trends related to constructions of gender and processes of racialisation emerge, indicating the situatedness of knowledge production within conditions of structural inequality. The studies by Duncan (1993; 2001), Macleod (1999, 2001, 2003a, 2003b) and Macleod and Durrheim (2002) represent examples of a purely qualitative, discursive approach to the analysis of published literature predominantly in the apartheid period.

3. Knowledge Production in Psychology after Apartheid

In the transition to democracy, the focus on race and racism, and to a lesser extent gender, continued to dominate in knowledge production studies. Building on existing studies in this area, Stevens (2003) presented a discourse analysis of race and racism in the SAJP from 1990-2000. Stevens (2003) found that articles focused on *race, racism and the South African transition,* and were primarily explored from a traditional social psychological approach, with an uncritical acceptance of racial categories. Many articles also reflected a preoccupation with *psychometrics* and issues of culture bias, as well as explorations of the '*black experience'*, *comparative studies* of blacks and whites, and *emergent identities*. Stevens (2003) reported the presence of *critical evaluations of psychology's history and relevance* of a more liberatory nature. Stevens (2003) also found that most race-related studies focused on marginalised groups, but they retained existing racialised understandings of self and other. Competing methodological strands found in published work included experimental social psychological approaches, critical historical and materialistic approaches, social identity theory and themes of reconciliation, and critical modernist and postmodernist perspectives. Stevens (2003) concluded that shifts in the ontological, epistemological and methodological frameworks used to study race and racism reflected the important shifts that were underway in South Africa's socio-political terrain.

The formal study of knowledge production in South Africa resurfaced a few years later in a special issue of the SAJP in 2004 dedicated to *Psychology in Post-apartheid South Africa*. This special issue consolidated a number of empirical studies of knowledge production in psychology, namely Duncan, van Niekerk and Townsend (2004), Macleod (2004), Seedat et al. (2004), and Shefer et al. (2004). These studies collectively included an analysis of a broad range of knowledge production features, including race, gender, topics and theories in psychology more broadly, as well as trends within CP.

Duncan et al. (2004) and Shefer et al. (2004) each examined trends in the SAJP in the period of 1994-2003. In an analysis of race, institutional affiliation and gender in authorship characteristics, Duncan et al. (2004) found that the proportion of white scholars was still dominant (78%), but the proportion of black scholars had increased almost three-fold since the early 1990s. This was related to the substantial increase in the representation of black psychologists in professional training in the post-apartheid period (Duncan et al., 2004). However, these authors reported that the proportion of black female authors remained poorly represented at 7.6%. Shefer et al. (2004) reiterated that women were under-represented in psychological knowledge production, with women constituting less than 50% of authors in the SAJP, despite the feminisation of psychology in South Africa. However,

the presence of black women authors was particularly and consistently scarce over the years analysed, with substantial gaps existing between the proportion of white women and black women in published work (Shefer et al., 2004). The study also found a greater tendency towards collective authorship among women authors in comparison to males (Shefer et al., 2004).

In the same volume, Macleod's (2004) analysis of research topics in the SAJP from 1999-2003 found that traditional areas of dominance related to assessment, psychotherapy, counselling and psychopathology, as well as hard science methodological frameworks, persisted in published work. Macleod (2004) also shows that knowledge is being primarily produced about the urban middle-class in the country's most affluent provinces, and that academics from historically white academic institutions continue to dominate knowledge production in the country. She further notes a poor representation of research that examines the intersection of the individual and the socio-political context, thus continuing to add fuel to historical debates about the relevance of psychology in South Africa, particularly for the country's majority (Macleod, 2004).

Also in this volume, Seedat et al. (2004) presented the only analysis of knowledge production in journals that focuses on CP in South Africa to date. In this study, Seedat et al. (2004) conducted a content analysis of CP articles appearing in the SAJP and PINS in the decade after apartheid, reporting on authorship characteristics, article type and participant characteristics and article topics. Most articles were single-authored (63.9%), men authored slightly more articles than women (52.6%), and most authors were affiliated to historically white institutions. Most articles were empirical (38.8%), whilst a large proportion was theoretical (31.9%). Reporting on the content of the 18 empirical studies in the dataset, Seedat et al. (2004) found that studies involving adult samples were most common, and studies on children were least common. Most participants were drawn from school settings (although these were mostly adults) and clinics/health centres. Most studies used mixed gender samples. Most studies focussed on black participants, followed by mixed white and black samples, with only one study of only-white participants (Seedat et al., 2004). This study found that the topics of existing literature on CP in South African journals reflected a response to the 'crisis of relevance' in psychology, which had surfaced in the 1980s. Topics included the *relevance, appropriateness and scope of psychology* in South Africa (46.8%), *mental health policy and services* (34%), *specific mental health and psychosocial issues* (34%) (e.g. HIV/AIDS, violence, sexually transmitted diseases, political violence, suicide and psychopathology), *gender specific issues* (6.4%), and *'race' specific issues* (4.3%). These studies reflect that several authors have attempted to foreground the study and

analysis of gender and race in CP, but highlight that issues of gender and race remain neglected, both at the level of the authorship and content of published research. Some of the issues raised within CP articles in this analysis included addressing training deficits, redefining the role of psychologists, the need for preventative, empowering and collaborative interventions with marginalised groups, valuing community strengths and competencies and advocating for more inclusive modes of knowledge production (Seedat et al., 2004).

There are only a few empirical studies of trends in South African journals that have included recent data. Macleod and Howell (2013) conducted a follow-up study of the trends investigated in Macleod (2004) over the past 5 years in 243 articles from the SAJP and PsycInfo abstracts, and used the same coding method and conceptual framework. The results showed that the proportion of quantitative articles in the SAJP had decreased over time from 44.9% to 30.0%, while the presence of qualitative research had increased substantially from 7.9% to 23.4% (Macleod & Howell, 2013). Contemporary topics identified in the study showed an emphasis on assessment and psychopathology, and articles that focused on social issues were scarce. Authorship continued to be located in the country's major cities, and focused mainly on middle-class populations (Macleod & Howell, 2013). Macleod and Howell (2013) also reported that there was also a reduction in the collaboration between South African researchers and those from Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle East.

Kiguwa and Langa (2011) examined the presence of gender-related and feminist work in the SAJP and PINS in the post-apartheid period. These authors report that gender-focused articles represented 16.6% of the total articles published from 1994-2009 (n = 45). Gender emerged as being related to the themes of HIV/AIDS research, violence and masculinity studies. Whilst HIV and AIDS were primarily studied from a biomedical and individual-behavioural approach in the SAJP, PINS dealt with gender and HIV/AIDS from a primarily social psychology perspective. Topics on gender-based violence in the SAJP centred on general perceptions of gender-based violence, experiences of gender-based violence in institutions, and gendered discourses in narratives of violence, whereas articles in PINS dealt more with the broader ideological and social content of gender-based violence in South Africa. Kiguwa and Langa (2011) report the growth of gender-related studies linked to issues of masculinity emerged as an area of focus, and increasing collaboration between feminist and masculinity researchers.

4. Conceptual Debates in Studies of Local Journals

4.1. Debates about Epistemology and Methodology

Mainstream psychology has emerged in studies of knowledge production as being dominated by traditional scientific, industrial and clinical-developmental foci, with little attention to socio-political issues, especially under apartheid. Thus it has been demonstrated in several studies that the topics and methods of published journals were complicit in maintaining the ideology of apartheid both directly and indirectly. Given South Africa's history of racial segregation and oppression, it is not surprising that the most predominant focus in critical knowledge production studies therefore centres on notions of race, racism and related asymmetries, whilst some earlier studies show a silencing around these issues. Similarly to the international studies in CP reviewed previously, the first studies of psychological knowledge production in South Africa focused on the content and methods of published work. Studies then progressed to focus on group representation and the embeddedness of psychology within the socio-political structures of the country, and then to noting both continuities and discontinuities with apartheid ideology in the post-apartheid period. Areas of contention have emerged in the political positioning of articles relative to their activist orientation or their complicity with apartheid ideology. General trends mirror those of psychology elsewhere – the marginalisation of groups in society is mirrored by their marginalisation in forums of knowledge production.

The existing studies of knowledge production in South Africa reveal interesting methodological trends. South African studies typically use longer time periods for their empirical analyses, possibly due to the significantly smaller proportion of publications. The SAJP and PINS are the primary local journals used to investigate trends in mainstream and critical psychology in South Africa, respectively. A large proportion of work on knowledge production in psychology has emerged from doctoral work (see Duncan, 1993; Macleod, 1999; Seedat, 1993). This work has contributed to a greater theoretical foundation in empirical studies of knowledge production in South African psychology than is noted in international published work in CP. Seedat (1990; 1993; 1998; 2001a; 2001b) views knowledge production in South Africa as part of a colonial pattern of domination and oppression, drawing on the work of Fanon (1952; 1963) and Bulhan (1985) in arguing for the exclusionary character of psychology. The analyses by Duncan (1993; 2001) and Stevens (2003) also draw on the work of theorists such as Franz Fanon (1952; 1963) and Hussein Bulhan (1985), as well as the work of Teun van Dijk (1992; 1993) on racism and discourse. These authors locate their discursive analyses within a social constructionist

paradigm, utilising the depth-hermeneutics framework (Thompson, 1988; 1990). The work by Macleod (2001; 2003a; 2003b) and Macleod and Durrheim (2002) represent a different line of theoretical preference evident in the psychological study of knowledge production. Whilst also preferring a discursive analytic method, these studies draw on the work of theorists such as Michel Foucault, Jacque Derrida, Ian Parker and Norman Fairclough. However, an in depth theoretical account of published work specifically in CP is lacking in both international and local studies.

In general, CP is a marginal presence in local published work, but some clear differences are evident in comparison to international journals. South African journals in general have a more theoretical, and a less empirical, basis. Similarly, CP has this same character although the proportion of empirical articles is far lower. Knowledge production in international CP is much more collaborative, whereas it is predominantly individually driven in South Africa. CP in South Africa focuses mostly on black populations, whereas participants in international CP studies are predominantly white. Other fields of psychology in South Africa also focus more on white populations. Authors of CP articles in South Africa and abroad are largely academics. Whilst this appears to be a consistent trend observed internationally in the last decade, the studies in South Africa suggest increasing proportions in the academic affiliation of authors. Topics in CP in the study by Seedat et al. (2004) suggest that CP knowledge production has significantly different foci than contemporary international research, suggesting the importance of the role of socio-political context and the stage of disciplinary development in informing publication choices.

4.2. Concluding Remarks about Studies of Local Journals

Several psychological journal-based studies have dealt with issues of diversity and representivity in authorship, and reflect a continued marginalisation of black (and particularly black female) authors (Shefer et al., 2004). The study of gender in knowledge production has largely emerged as part of the study of race in the earlier studies, and but seems to have assumed greater prominence in recent years. Within international studies of knowledge production, a focus on culture and diversity is more common, whereas South African studies tend to focus on race, racism and processes of racialisation.

Existing trend analyses provide some direction for a critical investigation of knowledge production in CP locally and internationally. Examining choices in theory, method, topics, and groups of focus are all relevant to unpacking and comparing the status of published work in CP in different contexts. They point to several historical patterns of dominance and marginality that require further elaboration, but often fall short of critically

reflecting on and theorising about the reasons why these patterns emerge, or the agendas these patterns serve. Further analysis of the characteristics of scholarly work in different socio-political milieus is warranted to further elaborate on the interface between knowledge production and the development of the field.

5. Gaps in the Literature

The present study responds to the following gaps identified in the empirical literature on knowledge production in psychology and CP within the previous two chapters.

5.1. Gaps in International Studies

(i) Past international empirical studies of knowledge production in CP have either maintained a singular focus using a lengthy time period (20-37 years) or reported on general characteristics using a short time period (5 years or less).

(ii) Existing studies have struggled to balance breadth of scope in focus or the selection of data sources with the length of the time period of analysis.

(iii) Past international studies have concentrated their analyses of knowledge production on the AJCP and JCP, and have therefore limited their scope to the characteristics of these journal publications, assuming that this is representative of CP.

(iv) The attributes of publications in journals in the JCASP and JPIC have not been the focus of empirical studies of knowledge production in CP. In general, this has introduced a North American bias into understandings of the patterns of knowledge production.

(v) Singular focus studies have largely focused on specific diversity issues related to gender, cultural diversity, sexual orientation and disability over a long time period. However, these studies have typically focused on one domain of diversity, such as gender (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2000; 2003), lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgendered people (e.g. D' Augelli, 1989), ethnicity (e.g. Loo et al., 1988) or a particular cultural group (e.g. Latinos in Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus, 1994). The use of different time periods and different data sources has limited the comparison of diversity issues in these studies.

(vi) Few of the international singular focus studies examine intersections between different dimensions of diversity or marginalisation, but these have typically included a limited range of overlapping categories in an individual study (e.g. gender, race, disability and sexual orientation in Gutierrez, 2010).

(vii) Singular focus studies have to some extent focussed on overlapping concerns between CP and other fields of psychology but these have mainly been limited to the domains of health psychology and industrial psychology. The choice of journals in the current study permits insights about overlapping concerns with a wider range of fields in South African journals and international journals, particularly those of social psychology and critical psychology, owing to the choice of journals in the study.

(viii) Existing international studies that focus on the general attributes of empirical articles, such as their methodology, topics investigated and the demographic characteristics of the authors or participants concentrate on trends prior to the 2000s. Studies that report on the full range of publication types that appear in journals are rare. Many of these studies include only selected aspects of the full range of potential areas of inquiry.

(ix) No international study has systematically documented all of the general publication characteristics related to authorship, article type, topics and methods, alongside specific focus areas related to the representation of marginalised groups in a single dataset, time frame and coding framework. The comprehensive focus of the present study constitutes an expansion of the boundaries of existing empirical studies of knowledge production. It allows for consistency in the observations generated across the entire scope of the data analysis. It also facilitates the inclusion of different elements of published work in all their complexity, highlighting their intersecting relationships.

(x) While there are a few contemporary international studies that have focused on selected aspects of social marginalisation and intersecting identities, none of these examine all of the groupings that are included in this study, including both primary forms of structural disadvantage, as well as other forms of social exclusion. In particular, categories such as HIV status, socio-economic status, urban-rural location and migration have been omitted from international studies.

(xi) Past international studies have not considered trends in knowledge production in relation to authors or participants from countries outside the US, or the dynamics of knowledge production between majority and minority world countries.

(xii) Existing empirical research is exclusively quantitative in nature. No mixed method or qualitative studies of knowledge production in CP have been identified.

5.2. Gaps in South African Studies

(i) Studies of knowledge production in local journals have typically focussed on identifying trends in psychology as a whole, with only the study by Seedat et al. (2004) specifically focusing on published work in CP in the past decade. This study is limited to the mid-1990s to the mid-2000s, and focuses only on CP studies in South African journals.

(ii) Conversely, an initial exploration of the presence of South African research reported in Ismail (2008) included a focus on South African studies in a five–year period in one international journal (JCP). However, the limited time period and journal section in this study yielded a marginal sample of South African studies, which precluded the meaningful quantitative analysis of this body of work.

(iii) No empirical studies have investigated the joint local and international contribution of South African authors and articles in such a wide range of journals to knowledge production in CP over the entire duration of the past decade.

(iv) The study by Seedat (1993) is the only quantitative based empirical study in South African journals that focussed predominantly on general publication trends in psychology and included a comparative focus on CP, but this study is limited in its focus to reporting on trends in the apartheid period, ending shortly before the 1990s.

(v) The study of marginalised groups in South African CP knowledge production has been limited to a primary focus on race, with a secondary focus on gender.

(vi) Empirical studies on intersecting identities have primarily been conducted with regard to the intersections of race and gender (e.g. Kiguwa & Langa, 2011; Shefer et al., 2004). These studies have not considered the social marginalisation of groups excluded by their migration status, socio-economic status, sexual orientation, disability, location, age or HIV status.

(vii) The studies on intersecting identities related to gender and race have been focussed on psychology as a whole and have not been limited to insights about CP. In studies of CP, diversity dimensions have concentrated exclusively on issues of race, and to a lesser extent, gender. The study of intersecting identities and other forms of social marginalisation in CP literature has been largely unexplored.

(viii) South African studies of knowledge production have either been quantitative or qualitative, with no mixed method studies being advocated. Studies on published

work specifically in CP have been quantitatively oriented.

5.3. The Absence of a Comparative Focus

(i) There are no empirical studies of knowledge production that compare broad trends in CP in local and international journals, let alone a study that compares these trends within the same time frame and the same coding framework.

(ii) The only international study identified with a comparative dimension by Sasao and Yasuda (2007), contains a contemporary analysis of Japanese knowledge production in CP and compares this to the results of prior analyses in US journals.

(iii) The comparative perspective in the selected journals brings a new dimension to understanding contemporary similarities and differences in knowledge production between majority world and minority world countries, and especially positions South African scholarship within the international arena.

(iv) Whilst several of the variables that are explored within the current study appear in previous studies, the coding framework that has been applied to the data is unique in two respects. Firstly, this coding framework synthesises a range of variables that have previously been dealt with in isolation. It also adds new variables and codes that draw on the data and literature in both local and international contexts, and not exclusively in either one. This has added a new dimension to the coding which is integrative and more inclusive. Moreover, several new coding domains have been added to the coding framework, which have not appeared in any previous analyses.

(v) There is also a novel comparative perspective that is introduced through the comparison of the development of knowledge in CP in regions in which the discipline has historically emerged in different time periods and under different social conditions. This adds to debates about the modes of knowledge production, as it allows us to view and compare knowledge production within the same field but emerging from different social conditions.

(vi) The use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods in the coding process, data analysis and data interpretation also allows for a comparison of the contribution of each of these methods to identifying trends in knowledge production.

7. Conclusion

The preceding chapters have presented an exploration of the literature on theoretical perspectives within and outside of CP as well as local and international empirical studies of knowledge production that are relevant to the research focus of this thesis. These chapters served to situate the present study within the broader family of studies to which it belongs and illustrate its contribution to addressing the identified knowledge gaps. The chapter that follows presents the methodology of the study.

Chapter 7

Methodology

1. Introduction

This chapter begins by locating the study within the critical-emancipatory paradigm as a conceptual foundation for the methodological choices that were made. The chapter then describes the research design, illustrating the rationale for using a mixed method approach and the specific mixed method components of the study. The chapter proceeds to detail the research questions that were developed from engaging with the literature, which serve to concretise the principal focus of the study. The chapter continues with a description of the dataset, and then provides a rationale for the choice of journals that were selected including an overview of their distinctive attributes. This serves to facilitate a greater understanding of how each of the journals and its contents responds to a specific component of the study's focus. The chapter proceeds by provided an in depth explanation of the coding framework that was developed and applied to the data. This includes a detailed discussion of the purpose of each variable that was created and the coding parameters of the study. The explication of the coding framework is followed by a consideration of issues of reflexivity.

2. Research Approach

The study is located within the critical-emancipatory tradition. This paradigm departs from frameworks that simply seek to understand society, towards advancing the agenda of social change (Seidman, 2004). A critical orientation seeks to engage with psychological theory and practice, through the lens of examining relations of power (Hook, 2004). It asserts that all knowledge is tied to power structures within society and holds that the reality we perceive results from interacting and conflictual social forces (Swart & Bowman, 2007). It advocates that research should unmask the presence and operations of asymmetrical power relations in society and their effects, expose ideologies that maintain the status quo and be directed at challenging these imbalances (Bhana & Kanjee, 2001; Prilleltensky, 2001).

Research positioned within this paradigm attempts to recentre the voices of marginalised groups. This approach is appropriate to the study as it primarily seeks to critically interrogate CP and evaluate the alignment of published work with a transformative agenda. Critical theory, activism and social transformation form core elements of CP values and praxis. However, no knowledge domain is immune from critique, and using critical

approach strengthens understandings about the politics of knowledge production that operate within CP. The critical paradigm advocates the use of quantitative, qualitative and mixed-method techniques of data collection and analysis that are able to serve the values and purposes of critical research.

3. Research Design

The research design used here falls within the umbrella methodological framework of mixed method research. Also known by terms such as 'multi-method research' (Brewer & Hunter, 1989), 'mixed method methodology' (Creswell, 2003), 'methodological mixes' or the 'paradigm of choices' (Patton, 2002), 'mixed method research' is the most recent consensual formulation of this approach (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a). As these shifts in terminology suggest, mixed method research has evolved through several phases. Creswell and Clarke (2007) trace the origins of mixed method research to several significant studies that each provided a different angle on the integration of research methods. These are: Campbell and Fiske's (1959) use of multiple quantitative methods in a single study; Sieber's (1973) use of surveys in combination with interviews; Jick's (1979) exposition of the value of triangulation; and Cook and Reichardt's (1979) framework for combining quantitative and qualitative data (cited in Creswell & Clarke, 2007). These studies formed some of the precursors to a discretely identifiable mixed method research approach.

This formative stage was followed by an intense period of ontological, epistemological and methodological debate commonly known as the 'paradigm wars' that were waged between positivist/objectivist and constructivist/interpretivist camps from the 1960s to the 1980s (Curlette, 2006; Guba & Lincoln, 1985). The paradigm wars centred on the contrasting ontological and epistemological positions occupied by these camps and their association with particular research methods (Bryman, 2008). The crux of the paradigm debate raises the question of whether philosophical paradigms and research methods have to fit, and if so, which form of paradigm-method fit is the 'best' (Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clarke, Petska, & Creswell, 2005). Rossman and Wilson (1985) referred to those who maintained that paradigms could not be mixed as methodological *purists*. These were contrasted with *situationalists*, who adjusted their position on the most appropriate method according to what a given situation dictated, and the *pragmatists*, who emphasised the practical utility of mixing research methods (Rossman & Wilson, 1985). At the peak of the friction between the qualitative and quantitative methodological contingents, mixed methods advocates had to grapple with the challenge of the 'incompatibility thesis' (Howe, 1988) in order to be defined as a viable research approach. This thesis was primarily

defended against through the argument of pragmatism (Bergman, 2008b; Curlette, 2006; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a). At the height of the paradigm wars, scholars argued the assumptions of qualitative and quantitative research methods were fundamentally opposed (Bergman, 2008b; Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2007). In this typology, the positivist/objectivist position claimed quantitative research methods, whereas qualitative methods were associated with interpretive/constructivist accounts of social reality (Bryman, 2008). However, Bergman (2008b) suggests that such a rigid categorisation of research should have alerted us to its inherent implausibility. The idea of qualitative and quantitative methods being diametrically opposed raises suspicion if one considers how complex and messy the research process is (Bergman, 2008b). Rather than signalling deep-seated differences in the assumptions and tenets, Bergman (2008b) speculates that this demarcation rather implies a form of negotiated settlement established around previously mutual research territory. Similarly, Bryman (2008) suggests that the stark differences highlighted in accounts of qualitative and quantitative research methods exaggerate their differences. Mixed method research questions the premises on which the qualitative-quantitative divide is based, and highlights the heterogeneity within both methods as the basis for establishing the potential for the existence of multiple points of synergy between them (Bergman, 2008b). Mixed methods research is "an attitude of inquiry, an approach to research quality and to what makes for adequate explanations of social phenomena" (Fielding, 2008, p. 51).

Mixed method research has grown through the stages of formative development, through to methodological debate and standoff, and then to procedural development in the late 1990s (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2007). In the past decade, it has progressed to a stage of identity consolidation and advocacy (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2007), and has become a paradigm in its own right (Bergman, 2008a; Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; 2003a).

In mixed method research, knowledge is generated through the concurrent or sequential use of qualitative and quantitative approaches to generate knowledge (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Stange, Crabtree, & Miller, 2006; Stange, Miller, Crabtree, O'Conner & Zyzanski, 1994; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b). Mixed method research involves the collection, analysis and interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative data to investigate a phenomenon (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006), and upholds the importance and utility of both methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). It seeks to combine the complementary aspects of these approaches, as a means of addressing their individual limitations (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Stange, Crabtree, & Miller, 2006), thereby strengthening their contribution to knowledge through triangulation (Jick, 1979),

and creating a better understanding of the research problem than either of these perspectives can provide alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Instead of exclusively focusing on their differences, mixed method research also focuses on the similarities between quantitative and qualitative approaches (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), and therefore attempts to bridge the epistemological, ontological, and axiological distinctions drawn between these methods (Bergman, 2008a) - and thereby represents a respite in paradigm warring. In so doing, this approach reveals the discrepancies within these constructed binaries (Bergman, 2008a). Instead, mixed method research seeks to illustrate that the boundaries of what it is possible to know are established by the research aims and questions posed by a study, and the perspectives brought to bear on them, and not necessarily by the methods used to answer them (Bergman, 2008b).

Mixed method research is less restrictive on researchers, allowing them full command of the range of research choices and tools at their disposal in responding to social problems (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2007; Fielding, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As research becomes more interdisciplinary, the use of mixed methods allows researchers from different disciplines to collaborate in processes of social inquiry and promotes interdisciplinary communication (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Mixed method research also permits engagement with research questions that arise from the convergence or divergence of results from qualitative and quantitative approaches, and allows researchers to grapple with the issues emerging from their interaction (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2007). More succinctly, in mixed method research, the whole is more than the sum of its parts. This approach therefore promotes greater sophistication in understanding social phenomena (Fielding, 2008).

Despite its advantages, using mixed method research presents significant challenges. It typically requires extensive data collection; the analysis of both textual and numeric data is time-consuming; and the researcher is required to be competent in and have a solid understanding of both qualitative and quantitative research methods (Creswell, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Mixed method research not only has pragmatic limitations, but can also raise conceptual tensions, which researchers need to carefully negotiate.

Several mixed method research designs have been proposed, although the design elements of mixed methods studies are far from resolution (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b). Mixed method studies are situated on a continuum from exclusive mono-method studies to fully mixed studies, with various permutations of mixing in between (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Once a study integrates qualitative and quantitative techniques, it is no longer mono-methodological, but is instead a study with

either a partially or completely mixed design (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). This integration of quantitative and qualitative elements can extend to the formulation of the research objectives, the type of data itself, the types of analyses conducted, and/or the types of inferences made about the data (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). Partially mixed studies involve the initial concurrent or sequential use of qualitative and quantitative methods in their entirety, with mixing occurring only at the level of interpretation. In contrast, fully mixed studies occur within any of the earlier stages of the research process (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009).

The dimensions of timing/time ordering, weighting/emphasis/status, and degree of mixing/mixture typically differentiate mixed method designs (Creswell, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). The *timing* of the design refers to the chronological progression of phases of data collection (sequential qualitative-then-quantitative, sequential quantitative-then-qualitative or concurrent qualitative and quantitative), which includes the rationale for this timing (Creswell, 2009; Johnson, & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). The *weighting* (Creswell, 2009), *emphasis* (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009) or *status* (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) refers to the attributed importance of the different forms of data (equal, qualitative dominant, quantitative dominant); and the rationale for this emphasis. The degree and stages of *mixing* refer to the integration of approaches within the study's research questions, epistemological framework or interpretation. In the extent of their mixing, studies can be *integrative*, *connecting* or *embedded* (Creswell, 2009). The thesis adopts a mixed method design that is sequential quantitative-then-qualitative; quantitative dominant; and embedded. The study is sequential in terms of timing of data collection and analysis, in that the phase of quantitative data collection and analysis took place before the qualitative analysis. The study is a quantitative dominant in weighting since the majority of the results are reported within a quantitative format, but qualitative results are also reported. The study is embedded since the quantitative analysis and part of the overall framework it provided guided the qualitative data analysis.

Creswell (2009) defines a final dimension for consideration in mixed method research: the theoretical dimension, which may be explicit or implicit. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) extend this theoretical component of mixed method research by proposing that studies can either have an explicitly critical theory or transformative-emancipatory dimension, or may alternatively use a less explicit ideological orientation. The transformative-emancipatory approach to mixed methods research focuses on the politics of research and the values underpinning research, with an emphasis on promoting social justice

and pluralism, and maintaining sensitivity to issues of power (Mertens, 2003). Researchers operating from a transformative-emancipatory paradigm caution against the use of pragmatism as the sole justification of using mixed methods, and urge social scientists to consider that the choice of research methods should reflect on the ends to which that research is directed (Mertens, 2003). They advocate that the goal of promoting social justice should permeate each stage of the research process (Mertens, 1998). A mixed method design nested within a transformative-emancipatory paradigm should seek to utilize both qualitative and quantitative research methods for the purpose of capturing the complexity of a research problem that links to broader questions of social justice (Mertens, 2003). Ultimately, it should provide a more comprehensive understanding of the lives of those who are oppressed or subject to discrimination, on the basis of race, gender, sexual orientation, disability, socio-economic status or any other category of social marginalisation (Mertens, 2003). This connects well to the purpose of this study, in which characteristics of published work are highlighted with a view to examining patterns of dominance and marginality, the representation of marginalised groups, and the use of theoretical, methodological and axiological approaches that promote social justice.

4. Research Questions

Research questions are an extension of the purpose of a study and reflect the central problem that a study intends to consider. They provide the boundaries of a study and play a central role in organizing research and improving its relevance, direction and coherence (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). In mixed method research, research questions are central drivers of a study's design, and largely dictate the methodological decisions that are made with regard to the selection of the sampling frame, sample size, and analytic techniques. Research questions are even more important in mixed method studies than in mono-method studies because they need to include both quantitative and qualitative components in a single inquiry. Following the formulation of the aims and objectives of a study, mixed method research has the added challenge of needing to engage with providing a rationale for introducing methodological mixing. In this study, methodological mixing addresses the need for a broad overview of patterns occurring within published work, as well as detailed interpretation of how dominance and marginality are articulated in more subtle ways within the realm of knowledge production.

The following research questions informed the study:

1. What are the characteristics of contemporary published work in CP within South African journals?

    1.1. What types of publications are evident?
    1.2. What topics are being researched and how are they approached?
    1.3. What are the methodological choices reflected in empirical research?
    1.4. What are the theoretical preferences embedded in scholarly work?

2. How do the characteristics of contemporary published work in CP compare to the overall trends in psychology within South African journals?

3. What are the characteristics of contemporary published work in CP within international journals?

    3.1. What types of publications are evident?
    3.2. What topics are being researched and how are they approached?
    3.3. What are the methodological choices reflected in empirical research?
    3.4. What are the theoretical preferences embedded in scholarly work?

4. How do the characteristics of contemporary published work in CP published by local and international authors differ?

5. What patterns of dominance and marginality are evident from the characteristics of published work in CP?

6. How are patterns of dominance and marginality articulated through knowledge production?

7. What do the characteristics of knowledge production in CP reveal about the issues at stake for the field?

5. Data Set

The study of knowledge production requires a collection of documents deemed to encompass the relevant knowledge base under investigation. In the social sciences, most research that uses documents as data sources focuses on their content (Prior, 2008). Thus,

there is a long tradition of viewing documents as containers for content or information (Prior, 2008). The selection of an appropriate set of documents for analysis is crucial for establishing the nature of the type of content that serves the aims of a study. The data set comprised all articles published within the AJCP, JCP, JPIC, JCASP, PINS and SAJP over a ten-year period (from 1 January 2000 to 31 December 2009).

5.1. International Journals

The AJCP, JCP, JCASP and JPIC were selected as international sources of scholarly work in CP. Both the AJCP and JCP have been extensively used in other studies on publication trends in CP (see Appendix B Table B 1), and are heralded "the best sources of representative research in community psychology" (Angelique & Culley, 2003, p. 192). The AJCP and JCP have international standing, historical significance and disciplinary dominance. Other journals related to CP were also investigated for inclusion in the dataset in order to establish a wider range of international published work (See Appendix A, Table A 1. for a more extensive summary of existing community-related journals that were reviewed). The JPIC was chosen as a prominent CP journal, which has an established international identity and an interventionist focus. Interestingly, this journal has never been used in any previous empirical studies of knowledge production in CP. Its inclusion therefore represents a novel component of the study. Similarly, there are no previous studies in CP that have used the JCASP. The JCASP was chosen in recognition of its inclusion of an array of international work (Kloos et al., 2012).

5.1.1. American Journal of Community Psychology. The AJCP is the official journal of the SCRA, representing Division 27 of the APA (the division of CP) (APA, 2013; Springer, 2013). Division 27 originally established the journal in 1972. The first issue of this journal was published in 1973 (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). SCRA continues to publish the AJCP in association with the APA and currently supports 23 regional groups of community psychologists in six US regions, as well as CP groups in Canada, Western Europe and the South Pacific (APA, 2013). It is currently under the editorship of Prof. Jacob Tebes. The AJCP focuses on the areas of innovative community-based intervention (such as collaborative research, intervention planning, advocacy, consultation and training); individual and community health and wellness; community processes and policy development in educational, legal and occupational contexts; social welfare and social justice (Springer, 2013). The scope of the topics that are published in the journal is extensive and includes research, theory and descriptive elements of interventions on these

topics. The AJCP publishes a range of different article types, including qualitative, quantitative and mixed method research, theoretical articles, empirical reviews, reports of community interventions and policies, and autobiographical accounts of stakeholders involved in community-based research, intervention and policy (Springer, 2013). The journal obtained an impact factor of 1.736 in 2011 (Springer, 2013). It has an H index of 62 (SCImago Journal & Country Rank [SJR] a, 2014).

5.1.2. Journal of Community Psychology. The JCP was also established in 1973 in the US, and is therefore a historical contemporary of the AJCP in terms of longevity. The JCP was launched to give community psychologists an alternative forum to publish their work (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). Along with the AJCP, the JCP is regarded as one of the primary journals of CP (Boyd & Angelique, 2002). However, the JCP has typically maintained a more internationally oriented reputation (Graham & Ismail, 2011). This is reflected in an editorial board of community psychologists from different regions. The JCP publishes articles that deal with human behaviour in community settings, including aspects such as community-based research, descriptions and evaluations of community interventions, assessment in community contexts, and the design of applied community work (Wiley, 2013). Prof. Raymond Lorion edits the JCP, which obtained an impact factor of 0.985 in 2011 (Wiley, 2013), and has an H index of 47 (SJRb, 2014).

5.1.3. Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology. The JCASP was formally established in 1991 under the editorship of Geoffrey Stevenson and Jim Orford, who remained its editors until 2002 (Schruijer & Stephenson, 2010). This international academic journal is based in Europe and was formerly known as *Social Behaviour: An International Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, which was edited by Geoffrey Stephenson and James H. Davis. *Social Behaviour* initially sought to provide a forum for the publications of social psychologists, whose applied focus on social problems was not readily amenable for publication in mainstream psychology journals. However, it became apparent that the title of the journal was not commensurate with its aims and the journal was transformed into the JCASP five years after its inception (Schruijer & Stephenson, 2010). It was recognised that the journal would more fully realise its mission by being recast as an UK/European-based journal of CP (Schruijer & Stephenson, 2010). In its initial announcement, the journal articulated its aims as being "to foster international communication between those concerned with the social psychological analysis and critical understanding of community issues and problems, and to develop this understanding in the

context of proposals for interventions and social policy" (Stephenson & Orford, 1991, p.1). It seeks to draw together insights on health care, social service provision and community problems (Stephenson & Orford, 1991). Its central focus is on understanding "social behaviour in relation to community problems and strengths" (Wiley-Blackwell, 2013, para. 2).

Prof. Flora Cornish from Glasgow Caledonian University currently edits the journal. Several associate editors and an editorial board assist her in this role. Although primarily based in Europe, the journal has an international scope, and this international perspective is an important feature of the journal (Schruijer & Stephenson, 2010). This international focus has contributed to the establishment of an editorial board that reflected an emphasis on cultural diversity. These scholars are drawn from a diverse array of countries, including Australia, Italy, Germany, Puerto Rico, the USA, the UK, Venezuela, Chile, New Zealand, South Africa, China, Finland, Samoa, Romania, the Netherlands, Brazil, Portugal and Spain (Wiley, 2013). The JCASP publishes papers on a bimonthly basis. It focuses particularly on publishing quantitative, qualitative and mixed method research articles, theoretical and topic reviews, book reviews, commentaries on new ideas or projects, and praxis reports by practitioners and action researchers (Wiley, 2013). The journal aims to foster dialogue between psychologists, community practitioners, health professionals, social workers, social scientists and psychiatrists, as well as lay members of communities (Wiley, 2013). It seeks to promote innovative concepts, methods and interventions, as well as promote wellbeing and social justice. The journal obtained an impact factor of 1.247 in 2011 (Wiley, 2013), and has an H index of 32 (SJRd, 2014).

5.1.4. Journal of Prevention and Intervention in the Community. The JPIC has a strong focus on social action, community intervention and prevention, maintaining an emphasis on defining the future of CP (Taylor & Francis, 2013). The JPIC is geared towards promoting social action and change through providing mental health and human service professionals with current information on the prevention of problems and effective community interventions. The journal is renowned for its intensive and innovative community research. The journal was established under its current name in 1996, and was formerly known as the *Community Mental Health Review* (1976-1981) and Prevention in Human Services (1982-1995) (Taylor & Francis, 2013). The journal was retitled to reflect its focus of providing professionals with information on the leading, effective community intervention and prevention programmes (Taylor & Francis, 2013). The JPIC has been under the editorship of Prof. Joseph Ferrari from De Paul University in Chicago since it was

renamed. Several student editors at this institution and an editorial board assist him. The Editorial Board mostly hail from different areas of the US, but also include Latin American scholars from Venezuela and Peru (Taylor & Francis, 2013). Initially published by Haworth Press, the journal has been published by Taylor and Francis since 2010. The journal has an H index of 15 (SJRd, 2014).

5.2. Local Journals

The SAJP and PINS were chosen as locally published sources of published work in CP. No journals of CP exist in South Africa, and PINS and the SAJP have historically shaped the development of CP in South Africa and provided a platform for intellectual inquiry into CP knowledge production.

5.2.1. South African Journal of Psychology. As the main research journal in South African psychology (Cooper & Nicholas, 2012), the SAJP has a prominent position in South African knowledge production. The SAJP is the official journal of PsySSA and is considered "the most popular and privileged journal in South African psychology" (Seedat et al., 2004, p. 600). It is an appropriate journal for sourcing South African published work in CP due to its standing in the psychological profession (Seedat et al., 2004). The SAJP has a high level of circulation and readership within the profession of psychology in South Africa and boasts a significant number of annual submissions. The journal has been published continuously and at regular intervals for nearly four decades without interruption (ASSAF, 2010). The journal is currently under the editorship of Prof. Anthony Pillay. The editor and associate editors are generally prominent, well-respected local academics with a national, rather than international standing (ASSAF, 2010). Some international scholars are represented on the editorial board, which includes four presidents of sister psychological associations, suggesting a professional rather than scholarly affiliation (ASSAF, 2010). The range of topics covered by articles in this journal is extensive. This includes methodological issues in research, philosophical issues related to the discipline of psychology, psychological measurement and assessment, and clinical treatment and services, which is often augmented by special editions with more political or social content (ASSAF, 2010). The journal is less representative of national or policy-driven applied research (ASSAF, 2010).

5.2.2. Psychology in Society. PINS has historically represented an alternative, more critically orientated publication forum for South African CP scholarship (Seedat et al.,

2004). PINS aims to stimulate the publication of socio-historical and critically oriented articles about the theory and practice of psychology in Southern Africa (PINS, 2013). The journal has a narrowly defined disciplinary emphasis that centres on 'critical' and 'societal' psychology (ASSAF, 2010). The journal was established in 1983 (PINS, 2013), and was mainly established as a publishing forum for psychologists who were disillusioned by mainstream psychology under apartheid (Cooper & Nicholas, 2012). As an independent journal, PINS receives little infrastructural support, which has impacted on the frequency of publication. Thus, while the journal has been published continuously since its establishment, publications have not always been generated at consistent intervals (ASSAF, 2010). Prof. Grahame Hayes, from the University of KwaZulu-Natal, has edited the journal for the past 20 years, but has recently retired in 2012. An editorial board constituted by a range of South African scholars, based in South Africa and the UK, assists him (PINS, 2013). PINS has a lower circulation and readership than the SAJP, with around 200 copies being published per issue (ASSAF, 2010). However, the journal has particular historical and contemporary prominence within critical psychology and CP in South Africa. The journal is renowned for its intellectually stimulating articles that promote alternative theoretical and methodological approaches and critical thought. Recent evaluations of the journal have recommended that it be amalgamated with the SAJP (ASSAF, 2010).

6. Procedures

Articles from the AJCP, JCP, JPIC, JCASP, and SAJP were sourced from the electronic research databases of the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits). Access to these articles did not require special permissions, as this institution had already obtained subscriptions for these journals. Articles published within the specified time period in each journal were retrieved and archived electronically. Articles were kept in categories organised by journal name, year of publication, with volume, issue, and page indicators, for ease of reference. The abstracts of all articles were also printed in hard copy where available. Articles from PINS were not available on the Wits research databases but selected issues were electronically available from the official PINS website. I approached the editor of PINS to access archival print copies for other issues that were not accessible. The editor generously supplied me with hard copies of these issues where possible, and sent electronic copies of articles for which hard copies were no longer available.

7. Coding

Once retrieved and organised the dataset was ready for coding and analysis. This section details the coding parameters of each variable. This begins with the general attributes of all articles, and then proceeds with the methodological variables for empirical research, article topics and theoretical orientation.

7.1. Author Characteristics

7.1.1. Institutional affiliation. In South African studies, the articles were coded according to the *name of the institution* to which each of the authors was affiliated. In addition, the *type of unit* to which the author belonged within an academic institution was differentiated, where appropriate. This included: (1) *psychology*; (2) *health sciences* (e.g. psychiatry, nutrition, speech therapy and audiology); (3) *education*; (4) *social sciences* (e.g. women and gender studies, intercultural studies, sociology, criminology, social anthropology, political science); (5) *humanities* (e.g. philosophy; religious studies); (6) *business/management* (e.g. business administration, marketing, communications; human resources); (7) *research institute;* and (8) *social service*/*counselling* unit (including social work and counselling/psychotherapy services).

7.1.2. Collaborative and single authorship. The coding of the number of authors per article emerged from existing studies of knowledge production in psychology and CP (e.g. Seedat et al., 2004). For each article, the number of authors was coded numerically, as well as into discrete categories, to assess the extent of collaborative authorship.

7.1.3. Type of institutions and institutional linkages. Collaboration between authors was extended to include a focus on the nature of the institutional linkages between authors. Thus, the types of collaboration were coded to assess where these crossed over different types of social institutions, and if so, which social institutions were represented in these collaborations. The categories for the formation of the institutional relationships emerged both from the literature on modes of knowledge production (e.g. Gibbons et al., 1994; Scott, 1995), as well as iteratively from the publications themselves. Categories were created for individual authors who had multiple affiliations, as well as for individual authors collaborating with other individual authors. The categories were created from the identification of social institutions in the description of the author's affiliation, as well as in the relationships between social institutions that were reflected across the identified

collaborations between multiple authors in a single study. This included: (1) *university*; (2) *NGO/CBO*; (3) *hospital/clinic*; (4) *government*; (5) *business/company*; and (6) *private* individuals (e.g. private practitioners). The coding for this variable reflects the level of collaborative relationship (i.e. *single, dual, triple* institutional relationship in a single article), as well as the types of institutional arrangements.

7.1.4. Author region. The region of the author's institutional affiliation was coded according to the nine provinces of South Africa for local authors, namely: (1) *Gauteng*; (2) *Western Cape*; (3) *Eastern Cape*; (4) *KwaZulu-Natal*; (5) *Free State*; (6) *North West*; (7) *Limpopo*; (8) *Mpumalanga*; and (9) *Northern Cape*. For international authors, the region of the author's affiliation was coded into the continental region in which the country or city of the institution is classified. Regions for international authors were coded as: (10) *Africa* (for all African countries excl. South Africa) (11) *Europe* (for all countries in Western and Eastern Europe); (12) *Australia and New Zealand*; (13) *North America*; (14) *Latin America*; (15) *Asia*; (16) *multiple region* if the author was affiliated to institutions in different regions; and (17) *other,* if the author's region did not conform to these categories.

7.1.5. Local and international authorship. In articles, authors were also coded for local and international affiliation. Authorship was defined as being local (i.e. South African) if at least one author was affiliated to a South African institution. This also included ex-patriot scholars who previously held positions in local institutions and now hold joint posts locally and abroad. Authors of South African origin who emigrated and gained permanent citizenship outside of South Africa prior to their professional training were classified as international authors.

7.1.6. Primary authors. Primary authors of local articles were coded for race and gender. The race of primary authors was mainly identified through the personal knowledge of the researcher and her academic and professional colleagues. In some cases authors were contacted directly and requested to provide this information. For the remaining authors, details related to race and gender were accessed through their online professional profiles. Race was coded as: (1) *black*; (2) *white*; and (3) *unknown*. In keeping with a critical conceptualisation of racial signifiers in South Africa, the term 'black' was used to refer to all groups that were disadvantaged under Apartheid. Gender was coded as: (1) *male*; (2) *female;* and (3) *unknown*.

7.2. Article Characteristics

7.2.1. Publication type. The coding of publication type drew on the categories outlined by the APA (2009), which also appear in previous studies of this nature (e.g. Graham & Ismail, 2011; Graham & Shirley, in press; Loo et al., 1988; Novaco & Monahan, 1980). Articles were deemed to be (1) *empirical* if they pertained specifically to original research in which data collection took place, or which presented a novel secondary analysis of data (APA, 2009). Therefore, if an article included an introduction, method, results and discussion section, it was deemed to be an empirical study (APA, 2009). An article was coded as a (2) *literature review* if it contained a synthesis of previous research or a critical evaluation of published research studies (APA, 2009). Articles were considered to be (3) *methodological* if they focussed on "new methodological approaches, modifications of existing methods or discussions of quantitative or data analytic approaches" (APA, 2009, p. 10). Articles were coded as being (4) *theoretical* when they specifically focused on the promotion, discussion and advancement of a particular theoretical issue (APA, 2009). Articles were coded as (5) *case studies* if they included reports of case-specific material that focused on individuals, groups, communities or organisations, with a view to illuminating a problem and suggesting areas for future research (APA, 2009).

Several previous studies of published work in CP (e.g. Loo et al., 1988; Martin et al., 2004) have excluded book reviews, rebuttals, editorial statements, film reviews, commemorative speeches, tributes, the introductions to special issues, brief reports and any other such submissions that were less than three pages in length. However, several of these publication types were added here to capture the diversity and range of publications that featured in the journals, and are an important part of noting the overall composition of published work.

Articles coded as (6) *editorials* were those written by the editor that introduced a special issue or section of a journal. (7) *Book reviews* included articles that reviewed and discussed the contents or central arguments of a specific published book. Articles were coded as (8) *commentaries* if they provided a critique and discussion of the contents or arguments within a specific published article. Articles coded as (9) *short reports* were those that presented brief synopses of research findings that were less than three pages in length. (10) *Conference reports* were those articles that reported on the themes and proceedings of a specific conference. Those classified as (11) *tributes* reflected on the life and accomplishments of prominent academics. Articles not conforming to any of these types of publications were classified as (12) *other*.

7.3. Methodological Characteristics

7.3.1. Primary approach. Empirical articles were categorised by the *primary approach* or paradigm that was employed in the research, drawing on the work of Graham and Ismail (2011), Graham and Shirley (in press), Swart and Bowman (2007), and Patton (2002). The primary approach was coded as (1) *positivist* if the research purpose and methodology involved numerical or scientific measurement, the use of correlational, experimental or quasi-experimental research designs, the collection of data through quantitative methods, and the use of statistical data analyses (Swart & Bowman, 2007). Empirical studies were coded as being (2) *interpretive* if the purpose of the study was the understanding of subjective experiences of participants, and the interpretation and the non-judgmental derivation of the perceived meaning of phenomena, using qualitative data collection methods (e.g. unstructured interviews and participant observation). Articles were coded as using a (3) *critical* approach if they primarily aimed to uncover and rectify power asymmetries (Swart & Bowman, 2007). Those that were (4) *mixed method* studies were coded separately in recognition of mixed methods as a distinctive research paradigm (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Studies were coded as employing a mixed method approach if they contained more than one primary research approach, that is, the use of both quantitative and qualitative data collection, interpretation and analysis components in serving the aims of the research. Given the focus of the current research on trends in knowledge production within CP, the use of an applied CP research approach were also distinguished from traditional research paradigms in line with Graham and Ismail (2011); Graham and Shirley (in press) and Swart and Bowman (2007). Articles were coded as using an (5) *applied method* if the research approach involved: (a) a community needs analysis; (b) policy research; (c) participatory action research; or (d) a programme evaluation, which are all action-oriented forms of community research.

7.3.2. Primary method. The primary method of data collection refers to the principal manner in which empirical data was collected. As in Graham & Shirley (in press), the first six categories used were drawn from those described by Zebian, Alamuddin, Maalouf and Chatila (2007). These methods that involved using (1) a self-report *survey* or structured questionnaire; (2) a standardised *test or scale*; (3) *experimental* methods; (4) *quasi-experimental* methods; (5) *qualitative* methods (e.g. semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions); and (6) *archival* studies that drew on pre-existing records and other such data sources (e.g. hospital records, police statistics, reports). Additional

categories were drawn from the dataset that reflected new developments in data collection techniques or methods that were specific to focus on CP as the primary field of investigation. These were: (6) *multi-method* studies (more than one primary method); and (7) *autobiographies* in which the data was the life history or personal experiences of the author. Data that did not fall into these categories was coded as (8) *other*. This included the use of novel technological methods of data collection such as telephone recordings, video footage and GIS coordinates.

7.3.3. Context. The context of data collection was coded as (1) *international* if data was collected outside South Africa, and (2) *local* if data was collected in South Africa. It was also noted if data was collected in (3) *both* an international and local context (e.g. in comparative studies). Studies that failed to indicate whether data was collected in an international context or in South Africa were coded as (4) *not specified*. Given that these were articles in South African journals, it is most likely that these were South African studies in which the context was assumed to be evident.

7.3.4. Region. In local studies, the region of data collection was coded according to the nine provinces of South Africa, namely: (1) *Gauteng*; (2) *Western Cape*; (3) *Eastern Cape*; (4) *KwaZulu-Natal*; (5) *Free State*; (6) *North West*; (7) *Limpopo*; (8) *Mpumalanga*; and (9) *Northern Cape*. The region of data collection was coded as (10) *national* if data was collected in more than four of these provinces. For international studies, the region of the data collection was coded into the continental region of the country or city where the data collection took place. International studies were coded as: (11) *Africa* (for all African countries excluding South Africa) (12) *Europe* (for all countries in Western and Eastern Europe); (13) *Australia and New Zealand*; (14) *North America*; (15) *South America*; (16) *Asia*. Research was coded as (17) *multiple region* where data was collected in different regions; (18) *other* if the region of data collection did not conform to any of the other categories; and (19) *unspecified* if the region of data collection could not be determined from the article.

7.3.5. Setting. Hennessy and Greenberg (1994) note the importance of distinguishing between clinical and community based settings in mental health research. The setting of data collection was coded using categories emerging from the data in a multiple-response format, to account for the possibility of multiple settings in a single study. These were: (1) *hospital or clinic*; (2) *university*; (3) *school*; (4) *company* (e.g. organisation,

business premises or workplace); (5) *residential care* (e.g. shelters or residential care facilities for children, the disabled and elderly); (6) *participant's home*; (7) *rural* areas (e.g. a village or farm); (8) *police or law enforcement* (e.g. police station or court); (9) *medico-legal* (e.g. district surgeon or medico-legal clinic); (10) *recreation/leisure venue* (e.g. nightclub, coffee shop, gym, restaurant or shopping centre); (11) *general community*; (12) *crèche*; (13) *private practice*; (14) *church* or formal religious group; (15) *internet*; (16) *support group*; (17) *NGO/CBO*; (18) *correctional centre*; and (19) *military institution*.

7.3.6. Sample size. The sample size was identified to distinguish between studies that used small data sets and those that used larger data sets. The size of the sample or dataset was divided into the categories of (1) *1-10*; (2) *11-30*; (3) *31-100*; (4) *101-200*; (5) *201-500*; and (6) *more than 500* cases. These categories were generated organically from the data, and were selected to differentiate a range from small to large datasets. The sample size was coded as (7) *not specified* if the numerical size of the sample was not indicated (e.g. studies that used media advertisements or documents as data sources).

7.3.7. Data analysis. Several forms of data analysis were identified in the data. The methods of data analysis were coded using multiple response categories to reflect the use of more than one data analytic technique where applicable. The methods of data analysis were coded into the categories of (1) *descriptive* statistics (including the use of basic descriptive statistical techniques such as frequencies, percentages, standard deviations and means); (2) *inferential* statistics (including the use of parametric or non-parametric significance testing); (3) *content analysis* (including thematic and conceptual content analysis); (4) *interpretive* (including interpretive phenomenology; grounded theory; case study analysis; narrative analysis and ethnographic research); and (5) *discourse analysis*. Studies that used methods of data analysis outside of these categories were coded as (6) *other*.

7.3.8. Theories. Articles were coded for the explicit use of theories or theoretical constructs. This was coded using a multiple response format to allow for more than one theoretical preference in a single article. The categories for theories were drawn from the literature in CP, previous empirical studies of knowledge production, as well as iteratively from the data itself.

Table 1. *Coding Categories for Theories*

Theory	Description
Prevention	Use of a public health or community mental health perspective; including health or mental health promotion, and the prevention of mental disorders/illness, physical illness the examination of associated risk and resilience factors.
Empowerment	Use of empowerment theory or principles associated with social action, social justice or participation in social structures, such as problematisation, citizen participation and conscientisation.
Structuralist	Structuralist critical theory, including post-colonial theory, Marxist theory, feminist theory, critical race theory or activity theory.
Ecological	Theories about the interaction between ecological levels or systems, and fit between person and environment, including theories of organisational settings and processes.
Cultural diversity	Cultural values, cultural diversity, cultural competence, acculturation or an emphasis on local knowledge.
Sense of community	Aspects of sense of community or support for community structures, social capital and communal relationships.
Traditional	Classic psychological theory (e.g. psychoanalysis, cognitive-behavioural theory, attachment theory), other theories centred on the individual (e.g. sense of coherence), and theories related to the physiology of stress or models of health beliefs and behaviour (e.g. the health belief model, the theory of reasoned action, and the theory of planned behaviour).
Post-modern	Theories defined as social constructionism, post-modern theories and post structuralism, or the work of theorists such as Michel Foucault and Jacques Derrida.
Social	Classic social psychology theories related to identity, stereotypes, prejudice, intergroup relations and contact (e.g. attribution theory, social comparison theory, contact hypothesis, social identity theory).

The strands of *prevention*, *empowerment*, *ecological* theory, and *cultural diversity* were drawn from Toro (2005) as the predominant thrusts of theoretical development in CP. *Structuralist* theories were distinguished as they were identified as informing the development of CP in South Africa and other majority world countries (e.g. Stevens, 2007). Macleod (2004) differentiated between individual-focused and classical theories. These were combined in the current study as *traditional* theory, given their similar focus on the individual. Post-modern theories were classified as such in line with Macleod's (2004) and Macleod and Howell's (2013) studies. *Social* theories, stemming from social psychology, were drawn inductively from the dataset, and distinguished from other traditional theories because of their group and social orientation.

7.3.9. Topics. The topics of articles were the content areas that formed the focus of the publication. These categories were developed using inductive and deductive coding. All of the titles, abstracts and key words were examined, and their main phrases and content were extracted and captured. Where abstracts, titles and key words were not sufficiently

explanatory, the literature reviews were scanned for the focus and aims of the study. Content areas were condensed into thematic areas and compared with topics identified by Graham and Ismail (2011), and other previous trend analyses. The content categories were then iteratively refined to incorporate the content of the study's more extensive dataset.

Table 2. *Coding Categories for Topics*

Topic	**Description**	**Examples**
Mental health & mental illness	Indicators of wellness, adjustment and psychopathology, including understanding, preventing or treating individuals with a specific psychological condition or mental disorder; promoting mental health, well-being, adjustment or quality of life; traditional forms of treatment and caregiving for the mentally ill; attitudes towards mental illness	Psychiatric disability; serious mental illness; depressive symptoms; psychological wellbeing; burnout; suicide rates; mental health treatment; co-occurring mental disorders; general psychological distress; stressful life events; anxiety; aggression; psychological adjustment; help-seeking behaviour; treatment choice; crisis intervention
Social networks & social support	Understanding or measuring the role or effects of social networks, social cohesion, social capital, social support and components of SOC or enhancing these aspects.	Community connectedness, social support, social cohesion, social integration, promoting social capital, SOC; quality of social support network; community integration; social disorganisation; collective socialisation; belongingness; structural and affilliative aspects of social support; social network analysis
Difference & exclusion	The situation of socially marginalised groups, interaction between socially marginalised and powerful groups, or social dynamics related to dimensions of diversity (e.g. age, gender, race, religion, culture, ethnicity, sexual orientation).	Bicultural stress, race, racism, cultural marginalisation, cultural competence, patriarchal ideology, gender consciousness, addressing homophobia; negative attitudes to persons with physical disabilities; gender discrimination; prejudice and social values; acculturation; old fashioned racism; ethnic and migrant differences
Child, youth & family	Children, adolescents, and families in all spheres of life, including development, influences and outcomes.	Youth development, youth mentoring, behavioural problems, school participation, family detachment, parenthood transition, parental monitoring, academic success; parent-child relationship; developmental, parenting and family milieu of children; children's school adjustment
Neighbourhood & residential	The description or effects of geographical and neighbourhood characteristics or features related to the built environment and residential housing.	Environmental resources, residential stability, neighbourhood effects, housing satisfaction, perception of neighbourhood environment, perceptions of place, quality of physical environment; neighbourhood planning
Civic participation	The active participation and involvement of citizens in decisions affecting them and in effecting community transformation or change through community organisations, activities and groups.	Community advocacy, community organising, community action, activism, civic engagement, political participation, community leadership, resident participation; opportunities for increasing participation in community coalitions; community building using residents to drive change processes; political self-efficacy; citizen influence, control of resources, barriers to participation

Violence & abuse	The predictors or effects of self-directed, interpersonal and community violence or abuse; including violence and abuse of a physical, emotional, economic or sexual nature, as well as all forms of exploitation and neglect.	Violence exposure, effects of victimisation, bullying, disclosure of sexual assault, intimate partner violence, domestic violence, reporting physical assault, impact of community violence, adolescent violence, street violence, sexual coercion and consent
Sexual outcomes & HIV/AIDS	Sexual practices and their effects, including sexual risk behaviour, teenage pregnancy, knowledge of and risk for contracting STIs; the treatment and management of HIV/AIDS; as well as coping with associated stigma.	Perceptions about condom use, HIV/AIDS treatment, condom use self-efficacy, HAART, coping with HIV infection, HIV disclosure, HIV risk management, HIV related stigma, risk of HIV exposure, knowledge of HIV; HIV prevention services
Poverty, welfare & homelessness	The experiences, risks for or effects of homelessness, poverty or being economically disadvantaged or a recipient of the welfare system.	Needs and experiences of homeless people; individuals with histories of homelessness; poverty; psychological sense of economic hardship; economic survival strategies; cross national comparisons of homelessness; welfare recipients; street homelessness; reducing homelessness; rough sleeping; homeless achieving economic stability; life experiences of homeless adults; poor families receiving public assistance; homeless/housed families; risk and resilience related to homelessness; transition from welfare to work
Substance use & abuse	The use or abuse of substances such as alcohol, drugs, and cigarettes, including substance risk identification and prevention, and the treatment of addiction and substance abuse.	Substance abuse recovery homes; substance abuse treatment; access to tobacco; determinants of dropout from a substance abuse case management program; substance abuse behaviours, norms and attitudes; smokers' self-confidence to stop smoking; untreated heavy drinkers; drug misuse; levels of ecstasy use; heroin addiction; drug addiction and becoming drug-free; stable and escalating patterns of substance abuse
Crime & criminal justice	The occurrence, incidence or consequences of crime, attitudes about crime and safety in communities, and issues related to the criminal justice system.	Fear of crime, criminal legal system; concern about crime as a social problem; criminal victimisation; crime prevention advice; knowledge of police activities; community policing; recidivism rates for offenders; exposure to neighbourhood crime; incarceration; realities of the criminal justice system
Physical health, illness & injury	All aspects of physical or medical illness or health, including unintentional injury (excluding health issues related to HIV and sexual outcomes)	Fibromyalgia; breast cancer; skin cancer; slip, trip and fall accidents; osteoarthritis; chronic illness; organ recipients; obesity; perception of health; injury events; risk for diabetes; accident frequency; disease risk; physical health; health disparities
Disasters & war	The effects of widespread devastation due to natural disaster (e.g. flood or earthquake), man-made incidents of national and international emergency or war.	Terrorism exposure; flood impact; disaster impact; natural disaster; September 11 terrorist attacks; Gulf war veterans; mass destruction and disaster, hurricane Katrina; exposure to the World Trade Centre disaster; national community war effort

Technology & media	The use or impact of the use of technology or forms of media (e.g. internet, newspaper or television).	TV viewing; media stereotypes; mass media; media preference, interactive CD-ROM; internet technology, public communication campaigns; internet based communication; technology divides
Scale development & testing	The review, development or novel use of any psychological or community-based scale.	Psychometric properties and scale development; psychometric properties of the multidimensional scale of perceived social support; Reliability and validity of the socio-political control scale; psychometric properties of the volunteer functions inventory; psychometric scale properties; measurement; construct validity
Intervention execution & evaluation	The description, assessment or outcome of considerations related intervention design, implementation or evaluation.	Frameworks of programme development, programme evaluation, implementation problems, programme efficacy; outcomes demonstration and evaluation; programme adherence in real world settings; target recipient responsivity, material quality, implementer prioritisation
Occupational Issues	The description of factors related to the occupational status or challenges of individuals, or factors related to the work environment or organisational setting.	Involvement in organisational planning; organisational setting; shift of economic risk from employers to employees; staff reductions; organisational change; industrial conflict and dispute; perception of organisational fairness; effects of job demands; organisational processes
Social policy & funding climate	The use, effects or development of social and funding policies, including factors related to the political order and funding climate.	Social policy on future education; welfare to work policy; impact of welfare reform; policies on child welfare; federal and state policy; state loan programmes; policy implementation gaps
Human resources & training	The experiences of training and working in community psychology and other health and service professions and workers, including human resource considerations relating to paraprofessionals and community volunteers.	Volunteer training; professional development as a community psychologist; motivations of community psychologists in applied settings; training for social services; training of health professionals; mandatory community service; attracting students to community psychology programs; volunteering in community organisations

7.4. Participant Characteristics

7.4.1. Race and ethnicity. It is imperative to note the danger of speaking to issues of race considering that this may perpetuate essentialising categories and reinforces racism within psychology, and society at large (Seedat et al., 2004). However, within this study, race of the participants was considered an important variable to examine, particularly with regard to this study's focus on marginalisation and redress. This is particularly important in South Africa. As such, race or ethnicity was coded according to the categories stated in the articles themselves. The participants used in South African empirical studies were coded for their race to determine which groups were most often utilised in psychological research. These categories were: (1) *Black*; (2) *White*; (3) *Coloured*; (4) *Indian*; (5) *Asian*; (6) *other*; and (7) *unspecified*.

The participants in international journals are also coded into racial/ethnic groups. These studies referred to race using different categories. The large majority of the studies were conducted in the US, and used groups distinguished in US society. Categories were iteratively refined and collapsed for more meaningful comparison due to the vast range of groups in the dataset. The final categories were: (1) *African-American*, (2) *Latin(o/a)/Hispanic* (US) (3) *Jewish*/*Arab/Middle Eastern* (US) (4) *white/Caucasian/European American* (US), (5) *Native American*, (6) *Asian American* (US), (7) *mixed ethnic group* (US), (8) *other US minority* (used for other foreign nationals or groups based in the US), (9) *North American mixed ethnicity* (excl. US); (10) *North American unspecified ethnicity* (excl. US); (11) *EU mixed ethnicity*; (12) *EU unspecified ethnicity*; (13) *Immigrant to EU*; (14) *EU White*; (15) *AU/NZ unspecified ethnicity*; (16) *AU/NZ mixed ethnicity*; (17) *AU/NZ European*; (18) *Immigrant to AU/NZ*; (19) *Indigenous to AU/NZ*; (20) *Asian/Indian/Russian*; (21) *Latin American*; (22) *Jewish/Arab Israeli*; (23) *African unspecified ethnicity*; (24) *South African mixed ethnicity*; (25) *South African Black*; and (26) *unspecified* was used if the study did not expressly indicate the nationality/race/ethnicity of the participants.

In examining the use of ethnic markers internationally, a few trends are worth highlighting. The studies that used mixed ethnicity groups from the US are primarily cross-sectional survey studies that highlight the demographic features of groups demarcated by the ethnic categories found specifically in the US that have particular meaning within this country's socio-historical context. As such, this was the most difficult variable to code, especially when attempting an international comparison, as in most instances, the markers used to denote race were not comparable across countries. This attests to the contextual influences in signifying racial and ethnic markers as well as the social construction of these categories. It is in this arena that the coding was also most limited to the categories that the authors themselves had utilised.

Authors typically highlight the proportion of participants that are described as being *Caucasian/European American/White*, *Native American*, *African American*, *Hispanic/Latino*, and *Asian American*. Groups not adhering to this categorisation are generally described as *other*. These categories reflect legislative racial classifications, rather than the self-identification of participants. Within these mixed ethnicity studies the majority group representation generally favours *Caucasian/European American/White* participants.

The use of *Caucasian, European American or White* participants was sometimes omitted in studies that focus on those of low socio-economic status, in poverty and in the study of at risk groups, particularly youth populations and those at risk for adverse sexual

outcomes. In this regard, another trend when using a mixed ethnicity population group, but wanting to report only on a specific ethnic or racial group of interest, was to utilise or focus on the most prominent group represented in the sample within the title of the article or in the literature review, and omit discussion of groups represented in smaller proportions. For example, where the focus of a study was on African Americans, but where a broad cross section of participations of mixed ethnic affiliations were drawn, only African Americans would be referred to in the focus and discussion of findings, despite other groups being present in the demographic breakdown of the sample. Racial provisos for specific population groups such as Hispanic/Latino(a) populations in the US were generally absent; although a few studies separated this group into 'White Hispanic' and 'Black Hispanic'.

Ethnicity in European studies is treated quite differently to the US. Studies in this cohort were drawn from across the European region, including the UK, Sweden, Netherlands, Spain, Germany, Finland and Italy. Most studies differentiated groups of participants through the use of national markers only, with few studies using any explicit racial terminology. What does appear more significantly in European studies is the differentiation of groups on the basis of immigration or country of historical origin. However, immigrant status is largely noted in migrants from specific regions in the world, namely, Asian, Indian, Latin American and African countries. Where racial specifiers were used, this was through the inclusion of the term 'White European'.

Similar trends in the use of racial or ethnic specifiers were found in studies of groups in Australia and New Zealand, with most studies using no racial or ethnic markers, or simply specifying the use of mixed ethnic groups without indicating what kinds of ethnicities they comprised of. Where racial specifiers were used, this was through the inclusion of the term 'European' as a descriptor that denotes race through historical origin (e.g. European Australian) like in some US based studies (e.g. European American). The inclusion of indigenous populations to Australia and New Zealand, namely Aboriginal and Maori groups, was scarce in CP scholarship, with only one study on each of these groups, respectively.

In South African scholarship, studies using mixed South African race groups typically drew on all or several of the apartheid racial classification categories. Like US based studies, the forms of racial categorisation found in mixed ethnicity studies, offered a unique and nuanced set of markers linked to the South African socio-historical legislative context.

7.4.2. Racial descriptors. Racial descriptors in local publications were further classified according to the different ways in which race was referred to in local studies, incorporating the use of racial categories, both critically and uncritically, the use of proxies for racial categories, and the use of binary racial categories.

Table 3. *Coding Categories for Racial Descriptors*

Racial Descriptor	Description	Examples
Apartheid categories	The use of all Apartheid racial categories, or specific combinations of these categories, with no explanation of the choice and meaning of these terms.	Black African, White, Coloured, Indian, or Asian
Critical redress	Use of apartheid racial categories, but including a disclaimer about the purpose of requesting racial data or using categories of racial classification. This disclaimer must explicitly state that racial categories were utilised for the purposes of assessing the extent to which redress had been achieved in the post-apartheid period, with some critical commentary about the use of these terms.	Black African, White, Coloured, Indian, or Asian
Black	This category included participants described as Black from a Black consciousness perspective, where the use of the term Black refers to a range of different 'race' groups that were classified separately under apartheid.	Black
Proxy for black	They did not specifically describe participants as being 'Black' but utilised other terms to refer to the race group of participants as being Black. This included the use of an African language or cultural group descriptor.	Historically disadvantaged; previously disenfranchised; Xhosa; Zulu-speaking
White	They used participants that were described as being 'White'.	White
Proxy for white	They did not specifically describe participants as being 'White' but utilised other terms to refer to the race group as being White.	Caucasian; European descent; Historically advantaged
Black and white	Using these terms but not specifying the sense in which they were being used (i.e. if 'Black' referred to all groups oppressed under apartheid or those categorised as Black Africans).	Black and White
No racial markers	There was no mention of race or any proxy term for race	N/A
Other	Studies that referred to race in a manner that did not conform to any of the abovementioned descriptions.	Racially mixed

7.4.2. Gender. The gender of participants was coded as gender represents one of the primary forms of structural disadvantage and oppression. As such, an analysis of the gender-related composition of the selected research participants is an important trend to investigate that is relevant to both local and international contexts. The gender of participants was coded as (1) *male* (for those studies that used only male participants), (2) *female* (for studies that used only female participants), (3) *other* (for studies with intersex or

other gender categories), (4) *mixed* (both male and female participants), and (5) *not specified* (for those that did not report on the gender composition of the participants).

7.4.3. Age. Participants' ages were coded into several categories by drawing on the salient developmental stages associated with age that are noted in the relevant literature. Participants were classified as being in (1) *early childhood* if they were aged 5 years or below (Richter, Dawes, & de Kadt, 2010). They were deemed to be in (2) *middle childhood*, if they were between the ages of 6 to 12 years (Bhana, 2010). The category of (3) *adolescence* was delimited by being aged between 13 and 17 years, in keeping with South African legislation which recognises adulthood as commencing at 18 years (RSA, 2005b; RSA, 1996). Thus, participants were regarded as being (4) *adult* if they were above 18 years up until 64 years, as the category of (5) *elderly* included individuals over the age of 65 years (Prince, 2010). Studies that included participants across the entire age range in a population (i.e. including individuals of ages from birth through to elderly) were included in the category of (6) *lifespan*. Those studies that included participants from several different age groups but did not include the entire spectrum of age were coded as being of (7) *mixed* age. Lastly, studies were identified as (8) *unspecified* if there was no reference to the age-related characteristics of the participants.

7.4.4. Level of education. Due to the immense variation in the educational composition of the participants in the study, it was not possible to apply absolute criteria to the development of educational coding categories. The coding categories used are identified in Table 4.

Table 4. *Coding Categories for Level of Education*

Level of Education	**Description**
Preschool	Participants in formal preschool, crèche or day care
Primary school	Partial or fully complete primary school education i.e. schooling from Grades 1 to 7
Secondary school	Partial or complete secondary school education i.e. schooling from Grades 8 to 12
Tertiary level	Partial or complete undergraduate university or post-matriculation qualification
Postgraduate	Participants who had fully or partially studied Honours, Masters or Doctoral degrees
Mixed	Studies that sourced a cross-section of participants who had different levels of education
Unspecified	No references to the educational level of the participants
No education	Adult participants who had never attended school or had any formal educational or vocational training

In an effort to disaggregate kinds of *mixed* education levels that were used, it was common to work with a mix of *tertiary* and *postgraduate* levels of education, as in studies that focussed on student or university populations; and a mix of *primary* and *secondary school* levels of education in studies that used adolescents as participants. It was also common to mix *secondary school*, *tertiary* and *postgraduate* levels in studies that used a broad based cohort of community residents or that focused on service users as participants.

7.4.5. Employment status. Employment status was coded to ascertain whether employment was a consideration in psychological research overall, and in CP in particular. Several categories were used, namely, (1) *unemployed* (used for participants who were of working age but explicitly described as being unemployed); (2) *employed* (used for participants of working age described as having any form of employment by means of a job description or simply referred to as being employed); (3) *mixed* employment status (used for studies that sourced a cross-section of participants, which included both employed and unemployed individuals); (4) *unspecified* (used if there was no reference to the employment status of the participants); (5) *university/college* student (used to indicate participants who were of working age but who were not employed due to pursuing formal post-matriculation studies at either a university, college or technical training institution); (6) *retired* (used to indicate participants who are formally retired); (7) *scholar/child* (used for participants who were children or adolescents under the age of 18 years and therefore were not of working age or those youth who were still attending school); (8) *other* (used for participants whose employment status did not fit within any of the aforementioned categories e.g. those who had recently been retrenched).

Studies that used participants with a *mixed* employment status for the most part reported on employment as a secondary consideration in participant recruitment and data interpretation. *Mixed* employment status groups were often sampled through broad based population surveys, or via surveys of residential cohorts or service users. Employed individuals, especially in international empirical studies, mostly constituted these groups.

7.4.6. Marginalised groups. As was conducted in the studies by Shirley (2010) amd Graham and Shirley (in press), the participants were further categorised into groups according to whether or not they constituted a marginalised status. Groups defined as being socially marginal were those that were disadvantaged by primary structural forms of inequality and oppression (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006), namely, race, gender and socio-economic status (SES). Other forms of marginalisation included were those due to HIV status,

disability, location, migration status, sexual orientation, and age. *Marginality* was first reflected as a binary variable (1 = yes; 0 = no) to indicate the overall proportion of articles that focused exclusively on a marginal group, defined by the aforementioned categories.

Table 5. *Coding Categories for Types of Marginalised Groups*

Type of Marginality	**Description**
Race	All groups defined as being black or constituting people of colour
Gender	Participants who were female or cross-gendered/intersex
Sexual orientation	Participants identified as homosexual or bisexual
Socio-economic status	Participants defined as being poor, unemployed or socio-economically disadvantaged
HIV status	HIV sero-positive individuals
Disability	Participants who were physically or intellectually disabled (excl. psycho-emotional disability)
Migration status	Participants who were displaced persons, refugees or migrants
Location	Participants exclusively drawn from an area described as a farm, rural area, peri-urban areas, township or informal settlement
Age	Participants above the age of 65

These were then coded in a multiple response format. Marginalisation by *race* was coded for Black participants in an inclusive manner to avoid the perpetuation of divisive racial language and reflect the pervasive social oppression of all groups of colour. Race is particularly salient in South Africa, given the country's history of racial segregation and oppression. However, racial oppression is pervasive in all societies. Structural oppression on the basis of gender was coded to reflect the social marginalisation of women, and gender minority groups, within patriarchal societies. Likewise, SES was coded to reassert the importance of identifying those who are socially excluded by their class, their living conditions, access to resources, and ultimately their relationship to the means of production.

Other forms of social exclusion were also included that may result in discrimination, human rights violation or reduced access to resources in contemporary society. *Sexual orientation* was used if the participants of the research were exclusively homosexual or bisexual to reflect marginality within the context of prevailing heterosexist ideologies. *Migration status* was coded as a form of contemporary marginality in recognition of the increasing international importance of migration and the formidable personal, social, economic and political challenges faced by refugees and asylum seekers in contexts to which they relocate (Colic-Peisker & Walker, 2003). Marginality by *HIV status* was coded in recognition of the social exclusion and pervasive discrimination and stigma directed to individuals infected by HIV, which is particularly relevant in South Africa (van der Walt,

Frank, & Langa, 2007), where rates of infection are the highest in the world (UNAIDS, 2012). Marginality by *disability* was recognised as a major form of social exclusion. This was limited to physical and intellectual disability, given the difficulties of identifying and differentiating between the nature and extent of psychological or psychiatric disorders as forms of disability in secondary data (Gutierrez, 2010). *Location* was coded if the geographical location of participants limited their access to facilities, services, infrastructure or was a function of social exclusion. The inclusion of *age* as a criterion for social marginality was used to reflect the developmental, physical and social vulnerability of older persons (Ife & Tesoriero, 2006).

7.4.7. Distinctive features. The *distinctive features* identified were attributes that that informed the choice of participants in a study that may otherwise have been overlooked. The categories were generated using the entire dataset. Some were relevant across local and international contexts, and some were more pertinent to only local or only international studies. Some of these characteristics were similarly coded in other studies (e.g. Graham & Shirley, in press; Shirley, 2010), but some were unique to this data.

Table 6. *Coding Categories for Distinctive Features*

	Description of Coding Category	**Examples**
Crime perpetrator	An individual who was currently or previously a perpetrator of a crime, including politically motivated, violent and white-collar crimes.	Prisoners; perpetrators of apartheid human rights abuses; female prisoners convicted of murdering their spouses
Crime victim	An individual who was a victim/survivor of a crime, including politically motivated, violent and white-collar crimes.	Rape survivor; victim of child abuse; victim of torture; survivors of political violence
Student/scholar	An individual studying either at school or at university/college level.	First year students; high school learners; part-time university students
Activity/sport	Individuals participating in a specific activity or sport.	Runner; ballet dancer, musician; internet user
Occupation	An individual with a specific job description, occupation or occupational position (excl. health and psychology).	Manager; employee; call centre operator and policeman
Health professional	Health professionals (excluding. psychologists).	Nurse; doctor; dentist; pharmacist; psychiatric nurse; medical professionals
Psychologist	Either fully qualified or training psychologists of any specialisation.	Intern psychologist; clinical psychologist; psychologist doing community service
Caregiver/ relative	Individuals who were the relative or familial caregiver of a person with a specific clinical disorder or health condition.	Spouses/caregivers of people with Alzheimer's dementia

Community volunteer	An individual who volunteered their services as part of their membership in a neighbourhood or their association with a community-based organisation, or religious group.	Church-based counsellors; volunteers at an NGO; volunteers in community service organisations
Parent	Individuals selected for being biological or adoptive mothers, fathers or parents of a child.	Mother; father; parent; adoptive parent
Clinical disorder	Individuals with a clinical disorder or psychiatric/ psychological condition (excl. substance abuse).	Eating disorder; generalised anxiety disorder; depression; panic disorder; schizophrenia; post-traumatic stress disorder
Health condition	Individuals with a specific physical health condition or illness (excl. mental health conditions).	Breast cancer; diabetes; Huntington's disease
Drug/alcohol user	Individuals who were studied due to their current or past use of alcohol or illegal drugs.	Ravers who have tried ecstasy, drug user
At risk youth	Children or adolescents who were homeless and/or not attending school, or juvenile offenders.	Street children; juvenile prostitutes; adolescent boys awaiting trial
Language/ culture/religion	Individuals who spoke a specific language or had a particular religious or cultural affiliation.	Jewish; Muslim; Sesotho; First language Zulu speakers; Protestants
Resident	Individuals who lived in a particular neighbourhood, area or type of dwelling.	Community residents, resident of public housing; residents of high-poverty neighbourhoods
Developmental stage	Individuals selected due to a developmental stage or challenge.	Having children, retirement
Political affiliation	Individuals selected for being an activist or involved in a political movement or a political party.	Anti-apartheid activists; ANC member
Relational status	Individuals in a specific intimate relational situation or of a particular relationship status.	Being married; divorced; living together; single
Homeless/welfare	At risk low–income adults who were selected for being homeless, or on welfare, currently or previously.	Welfare recipient; currently homeless or homeless at one time

8. Data Analysis

In a typical content analysis, the researcher collects qualitative data and transforms it into quantitative data by developing codes or themes and then counting the frequency of their emergence (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2007). The study adopts a multi-method approach to data coding and analysis, which includes both qualitative and quantitative components. This represents a mixed method form of data analysis (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). Strictly speaking, since only qualitative data has been collected, this is not mixed method research. However, a more open methodological stance would still consider this type of content analysis to be mixed method research in and of itself because of the mixing that occurs in the process of the data analysis.

Content analysis was used to analyse the data, as has been used in most previous

studies of trends in knowledge production in CP (e.g. Angelique & Culley, 2000, 2003; Angelique et al., 2013; Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus, 1994; Boyd, 2014; Boyd & Angelique, 2002; Duncan, 1991b; Graham & Ismail, 2011; Gutierrez, 2010; Loo et al, 1988; Lounsbury et al., 1980; Martin et al., 2004; Novaco & Monahan, 1980; Sasao & Yasuda, 2007; Seedat, 2001a; Seedat, 2001b; Seedat et al., 2004; Speer et al., 1992).

The data was analysed using the steps for content analysis that are outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006). This firstly involved familiarising myself with the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006), which occurred through a process of repeatedly reading through the abstracts in the data set and noting ideas that appeared significant. I then immersed myself in a reading of other empirical studies of published work, and reviewed the coding procedures and categories employed in similar studies, both in CP and in other fields of psychology. Each article in the dataset was read and reviewed in full, extending beyond the abstract, and focussing on the various dimensions of the article in its entirety. Initial coding categories that were developed and utilised reflected key conceptual areas from the literature base that were relevant to the aims of the study, as well as conceptual features of the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Following this, further codes were generated to allow for interesting features of the data to be included that emerged in the close reading of the data. Here, it became apparent that the changing nature of published work and the particularities of specific journals necessitated the modification of prior coding frameworks and the creation of new ones to capture the features of the data. The thematic data coding and analytic system therefore combined both inductive and deductive coding strategies (Patton, 2002). In this way, the coding system was both data- and theory-driven. The coding categories were continually refined throughout the coding process (Braun & Clarke, 2006), until a final coding framework was derived that encapsulated the range of publication characteristics in both international and local journals. This framework and the content of each category were then clearly operationalised so as to best reflect the concepts that were found in the data and convey these in a useful manner. Codes were assigned with a view to generating meaningful themes that would address the research questions of interest. Once refined, coding was applied in a consistent and systematic manner across the data set. The coding framework was used to generate major themes related to the aims of the study and research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Once finalised, the codes were assigned numerical values and converted into a quantitative format to denote broad trends. The numerical system was applied to the dataset in order to examine the occurrence of themes across the articles in the data set, both within and between the journals in the study.

Two research assistants, who were qualified community psychologists, were used to

assist with coding of the descriptive data in three international journals using selected aspects of the coding framework (e.g. journal name, no. of authors, institutional affiliation, and methodological features). The researcher coded the other three journals. The researcher coded the more complex variables in all of the journals (e.g. theories, topics). Research assistants were familiarised with the purpose of the study and the use of the coding framework. In line with the method described by Seedat et al. (2001a), the data was captured sequentially as it was coded and then subsequently checked and cleaned. Checks for inter-coder reliability using a series of random sample checks were conducted to ensure that all coding exceeded a 90% level of inter-rater agreement (Seedat et al., 2001a). Where any discrepancies arose, the data was re-checked until the requisite level of coding reliability was obtained. The coding of theories and topics was conducted after all other coding had been completed. When these variables were coded, the prior information on each article that was captured was checked again. Additional checks were then performed using statistical analyses, where cross-variable comparisons would serve as a form of internal statistical validation (e.g. marginalised groups were used to cross reference the capturing of other demographics related to race, gender and age).

The quantitative data was then statistically analysed using descriptive statistics. Basic descriptive statistics (frequencies, multiple response frequencies and percentages) were calculated to illustrate the broad content trends in published work using SPSS Version 21.0. Following the descriptive analysis of the data, a thematic interpretation was also added to the results to capture qualitative insights that emerged from the process of reading, re-reading and coding the data, in an attempt to infuse the descriptive trends with a data-driven and conceptual interpretation.

Following this analysis, which is reported in Chapters 8, 9 and 10, the investigation of patterns of how dominance and marginality are expressed in CP knowledge production was extended in Chapter 11 drawing on the work of Fairclough (1992; 1995; 2003) to present a critical discursive reading of two exemplar texts, which are twin publications. This chapter illustrates the adaptation of this approach in an exploratory manner to selected texts to further pursue how published work in CP can be interpreted with questions of dominance and marginality in mind.

The approach advocated by Fairclough (1992; 1995; 2003) has been previously utilised for the study of discourses in other forms of knowledge production (see Macleod (1999; 2001; 2003a; 2003b), but has not previously been applied to community psychology scholarship. This approach was chosen in view of its premise of viewing discursive analysis as part of a social change agenda, and its contention that language is at once a form of social

practice, structure and event (Fairclough, 1992; 1995; 2003). Fairclough (2003) maintains that the study of language social practice is crucial because language creates certain possibilities for the social world, and excludes others. It is therefore essential in understanding how patterns in knowledge production are maintained.

In undertaking this approach, Fairclough outlines several key considerations. Firstly, Fairclough (1992, p. 227) states that it is only possible to make an appropriate selection of a corpus of text for discursive analysis if one has adequate knowledge of 'the archive' of subject material. This includes having a 'mental model' of the order of discourse of the institution or domain of interest, as well as the processes of change it is undergoing (Fairclough, 1992). In this regard, the thematic and content analysis undertaken in the initial coding of the dataset provided a means through which this research was able to gain insight into potential sources for discursive analysis, and become familiar with the full gamut of contemporary knowledge production in community psychology. This is useful in adopting a relational approach to the analysis of textual material (Fairclough, 2003). This approach can aid the process of identifying forms of inter-textuality (Fairclough, 1992). Thus, the aforementioned coding process assisted in the selection of exemplar texts that could be used to examine alternate ways that dominance and marginality are manifested in published work, and the identification of recurring discursive formations within the field.

Secondly, Fairclough (1992) advocates the selection of text that embodies 'cruces' and 'moments of crisis' – which represent evidence of the problematisation of practice. Using this directive, the two texts selected, were the APA presidential address by Toro (2005) which comments on a 'crisis in community psychology' and the response to this address that was published which contained a number of different public responses to the address.

Fairclough's (1992) method of discourse analysis proceeds through three inter-related stages, namely: 1) identification of intertextuality and interdiscursivity; 2) textual analysis; and 3) analysis of the social practice in which discourse is embedded. These stages constitute a process from interpretation to description and then back to further interpretation (Fairclough, 1992). In the first of these stages, the emphasis on the interdiscursivity of the text is to identify the types of discourse used, the inter-textual chains the discourse enters into, the coherence of discourse, the conditions of discourse and the other texts that are explicitly evoked (Fairclough, 1992). Inter-textuality thus refers to the mapping of a text's 'external' relations (Fairclough, 2003). These external relations may include both the relationships to other texts, as well as the ways on which alternate voices are represented within the text (Fairclough, 2003). Inter-textuality also draws attention to the dependence of

texts on social and historical context (Fairclough, 1995).

In the second stage, the functioning of interactions is premised, including such features as the evidence of themes, the modalities through which affinity is expressed, the wording of text and the use of metaphor (Fairclough, 1992). This may also be viewed as an analysis of a text's 'internal' relations, through denoting both elements that are present and absent (Fairclough, 2003). These internal and external relations of texts constitute the orders of discourse (Fairclough, 1995). The third stage involves identifying the social and hegemonic relations of the discursive practice and its political effects (Fairclough, 1992). This stage assumes that texts enact a process of making meaning of social events, through the texturing of actions, through representations of the world and through mechanisms of identification. These elements are at play in whole texts and selected extracts within texts (Fairclough, 2003). Thus, the use of this approach illustrates a further reading of published work that contributes to understanding knowledge production in CP as a form of social practice, and introduces an additional approach that can be used to introduce reflexivity in the field.

9. Issues of Reflexivity

Reflexivity involves both personal and field-specific conceptual and methodological dimensions (Bourdieu, 2004). At a personal level, the research draws together my training as a community-counselling psychologist; my experiences working as a community psychologist in both "real world" and "academic" settings (Wolff & Swift, 2008), and my experiences of teaching and supervising neophyte community psychologists (see Franchi & Swart, 2003; Graham et al., 2012; Graham & Langa, in press; Langa & Graham, 2011). All of these roles have generated certain tensions, with regard to power, position, authority, accountability and political values. In applied work, I have grappled with CP's ability to deliver what it promises. I have also participated in and experienced the intricacies of the knowledge production process, its currency and forms of censure as an academic, which has spurred my interest in the topic of this research.

Like Linney (2004), I am not one of those scholars with "a singular interest in a particular problem or group" (p. 100). This research has allowed me to take multiple problems, groups and interests into account. Examining the publication features in CP and their implications, appeals to my inner cynic and idealist, and ultimately to my motivation to enhance a social justice agenda. However, it is important to reflect on my position in the asymmetrical social structures and power relations of my context. While my background of radical Leftist secondary socialisation has given me a particular perspective on social issues,

as a white middle class academic, I have benefited and continue to benefit from the legacy of apartheid injustices, and my complicity in white privilege is undeniable (see Graham & Langa, in press). However, in terms of my gender, I do not have access to masculine privilege. My current location within psychology in academia therefore introduces some friction; as I find myself in a traditionally male dominated, hierarchical workplace (Schlehofer, 2012), but also in a historically white institution and feminised discipline (Langa & Graham, 2011). Thus, in a context of social and academic masculine dominance, my race and gender position me as having white privilege but not masculine privilege (McIntosh, 1988), perhaps contributing to the impetus for investigating the manifestations and tensions between dominance and marginality. My interest in international and South African CP scholarship perhaps too has autobiographical origins linked to my dual nationality as both Dutch and South African. My location as a community psychologist echoes the theme in many published autobiographies, of being comfortable with asserting identities that traverse expected boundaries in personal and professional domains, and in adopting the position of both "insider/outsider" (Rappaport, 2004). Thus occupying the role of a boundary-spanner is central to community psychology even at the identity level. As Kuklick (2004) highlights, having a history of experiencing social difference, social marginality or moving between distinct social worlds is common in the personal narratives of community psychologists. Likewise, the theme of "constructive defiance" (McAdams 2004, p. 157), challenging social conventions or theoretical risk taking is not uncommon (Kuklick, 2004).

Reflexivity includes acknowledging the strengths and limitations of the methodological and theoretical choices that have been made. The method used in this study supports Bourdieu's (2004) contention that subjectivity and objectivity are intertwined components of the scientific enterprise. This theme perhaps manifests in the dynamic of engaging in a method that offers both a close critical reading of the data and presenting a more distant view of patterns evident in its entirety. In this study, qualitative and quantitative insights are mutually reinforcing. This study attempts to incorporate the notion of epistemic reflexivity through critically engaging with how the field of CP is constructed and operates, and the power relations inherent therein. This reflexivity is infused throughout the thesis.

10. Ethical Considerations

In terms of ethical considerations, the issues raised in the study are of a slightly atypical nature for psychological research. Since published articles were utilised as data sources, it

was not necessary to seek ethical approval to commence with the study. There were also no ethical concerns to contend with regarding confidentiality or anonymity in this study as the dataset used in the study is textual and published articles are part of the public intellectual domain. The data was accessed through the access afforded by institutional licensure and in the case of PINS, access granted by the individual editor. However ethical reflexivity is warranted with regard to the critical orientation of the study and its goal of examining the phenomena that power relations in knowledge production give rise to in the characteristics of published work. As a critical study, the analyses and interpretations generated could potentially be viewed as contentious within CP and beyond. Whilst this is an inevitable part of critical studies, the research has taken cognisance of alternative interpretations of the data and acknowledged the limitations of the study and the claims being made. Moreover, findings and critical aspects of the study are presented with a view to strengthening CP scholarship in accordance with its values and intended to further the development of critical forms of inquiry.

11. Conclusion

This chapter has detailed the methodological approach employed in this study. This includes describing the overall approach employed as well as the specifics of the data sources, the procedures of data collection undertaken, analytic tools brought to bear on the data, and the ethical and reflexive issues raised by the study. The next chapter proceeds with a presentation of the first part of the study's results that deals with locally published scholarship in CP and psychology.

Chapter 8

A Comparison of Published Work in Local Journals

1. Introduction

This chapter presents a comparative analysis of the features of published articles in selected South African journals and the features of CP articles appearing in these journals. The purpose of this chapter is to situate local CP publications within the broader context of local knowledge production. This provides a frame of reference for understanding locally published work in CP relative to locally published work published in psychology. This analysis permits the identification of aspects of knowledge production that appear consistently in published work across different fields of South African psychology, and those that are particular to CP in this locale.

The chapter begins with a description of the general characteristics of the dataset of published work within the South African journals used in the study. This includes examining the overall proportion of publications within each journal per year to highlight the publication rate for each journal and for CP as a whole. This also includes a description of the proportion and nature of Special Issue publications to the distribution of publications over the same time period.

The chapter then proceeds to present the findings regarding authorship characteristics. This section deals with the total cohort of authors in the dataset, as well as the characteristics of primary authors. This section reports on the regional, national and institutional affiliations of authors. Next it covers an exploration of the extent and nature of author collaboration, including the types of institutional linkages among authors. The section concludes with an investigation of these same characteristics among primary authors, along with trends related to race and gender. The chapter goes on to present the publication and research characteristics of articles in local journals by reporting on the types of articles published as well as the methodological features of empirical research. This is followed by a detailed exposition of the participant characteristics in these studies. The chapter concludes with a synopsis of the most salient results yielded by this analysis in order to consolidate its knowledge contribution.

2. Description of the Dataset

2.1. Total Number of Articles

The dataset for this analysis includes all articles published within the SAJP and PINS from January 2000 to December 2009 (N = 611). The contribution of each journal to the total dataset is as follows: There were a total of 471 articles published in the SAJP from 2000-2009 (77.1%), compared to 140 articles that were published in PINS in the same time period (22.9%). These articles were then further categorised into publications that were indicative of a CP orientation and those that pertained to other fields of psychology.

2.2. Community Psychology Articles

A total of 8.5% of the total number of publications were categorised as being CP articles (n = 52). Of the articles published in the SAJP, 8.3% (n = 39) were categorised as CP articles. Of the articles published in PINS, 9.3% (n = 13) were classified as CP articles.

2.3. Publication Rate

The total number of articles included in each year is tabulated in the section that follows, including the total proportion that are represented in each of the journals respectively, as well as the portion of CP articles.

Table 7. *Number of Publications in Local Journals by Year*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
2000	37 (7.9)	1 (2.6)	10 (7.1)	0 (0.0)	47 (7.7)	1 (1.9)
2001	42 (8.9)	4 (10.3)	21 (15.0)	5 (38.5)	63 (10.3)	9 (17.3)
2002	42 (8.9)	2 (5.1)	10 (7.1)	1 (7.7)	52 (8.5)	3 (5.8)
2003	45 (9.6)	7 (17.9)	10 (7.1)	2 (15.4)	55 (9.0)	9 (17.3)
2004	47 (10.0)	4 (10.3)	13 (9.3)	1 (7.7)	60 (9.8)	5 (9.6)
2005	52 (11.0)	3 (7.7)	22 (15.7)	1 (7.7)	74 (12.1)	4 (7.7)
2006	53 (11.3)	6 (15.4)	18 (12.9)	1 (7.7)	71 (11.6)	7 (13.5)
2007	58 (12.3)	4 (10.3)	18 (12.9)	1 (7.7)	68 (11.1)	4 (7.7)
2008	53 (10.8)	3 (7.7)	9 (6.4)	1 (7.7)	60 (9.8)	4 (7.7)
2009	44 (9.3)	5 (12.8)	17 (12.1)	1 (7.7)	61 (10.0)	6 (11.5)
Total	471 (100.0)	39 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	611 (100.0)	52 (100.0)

The publication rate in local journals as a whole was relatively steady. The overall publication rate in the SAJP was consistent over the past 10 years, whilst more variation is found in the publication of PINS. There was also far greater variation in the publication of CP articles than articles in psychology more generally.

2.4. Special Issues

Of the total publications, approximately one fifth (20.6%; n = 126) were part of a special issue or special section. A much lower proportion of special issue articles were found in the SAJP (13.6%; n = 64) compared to PINS (44.3%; n = 62). Of the articles in CP, 10.0% were part of a special issue (n = 3). In total, there were 12 special issue publications in the SAJP and 5 in PINS.

Table 8. *Special Issues in Local Journals*

	SAJP Special Issues	**PINS Special Issues**
2000	Truth and Reconciliation Commission	Truth and Reconciliation Commission
2001	-	Critical psychology
2002	Critical contexts of psychopathology	-
2003	Burnout and resilience	-
2004	Psychology in post-apartheid SA	-
2005	'Race', isolation and interaction in everyday life	Contemporary racism: A critical review of psychological approaches
2006	Health psychology	-
2007	Teaching and learning in psychology	Masculinity in transition 1
	The contact hypothesis and intergroup relations	
2008	-	Masculinity in transition 2
2009	-	-

Special issues appear to be focused predominantly on issues of race, racism and the transition from apartheid to democracy and its implications for psychology. Topics related to race and racism has been addressed in special issues from both a critical psychology and a traditional social psychology perspective. They have also focussed on macro-level transformation and race-related reconciliation initiatives, as well as micro-level interactions and theoretical constructs like the contact hypothesis. Other prominent perspectives that emerged in special issues were the focus on critical psychology scholarship, including the critical interrogation of psychopathology and hegemonic masculinity. A focus on teaching

and learning imperatives and methods in psychology, as well as health psychology, were also evident. There were no special issues dedicated to CP.

3. Author Characteristics

3.1. Number of Authors

Of the total publications, approximately one half was singled authored (49.6%). Of the rest, 31.4% were dual authored, 11.6% had three authors, 4.4% had four authors, and 3.1% had 5 or more authors (M = 1.81; *SD*. = 1.049). Different authorship patterns were noted between the SAJP and PINS. PINS had a very high proportion of single authored contributions (79.3%), compared to 41.0% in the SAJP. In terms of the average number of authors, the SAJP came out higher (M = 1.98; *SD*. = 1.110) compared to PINS (M = 1.23; *SD*. = 0.485). There were no publications that had more than 3 authors in PINS, whereas the SAJP had a maximum range of 8 authors.

Table 9. *Numbers of Authors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
1 author	192 (40.8)	10 (25.6)	111 (79.3)	11 (86.6)	303 (49.6)	21 (40.4)
2 authors	167 (35.5)	13 (33.3)	25 (17.9)	2 (15.4)	192 (31.4)	15 (28.8)
3 authors	67 (14.2)	7 (17.9)	4 (2.9)	0 (0.0)	71 (11.6)	7 (13.5)
4 authors	27 (5.7)	6 (15.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	27 (4.4)	6 (11.5)
5 or more	18 (3.8)	3 (7.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	18 (3.1)	3 (5.7)
Total	471 (100.0)	39 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	611 (100.0)	52 (100.0)

Higher proportions of collaborative articles were found in the CP articles published in the SAJP. Approximately three quarters of CP publications in the SAJP were co-authored (74.3%), compared to 15.4% in PINS. The average number of authors for CP publications in the SAJP was 2.51 (*SD*. = 1.393), which was higher than the overall average number of authors for this journal. The average number of authors for publications in PINS was 1.15 (*SD*. = 0.376), which was lower than the average number of authors for this journal. This suggests that CP publications in the SAJP were more likely to be collaborative, whereas those in PINS were distinguished by having comparatively fewer authors. Overall, when looking at the CP publications as a whole, most CP publications were written by single authors (40.4%) or involved collaboration between two authors (28.8%), with the average

number of authors being 2.17 (*SD*. = 1.354). There were far fewer multi-authored contributions, especially in the higher categories. However, in comparison to the rest of the total number of authors in these South African journals, the average number of authors for CP articles exceeded the average for the other types of publications, which was 1.77 (*SD*. = 1.011).

3.2. National Affiliation

In the total dataset, 88.8% of authors were affiliated to *local* institutions (n = 978), whilst 11.2% were affiliated to *international* institutions (n = 123). Out of a total of 929 authors who published in the SAJP, 89.8% were authors affiliated to *local* institutions (n = 834), and 10.2% were authors affiliated to *international* institutions (n = 95). Of a total of 172 authors who published in PINS, 83.7% were affiliated to *local* institutions (n = 144), and 16.3% were *international* (n = 28).

Of the CP articles, 99.1% were by authors from *South African* institutions, compared to 0.9% by authors in *international* institutions (n = 1). For CP articles in the SAJP, 99.0% were penned by authors from *South African* institutions (n = 97), whilst only 1.0% were by authors from *international* institutions (n = 1). In PINS, all of the CP articles were by authors from *South African* institutions.

3.3. Institutional Affiliations and Linkages

The vast majority of authors were affiliated to a single type of institution (90.3%; n = 552). For the most part, this institution is the academe, indicated by an affiliation to a *university* (84.8%), followed by a substantially smaller proportion that was *privately* affiliated (3.9%). Other types of individual institutions to which authors were associated were minimally represented, with *NGO/CBO's*, *hospitals/clinics*, *companies*, and *government* departments constituting less than 1%, respectively. A small number of authors in this dataset were associated with two types of institutions (8.2%; n = 50), and even fewer were associated with three types of institutions (1.5%; n = 9). With collaboration between authors across different types of institutions being scarce on the whole, the most common types of linkages were evident between staff from universities and hospitals (2.5%), followed by universities and government (2.1%), and then universities and private individuals (2.0%).

Table 10. *Types of Institutional Affiliations in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
University	392 (83.2)	28 (71.8)	126 (90.0)	13 (100.0)	518 (84.8)	41 (78.8)
NGO/CBO	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
Hospital/clinic	1 (0.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
Company	3 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.5)	0 (0.0)
Government	4 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	5 (0.8)	0 (0.0)
Private	13 (2.8)	0 (0.0)	11 (7.9)	0 (0.0)	24 (3.9)	0 (0.0)
University-NGO	2 (0.4)	1 (2.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.3)	1 (1.9)
University-hospital	15 (3.2)	3 (7.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	15 (2.5)	3 (5.8)
University-company	5 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (0.8)	0 (0.0)
University-government	13 (2.8)	4 (10.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	13 (2.1)	4 (7.7)
University-private	11 (2.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	12 (2.0)	0 (0.0)
Government-private	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Hospital-company	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	(0.0)
University-hospital-government	7 (1.5)	2 (5.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (1.1)	2 (3.8)
University-hospital-company	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
University-NGO-government	1 (0.2)	1 (2.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	1 (1.9)
Total	471 (100.0)	39 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	611 (100.0)	52 (100.0)

CP articles were likewise dominated by authors with a single type of institutional affiliation (78.8%; n = 41), followed by 15.4% having linkages to two types of institutions (n = 8), and 5.8% having linkages to three types of institutions (n = 3). However, CP articles were more commonly linked to two or three types of institutions than other types of articles. For CP articles, authors were mostly affiliated to *universities* (87.8%). No other *single* types of institutions were represented in CP. Where linkages to more than *one* type of institution were evident, these were mainly *university-government* (7.7%), *university-hospital* (5.8%), or *university-hospital-government* linkages (3.8%). In contrast to the rest of psychology,

there were no community articles published by *private* individuals or by authors from an institution in collaboration with *private* individuals. Notable differences were evident between the SAJP and PINS for CP articles, with authors in PINS only being associated with a *single* institutional type, namely the *university* (100.0%; n = 13), whilst trends in the SAJP showed that 71.8% were affiliated to a *single* institution (n = 28), 20.5% to *two* types of institutions (n = 8) and 7.7% to *three* types of institutions (n = 3).

3.4. Regional Affiliation

Most authors were from Gauteng (32.7%), followed by the *Western Cape* (22.5%), and *KwaZulu-Natal* (14.8%). The province of *Mpumalanga* was not represented among authors at all. In the CP articles, the same three provinces dominated as was found in psychology, but with a different rank order. Most authors were from the *Western Cape* (38.1%). Authors from *Gauteng* followed this (28.3%) and authors from *KwaZulu-Natal* (20.4%). These results suggest the prominence of these provinces in knowledge production in both psychology and CP.

Table 11. *Regional Affiliation of Authors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
Multiple	9 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (0.8)	1 (0.9)
Gauteng	322 (34.6)	30 (30.6)	38 (22.1)	2 (13.3)	360 (32.7)	32 (28.3)
Western Cape	230 (24.7)	41 (41.8)	18 (10.5)	2 (13.3)	248 (22.5)	43 (38.1)
Eastern Cape	76 (8.2)	5 (5.1)	20 (11.6)	1 (6.7)	96 (8.7)	6 (5.3)
KwaZulu-Natal	98 (10.5)	13 (13.3)	65 (37.8)	10 (66.7)	163 (14.8)	23 (20.4)
Free State	29 (3.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	30 (2.7)	0 (0.0)
North West	40 (4.3)	4 (4.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	40 (3.6)	4 (3.5)
Limpopo	17 (1.8)	2 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	17 (1.5)	2 (1.8)
Mpumalanga	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Northern Cape	2 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
Africa (excl. SA)	4 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	6 (0.5)	0 (0.0)
Europe	65 (7.0)	1 (1.0)	25 (14.5)	0 (0.0)	90 (8.2)	1 (0.9)
Australia	17 (1.8)	1 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	17 (1.5)	1 (0.9)
North America	21 (2.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	22 (2.0)	0 (0.0)
Latin America	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	0 (0.0)
Asia	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	0 (0.0)
Total	930 (100.0)	98 (100.0)	172 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	1102 (100.0)	113 (100.0)

Most authors of CP articles in the SAJP were from the *Western Cape* (41.8%), followed by *Gauteng* (30.6%), and *KwaZulu-Natal* (13.3%). PINS showed a high proportion of CP articles from *KwaZulu-Natal* (66.7%), followed by *Gauteng* (13.3%) and the *Western Cape* (13.3%). With only a few exceptions, authors of CP articles were mostly locally affiliated, and the presence of authors from international institutions was rare. International institutions were mainly in *Europe* or *Australia* (largely involving repatriated South Africans). *Africa*, *Asia*, *Latin America* and *North America* were absent in terms of regional representation amongst authors in CP articles.

3.5. International Collaboration

Within the total dataset, 7.2% of the articles published involved an *international collaboration* (n = 44). In the SAJP, 8.5% of the articles involved an *international collaboration* (n = 40), compared with 4% in PINS (n = 4). An *international collaboration* was more likely if the primary author was internationally affiliated. There were no CP articles that involved an *international collaboration* between authors, in either PINS or the SAJP.

3.6. Name of Institution

Most scholars in local journals were from *Wits* (17.0%), *UKZN* (13.6%) and *UCT* (10.1%). A notable proportion was affiliated to universities outside South Africa (12.7%). These figures are represented in Table 12.

Table 12. *Institutional Affiliation of Authors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All	**CP**	**All**	**CP**	**All**	**CP**
	n (%)	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**
UCT	96 (10.8)	15 (15.0)	10 (6.3)	0 (0.0)	106 (10.1)	15 (13.0)
UWC	32 (3.6)	2 (2.0)	6 (3.8)	3 (20.0)	38 (3.6)	5 (4.3)
Wits	146 (16.4)	7 (7.0)	32 (20.0)	2 (13.3)	178 (17.0)	9 (7.8)
Unisa	69 (7.8)	16 (16.0)	4 (2.5)	9 (60.0)	73 (7.0)	16 (13.9)
UJ	39 (4.4)	3 (3.0)	2 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	41 (3.9)	3 (2.6)
UP	41 (4.6)	5 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	41 (3.9)	5 (4.3)
NMMU	27 (3.0)	2 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	27 (2.6)	2 (1.7)
UKZN	84 (9.4)	13 (13.0)	59 (36.9)	0 (0.0)	143 (13.6)	22 (19.1)
Stellenbosch	80 (9.0)	18 (18.0)	2 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	82 (7.8)	18 (15.7)
Rhodes	33 (3.7)	1 (1.0)	16 (10.0)	1 (6.7)	49 (4.7)	2 (1.7)
UFH	9 (1.0)	1 (1.0)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	10 (1.0)	1 (0.9)
UFS	31 (3.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	32 (3.0)	0 (0.0)
North West	43 (4.8)	4 (4.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	43 (4.1)	4 (3.5)
UL	20 (2.2)	1 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	20 (1.9)	1 (0.9)
UNIVEN	3 (0.3)	2 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.3)	2 (1.7)
UZ	4 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (0.4)	0 (0.0)
UT	2 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
WSU	1 (0.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	0 (0.0)
Private College	2 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
TUT	1 (0.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	0 (0.0)
Research Council	19 (2.1)	6 (6.0)	2 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	21 (2.0)	6 (5.2)
University outside SA	108 (12.1)	4 (4.0)	25 (15.6)	0 (0.0)	133 (12.7)	4 (3.5)
Total	890 (100.0)	100 (100.0)	160 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	1050 (100.0)	115 (100.0)

In CP articles, the most prominent academic institutions were *UKZN* (19.1%), *Stellenbosch* (15.7%), *Unisa* (13.9%) and *UCT* (13.0%). Contributions from *Wits* were comparatively low, especially given the total number of publications from this institution. In the SAJP, CP contributions from academics at Stellenbosch were most common (18.0%), followed by *Unisa* (16.0%) and then *UCT* (15.0%). In PINS, CP scholarship largely emerged from *Unisa* (60.0%), *UWC* (20.0%) and then *Wits* (13.3%).

3.7. Unit Type

For academic institutions, the types of departments to which scholars were affiliated mostly included *psychology* departments (73.0%), followed by *research institutes* (8.2%) and then departments in the *health sciences* (6.8%).

Table 13. *Unit Type of Authors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
Psychology	629 (71.9)	49 (52.7)	127 (79.4)	13 (86.7)	756 (73.0)	62 (57.4)
Humanities	39 (4.5)	9 (9.7)	11 (6.9)	2 (13.3)	50 (4.8)	11 (10.2)
Health sciences	64 (7.3)	11 (11.8)	6 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	70 (6.8)	11 (10.2)
Science & agriculture	12 (1.4)	2 (2.2)	2 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	14 (1.4)	2 (1.9)
Commerce & management	29 (3.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	31 (3.0)	0 (0.0)
Research institute	73 (8.3)	17 (18.3)	12 (7.5)	0 (0.0)	85 (8.2)	17 (15.7)
Counselling unit	25 (2.9)	3 (3.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	25 (2.4)	3 (2.8)
Unspecified	4 (0.5)	2 (2.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (0.4)	2 (3.9)
Total	875 (100.0)	93 (100.0)	160 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	1035 (100.0)	108 (100.0)

For CP articles, patterns of unit affiliation were substantially different to the rest of psychology. Far fewer writers were from *psychology* departments, although these were still the most common (57.4%). A higher proportion of articles were produced by those academics from *research institutes* (15.7%). This was followed by contributions from departments in the *humanities* and *health sciences* (10.2%, respectively). In the SAJP, the proportion of CP articles from psychology departments was even lower (52.7%), with 18.3% of the articles from *research institutes*, and 11.8% from *health sciences*. In PINS, most CP articles were written by academics in *psychology* departments (86.7%), followed by those in *humanities* departments.

4. Characteristics of Primary Authors

4.1. Gender of Primary Authors

In terms of gender, 56.1% of first authors in the South African journals were *male* (n = 343) and 43.9% were *female* (n = 268). The slight majority of *male* authors was also seen in the SAJP (55.2%), but was more pronounced in PINS (59.3%).

Table 14. *Gender of Primary Authors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP N (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Female	211 (44.8)	17 (43.6)	57 (40.7)	9 (69.2)	268 (43.9)	26 (50.0)
Male	260 (55.2)	22 (56.4)	83 (59.3)	4 (30.8)	343 (56.1)	26 (50.0)
Total	471 (100.0)	39 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	611 (100.0)	52 (100.0)

Gender trends in CP publications overall showed an equal proportion of *male* and *female* authors (50% respectively). In the SAJP, slightly more CP articles were penned by *males* (56.4%), whereas CP articles in PINS were more often authored by *females* (69.2%). This suggests that CP scholarship in PINS is feminised, especially since this publication had a much larger proportion of male authors.

4.2. Race of Primary Authors

In terms of race, 75.8% of primary authors were classified as *White* (n = 458), compared to 24.2% of primary authors who were classified as being *Black* (n = 146). The race of 1.1% of authors was not found (n = 7).

Within the SAJP, primary authors were mostly *White* (72.1%), with 27.9% of primary authors being *Black*. In PINS, the proportion of *White* primary authors was far higher (88.4%), with only 11.6% of primary authors being *Black*.

Table 15. *Race of Primary Authors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Black	130 (27.9)	15 (38.5)	16 (11.6)	3 (23.1)	146 (24.2)	18 (34.6)
White	336 (72.1)	24 (61.5)	122 (88.4)	10 (76.9)	458 (75.8)	34 (65.4)
Missing	5 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	7 (1.1)	0 (0.0)
Total	471 (100.0)	39 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	611 (100.0)	52 (100.0)

In CP articles, *White* authors were most dominant (65.4%). In comparing CP articles in specific journals, it was evident that *White* authors penned most publications in both of these publications, but the proportion of *White* authors in the SAJP was lower (61.5%), compared to PINS (76.9%).

4.3. Intersections of Race and Gender

Trends regarding the intersection between race and gender were investigated using cross-tabulations. Among White authors, 55.0% were male (n = 252) and 45.0% were female (n = 206). A slightly more pronounced trend was found for Black authors, of which 60.3% were male (n = 88), and 39.7% were female (n = 58). Among the male authors, 74.1% were white (n = 252) and 25.9% were black (n = 88), whilst results for female authors indicated that 78.0% were White (n = 206), and 22.0% were Black (n = 58).

4.4. Primary Author's Region

Most authors hailed from the local provinces of *Gauteng* (30.4%), followed by authors from the *Western Cape* (21.8%) and *KwaZulu-Natal* (17.5%). The local provinces of *Mpumalanga* and *Northern Cape* were not represented at all in primary authorship. Internationally, primary authors were most likely to be from *Europe* (8.3%), which surpassed any other international region, including other countries in *Africa*. There were no scholars from *Asia* represented in primary authorship of articles. Few scholars (0.8%) were affiliated to *multiple* regions.

Trends for CP articles were somewhat similar to the top three provinces for psychology, except the order of ranking differed. The bulk of CP articles were penned by authors in the *Western Cape* (32.7%), with the second most frequent province being *KwaZulu-Natal* (28.8%), with *Gauteng* being given the third most frequent ranking (21.2%). Within CP articles as a whole, the local provinces of the *Free State*, *Mpumalanga* and *Northern Cape* were not represented among primary authors. In the international arena, only *Australia* was represented among primary authors from foreign institutions. There were no CP articles by authors from other countries in *Africa*, *Europe*, *North America*, *Latin America* or *Asia*.

Table 16. *Regional Affiliation of Primary Authors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Multiple	5 (1.1)	1 (2.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (0.8)	1 (1.9)
Gauteng	162 (34.4)	9 (23.1)	24 (17.1)	2 (15.4)	186 (30.4)	11 (21.2)
Western Cape	120 (25.5)	15 (38.5)	13 (9.3)	2 (15.4)	133 (21.8)	17 (32.7)
Eastern Cape	43 (9.1)	2 (5.1)	19 (13.6)	1 (7.7)	62 (10.1)	3 (5.8)
KwaZulu-Natal	51 (10.8)	7 (17.9)	56 (40.0)	8 (61.5)	107 (17.5)	15 (28.8)
Free State	12 (2.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	13 (2.1)	0 (0.0)
North West	17 (3.6)	2 (5.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	17 (2.8)	2 (3.8)
Limpopo	10 (2.1)	2 (5.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	10 (1.6)	2 (3.8)
Mpumalanga	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Northern Cape	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Africa (excl. SA)	4 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	5 (0.8)	0 (0.0)
Europe	27 (5.7)	0 (0.0)	24 (17.1)	0 (0.0)	51 (8.3)	0 (0.0)
Australia	8 (1.7)	1 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (1.3)	1 (1.9)
North America	12 (2.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	13 (2.1)	0 (0.0)
Latin America	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
Asia	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Total	471 (100.0)	39 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	611 (100.0)	52 (100.0)

4.5. National Affiliation

Of the total number of articles published in the South African journals, 88.1% of primary authors were affiliated to *local* institutions (n = 538), whereas 11.9% of primary authors were affiliated to *international* institutions (n = 73). In the South African journals, 90.0% of first authors in the SAJP were affiliated to *local* institutions (n = 424), and 81.4% of first authors in PINS were affiliated to *local* institutions (n = 114). This reflects a substantially higher proportion of contributions within PINS in which primary authorship was affiliated with *international* institutions.

5. Publication Type

Empirical articles were the most prominent publication type (48.1%), followed by *book reviews* (22.4%), *theoretical* papers (9.5%) and *literature reviews* (7.4%). *Empirical* articles were the most common form of publication in the SAJP (58.4%), followed by *book reviews* (13.8%) and *theoretical* articles (7.6%). *Book reviews* were by far the most common publication type in PINS (51.4%), followed by *theoretical* (15.7%) and *empirical* articles (13.6%).

Table 17. *Publication Types in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Empirical	275 (58.4)	29 (74.4)	19 (13.6)	2 (15.4)	294 (48.1)	31 (59.6)
Methodological	10 (2.1)	4 (10.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	10 (1.6)	4 (7.7)
Review	40 (8.5)	0 (0.0)	5 (3.6)	0 (0.0)	45 (7.4)	0 (0.0)
Theoretical	36 (7.6)	2 (5.1)	22 (15.7)	2 (15.4)	58 (9.5)	4 (7.7)
Editorial	7 (1.5)	0 (0.0)	8 (5.7)	0 (0.0)	15 (2.5)	0 (0.0)
Case study	13 (2.8)	0 (0.0)	4 (2.9)	0 (0.0)	17 (2.8)	0 (0.0)
Book review	65 (13.8)	3 (7.7)	72 (51.4)	9 (69.2)	137 (22.4)	12 (23.1)
Short report	13 (2.8)	1 (2.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	13 (2.1)	1 (1.9)
Commentary	10 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (2.9)	0 (0.0)	14 (2.3)	0 (0.0)
Conference report	2 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	4 (2.9)	0 (0.0)	6 (1.0)	0 (0.0)
Tribute	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)
Total	471 (100.0)	39 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	611 (100.0)	52 (100.0)

Of the CP articles, most were *empirical* studies (59.6%), followed by *book reviews* (23.1%), *methodological* articles (7.7%) and *theoretical* papers (7.7%). There was far less variation in the types of CP publications, and this was consistent across the journals, but overall the trends noted in the most common forms of publication were far more similar to the overall trends in psychology as a whole, than to general publication trends in either the SAJP or PINS. In the SAJP, most CP articles were *empirical*, whereas in PINS, the large majority of CP articles (69.2%) were *book reviews*, with comparatively fewer *empirical* (15.4%) or *theoretical* contributions (15.4%).

6. Methodological Characteristics of Empirical Research

6.1. Primary Approach

Table 18 indicates the primary approach of all studies that included an empirical component. This included both articles classified as *empirical* research as well as *case studies* that presented the analysis of empirical data (n = 306). For South African journals, *positivist* research was most common and constitutes almost two thirds of empirical research (64.1%). This was followed by almost equal proportion of *interpretive* studies (16.3%), and then *critical* research (10.5%). Although the representation of studies using a *mixed method* approach was comparatively small (7.8%), this methodology has gained popularity in

comparison to previous trend analyses. The proportion of *applied* research published in South African journals in this time period was negligible (1.3%).

Table 18. *Primary Approach in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Positivist	195 (68.4)	12 (41.4)	1 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	196 (64.1)	12 (38.7)
Interpretive	46 (16.1)	8 (27.6)	4 (19.0)	0 (0.0)	50 (16.3)	8 (25.8)
Critical	19 (6.7)	2 (6.9)	13 (61.9)	0 (0.0)	32 (10.5)	2 (6.5)
Mixed	22 (7.7)	4 (10.3)	2 (9.5)	1 (50.0)	24 (7.8)	5 (16.1)
Applied	3 (1.1)	3 (7.7)	1 (4.8)	1 (50.0)	4 (1.3)	4 (12.9)
Total	285 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	21 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	306 (100.0)	31 (100.0)

In looking at empirical articles in CP, a *positivist* approach is most common (38.7%), followed by *interpretive* (25.8%), and *mixed method* studies (16.1%). The use of critical approaches was the least common in CP (6.5%). In looking at the SAJP and PINS, it is evident that the contribution of empirical CP scholarship in PINS is minimal, although even in the SAJP there were relatively few empirical CP studies.

6.2. Primary Method of Data Collection

Table 19. *Primary Method of Data Collection in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Survey	48 (16.8)	8 (27.6)	2 (9.5)	1 (50.0)	50 (16.3)	9 (29.0)
Scale	120 (42.1)	2 (6.9)	1 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	121 (39.5)	2 (6.5)
Experimental	10 (3.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	10 (3.3)	0 (0.0)
Quasi-experimental	5 (1.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (1.6)	0 (0.0)
Qualitative	63 (22.1)	12 (41.4)	18 (85.7)	1 (50.0)	81 (26.5)	13 (41.9)
Archival	12 (4.2)	2 (6.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	12 (3.9)	2 (6.5)
Multi-method	18 (6.3)	5 (17.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	18 (5.9)	5 (16.1)
Medical	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Autobiography	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Other	9 (3.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (2.9)	0 (0.0)
Total	285 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	21 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	306 (100.0)	31 (100.0)

The use of a standardised *scale or inventory* was the most common primary method of data collection (39.5%), followed by the use of *qualitative* methods and *surveys* (16.3%). In the SAJP, the use of a *scale or inventory* was most common (42.1%), whereas most authors in PINS showed a preference solely for *qualitative* research methods (85.7%).

In looking at the CP trends as a whole, the preferred method of data collection is *qualitative* methods (41.9%), followed by *survey* research (29.0%), and *mixed method* research (16.1%).

7. Methodological Characteristics of Empirical Research on People

Of the research articles that used data collected from people, 96.3% (n = 283) were *empirical* studies and 3.7% (n = 11) were *case studies*, yielding a total of 294 articles for the analysis that follows.

7.1. Context of Data Collection

Most of the research published in local journals that included people as data sources was conducted in a *local* setting (89.1%). A few studies using *international* sites for data collection were noted (4.8%). Overall, the presence of studies that included data collection from *both* international and local contexts (e.g. comparative studies) was scarce (0.3%). Also, a notable proportion of the total number of published studies did not specify the context in which data was collected (5.8%), perhaps presuming that it was self-evident in relation to the affiliation of the authors. However, the lack of any contextual markers in these studies is unusual, and suggests a possible conflation between the author's location within an institutional environment and the context of data collection.

Table 20. *Context of Data Collection in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
International	13 (4.7)	1 (3.6)	1 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	14 (4.8)	1 (3.3)
Local	243 (88.7)	27 (96.4)	20 (95.2)	2 (100.0)	262 (89.1)	29 (96.7)
Both	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Unspecified	17 (6.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	17 (5.8)	0 (0.0)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	21 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (100.0)

Within CP articles, a slightly greater preference for *local* data collection (96.7%) was noted than in psychology articles (89.1%). No studies used data from *both* local and international

contexts. Interestingly, there were also no studies that failed to use contextual markers - perhaps signalling the relatively greater importance attributed to contextual location in CP.

7.2. Region of Data Collection

Gauteng is the most frequently represented region in South Africa in which data for empirical research is collected (21.2%). This is followed by the *Western Cape* (18.9%) and then *KwaZulu-Natal* (11.5%). A significant proportion of studies utilised *multipl*e regions in South Africa to collect data, and were therefore classified as national studies (9.0%). The *Northern Cape* (0.3%) and *Mpumalanga* (1.3%) were the least represented provinces.

Table 21. *Region of Data Collection in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All	**CP**	**All**	**CP**	**All**	**CP**
	n (%)	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**
National	28 (9.6%)	4 (13.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	28 (9.0)	4 (12.5)
Gauteng	61 (20.9)	5 (16.7)	5 (25.0)	1 (50.0)	66 (21.2)	6 (18.8)
Western Cape	55 (18.8)	10 (33.3)	4 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	59 (18.9)	10 (31.3)
Eastern Cape	17 (5.8)	1 (3.3)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	18 (5.8)	1 (3.1)
KwaZulu-Natal	33 (11.3)	5 (16.7)	3 (15.0)	1 (50.0)	36 (11.5)	6 (18.8)
Free State	8 (2.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (2.6)	0 (0.0)
North West	11 (3.8)	3 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	11 (3.5)	3 (9.4)
Limpopo	11 (3.8)	1 (3.3)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	12 (3.8)	1 (3.1)
Mpumalanga	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
Northern Cape	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Africa (ex. SA)	6 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (1.9)	0 (0.0)
Europe	6 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (2.2)	0 (0.0)
Australia	2 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.6)	0 (0.0)
North America	3 (1.0)	1 (3.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.0)	1 (3.1)
Latin America	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Asia	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Unspecified	47 (16.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (20.0)	0 (0.0)	51 (16.3)	0 (0.0)
Total	292 (100.0)	30 (100.0)	20 (0.0)	2 (100.0)	312 (100.0)	32 (100.0)

The SAJP had a greater range of provinces represented in its articles compared to PINS. However, both the SAJP and PINS followed the same trend as was evident from examining the total dataset in terms of the most frequent regions represented in data collection. Interestingly, a very large proportion of articles did not specify the region in which data collection took place. This included omitting references to a particular city, town, suburb or

neighbourhood that could be indicative of a particular region. This was a consistent trend across the SAJP and PINS, but was not found in any of the CP articles.

In looking at the CP articles, a somewhat different trend is evident. Most studies that used people for data collection in the *Western Cape* (31.3%), indicating that empirical research published in local journals is primarily based in this province by a significant margin, followed by an equivalent representation of data collection in the provinces of *Gauteng* and *KwaZulu-Natal* (18.8% respectively). None of the CP articles used data from *Mpumalanga*, *Limpopo* or the *Free State*. International collaboration in the collection of data in CP articles was scarce, with only one study using data from *North America*.

7.3. Setting of Data Collection

Table 22. *Setting of Data Collection in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All	**CP**	**All**	**CP**	**All**	**CP**
	n (%)	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**
Hospital/clinic	32 (10.6)	5 (16.1)	2 (8.0)	0 (0.0)	34 (10.4)	5 (14.7)
University	81 (26.8)	4 (12.9)	6 (24.0)	0 (0.0)	87 (26.6)	4 (11.8)
School	45 (14.9)	2 (6.5)	4 (16.0)	1 (33.3)	49 (15.0)	3 (8.8)
Company	32 (10.6)	3 (9.7)	1 (4.0)	0 (0.0)	33 (10.1)	3 (8.8)
Residential care	4 (1.3)	1 (3.2)	1 (4.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (1.5)	1 (2.9)
Participant's home	22 (7.3)	5 (16.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	22 (6.7)	5 (14.7)
Rural	5 (1.7)	2 (6.5)	1 (4.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (1.8)	2 (5.9)
Police/Law	9 (3.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (2.8)	0 (0.0)
Medico-legal	2 (0.7)	1 (3.2)	1 (4.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.9)	1 (2.9)
Recreation	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.9)	0 (0.0)
Community	12 (4.0)	3 (9.7)	2 (8.0)	1 (33.3)	14 (4.3)	4 (11.8)
Crèche	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Private practice	4 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.2)	0 (0.0)
Church	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.9)	0 (0.0)
Internet	9 (3.0)	1 (3.2)	3 (12.0)	1 (33.3)	12 (3.7)	2 (5.9)
Support group	5 (1.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (1.5)	0 (0.0)
CBO	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.2)	0 (0.0)
Correctional centre	2 (0.7)	1 (3.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.6)	1 (2.9)
Military	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (4.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.6)	0 (0.0)
Unspecified	0 (0.0)	3 (9.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (8.8)
Total	327 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	25 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	352 (100.0)	34 (100.0)

Universities were by far the most favoured setting of data collection, representing 26.6% of the total settings selected by researchers in the country. This was followed by data collection in *schools* (15.0%), *hospitals/clinics* (10.4%) and *companies* (10.1%).

Trends for CP articles were different to the general thrust of preferred settings in psychology articles. In the community dataset, most studies favoured collecting data at the participant's *home* (14.7%), at a *hospital/clinic* (14.7%), and in the *general community* (11.8%). Several studies in the community dataset did not specify the setting of data collection (8.8%). The use of untraditional settings, such as via the *internet*, was evident in both psychology and CP studies.

7.4. Sample Size

The results for the size of the datasets in research published in local journals shows no clear trends. Fairly even proportions of studies used samples in each of the categories. However, if these categories are combined, the results suggest that psychological research published in local journals is typically conducted on samples with *less than 200 cases*. Just over a quarter (28.6%) used samples with *under 30 cases*.

Table 23. *Sample Size in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All	**CP**	**All**	**CP**	**All**	**CP**
	n (%)	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**
1-10	41 (15.0)	3 (10.7)	6 (30.0)	0 (100.0)	47 (16.0)	3 (10.0)
11-30	29 (10.6)	4 (14.3)	8 (40.0)	0 (100.0)	37 (12.6)	4 (13.3)
31-100	49 (17.9)	8 (28.6)	3 (15.0)	2 (100.0)	52 (17.7)	10 (33.3)
101-200	45 (16.4)	4 (14.3)	1 (5.0)	0 (100.0)	46 (15.6)	4 (13.3)
201-500	57 (20.8)	5 (17.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (100.0)	57 (19.4)	5 (16.7)
>500	51 (18.6)	4 (14.3)	1 (5.0)	0 (100.0)	52 (17.7)	4 (13.3)
Unspecified	2 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (100.0)	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (100.0)

CP articles showed a slightly lower proportion of studies with smaller samples of *less than 30* cases (23.3%), and nearly double the proportion of studies in the *31-100* case range (33.3%) than was found in psychology overall (17.7%). More than half of the studies in CP used sample of *less than 100 cases* (56.6%), and the number of studies using very large samples of *over 500* cases was lower in CP (13.3%) than in psychology (17.7%).

7.5. Method of Data Analysis

In terms of data analysis, most research on people in the local journals used *inferential statistics* (52.6%), followed by *descriptive statistics* (17.9%). Thus, quantitative analytic techniques appeared in over two thirds of studies in local journals, with one third of studies using qualitative data analysis. In terms of qualitative analytic methods, there were similar proportions of *content analysis* (10.2%) and *interpretive analysis* (11.1%), with slightly lower proportions of *discourse analysis* (7.6%) than were used overall. However, in looking at the journal-specific trends, the SAJP contained slightly greater proportions of studies that used *inferential* and *descriptive statistics* (56.3% and 18.9%), and a slightly lower proportion of studies that used *discourse analysis* (6.1%) than was noted for psychology overall. PINS showed a substantially greater proportion of studies that used a *discourse analysis* (48.1%), compared to other methods of data analysis, which was followed by a preference for *interpretive analysis* (18.5%) and then *content analysis* (14.8%).

Table 24. *Method of Data Analysis in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
Descriptive statistics	57 (18.9)	6 (18.8)	2 (7.4)	0 (0.0)	59 (17.9)	6 (17.1)
Inferential statistics	170 (56.3)	11 (34.4)	3 (11.1)	1 (33.3)	173 (52.6)	12 (34.3)
Content analysis	31 (10.3)	9 (28.1)	4 (14.8)	1 (33.3)	35 (10.6)	10 (28.6)
Interpretive analysis	32 (10.6)	4 (12.5)	5 (18.5)	1 (33.3)	37 (11.2)	4 (11.4)
Discourse analysis	12 (4.0)	2 (6.3)	13 (48.1)	0 (0.0)	25 (7.6)	3 (8.6)
Total	302 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	27 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	329 (100.0)	35 (100.0)

Within CP articles, *inferential statistics* were the most commonly used method of data analysis (34.3%), followed by *content analysis* (28.6%) and *descriptive statistics* (17.1%).

8. Participant Characteristics of Empirical Research on People

8.1. Racial Descriptors

Interestingly, most published studies in South African journals that used people for data collection included *no racial markers* (31.3%). This was followed by studies that used *apartheid racial categories* or terminology in an uncritical or unreflexive manner (22.1%). In fact, very few studies included some critical commentary about the use of racial categories (2.7%). A significant number of studies used proxy terms to refer to racial

groups, although proxies were predominantly used for *Black* participants (12.2%). A comparison of trends in the SAJP and PINS overall showed a similar pattern in the use of racial terminology, except a far greater proportion of articles used *White* participants in PINS (25.0%) than in the SAJP (5.8%).

Table 25. *Racial Descriptors in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All	**CP**	**All**	**CP**	**All**	**CP**
	n (%)	**N (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**n (%)**	**N (%)**
Apartheid categories	60 (21.9)	7 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	1 (50.0)	65 (22.1)	8 (26.7)
Critical redress	7 (2.6)	2 (7.1.)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (2.7)	2 (6.7)
Black	27 (9.9)	4 (14.3)	3 (15.0)	1 (50.0)	30 (10.2)	5 (16.7)
Proxy for Black	34 (12.4)	6 (21.4)	2 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	36 (12.2)	6 (20.0)
White	16 (5.8)	0 (0.0)	5 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	21 (7.1)	0 (0.0)
Proxy for White	3 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)
Black and White	30 (10.9)	0 (0.0)	2 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	32 (10.9)	0 (0.0)
No racial markers	91 (33.2)	7 (25.0)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	92 (31.3)	7 (23.3)
Other	6 (2.2)	2 (7.1)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (2.4)	2 (6.7)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (100.0)

Articles in CP showed a slightly greater use of *apartheid racial categories* (26.7%) and the use of a *proxy for Black* participants (20.0%) than in psychology, and fewer studies in CP used *no racial markers* (23.3%). There were no studies in CP that used *White* participants, or participants described using a *proxy for White*, or participants described as *Black and White*. This suggests that local CP articles focus more on *Black* populations.

8.2. Racial Categories

Most research focused on *Black African* populations (31.6%), although this proportion is substantially lower than the overall representation of individuals within this population group. Many studies did not specify the racial composition of their participants.

Table 26. *Racial Categories in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
Black African	150 (31.3)	17 (34.0)	11 (35.5)	2 (50.0)	161 (31.5)	19 (35.2)
White	112 (23.3)	9 (18.0)	10 (32.3)	1 (25.0)	122 (23.9)	10 (18.5)
Coloured	71 (14.8)	9 (18.0)	4 (12.9)	0 (0.0)	75 (14.6)	9 (16.7)
Indian	53 (11.0)	7 (14.0)	4 (12.9)	1 (25.0)	57 (11.2)	8 (14.8)
Asian	2 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.4)	0 (0.0)
Unspecified	92 (19.1)	8 (16.0)	2 (6.5)	0 (0.0)	94 (18.4)	8 (14.8)
Total	480 (100.0)	50 (100.0)	31 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	511 (100.0)	54 (100.0)

8.3. Age Categories

Over two thirds of the total empirical studies used *adults* as participants (70.1%), followed by studies on adolescent populations (11.2%), and *mixed* age groups (5.8%). Studies on participants in *early childhood* (1.0%) and those who were *elderly* (0.7%) were negligible. PINS dealt mainly with *adults* (75.0%) and *adolescents* (20.0%). In the SAJP, the focus on adults also predominated (69.7%), but the publications in this journal included a broader range of participant age groups.

Table 27. *Age Categories in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
Early childhood	3 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)
Middle childhood	15 (5.5)	2 (7.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	15 (5.1)	2 (6.7)
Adolescent	29 (10.6)	2 (7.1)	4 (20.0)	1 (50.0)	33 (11.2)	3 (10.0)
Adult	191 (69.7)	19 (67.9)	15 (75.0)	1 (50.0)	206 (70.1)	20 (66.7)
Elderly	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.7)	0 (0.0)
Lifespan	10 (3.6)	3 (10.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	10 (3.4)	3 (10.0)
Mixed	17 (6.2)	2 (7.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	17 (5.8)	2 (6.7)
Unspecified	8 (2.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (2.7)	0 (0.0)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (0.0)

In CP articles, a dominance of *adult* participants was also noted (66.7%), and this was followed by a focus on *adolescent* groups (10.0%) and use of the full *lifespan* in selecting

groups (10.0%). There were no studies that did not specify the ages of participants. Studies on the *elderly* or individuals in *early childhood* were absent.

8.4. Gender Categories

Most studies in psychology used mixed gender samples (70.4%), followed by studies that used *female* samples (13.6%) and then *male* samples (9.5%). Some studies did not report on the gender composition of the samples they studied (6.5%). There were no studies in the South African journals that used an alternative gender classification. When comparing the SAJP and PINS, the patterns of gender composition of participants in psychology were substantially different. In the SAJP, *mixed* gender groups were most common (71.9%), whereas in PINS, only half of the studies focused on *mixed* gender groups, and 45.0% focused solely on *male* participants.

Table 28. *Gender Categories in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
Male	19 (6.9)	1 (3.6)	9 (45.0)	1 (50.0)	28 (9.5)	2 (6.7)
Female	39 (14.2)	6 (21.4)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	40 (13.6)	6 (20.0)
Mixed	197 (71.9)	19 (67.9)	10 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	207 (70.4)	20 (66.7)
Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Unspecified	19 (6.9)	2 (7.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	19 (6.5)	2 (6.7)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (100.0)

In CP articles, trends were much the same as in psychology. Two thirds of studies used *mixed* gender samples (66.7%), followed by *female* samples (20.0%), and then equal proportions that used *male* samples or no gender markers (6.7%).

8.5. Marginality

Overall, the slight majority of research published in South African journals did not include a focus on groups considered socially marginalised in any manner (63.3%). PINS was found to have a higher proportion of studies dedicated to an exclusively marginalised group (50.0%), compared to the SAJP (35.8%).

Table 29. *Marginality in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Marginal	98 (35.8)	19 (67.9)	10 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	108 (36.7)	20 (66.7)
Not marginal	176 (64.2)	9 (32.1)	10 (50.0)	1 (50.0)	186 (63.3)	10 (33.3)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	20 (100.00	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (100.0)

Two-thirds of the CP articles focused on a marginalised group (66.7%), suggesting that this is a far greater focus within CP than in psychology overall, and is present in inverse proportions. There appears to be a greater tendency for CP articles to focus on marginalised groups within the SAJP (67.9%), although only a small number of cases were present in PINS.

8.6. Types of Marginalised Groups

Marginality in South African psychology is most often represented by *race* (36.6%), *gender* (30.7%) and *location* (19.0%). Groups neglected in psychology publications were those defined by their *sexual orientation* (1.3%), *disability* (1.3%), *migration status* (1.3%), *HIV status* (2.1%), and *age* (1.1%). Similar trends were found in both the SAJP and PINS across most of the categories of social marginalisation, highlighting that this is a consistent feature within South African psychology journals. However, *gender* was a much more prominent feature of marginality in the SAJP (23.2%) than in PINS (4.2%).

Table 30. *Types of Marginalised Groups in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Race	55 (35.5)	9 (27.3)	10 (41.7)	1 (33.3)	65 (36.6)	10 (28.6)
Gender	36 (23.2)	5 (15.2)	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	37 (30.7)	5 (14.3)
Sexual orientation	3 (1.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.7)	0 (0.0)
HIV status	4 (2.6)	2 (6.1)	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	5 (2.8)	2 (5.7)
SES	19 (12.3)	4 (12.1)	4 (16.7)	0 (0.0)	23 (12.8)	4 (11.4)
Disability	2 (1.3)	1 (3.0)	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.7)	1 (2.9)
Migration status	2 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (4.2)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.7)	0 (0.0)
Location	29 (18.7)	12 (36.4)	5 (20.8)	1 (33.3)	34 (19.0)	13 (37.1)
Age	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	1 (4.2)	1 (33.3)	2 (1.1)	0 (0.0)
Other	4 (2.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (2.2)	0 (0.0)
Total	155 (100.0)	33 (100.0)	24 (100.0)	3 (100.0)	179 (100.0)	35 (100.0)

Within CP articles, *race* was an important category of marginalisation (28.6%), but *location* was a far more common manner in which marginalisation was expressed (37.1%). A focus on marginality by *gender* was less evident in CP articles (14.3%) than in psychology (30.7%).

8.7. Level of Education

Most participants had a *tertiary* level of education (28.6%). Approximately one fifth of studies focused on participants with a *secondary* educational level or lower. Very few studies focused on individuals with *no education* (0.3%). In just over a fifth of studies, the participants' level of education was *unspecified* (21.5%).

Table 31. *Level of Education in Local Journals*

	SAJP		**PINS**		**Total**	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Preschool	3 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)
Primary	17 (6.2)	2 (7.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	17 (5.8)	2 (6.7)
Secondary	38 (13.9)	3 (10.7)	3 (15.0)	1 (50.0)	41 (13.9)	4 (13.3)
Tertiary	79 (28.8)	3 (10.7)	5 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	84 (28.6)	3 (10.0)
Postgraduate	29 (10.6)	5 (17.9)	2 (10.0)	1 (50.0)	31 (10.5)	6 (20.0)
Mixed	52 (19.0)	8 (28.6)	3 (15.0)	0 (0.0)	55 (18.7)	8 (26.7)
Unspecified	55 (20.1)	6 (21.4)	7 (35.0)	0 (0.0)	62 (21.1)	6 (20.0)
No education	1 (0.4)	1 (3.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	1 (3.3)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (100.0)

Whilst psychology articles included more participants with a *tertiary* education (28.6%), twice as many *postgraduate* level participants were noted in CP (20.0%) - in keeping with a focus on professional training experiences. In the CP articles, there were also a large proportion of participants with a *mixed* (26.7%) and *unspecified* (20.0%) level of education.

8.8. Employment Status

Most published studies focused on *employed* populations (25.2%) and *students* (28.2%). Almost none focused on the *retired* (1.0%) and *unemployed* (1.0%). Many studies did not mention the employment status of participants at all (17.3%), suggesting that employment status of adult participants was frequently disregarded as a demographic consideration.

Table 32. *Employment Status in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**	**CP** **n (%)**
Child/Scholar	41 (15.0)	4 (14.3)	5 (25.0)	1 (50.0)	46 (15.6)	5 (16.7)
Student	78 (28.5)	7 (25.0)	5 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	83 (28.2)	7 (23.3)
Unemployed	2 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.0)	0 (0.0)
Employed	69 (25.2)	4 (13.4)	5 (25.0)	1 (50.0)	74 (25.2)	5 (16.7)
Mixed	30 (10.9)	8 (28.6)	2 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	32 (10.9)	8 (26.7)
Retired	3 (1.1)	1 (3.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.0)	1 (3.3)
Unspecified	49 (17.9)	3 (10.7)	2 (10.0)	0 (0.0)	51 (17.3)	3 (10.0)
Other	2 (0.7)	1 (3.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	1 (3.3)
Total	274 (100.0)	28 (100.0)	20 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	294 (100.0)	30 (100.0)

In CP articles, the most popular employment category was a *mixed* employment status (26.7%), followed by a focus on *students* (23.3%). No CP studies specifically focussed on the *unemployed*. Studies focusing on *retired* individuals were scarce (3.3%). However, fewer studies failed to provide employment characteristics in CP (10.0%), than in psychology (17.3%).

8.9. Distinctive Features

Approximately one third of participants were selected because they were *students/scholars* (34.0%). A large proportion was also selected because of their *occupation* (15.4%). A notable number of studies (7.8%) used *psychologists* as participants, and a few targeted other *health professionals* (1.2%), which were coded separately from the category of *occupation*. However, taking these categories together reveals that occupational descriptors are significant drivers in the choice of participants for empirical research, and constitute almost a quarter of the participants selected (24.4%). As could be expected, many participants were chosen for having a *clinical disorder* (9.6%), and a relatively large proportion also had a *health condition* (6.5%).

Table 33. *Distinctive Features of Participants in Local Journals*

	SAJP		PINS		Total	
	All n (%)	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**	**All n (%)**	**CP n (%)**
Crime perpetrator	4 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	5 (1.5)	0 (0.0)
Crime victim	8 (2.6)	2 (6.9)	2 (7.7)	0 (0.0)	10 (3.0)	2 (6.5)
Student/scholar	103 (33.7)	6 (20.7)	10 (38.5)	1 (50.0)	113 (34.0)	7 (22.6)
Activity/sport	9 (2.9)	0 (0.0)	2 (7.7)	0 (0.0)	11 (3.3)	0 (0.0)
Occupation	46 (15.0)	2 (6.9)	5 (19.2)	0 (0.0)	51 (15.4)	2 (6.5)
Health professional	4 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.2)	0 (0.0)
Psychologist	24 (7.8)	5 (17.2)	2 (7.7)	1 (50.0)	26 (7.8)	6 (19.4)
Religious volunteer	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Caregiver/relative	9 (2.9)	1 (3.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (2.7)	1 (3.2)
Mother	10 (3.3)	1 (3.4)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	11 (3.3)	1 (3.2)
Father	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Parent	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Clinical disorder	32 (10.5)	3 (10.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	32 (9.6)	3 (9.7)
Health condition	20 (6.5)	1 (3.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	21 (6.3)	1 (3.2)
Drug/alcohol user	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Out of school youth	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Language group	8 (2.6)	1 (3.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (2.4)	1 (0.0)
Resident	8 (2.6)	5 (17.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	8 (2.4)	5 (16.1)
Developmental stage	7 (2.3)	2 (6.9)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (2.1)	2 (6.5)
Political activist	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)
Document	4 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.2)	0 (0.0)
Other	7 (2.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	8 (2.3)	0 (0.0)
Total	306 (100.0)	29 (100.0)	26 (100.0)	2 (100.0)	344 (100.0)	31 (100.0)

In CP articles, the use of participants that were *students/scholars* was the highest of all the distinctive features (22.6%), but was lower in comparison to the proportion in psychology. The second most common of the distinctive features found in CP articles were studies that used *psychologists* as participants (19.4%), which was far more common in CP than in psychology. CP articles had a minimal focus on participants in other occupations. The proportion of participants selected because they were a *resident* was more common in CP articles (16.1%) than in psychology (2.6%).

9. Summary of Findings

This chapter highlighted the features of articles within psychology and CP. This allowed for the contextualisation of CP articles within local journals. In conclusion to this chapter, this section provides a synopsis of the main findings that emerged in this analysis.

9.1. Summary of Author Characteristics

The key findings of the analysis of author characteristics are summarised in Table 34.

Table 34. *Summary of Author Characteristics in Local Journals*

	Author Characteristics	
	All (%)	**CP (%)**
National affiliation	Mostly affiliated to SA institutions (88.8)	Mostly affiliated to SA institutions (99.0)
Institutional linkages	Mainly single type affiliations that are academic (90.3%), but some links to hospital, government and individuals in private practice	Mainly single type affiliations that are academic (78.8), but more likely to be linked to 2 or 3 types of institutions, especially with hospital and government linkages
Region	Mostly published by authors in: 1. Gauteng (32.7) 2. Western Cape (22.5) 3. KwaZulu-Natal (14.8)	Mostly published by authors in: 1. Western Cape (38.1) 2. Gauteng (28.3) 3. KwaZulu-Natal (20.4)
International collaboration	Minimal international collaboration (7.2%)	No international collaboration (0.0)
Institution name	1. Wits (17.0) 2. UKZN (13.6) 3. UCT (10.1)	1. UKZN (19.1) 2. Stellenbosch (15.7) 3. Unisa (13.9)
Unit type	1. Psychology Department (73.0) 2. Research Institute (8.2) 3. Health Sciences (6.8)	1. Psychology Department (57.4) 2. Research Institute (15.7) 3. Health Sciences/Humanities (10.2)
Primary author race	Mainly white authors (75.8)	Mainly white authors (65.4)
Primary author gender	Slightly more male authors (56.1)	Equal male and female authors (50.0)

Knowledge production in South African psychology is dominated by the contributions of authors located in the country's three largest cities, although the institutional base of authors differed between the broader discipline of psychology and CP. Historically English universities, namely UCT, UKZN and Wits, dominated the publication of psychological

articles, whereas historically Afrikaans institutions had a more substantial representation in CP articles.

In terms of author characteristics, the results suggest that authors of publications in these local journals were primarily locally based. However, the authorship for psychology publications as a whole in these journals showed greater permeability to international scholars than authorship in CP articles. With the exception of one ex-patriot South African author, South African journals held no appeal for international scholars in CP, and there was no collaboration between local and international authors in CP publications. Whilst the level of collaboration between international and local authors was generally scarce in psychological scholarship, this trend was far more pronounced in CP than in psychology more broadly. This suggests a measure of insularity from the global in knowledge production that is particularly evident within CP. The analysis of the institutional affiliation of authors showed that psychological scholarship was largely rooted in the academe. Most publications in psychology showed that authors' institutional affiliations were academic institutions, and these affiliations were mostly sole institutional affinities. Whilst CP authors were also mostly affiliated to academic institutions, they showed greater inter-institutional linkages between different institutional types, although these were mostly bonds between the academe, government and (mostly public) hospitals. The presence of authors from the NGO or the private sector was scarce in locally published CP literature.

Most authors in both psychology and CP hailed from provinces in which South Africa's three largest cities are located. Among locally published psychology articles, most authors were from Gauteng. In contrast, a larger proportion of the authors of CP articles hailed from the Western Cape. When looking at the overall contribution of these regions to authorship, it is evident that the composition of authorship in CP is substantially different, with KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape collectively comprising over half of CP articles, whereas these provinces are only represented in just more than a third of psychology publications. Among institutions in the Western Cape, UCT was the most commonly represented institution among authors in psychology and Stellenbosch in CP. Likewise, UKZN was the largest institutional contributor to authorship in KwaZulu-Natal. However, where Wits dominated psychology publications in Gauteng, most authors of CP publications hailed from Unisa. Generally, publishing in CP was far less common for authors located in Gauteng than was evident for publishing in other areas of psychology, whereas the converse was true for the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal.

Academic authors of psychology articles were largely from departments of *psychology*, *research institutes* and departments in the *health sciences*. Whilst these types of

units also appeared for academic authors of CP articles, the proportion of authors from departments of psychology was far lower, whilst *research institutes* and departments in the *health sciences* were better represented among these authors, along with departments in the *humanities*. In terms of race, *white* authors dominated in both psychology and CP publications, but *black* authors were better represented in CP articles. A gender analysis showed the *males* dominated the authorship of publications in psychology overall, but equal proportions of *males* and *females* were found in CP publications.

9.2. Summary of Publication and Research Characteristics

The key aspects of the analysis publication and research characteristics of articles are summarised in Table 35.

Table 35. *Summary of Publication and Research Characteristics in Local Journals*

	Publication and Research Characteristics	
	All (%)	**CP (%)**
Publication type	1. Empirical (48.1) 2. Book review (22.4) 3. Literature review (9.5)	1. Empirical (59.6) 2. Book review (23.1) 3. Methodological/Theoretical (7.7)
Primary approach	1. Positivist (64.1) 2. Interpretive (16.3) 3. Critical (10.5)	1. Positivist (38.7) 2. Interpretive (25.8) 3. Mixed (16.1)
Method of data collection	1. Scale (39.5) 2. Qualitative (26.5) 3. Survey (29.0)	1. Qualitative (41.9) 2. Survey (29.0) 3. Multi-method (16.1)
Context of data collection (people)	Mainly local settings (89.1)	Mainly local settings (96.7)
Region of data collection (people)	1. Gauteng (21.1) 2. Western Cape (18.9) 3. Unspecified (16.3)	1. Western Cape (31.3) 2. Gauteng/KZN (18.8)
Setting of data collection (people)	1. University (26.6) 2. School (15.0) 3. Hospital/clinic (10.4)	1. Home/ Hospital/clinic (14.7) 2. University/Community (11.8)
Sample size (people)	201-500 cases (19.4)	31-100 cases (33.3)
Data analysis (people)	1. Inferential statistics (52.6) 2. Descriptive statistics (17.9) 3. Interpretive methods (11.2)	1. Inferential statistics (34.3) 2. Content analysis (28.6) 3. Descriptive statistics (17.1)

Empirical articles were the most common form of publication in South African journals, but were more prominent in CP than psychology. *Empirical* articles constituted less than half of publications in psychology, and less than two thirds of publications in CP. *Book reviews* followed, and were equally prevalent in both fields, representing nearly a quarter of all publications in both psychology and CP. *Literature reviews* were more common in psychology generally, whilst *methodological* and *theoretical* articles were more prominent in CP.

The results show that empirical research in psychology is typically positivist, but this is less so in CP. Empirical publications in CP employed a greater proportion of studies that used *interpretive* and *mixed* analyses. However, psychology publications surprisingly showed a greater utilisation of critical methodological approaches than CP articles. *Surveys* and qualitative methods were common forms of data collection in both psychology and CP, whereas the use of *scales* was more typical of studies in psychology, and *mixed methods* were more prominent in CP.

Research settings were mostly *local*, but this was more typical of research found in CP articles, underlining the local orientation in this field. Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal emerged as the most common sites of data collection. Since these are the same regions where authors are based, this suggests that most researchers conducted research in regions in which they are based, and that mobility for research purposes, or multi-region studies, was scarce.

Articles in psychology mainly drew participants from universities, schools and hospitals. Whilst universities and hospitals were similarly common sites of data collection in CP, this field also showed an affinity for data collection at participants' *homes* or in the *general community*. This suggests that psychology typically studied individuals within institutions, whilst CP favours both institutional and non-institutional settings. Studies in psychology used much larger samples than those found in CP research.

9.3. Summary of Participant Characteristics

The most salient features of the analysis of the participant characteristics in psychology and CP publications are summarised in Table 36.

Table 36. *Summary of Participant Characteristics in Local Journals*

	Participant Characteristics	
	All	**CP**
Race descriptors	1. No racial markers (31.3) 2. Apartheid categories (22.1) 3. Proxy for black (12.2)	1. Apartheid categories (26.7) 2. No racial markers (23.3) 3. Proxy for black (20.0)
Race groups	Black African (31.5)	Black African (35.2)
Age	Adults (70.1)	Adults (66.7)
Gender	Mixed (70.4)	Mixed (66.7)
Marginality	Not marginal (53.4)	Marginal (66.7)
Types of marginalised groups	1. Race (36.6) 2. Gender (30.7) 3. Location (19.0)	1. Location (37.1) 2. Race (28.6) 3. Gender (14.3)
Level of education	Tertiary (28.6)	Mixed (26.7)
Employment	1. Student (28.3) 2. Employed (25.2) 3. Unspecified (17.3)	1. Mixed (26.7) 2. Student (23.3) 3. Employed/scholar (16.7)
Distinctive features	1. Student/scholar (34.0) 2. Occupation (15.4) 3. Clinical disorder (9.6)	1. Student/scholar (22.6) 2. Psychologist (19.4) 3. Resident (16.1)

Both psychology and CP articles showed similar trends in the usage of racial descriptors. Most prominently, these were the use of *no racial markers*, the use of racial markers associated with *apartheid categories*, or the use *proxy terms for Black* participants. There were few studies in both fields that showed any critical reflection on the usage of racially based terminology. Participants in psychology and CP were largely adults and of a mixed gender composition.

The majority of published studies in psychology did not use a marginalised group as participants, whereas most CP articles did focus on researching a marginalised group. In psychology articles that focussed on marginalised groups, this marginality was mostly defined by race and gender. Within CP articles, location was the most prominent marker of marginality, although race and gender were also common. Studies on participants marginalised by *sexual orientation* and *migration status* were absent from CP scholarship, and studies that focussed on participants marginalised by *disability* and *HIV status* were rare.

Most studies in psychology showed a preference for participants with a *tertiary* level of education, followed by groups with *mixed* levels of education and those with a *secondary* level of education. CP research mainly used participants with a *mixed* level of education.

This was followed by a focus on participants with a *postgraduate* or *unspecified* level of education. A focus on formally uneducated groups was largely missing from published research in psychology and CP. Studies in psychology preferred using participants that were *employed* adults or were *students*, with almost none focused on *unemployed* or *retired* individuals. A large proportion of studies made no reference to the employment status of participants they used. Most CP publications chose to use participants with a *mixed* level of employment or used *student* populations. An absence of research on *unemployed* groups was found, whilst the use of *retired* participants was scarce.

The features of participants in psychology articles were further distinguished by the use of *students* or *scholars*, the choice of groups based on *occupations* and *clinical disorders*. In CP, the use of *students* or *scholars* as participants was similarly evident. Other distinctive features in CP studies were the prominence of participants that were *psychologists* and *residents* of a specific neighbourhood.

10. Conclusion

This chapter illustrates some important ways in which CP scholarship overlaps with and deviates from the trends evident within South African psychological scholarship more broadly. In terms of authorship, CP shows some features that suggest less pronounced power imbalances in terms of author representivity, especially by race and gender. Authors in psychology and CP remain largely academic, and based at psychology departments. While there were more connections among CP authors with other types of local institutions, there was less international collaboration than was typical of psychology. Knowledge production is dominated by the contributions of authors located in the country's three largest cities, although the institutional base of authors differed between psychology and CP. Historically English universities, namely UCT, UKZN and Wits, dominated the publication of psychological articles, whereas historically Afrikaans institutions had a more substantial representation in CP articles.

Empirical articles are more common in CP than in psychology generally, but the presence of book reviews was equally prominent. Whilst CP has more empirical research, this research was more likely to be interpretive qualitative research, survey research or characterised by the use of mixed methods. This was juxtaposed with psychology's preference for positivist approaches and the more frequent use of standardised tests and scales. The use of critical approaches was marginal across the board, but more commonly used in psychology than in CP. This illustrates a significant departure from the historical

identity of CP found in South African literature, which has always heralded its critical orientation.

Whilst not evident in the methodological choices of CP scholars, some evidence of a slightly more critical orientation can perhaps be found in its choice of research participants, with a greater proportion of this research being dedicated to the study of socially marginalised groups than was typical of mainstream psychology publications. Race continued to be a leading feature in defining marginality in both psychology and CP publications. The focus on younger age groups was another key consideration for researchers across the general and community psychological domains that is linked to both including children within definitions of social marginality, as well as to the broader population characteristics in South Africa, such as a large youth population. CP research preferred the use of both institutional and non-institutional settings for data collection, in which there was greater attention to linking participants to specific residential and geographical areas and highlighting the role of location in contributing to social marginalisation.

This chapter has sought to place CP publications published in local South African journals within the broader context of knowledge production in psychology more generally in this country. The analysis of publication trends in the next chapter focuses on highlighting the same publication features that were presented in this chapter, but this time examines these trends within the four most prominent international journals in CP. The chapter that follows therefore aims to present the characteristics of international scholarly work in the field, as well as similarities and differences evident between the selected international journals.

Chapter 9

A Comparison of Published Work in International Journals

1. Introduction

This chapter presents a comparative analysis of the features of published articles in the four international journals, namely the AJCP, JCP, JCASP and JPIC. The purpose of this chapter is to elucidate the state of global patterns in published work. These trends indicate the ways in which CP is constituted through the lens of its published work internationally, as well as to facilitate a comparison between the specific foci of specific journals. This is useful in illustrating the collective context of international knowledge production, as well as drawing out peculiarities of particular journals. The analysis allows a point of contrast to the results highlighted in the previous chapter, which serves to further enable the identification of disciplinary and contextually derived factors within knowledge production. The chapter begins with a description of the general characteristics of the dataset. This is followed by an overview of selected authorship features. The chapter then proceeds with a more detailed analysis of empirical studies in CP.

2. Description of the Dataset

2.1. Total Number of Articles

The dataset for the analysis presented here comprises CP journal articles published within the AJCP, JCP, JCASP and JPIC from January 2000 to December 2009 (N = 1618). Articles in the JCASP that were not classified as CP articles were excluded from this analysis. The contribution of each of these journals to the total dataset is as follows: 517 articles published in the AJCP (32.0%), 535 in the JCP (33.1%), 317 in the JCASP (19.6%) and 249 in the JPIC (15.4%).

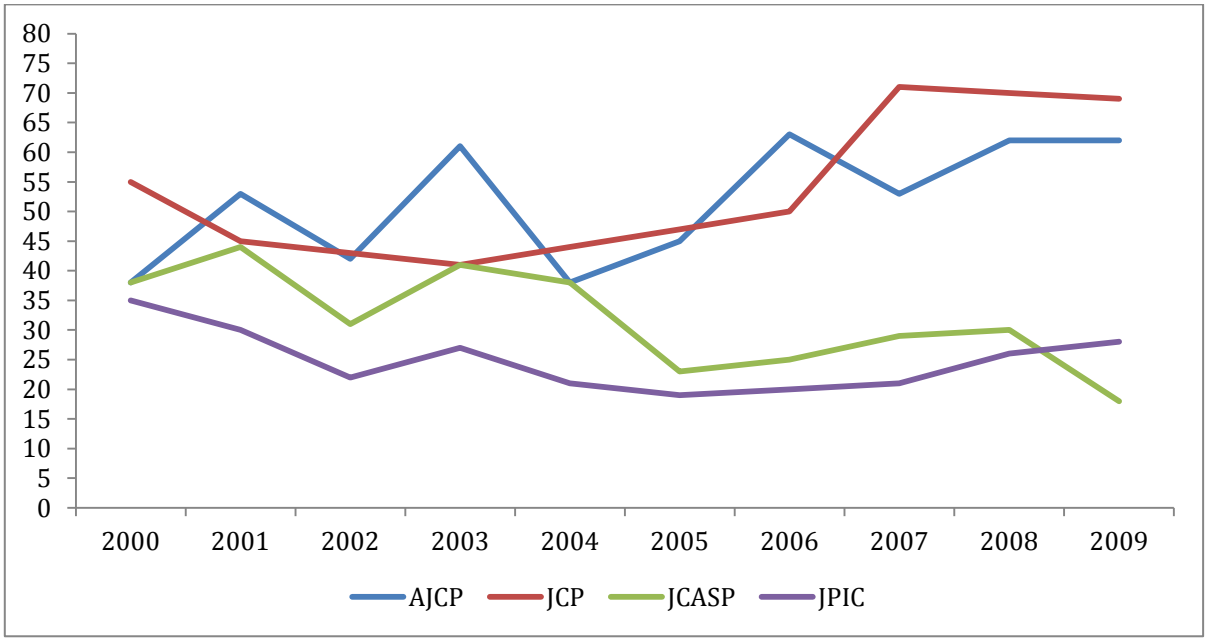
2.2. Publication Rate

The lowest number of articles was published in 2005 (8.3%), and the highest number occurred in 2008 (11.6%), indicating a 3.3% variation in the publication rate. The publication rate has remained relatively stable over the 10-year period. Despite within-journal fluctuations, there has been little change in the rate of publication in these journals collectively.

Table 37. *Number of Publications in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	JCP n (%)	JCASP n (%)	JPIC N (%)	All n (%)
2000	38 (7.4)	55 (10.3)	38 (12.0)	35 (14.1)	166 (10.3)
2001	53 (10.3)	45 (8.4)	44 (13.9)	30 (12.0)	172 (10.6)
2002	42 (8.1)	43 (8.0)	31 (9.8)	22 (8.8)	138 (8.5)
2003	61 (11.8)	41 (7.7)	41 (12.9)	27 (10.8)	170 (10.5)
2004	38 (7.4)	44 (8.2)	38 (12.0)	21 (8.4)	141 (8.7)
2005	45 (8.7)	47 (8.8)	23 (7.3)	19 (7.6)	134 (8.3)
2006	63 (12.2)	50 (9.3)	25 (7.9)	20 (8.0)	158 (9.8)
2007	53 (10.3)	71 (13.3)	29 (9.1)	21 (8.4)	174 (10.8)
2008	62 (12.0)	70 (13.1)	30 (9.5)	26 (10.4)	188 (11.6)
2009	62 (12.0)	69 (12.9)	18 (5.7)	28 (11.2)	177 (10.9)
Total	517 (100.0)	535 (100.0)	317 (100.0)	249 (100.0)	1618 (100.0)

Chart 1. *Publication Rate by Year*



In looking at the publication rate of specific journals, some variations are evident. In the AJCP, the publication rate varied from 7.4% to 12.0% and has also been steadily higher in the last 4 years. In the JCP, the publication rate varied from 7.7% to 13.1%, and after reaching its lowest point in 2003 the publication rate has increased in the last 4 years. Thus, the AJCP and JCP both show an upward trend in publication rate. More variation was noted in the JCASP, with the publication rate ranging from 5.7% to 13.9%. The presence of CP articles in the JCASP also appears to have decreased over the past 5 years, reaching its lowest point in 2009. In the JPIC, the publication rate varied between 8.0% and 14.1%. The

rate of publication in this journal seemed to plateau at a lower level between 2002 and 2007, but more recently, a higher publication rate appears to have been re-established. Compared to the other journals, the JPIC had the most consistent publication rate. Chart 1 provides a graphic representation of these figures.

Overall, when examining the differences across these international journals, recent increases in the AJCP and JCP have been offset by decreases in the JCASP over the same time period. This illustrates the role of journal choice in research on publication trends. However, in a larger body of published work and wider range of selected journals, these differences are minimised, and the overall picture is one of a more or less consistent rate of knowledge production.

2.3. Special Issues

Of the total 1618 publications, 47.3% (n = 765) were part of a special issue or special section. It should be noted, though, that the themed composition of the JPIC contributes to an inflated proportion of special issue contributions within this dataset. For this reason, it is instructive to examine special issues in each journal individually. In the AJCP, 51.1% of articles were special issues (n = 264); compared with 29.7% in the JCP (n = 159), 29.3% in the JCASP (n = 93), and 100.0% (n = 249) in the JPIC.

Table 38. *Number of Special Issue Articles by Year in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**Total n (%)**
2000	20 (7.6)	37 (23.3)	11 (11.8)	35 (14.1)	103 (13.3)
2001	21 (8.0)	18 (11.3)	16 (17.2)	30 (12.0)	85 (11.1)
2002	8 (3.0)	9 (5.7)	0 (0.0)	22 (8.8)	39 (5.1)
2003	42 (15.9)	0 (0.0)	18 (19.4)	27 (10.8)	87 (11.4)
2004	10 (3.8)	1 (0.6)	6 (6.5)	21 (8.4)	38 (5.0)
2005	13 (4.9)	21 (13.2)	7 (7.5)	19 (7.6)	60 (7.8)
2006	52 (19.7)	19 (11.9)	13 (14.0)	20 (8.0)	104 (13.6)
2007	18 (6.8)	27 (17.0)	13 (14.0)	21 (8.4)	79 (10.3)
2008	37 (14.0)	27 (17.0)	7 (7.5)	26 (10.4)	97 (12.7)
2009	43 (16.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (2.2)	28 (11.2)	73 (9.5)
Total	264 (100.0)	159 (100.0)	93 (100.0)	249 (100.0)	765 (100.0)

Aside from the JPIC, special issues are far more frequent in the AJCP than the other journals. Table 39 details the overarching themes of special issues in international journals generated from a thematic analysis of their titles.

Table 39. *Themes of Special Issues of International Journals*

Theme	Subthemes
Marginalised groups	- Cultural minorities - People with disabilities - LGBT - Children and adolescents - Women
Theoretical perspectives	- Interdisciplinarity - Social constructionism - Power & inequality - Liberation psychology - Feminism - Behavioural approaches - Family systems - Ecological approaches - Multiculturalism - Organisational studies - Prevention science
Social Issues	- Unemployment and social welfare - Homelessness - Urbanisation - Health disparities - HIV/AIDS - Violence (community, youth & sexual violence) - Substance use - Delinquency - Occupational safety - Civic participation - Migration
Mental health & illness	- Depression - Disorders of body weight - Traumatic stress - Co-occurring disorders
Community practice	- Community policing - Residential care - Family interventions - Youth mentoring - Occupational interventions - Interventions in faith-based settings
Technological applications	- The use of GIS - Media & technological interventions
Research methods	- Participatory methods & action research - Feminist methods - Behavioural research
Being a community psychologist	- Autobiographies and career narratives - Career paths and opportunities in CP
Global perspectives	- International histories of CP - CP in specific countries (Venezuela, South Africa & Australia)

The above table presents the general areas of focus in international special issues. For a listing of the titles of special issues that appear in each journal per year of publication, see Appendix D (Tables D 1 to D 4).

3. Author Characteristics

3.1. Number of Authors

Authorship in international publications ranged from 1 to 17 authors (M = 2.80, *SD*. = 1.801). Of the total number of international publications, 27.3% were singled authored, with the remaining 72.7% being collaboratively authored. This shows that while single authored contributions were the most frequent category, almost three quarters of all internationally published research was conducted jointly. In further examining the breakdown of collaboratively authored articles, the results showed that 26.4% of articles were dual authored, 17.9% had three authors, 12.3% had four authors, 7.5% had 5 authors, and 8.7% had more than 5 authors.

Table 40. *Number of Authors in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
1 author	146 (28.2)	91 (17.0)	125 (39.4)	79 (31.7)	441 (27.3)
2 authors	110 (21.3)	154 (28.8)	99 (31.2)	64 (25.7)	427 (26.4)
3 authors	84 (16.2)	111 (20.7)	59 (18.6)	35 (14.1)	289 (17.9)
4 authors	77 (14.9)	79 (14.8)	13 (4.1)	30 (12.0)	199 (12.3)
5 authors	36 (7.0)	48 (9.0)	15 (4.7)	23 (9.2)	122 (7.5)
More than 5	64 (12.4)	52 (9.7)	6 (1.9)	18 (7.2)	140 (8.7)
Total	517 (100.0)	535 (100.0)	317 (100.0)	249 (100.0)	1618 (100.0)

The JCP had the lowest proportion of single-authored papers (17.0%), whilst the JCASP had the highest with over double this amount (39.4%). This indicates that authors publish more collaboratively written papers in the JCP. A comparison of the descriptive statistics showed slight variations between the journals. The AJCP had the highest range of authors (Range = 1-17 authors; *M* = 3.01; *SD*. = 2.028), followed by the JCP (Range = 1-11 authors; *M* = 3.07; *SD*. = 1.736); the JPIC (Range = 1-10 authors; *M* = 2.71; *SD*. = 1.796), and lastly the JCASP (Range = 1-8 authors; *M* = 2.10; *SD*. = 1.249). Interestingly, this is also the order in which the impact factors of these journals are rated over this period, which may suggest that more collaborative publications and larger studies are more typical in higher impact factor journals.

3.2. Types of Institutions and Institutional Linkages

In examining the *types of institutions* and the *institutional linkages* represented amongst the authorship collective that published in international journals, the results indicate that the vast majority of authors were associated with only a *single* type of institution (81.5%). A small number of authors in this dataset were associated with linking two types of institutions (14.9%), and even fewer were associated with linking three types of institutions (3.6%).

Table 41. *Institutional Linkages in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Single	403 (77.9)	430 (80.4)	272 (85.8)	214 (85.9)	1319 (81.5)
Dual	92 (17.8)	81 (15.1)	42 (13.2)	26 (10.4)	241 (14.9)
Triple	22 (4.3)	24 (4.5)	3 (0.9)	9 (3.6)	58 (3.6)
Total	517 (100.0)	535 (100.0)	317 (100.0)	249 (100.0)	1618 (100.0)

The JCASP (85.8%) and JPIC (85.9%) had the highest proportions of single type institutional linkages. Dual linkages were most frequent in the AJCP (17.8%) and were least common in the JPIC (10.4%). Triple linkages were more often found in articles published by the JCP (4.5%) and were least common in the JCASP (0.9%).

Approximately three quarters of authors were solely aligned to academia (75.2%). With collaboration between authors across different types of institutions being uncommon generally, the most common types of linkages were evident between authors from the academe in collaboration with authors from the NGO (5.3%), government (3.3%), corporate (3.0%), and health sectors (2.3%). Several authors also solely represented the NGO sector (2.6%). A small proportion of authors demonstrated a diverse range of triple institutional linkages in various combinations, although distinct patterns in these types of institutional bonds were not evident.

Authors from the academe dominated across all of the journals, by a similar proportion of approximately three quarters. This suggests the centrality of the university in CP, which is a widespread feature of authorship. Even where collaborations were evident, the university still plays a central role by being represented in many of the cross-institutional linkages. Linkages between the academe and other types of institutions were less common in the JPIC than the other 3 journals. Relationships between authors in the *university* context and authors in *NGOs* or *government* sectors were more common in the AJCP and JCP. The JCASP published a slightly higher proportion of articles written by

authors with only *hospital* affiliations compared to the other journals. The JPIC seemed to include slightly more contributions of authors affiliated to *NGOs*.

Table 42. *Institution Types in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
University	376 (72.7)	400 (74.8)	245 (77.3)	195 (78.3)	1216 (75.2)
NGO/CBO	12 (2.3)	15 (2.8)	4 (1.3)	11 (4.4)	42 (2.6)
Hospital/clinic	0 (0.0)	2 (0.4)	9 (2.8)	0 (0.0)	11 (0.7)
Company	10 (1.9)	5 (0.9)	2 (0.6)	3 (1.2)	20 (1.2)
Government	0 (0.0)	6 (1.1)	7 (2.2)	2 (0.8)	15 (0.9)
Private	5 (1.0)	2 (0.4)	5 (1.6)	3 (1.2)	15 (0.9)
University-NGO	31 (6.0)	34 (6.4)	11 (3.5)	9 (3.6)	85 (5.3)
University-hospital	10 (1.9)	11 (2.1)	9 (2.8)	7 (2.8)	37 (2.3)
University-company	25 (4.8)	12 (2.3)	9 (2.8)	2 (0.8)	48 (3.0)
University-government	22 (4.3)	19 (3.6)	8 (2.5)	4 (1.6)	53 (3.3)
University-private	2 (0.4)	4 (0.7)	3 (0.9)	2 (0.8)	11 (0.7)
University-school	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
NGO-company	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
NGO-government	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.1)
NGO-hospital	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	3 (0.2)
University-hospital-government	0 (0.0)	3 (0.6)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.8)	6 (0.4)
University-hospital-company	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	2 (0.1)
University-hospital-NGO	1 (0.2)	2 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	4 (0.2)
University-NGO-government	7 (1.4)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.8)	11 (0.7)
University-NGO-company	3 (0.6)	5 (0.9)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.4)	10 (0.6)
University-NGO-church	0 (0.0)	4 (0.7)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	5 (0.3)
University-NGO-private	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.1)
Government-NGO-company	1 (0.2)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	11 (0.7)
University-government-company	4 (0.8)	3 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	8 (0.5)
Total	517 (100.0)	535 (100.0)	317 (100.0)	249 (100.0)	1618 (100.0)

3.3. South African Articles

Within the international journals, 1.8% of the total articles had at least one South African author (n = 29). This suggests a very small presence of publications authored by South Africans in empirical international CP scholarship.

4. Publication Type

Empirical articles are the most prominent type of publication (55.3%). Following on from this by a substantial margin were *case studies* (13.7%) and *theoretical* articles (12.9%). Other types of articles appeared in much smaller proportions.

Table 43. *Publication Types in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Empirical	257 (49.7)	384 (71.8)	155 (48.9)	98 (39.4)	894 (55.3)
Methodological	35 (6.8)	14 (2.6)	1 (0.3)	2 (0.8)	52 (3.2)
Review	20 (3.9)	10 (1.9)	3 (0.9)	17 (6.8)	50 (3.1)
Theoretical	80 (15.5)	70 (12.7)	50 (15.8)	11 (4.4)	209 (12.9)
Editorial	30 (5.8)	23 (4.3)	10 (3.2)	26 (10.4)	89 (5.5)
Case study	74 (14.3)	34 (6.4)	25 (7.9)	88 (35.3)	221 (13.7)
Book review	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	45 (14.2)	0 (0.0)	46 (2.8)
Short report	4 (0.8)	1 (0.2)	3 (0.9)	0 (0.0)	8 (0.5)
Commentary	17 (3.3)	0 (0.0)	24 (7.6)	7 (2.8)	48 (3.0)
Conference report	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
Total	517 (100.0)	535 (100.0)	317 (100.0)	249 (100.0)	1618 (100.0)

Comparisons between the journals show some important differences. The JCP has a notably higher proportion of *empirical* articles than the other journals (71.8%). *Empirical* studies were also the most common in the other journals, with approximately the same proportion appearing in the AJCP (49.7%) and JCASP (48.9%), but a lower amount in the JPIC (39.4%). In addition, the JPIC also contained fewer *theoretical* articles (4.8%). However, this journal published more *case studies* (35.3%) and *review* articles (6.8%) than the other journals. Theoretical articles were similarly distributed across the AJCP (15.5%), JCP (12.7%) and JCASP (15.8%). The JCASP housed more *book reviews* (14.2%) and *commentaries* (7.6%) than the other journals. *Methodological* and *review* articles were scarce overall, but *methodological* articles were more common in the AJCP (6.8%).

5. Methodological Characteristics of Empirical Research

5.1. Primary Approach

Table 44 indicates that the primary methodological approach of all studies that included an empirical component, including *empirical* articles and *case studies* with empirical data (n = 1115). *Positivist* approaches were used most often (58.3%), followed by *applied* (19.9%) and *interpretive* approaches (14.1%).

Table 44. *Primary Approach in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Positivist	213 (64.4)	305 (73.0)	69 (38.3)	63 (33.9)	650 (58.3)
Interpretive	6 (1.8)	45 (10.8)	60 (33.3)	46 (24.7)	157 (14.1)
Critical	26 (7.9)	0 (0.0)	6 (3.3)	0 (0.0)	32 (2.9)
Mixed	13 (3.9)	19 (4.5)	15 (8.3)	7 (3.8)	54 (4.8)
Applied	73 (22.1)	49 (11.7)	30 (16.7)	70 (37.6)	222 (19.9)
Total	331 (100.0)	418 (100.0)	180 (100.0)	186 (100.0)	1115 (100.0)

In looking at specific journals, some striking differences are apparent. The proportions of positivist studies are far greater in the AJCP (64.4%) and JCP (73.0%) than in the JCASP (38.3%) and JPIC (33.9%). After *positivist* studies, the AJCP most often published *applied* studies (22.1%) and proportions of *mixed* and *interpretive* studies were scarce in this journal (3.9% and 1.8%, respectively).

After *positivist* articles (73.0%), the JCP often included articles that used *applied* (11.7%) or *interpretive* approaches (10.8%). *Critical* approaches were absent (0.0%). After *positivist* articles (38.3%), the JCASP included more *interpretive* approaches (33.3%) and *applied* (16.7%) approaches. *Critical* (3.3%) and *mixed method* approaches (8.3%) were infrequently used in this journal. In the JPIC, studies using *applied* approaches (37.6%) were closely rivalled by *positivist* approaches (33.9%). *Interpretive* studies were also more apparent in this journal (24.7%). There were no articles that used *critical* approaches, and *mixed method* articles were rare (2.2%).

5.2. Primary Method of Data Collection

In international journals, the use of a *survey* method was the most widespread form of data collection (35.5%), followed by *multi-method* data sources (20.7%), and the use of *qualitative* methods (20.4%).

Table 45. *Primary Method of Data Collection in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Survey	138 (41.7)	159 (38.0)	43 (23.9)	56 (30.1)	396 (35.5)
Test/Scale	16 (4.8)	56 (13.4)	2 (1.1)	3 (1.6)	77 (6.9)
Experimental	14 (4.2)	12 (2.9)	7 (3.9)	8 (4.3)	41 (3.7)
Quasi-experimental	11 (3.3)	20 (4.8)	3 (1.7)	14 (5.6)	48 (4.3)
Qualitative	75 (22.7)	56 (13.4)	71 (39.4)	25 (13.4)	227 (20.4)
Archival	15 (4.5)	13 (3.1)	8 (4.4)	11 (5.9)	47 (4.2)
Multi-method	54 (16.3)	102 (24.4)	36 (20.0)	39 (21.0)	231 (20.7)
Autobiography	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	30 (16.1)	30 (2.7)
Other	8 (2.4)	0 (0.0)	10 (5.6)	0 (0.0)	18 (1.6)
Total	331 (100.0)	418 (100.0)	180 (100.0)	186 (100.0)	1115 (100.0)

Survey methods of data collection were a popular choice across all of the journals, though least common in the JCASP (23.9%). The use of *multi-method* data sources was also evident across journals, reflecting the presence of very large-scale studies in international journals, with multiple types of indicators and complex research designs. However, this method was most striking in the JCP (24.4%). *Qualitative methods* also appeared as a preferred method in the international journals, although these sources were most common in the JCASP (39.4%). The use of *autobiographical* methods was particular to the JPIC (16.1%), reflecting the presence of several special issues that presented articles featuring the life narratives of prominent community psychologists. Experimental and quasi-experimental research was relatively rare in all of the journals.

6. Methodological Characteristics of Empirical Research on People

Of the research articles that used people as data sources, 94.2% were *empirical* articles (n = 843) and 5.8% (n = 52) were *case studies*, yielding a total of 895 articles that were used for the analysis that follows.

6.1. Primary Approach

Research on people followed trends for *empirical* and *case study* research more generally, although proportions of *positivist* studies were slightly higher where people were used as data sources (69.1%). *Interpretive* research (14.6%) and *applied* research (9.2%) were slightly less common but still prominent approaches.

Table 46. *Primary Approach in Research on People in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Positivist	194 (82.6)	300 (80.0)	64 (44.4)	60 (42.6)	618 (69.1)
Interpretive	3 (1.3)	41 (10.9)	58 (40.3)	29 (20.6)	131 (14.6)
Critical	20 (8.5)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	22 (2.5)
Mixed	7 (3.0)	18 (4.8)	10 (6.9)	7 (5.0)	42 (4.7)
Applied	11 (4.7)	16 (4.3)	10 (6.9)	45 (31.9)	82 (9.2)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	141 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

In examining research approaches across the journals, trends were much the same as was found in the empirical research more generally. However, research that used people as data sources showed slightly elevated levels of positivist research, and slight decline in *interpretive* research. This was due to the exclusion of purely textual qualitative data in this analysis, which was found in empirical research that used archival documents or website text as data sources.

6.2. Primary Method of Data Collection

Trends in the primary method of data collection here showed even more elevated proportions in the use of the *survey* method (42.9%), in line with the increase noted above in the use of positivist research approaches. This was accompanied by a slight decrease in the use of *multi-method* data sources (19.0%) and *qualitative* methods (15.0%).

Table 47. *Primary Method of Data Collection in Research on People in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Survey	134 (57.0)	156 (46.1)	41 (28.5)	53 (37.6)	384 (42.9)
Test/Scale	16 (6.8)	55 (14.7)	2 (1.4)	1 (0.7)	74 (8.3)
Experimental	12 (5.1)	11 (2.9)	7 (4.9)	7 (5.0)	37 (4.1)
Quasi-experimental	10 (4.3)	19 (5.1)	3 (2.1)	14 (9.9)	46 (5.1)
Qualitative	25 (10.6)	36 (9.6)	55 (38.2)	18 (12.8)	134 (15.0)
Archival	3 (1.3)	9 (2.4)	0 (0.0)	8 (5.7)	20 (2.2)
Multi-method	27 (11.5)	89 (23.7)	28 (19.4)	26 (18.4)	170 (19.0)
Autobiography	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	14 (9.9)	16 (1.8)
Other	8 (2.4)	0 (0.0)	8 (5.6)	0 (0.0)	14 (1.6)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	141 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

The use of a *survey* method was most common in the AJCP (57.0%) and JCP (46.1%), and far less frequent in the JCASP (28.5%). As noted previously, a more qualitative orientation was found in JCASP, reflected by the prominent use of *qualitative* methods (38.2%). These methods were fairly evenly spread across the other journals, but were least common in the JCP (9.6%).

6.3. Context of Data Collection

Almost all of the research published in international journals was conducted in an international setting (99.0%). A few studies using *local* South African sites for data collection were noted (0.7%). Overall, the presence of studies that included data collection from *both* international and local contexts (i.e. comparative studies) was extremely scarce (0.3%). This places the collective contribution of empirical South African scholarship to CP journals at 1% (n = 9).

Table 48. *Context of Data Collection in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
International	235 (98.7)	371 (98.9)	142 (98.6)	140 (100.0)	886 (99.0)
Local	1 (0.4)	3 (0.8)	2 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	6 (0.7)
Both	2 (0.9)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.3)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

The few empirical studies that used data collected in local contexts were distributed across the AJCP, JCP and JCASP, with none being published in the JPIC.

6.4. Region of Data Collection

Multiple response frequencies were used to examine the region of data collection (N cases = 895; N responses = 909). The results indicate that most empirical research is based on data collected in *North America* (72.7%), followed by *Europe* (14.3%) and *Australia* (6.1%). However, the overall patterns suggest the relative absence of the *Latin American, African* and *Asian* continents as regions of data collection.

The results show that *North America* is the preferred region for data collection in the AJCP (88.8%), JCP (78.8%) and JPIC (92.3%), and that other regions had a marginal presence. The JCP was the most diverse of the US based journals in terms of global inclusivity, and also included a notable collection of studies with data from *Europe* (8.5%), *Australia* (5.8%) and *Asia* (5.0%). *Europe* is the preferred region of data collection for

studies published in the JCASP (61.1%), followed by *Australia* (18.1%), and then *North America* (12.8%).

Table 49. *Region of Data Collection in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
National SA	1 (0.4)	3 (0.8)	2 (1.3)	1 (0.7)	7 (0.8)
Gauteng	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	2 (0.2)
Western Cape	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	2 (0.2)
Eastern Cape	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	1 (0.1)
KwaZulu-Natal	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
Africa (excl. SA)	3 (1.3)	1 (0.3)	3 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (0.8)
Europe	7 (2.9)	32 (8.5)	91 (61.1)	0 (0.0)	130 (14.3)
Australia	4 (1.7)	22 (5.8)	27 (18.1)	2 (1.4)	55 (6.1)
North America	213 (88.8)	297 (78.8)	19 (12.8)	132 (92.3)	661 (72.7)
Latin America	3 (1.3)	2 (0.5)	3 (2.0)	2 (1.4)	10 (1.1)
Asia	7 (2.9)	19 (5.0)	4 (2.7)	2 (1.4)	32 (3.5)
Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	1 (0.1)
Total (n responses)	240 (100.0)	377 (100.0)	149 (100.0)	143 (100.0)	905 (100.0)

6.5. Setting of Data Collection

The dataset of international articles was further scrutinised for the setting in which data collection took place. Setting of data collection was investigated using multiple response frequencies (N cases = 895; N responses = 1067). Participants' *homes* were the most favoured setting of data collection (18.6%). This was followed by a preference for conducting data collection in *schools* (16.1%), and *hospitals/clinics* (10.6%). However, it should be noted that in a large proportion of studies, the setting of data collection was *unspecified* (13.7%). There were no studies that collected data in *military* settings, *medico-legal* settings, *crèches*, *private practices* or *churches*.

In the AJCP, the use of participants accessed from their own *homes* was the most prominent choice (27.5%), and this setting was more extensively utilised here than in the other three journals. *Schools* were also very common sites (16.7%), as was the *general community* (11.1%). Of the articles in this journal, 9.0% did not specify the setting of data collection. Trends in the JCP were very similar, but *schools* were the most prominent (18.5%), followed by participants' *home* (17.0%) and the *general community* (11.3%). Of the articles in this journal, 17.2% did not specify the setting of data collection.

Table 50. *Setting of Data Collection in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Hospital/clinic	32 (9.6)	45 (11.2)	18 (11.5)	20 (11.5)	113 (10.6)
University	10 (3.0)	35 (8.7)	16 (10.3)	24 (13.8)	85 (8.0)
School	56 (16.7)	74 (18.4)	11 (7.1)	30 (17.2)	171 (16.1)
Company	20 (6.0)	23 (5.7)	10 (6.4)	12 (6.9)	65 (6.1)
Residential care	19 (5.7)	10 (2.7)	9 (5.8)	10 (5.7)	48 (4.5)
Home	92 (27.5)	68 (16.9)	19 (12.2)	19 (10.9)	198 (18.6)
Rural	2 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)
Police/law	2 (0.6)	6 (1.5)	1 (0.6)	4 (2.3)	13 (1.2)
Recreation	1 (0.3)	11 (2.7)	5 (3.2)	8 (4.6)	25 (2.4)
Community	38 (11.3)	51 (12.7)	17 (10.9)	13 (7.5)	117 (11.0)
Internet	2 (0.6)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.6)	12 (6.9)	16 (1.5)
CBO	31 (9.3)	7 (1.7)	2 (1.4)	20 (11.5)	60 (5.6)
Correctional centre	0 (0.0)	1 (0.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.1)	3 (0.3)
Unspecified	30 (9.0)	69 (17.2)	47 (30.1)	0 (0.0)	146 (13.7)
Total (n res)	335 (100.0)	402 (100.0)	156 (100.0)	174 (100.0)	1067 (100.0)

The JCASP had the highest proportion of articles with an *unspecified* setting (30.1%). Apart from this, people often chose to access data from participants' *homes* (12.2%), *hospitals/clinics* (11.5%), the *general community* (10.9%) and *universities* (10.3%). In the JPIC, *schools* (17.2%), *universities* (13.8%) and *CBOs* (11.5%) were the most favoured settings, and none used *unspecified* settings (0.0%).

6.6. Sample Size

Authors in international articles have a preference for using large samples of *over 500* cases (30.3%), followed by samples of *201-500* cases (20.0%), and then samples of *101-200* cases (16.6%).

Comparisons between the journals showed that larger datasets were more typical of publications in the AJCP (43.0%) and JCP (34.9%), and were least typical in the JCASP (16.3%) and JPIC (11.3%). The JCASP and JPIC contained more variation in sample size, and these journals specifically included studies with very small samples. The presence of an *unspecified* sample size was uncommon in all of the international publications.

Table 51. *Sample Size in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
1-10	9 (3.8)	7 (1.9)	12 (8.3)	29 (20.6)	57 (6.4)
11-30	12 (5.1)	20 (5.3)	27 (18.8)	13 (9.2)	72 (8.0)
31-100	24 (10.2)	54 (14.4)	41 (28.5)	34 (24.1)	153 (17.1)
101-200	32 (13.6)	75 (20.0)	23 (16.0)	19 (13.5)	149 (16.6)
201-500	55 (23.4)	85 (22.7)	16 (11.1)	23 (16.3)	179 (20.0)
>500	101 (43.0)	131 (34.9)	23 (16.0)	16 (11.3)	271 (30.3)
Unspecified	2 (0.9)	3 (0.8)	2 (1.4)	7 (5.0)	14 (1.6)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	141 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

6.7. Method of Data Analysis

The method of data analysis was investigated using multiple response frequencies (N cases = 895; N responses = 1568). Most research used *descriptive statistics* (41.8%), and inferential statistics (41.3%), followed by *content analysis* (9.2%). The use of *discourse analysis* was extremely rare in international research (0.7%).

Table 52. *Method of Data Analysis in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC N (%)**	**All n (%)**
Descriptive statistics	193 (44.1)	312 (44.6)	66 (30.6)	85 (39.7)	656 (41.8)
Inferential statistics	187 (42.7)	318 (45.4)	65 (30.1)	77 (36.0)	647 (41.3)
Content analysis	39 (8.9)	47 (6.7)	41 (19.0)	17 (7.9)	144 (9.2)
Interpretive analysis	6 (1.4)	17 (2.4)	26 (12.0)	32 (15.0)	81 (5.2)
Discourse analysis	8 (1.8)	4 (0.6)	16 (7.4)	1 (0.5)	29 (1.8)
Other	5 (1.1)	2 (0.3)	2 (0.9)	2 (0.9)	11 (0.7)
Total (n responses)	438 (100.0)	700 (100.0)	216 (100.0)	214 (100.0)	1568 (100.0)

Articles in the AJCP and JCP commonly used *descriptive statistics* (44.1% and 44.6%) and *inferential statistics* (42.7% and 45.4%). The JCASP had more *content analysis* (19.0%), *interpretive analysis* (12.0%), and *discourse analysis* (7.4%), highlighting a greater qualitative orientation compared with the other journals. The JPIC also had notable proportions of articles that used *content analysis* (7.9%) and had the greatest preference for *interpretive* methods (15.0%). However, despite a conspicuous presence of qualitative methods in the JPIC, *discourse analysis* was not a favoured analytic technique (0.5%).

6.8. Theories

Theoretical trends were investigated using multiple response frequencies (N cases = 895; N responses = 1386). The results indicate that *prevention* is by far the dominant theoretical frontrunner, constituting a third of studies (33.7%). This approach was followed by a preference for *traditional* theories (16.7%), and then *ecological* perspectives (14.1%).

Table 53. *Theories in International Journals*

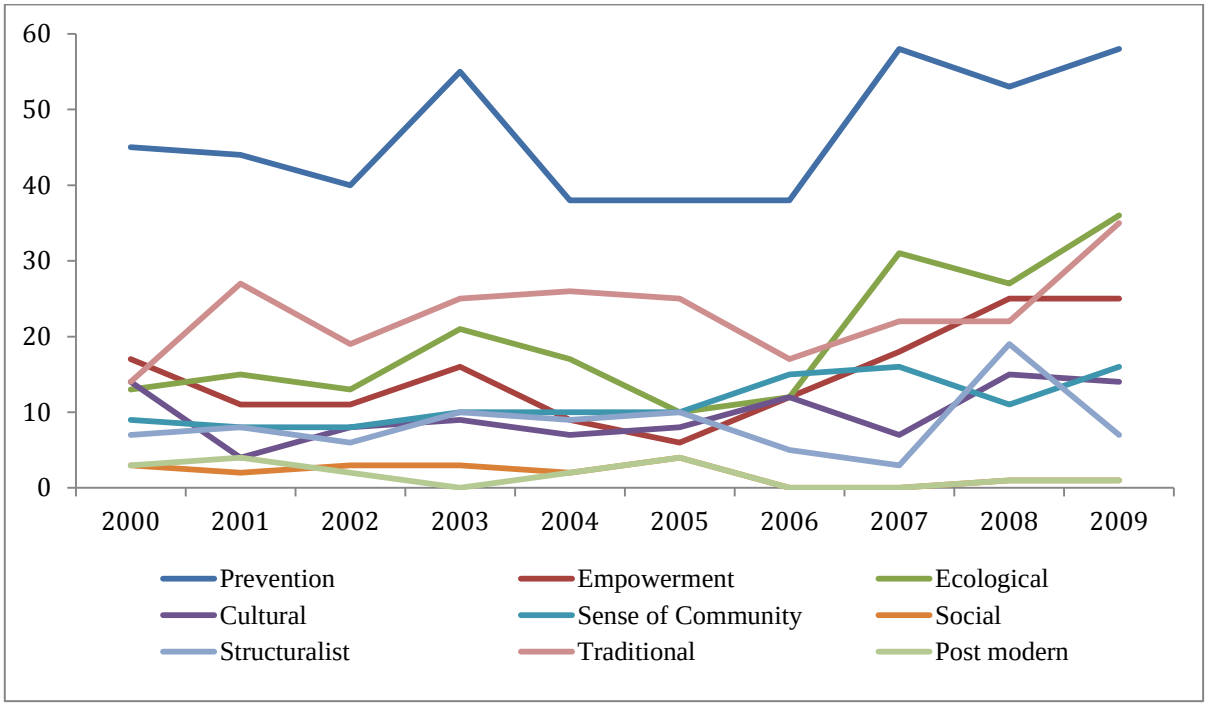
	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Prevention	109 (23.7)	210 (45.5)	42 (22.8)	106 (37.7)	467 (33.7)
Structuralist	35 (7.6)	6 (1.3)	31 (16.8)	12 (4.3)	84 (6.1)
Empowerment	58 (12.6)	44 (9.5)	25 (13.6)	23 (8.2)	150 (10.8)
Ecological	69 (15.0)	56 (12.1)	15 (8.2)	55 (19.6)	195 (14.1)
Cultural diversity	21 (4.6)	46 (10.0)	8 (4.3)	27 (9.6)	102 (7.4)
SOC	22 (4.8)	54 (11.7)	16 (8.7)	21 (7.5)	113 (8.2)
Traditional	142 (30.9)	40 (8.7)	23 (12.5)	27 (9.6)	232 (16.7)
Post-modern	2 (0.4)	4 (0.9)	14 (7.6)	4 (1.4)	24 (1.7)
Social	1 (0.2)	2 (0.4)	10 (5.4)	6 (2.1)	19 (1.4)
Total (n responses)	459 (100.0)	462 (100.0)	184 (100.0)	281 (100.0)	1386 (100.0)

Theories related to *prevention* were pronounced across the international journals, but were most common in the JCP (45.5%) and JPIC (37.7%). The JCP had the highest proportion of studies that drew on frameworks related to *sense of community* (11.7%). *Traditional* theories were most common in the AJCP (30.9%). *Ecological* perspectives were most often found in the JPIC (19.6%).

Theory by Year of Publication

Chart 2 indicates the breakdown of theories used by year of publication to further elucidate how trends in theoretical preference have developed over time.

Chart 2. *Theory by Year of Publication*



The use of *prevention* has a somewhat erratic profile, yet is consistently higher in presence than all other theories across the 10-year period. While two peaks emerged from the presence of special issues related to this theoretical orientation, *prevention* was nevertheless dominant throughout. A very stable but low profile is evident for *post-modern*, *social* theories. *Ecological* theories were more variable but increasing over time. A fairly consistent, yet gradually increasing profile, can be distilled for *traditional*, *sense of community* and *empowerment* theories. In general, the theoretical choices seem more established in the earlier part of the decade (from 2000 to 2005) and more variable towards the latter part (from 2006 to 2009). This could indicate greater theoretical flux, although this also has to be considered in light of the increasing publication rate over the course of this decade.

6.9. Topics

The most frequent article topic was *child, youth and family* (17.8%). This was followed by the topics of *social networks and social support* (14.6%), *difference and exclusion* (11.6%), and *mental health and mental illness* (11.2%).

Table 54. *Topics in International Journals*

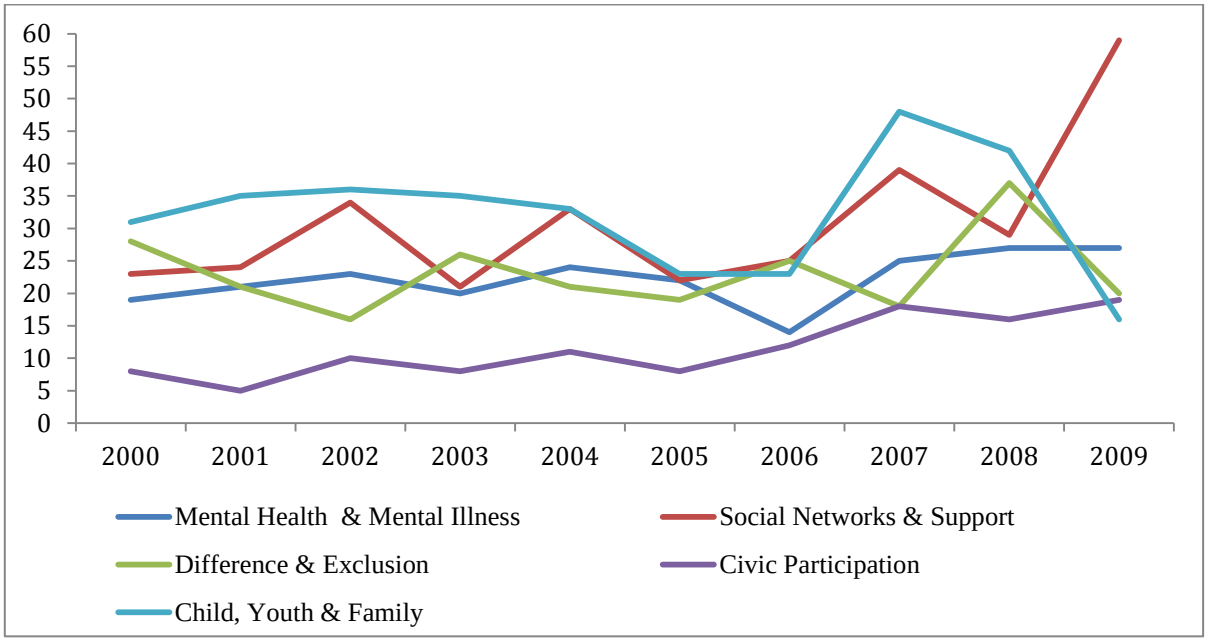
	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Mental health & mental illness	64 (11.2)	97 (11.2)	36 (11.1)	33 (11.4)	230 (11.2)
Social networks & support	90 (15.7)	141 (16.3)	53 (16.3)	15 (5.2)	299 (14.6)
Difference & exclusion	69 (12.1)	88 (10.2)	52 (16.0)	29 (10.0)	238 (11.6)
Child, youth & family	107 (18.7)	162 (18.7)	43 (13.2)	53 (18.3)	365 (17.8)
Violence & abuse	44 (7.7)	66 (7.6)	19 (5.8)	23 (8.0)	152 (7.4)
Neighbourhood & residential	24 (4.2)	40 (4.6)	9 (2.8)	6 (2.1)	79 (3.9)
Civic participation	22 (3.8)	57 (6.6)	24 (7.4)	12 (4.2)	115 (5.6)
Sexual outcomes & HIV/AIDS	20 (3.5)	16 (1.8)	11 (3.4)	17 (5.9)	64 (3.1)
Media use & effects	3 (0.5)	9 (1.0)	8 (2.5)	6 (2.1)	26 (1.3)
Substance use & abuse	26 (4.5)	43 (5.0)	13 (4.0)	20 (6.9)	102 (5.0)
Physical illness & injury	14 (2.4)	24 (2.8)	12 (3.7)	13 (4.5)	63 (3.1)
Crime & criminal justice	11 (1.9)	19 (2.2)	4 (1.2)	2 (0.7)	36 (1.8)
Scale development & testing	6 (1.0)	16 (1.8)	1 (0.3)	3 (1.0)	26 (1.3)
Disasters & war	5 (0.9)	7 (0.8)	2 (0.6)	2 (0.7)	16 (0.8)
Intervention execution & evaluation	6 (1.0)	22 (2.5)	6 (1.8)	15 (5.2)	49 (2.4)
Work-related & organisational	12 (2.1)	17 (2.0)	10 (3.1)	6 (2.1)	45 (2.2)
Social policy & funding climate	10 (1.7)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.9)	4 (1.4)	17 (0.8)
Welfare, poverty & homelessness	36 (6.3)	28 (3.2)	11 (3.4)	15 (5.2)	90 (4.4)
Human resources & training	3 (0.5)	13 (1.5)	8 (2.5)	15 (8.7)	39 (1.9)
Total	572 (100.0)	865 (100.0)	325 (100.0)	289 (100.0)	2051 (100.0)

Studies related to *child, youth and family* were consistently popular in the AJCP, JCP and JPIC, but less so in the JCASP. The topic of *social networks and social support* was more frequent across the AJCP, JCP and JCASP, but less evident in the JPIC. *Difference and exclusion* was common in all of the journals, but most popular in the JCASP. *Human resources and training* was far more prominent in the JPIC than in any other journal.

Most Common Topics by Year of Publication

On the whole, article topics have been relatively stable over the 10-year period surveyed. Chart 3 presents the distribution of topics by year to illustrate this. However, some discernible trends are worth highlighting. More recent interest seems to be placed in topics related to *social networks and support*, with declining interest in topics on *child, youth and family* after an all-time peak in 2007. Topics related to *civic participation*, *mental health and mental illness*, and *difference and exclusion* were the most consistent topics across time.

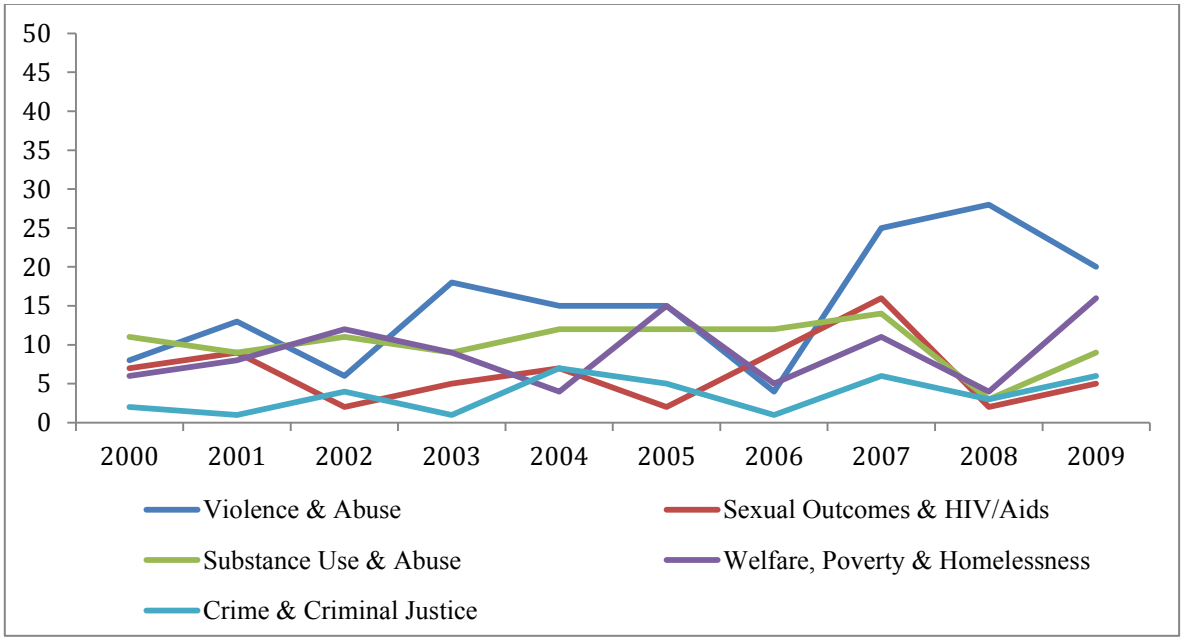
Chart 3. *Most Common Topics by Year of Publication*



Topics related to Social Issues by Year of Publication

Topics related to social issues have mostly been consistent over the decade examined. To illustrate this, Chart 4 presents the distribution of topics related to social problems by year.

Chart 4. *Topics related to Social Issues by Year of Publication*



Substance use and abuse and *crime and criminal justice* appear to be the most stable of all of these topics. Interest in publishing on *violence and abuse* has fluctuated but appears to be gaining greater popularity in recent years.

7. Participant Characteristics of Empirical Research on People

7.1. Race and Ethnicity Categories

Mixed US-based racial and ethnic groups predominated (45.4%), followed by groups where race or ethnicity was *unspecified* (13.5%) or who were *European with unspecified ethnicity* (9.4%). This reflects a paucity of racial and ethnic specifiers in international scholarship.

Table 55. *Race and Ethnicity Categories in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
African American (US)	20 (8.5)	19 (5.1)	0 (0.0)	12 (8.5)	51 (5.7)
Latino/Hispanic (US)	4 (1.7)	18 (4.8)	0 (0.0)	6 (4.3)	28 (3.1)
Jewish/Arab (US)	3 (1.3)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	4 (0.4)
White/European American (US)	5 (2.1)	5 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	6 (4.3)	16 (1.8)
Native American (US)	3 (1.3)	5 (1.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.4)	10 (1.1)
Asian American (US)	1 (0.4)	17 (4.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	19 (2.1)
Mixed ethnic group (US)	156 (66.4)	175 (46.7)	9 (6.3)	66 (46.8)	406 (45.4)
Other minority (US)	6 (2.6)	3 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (1.0)
Cross national	5 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (2.8)	0 (0.0)	11 (1.2)
NA (excl. US) mixed ethnicity	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
NA (excl. US) unspecified ethnicity	2 (0.9)	3 (0.8)	4 (2.8)	1 (0.7)	10 (1.1)
EU unspecified ethnicity	0 (0.0)	25 (6.7)	59 (41.0)	0 (0.0)	84 (9.4)
EU mixed ethnicity	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (6.3)	0 (0.0)	10 (1.1)
Immigrant to EU	0 (0.0)	3 (0.8)	5 (3.5)	0 (0.0)	8 (0.9)
EU White	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (3.5)	0 (0.0)	5 (0.6)
AU/NZ unspecified ethnicity	2 (0.9)	12 (3.2)	20 (13.9)	0 (0.0)	34 (3.8)
AU/NZ mixed ethnicity	0 (0.0)	3 (0.8)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	4 (0.4)
AU/NZ European ethnicity	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
Immigrant to AU/NZ	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	3 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (0.4)
Indigenous to AU/NZ	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	1 (0.7)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)
Asian/Indian/Russian	4 (1.7)	8 (2.1)	4 (2.8)	0 (0.0)	16 (1.8)
Latin American	2 (0.9)	2 (0.5)	3 (2.1)	2 (1.4)	9 (1.0)
Jewish/Arab Israeli	4 (1.7)	12 (3.2)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	16 (1.8)
African unspecified ethnicity	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	3 (2.1)	0 (0.0)	4 (0.4)
Mixed South African	0 (0.0)	2 (0.5)	2 (1.4)	2 (1.4)	6 (0.7)
Black South African	0 (0.0)	2 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.0)	4 (0.4)
Not specified	16 (6.8)	56 (14.9)	8 (5.6)	41 (29.1)	121 (13.5)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	140 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

Mixed ethnicity groups in the US were most salient in the AJCP (66.4%), but were also prominent in the JCP (46.7%) and JPIC (46.8%). Groups of an *unspecified European ethnicity* were most prominent in the JCASP (40.3%). The JPIC had the highest frequency of groups with an *unspecified* ethnicity (29.1%).

7.2. Age Categories

Almost half of all studies used *adult* samples (47.9%), and approximately a quarter used *mixed* age categories (25.6%). This was followed by studies that used *adolescent* groups (10.2%) and samples where age was *unspecified* (9.8%). Qualitatively, it was observed that authors omitted the age for adult participants, as this categorisation was implied by other demographics. This indicates the normativity and lack of differentiation in the use of this age cohort, and suggests that the proportion of studies using *adult* groups is most likely more than half of the articles.

Table 56. *Age Categories in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Early childhood	0 (0.0)	2 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	3 (2.1)	5 (0.6)
Middle childhood	11 (4.7)	20 (5.3)	1 (0.7)	7 (5.0)	39 (4.4)
Adolescence	34 (14.5)	40 (10.7)	4 (2.8)	13 (9.2)	91 (10.2)
Adult	120 (51.1)	169 (45.1)	49 (34.0)	91 (64.5)	429 (47.9)
Elderly	2 (0.9)	3 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.7)	6 (0.7)
Lifespan	2 (0.9)	4 (1.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.4)	8 (0.9)
Mixed	61 (26.0)	97 (25.9)	48 (33.3)	23 (16.3)	229 (25.6)
Unspecified	5 (2.1)	40 (10.7)	42 (29.2)	1 (0.7)	88 (9.8)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	141 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

Between journal comparisons suggest that studies with participants in *early childhood* were scarce in all of the journals, as were studies that used *elderly* participants or a *lifespan* cohort. The AJCP used *adult* groups the most frequently of all the journals (51.1%), and also had the highest proportion of studies that focussed on *adolescents* (14.5%). Trends in the JCP were similar to those in the AJCP, except for a high proportion of studies with *unspecified* age parameters (10.7%). Studies that examined participants in *adolescence* or *middle childhood* were least common in the JCASP, and *elderly* and *lifespan* cohorts were also absent from this journal. This journal also had the highest proportion of studies where age was *unspecified* (29.2%). Approximately a third of studies in this journal focused on *adults* (34.0%) and *mixed* age groups (33.3%). In the JPIC, almost two thirds of studies used

adult groups (64.5%). This journal had the lowest number of articles with *unspecified* ages (0.7%).

7.3. Gender Categories

Approximately two thirds of studies used *mixed* gender samples (67.7%). This was followed by studies that used *female* participants (18.1%), and then participants of an *unspecified* gender composition (9.6%).

Table 57. *Gender Categories in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Male	5 (2.1)	13 (3.5)	8 (5.6)	14 (9.9)	40 (4.5)
Female	43 (18.3)	57 (15.2)	22 (15.3)	40 (28.4)	162 (18.1)
Mixed	176 (74.9)	253 (67.5)	97 (67.4)	80 (56.7)	606 (67.7)
Female, Male & Transgender	0 (0.0)	1 (0.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
Unspecified	11 (4.7)	51 (13.6)	17 (11.8)	7 (5.0)	86 (9.6)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	141 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

The AJCP had the highest proportion of studies with *mixed* gender groups (74.9%). The highest proportions of all-*female* (28.4%) and all-*male* samples (9.9%) were found in the JPIC, which also had the lowest proportion of *mixed* gender groups (56.7%). Only one study, which appeared in the JCP, reported the alternative gender classification of *transgender*, which was found in a mixed group with *females* and *males*.

7.4. Marginality

The majority of research published in international CP journals was conducted with groups that were *not marginalised* (56.1%), whilst 43.9% focused on *marginalised* groups.

Table 58. *Marginality in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n (%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Marginalised	128 (54.5)	149 (39.7)	39 (27.1)	77 (54.6)	393 (43.9)
Not marginalised	107 (45.5)	226 (60.3)	105 (72.9)	64 (45.4)	502 (56.1)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	141 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

Studies on marginalised groups were most common in the AJCP (54.5%) and the JPIC (54.6%), and by far the least common in the JCASP (27.1%).

7.5. Types of Marginalised Groups

Types of marginalised groups were investigated using multiple response frequencies (N cases = 393; N responses = 563). Studies that did not focus on a specific marginalised group were omitted from this analysis. Results show that marginality is most often represented in terms of *gender* (28.8%), *race* (28.1%) and *SES* (22.0%). Underrepresented groups included those marginalised by *sexual orientation* (3.2%), *HIV status* (2.8%), and *disability* (2.0%).

Table 59. *Types of Marginalised Groups in International Journals*

	AJCP n (%)	**JCP n (%)**	**JCASP n(%)**	**JPIC n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Race	52 (25.5)	71 (38.8)	5 (10.9)	30 (23.1)	158 (28.1)
Gender	43 (21.1)	57 (31.1)	22 (47.8)	30 (30.8)	162 (28.8)
Sexual orientation	9 (4.4)	6 (3.3)	2 (4.3)	1 (0.8)	18 (3.2)
HIV status	6 (2.9)	5 (2.7)	2 (4.3)	3 (2.3)	16 (2.8)
SES	57 (27.9)	24 (13.1)	8 (17.4)	35 (26.9)	124 (22.0)
Disability	2 (1.0)	3 (1.6)	2 (4.3)	4 (3.1)	11 (2.0)
Migration status	19 (9.3)	10 (5.5)	5 (10.9)	6 (4.6)	40 (7.1)
Location	14 (6.9)	3 (1.6)	0 (0.0)	10 (7.7)	27 (4.8)
Age	2 (1.0)	4 (2.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.8)	7 (1.2)
Total (n responses)	204 (100.0)	183 (100.0)	46 (100.0)	130 (100.0)	563 (100.0)

In comparing the marginalised groups across journals, notable differences are evident. The JCP had the highest representation of *race* (38.8%), whereas a focus on groups defined by *SES* was least common here (13.1%). The JCASP had the highest representation of *gender* (47.8%), and the lowest representation of *race* (10.9%). The presence of groups marginalised by *sexual orientation, HIV status, age* and *disability* was extremely low across all four journals. Including groups defined by *migration status* were more typical of the AJCP (9.3%) and JCASP (10.9%), whereas groups marginalised by *location* were slightly more common in the AJCP (6.9%) and JPIC (7.7%).

When looking at the presence of marginalised groups over the course of the decade, the results show that all of the most salient categories are used consistently. Using groups based on migration has a lower but stable usage. Gender, race and SES all have more substantial but more temporally variable occurrences. Some of these fluctuations may be attributed to special issue publications.

Chart 5. *Types of Marginalised Groups by Year*

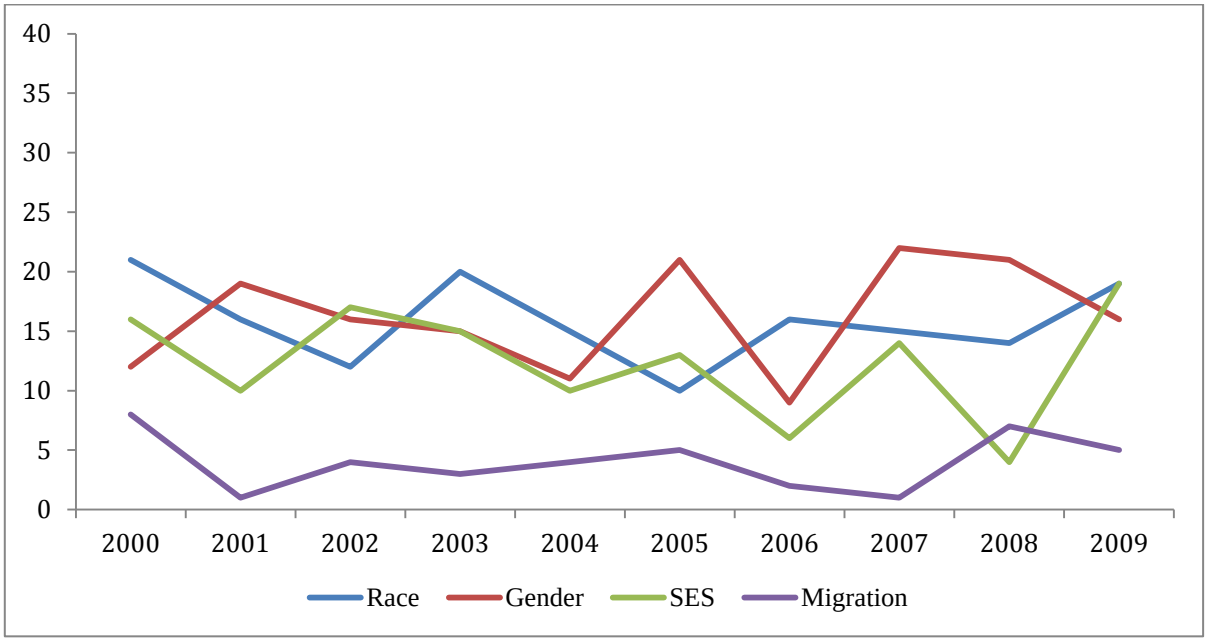
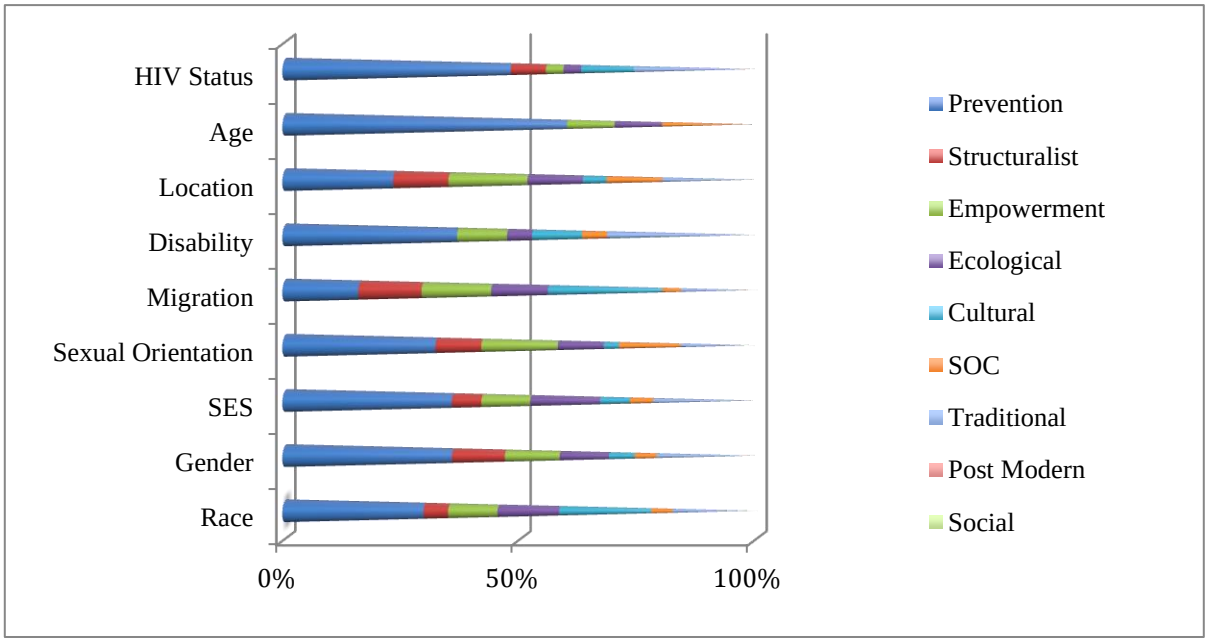


Chart 6. *Theory by Marginalised Groups*



Prevention was most commonly used across all marginalised groups, but especially those defined by age and by a seropositive HIV status. *Cultural diversity* was most commonly found in groups marginalised by race.

Topics by Marginalised Groups

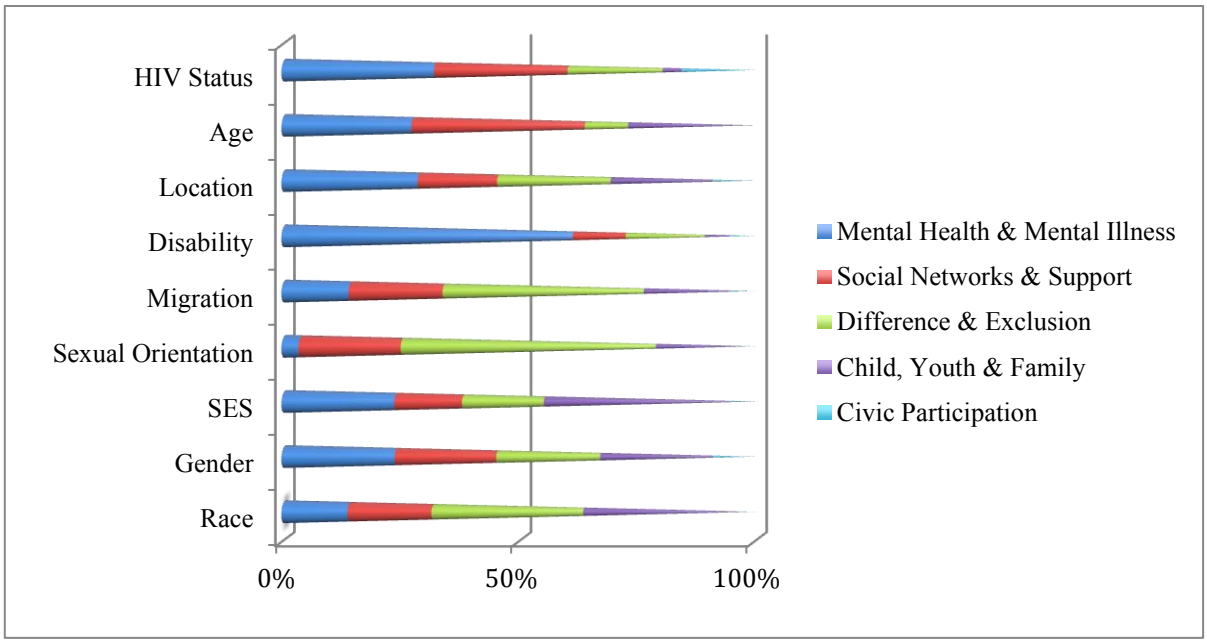
Table 60 presents the frequency breakdown of most common topics by marginalised groups to explore their distribution across these categories.

Table 60. *Most Common Topics by Marginalised Groups*

	Mental Health & Mental Illness	Social Networks & Support	Difference & Exclusion	Child, Youth & Family	Civic Participation
Race (black)	37 (21.8)	47 (30.5)	85 (38.3)	87 (37.3)	11 (22.0)
Gender (female)	48 (28.2)	43 (27.9)	44 (19.5)	48 (20.6)	19 (38.0)
SES	40 (23.5)	24 (15.6)	29 (13.1)	66 (28.3)	10 (20.0)
Sexual orientation	1 (0.6)	6 (3.9)	15 (6.8)	5 (2.1)	1 (2.0)
Migration	10 (5.9)	14 (9.1)	30 (13.5)	13 (5.6)	4 (8.0)
Disability	11 (6.5)	2 (1.3)	3 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	1 (2.0)
Location	12 (7.1)	7 (4.5)	10 (4.5)	9 (3.9)	4 (8.0)
Age	3 (1.8)	4 (2.6)	1 (0.5)	3 (1.3)	0 (0.0)
HIV Status	8 (4.7)	7 (4.5)	5 (2.3)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)
Total (n responses)	170 (100.0)	154 (100.0)	222 (100.0)	233 (100.0)	50 (100.0)

The topics of *difference and exclusion*, and *child, youth and family* were most common in Black populations compared to other marginalised groups. Women were studied more frequently in relation to the topics of *mental health and mental illness*, and *child, youth and family*. *Difference and exclusion* was most often explored in relation to migrants. *Difference and exclusion* was also the dominant topic among LGBTI groups. The study of *child youth and family* was also common in poorer populations. *Civic participation* was most often explored in relation to women, and least in relation to Black populations.

Chart 7. *Most Common Topics within Marginalised Groups*



The results indicate that the topic of *mental health and mental illness* is proportionately highest in disabled and HIV positive groups, and least found in groups marginalised by sexual orientation. *Social networks and social support* is proportionately the most prominent in elderly populations. *Difference and exclusion* was most prominent emphasis in studies on migrants and those marginalised by sexual orientation. The topic of *child, youth and family* was proportionately highest in poorer populations compared to other marginalised groups.

Topics related to Social Issues in Marginalised Groups

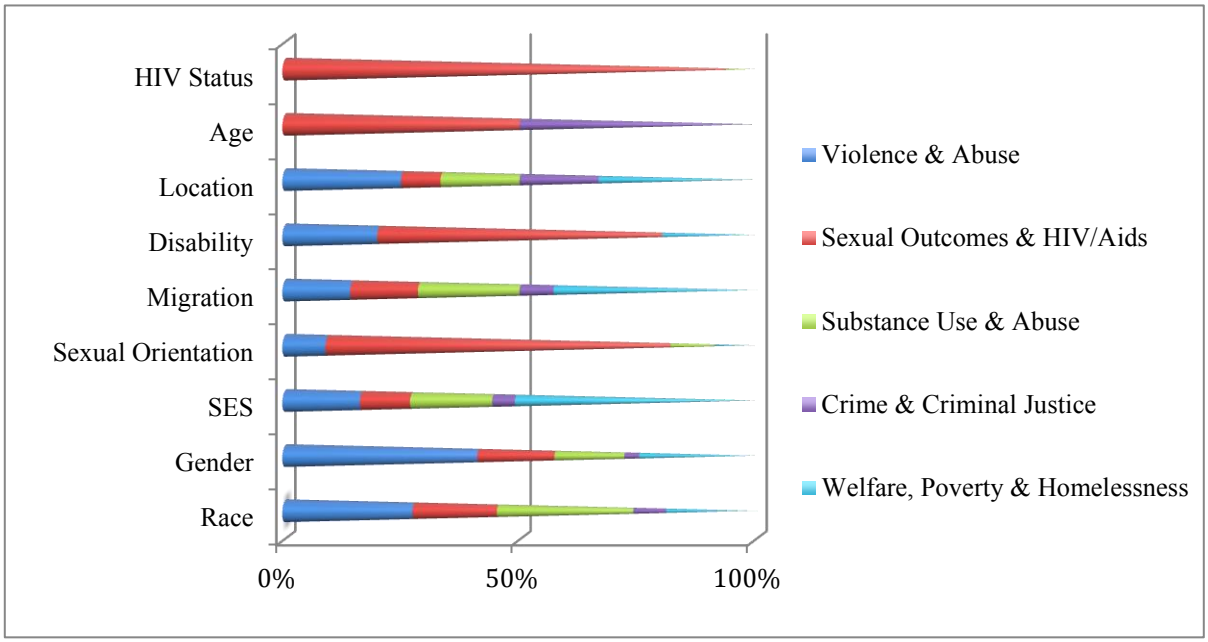
Trends in the study of topics related to social issues were further investigated in marginalised groups in terms of frequencies and proportions to illustrate trends in the study of these issues.

Table 61. *Topics related to Social Issues by Marginalised Groups*

	Violence & Abuse	*Sexual Outcomes & HIV*	*Substance Use & Abuse*	*Crime & Criminal Justice*	*Welfare, Poverty & Homelessness*
Race	20 (20.6)	13 (17.6)	21 (32.3)	5 (27.8)	14 (12.6)
Gender	53 (54.6)	21 (28.4)	19 (29.2)	4 (22.2)	32 (28.8)
SES	17 (17.5)	11 (14.9)	18 (27.7)	5 (27.8)	53 (47.7)
Sexual orientation	1 (1.0)	8 (10.8)	1 (1.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.9)
Migration	2 (2.1)	2 (2.7)	3 (4.6)	1 (5.6)	6 (5.4)
Disability	1 (1.0)	3 (4.1)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.9)
Location	3 (3.1)	1 (1.4)	2 (3.1)	2 (11.1)	4 (3.6)
Age	0 (0.0)	1 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (5.6)	0 (0.0)
HIV Status	0 (0.0)	14 (18.9)	1 (1.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Total (n responses)	97 (100.0)	74 (100.0)	65 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	111 (100.0)

Female participants were frequently recruited for topics related to *violence and abuse* and *sexual outcomes and HIV*. The topic of *violence and abuse* was also commonly investigated in black and poor populations, but to a lesser extent than in female populations. *Substance use and abuse* were topics commonly investigated in black, poor and female populations, as compared to other marginalised groups. As expected, *welfare, poverty and homelessness* was more frequently studied in poor populations, but was also frequently investigated in females.

Chart 8. *Social Issues within Marginalised Groups*



Of all the topics related to social problems, *sexual outcomes and HIV* dominated in the study of individuals who were HIV positive. This topic was also frequently studied in those marginalised by sexual orientation. This topic was also studied in relation to older persons, as was *crime and criminal justice*. As noted previously, *violence and abuse* was a common feature of studies on women. *Substance use and abuse* was researched in the highest proportion in black populations.

7.6. Level of Education

Most participants in international studies had a *mixed* level of education (42.1%), but there was also a substantial proportion of research in which the educational level of participants was *unspecified* (30.7%). Those with a *secondary* level education level followed (10.9%), and there was only one study that selected participants who had *no education*.

There were substantial differences between journals in the reporting of level of education among participants groups. The AJCP used *mixed* education level groups most often (60.0%), and had the lowest proportion of studies in which the education level of participants was *unspecified* (14.5%). The JCP also published research with *mixed* education groups most frequently, but to a lesser extent than the AJCP, and this journal also had a higher proportion of *unspecified* cases (30.9%). The JCASP had a very high proportion of studies in which the level of education of participants was *unspecified* (58.3%), followed by *mixed* education groups (31.2%). The AJCP, JCP and JCASP had very few studies using participants with *postgraduate* qualifications. The JPIC had the greatest range of education groups.

Table 62. *Level of Education in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (%)**	**JCP** **n (%)**	**JCASP** **n (%)**	**JPIC** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Preschool	2 (0.9)	3 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	3 (2.1)	8 (0.9)
Primary	10 (4.3)	28 (7.5)	1 (0.7)	12 (8.5)	51 (5.7)
Secondary	39 (16.6)	39 (10.4)	3 (2.1)	17 (12.1)	98 (10.9)
Tertiary	7 (3.0)	29 (7.7)	9 (6.2)	16 (11.3)	61 (6.8)
Postgraduate	2 (0.9)	2 (0.5)	2 (1.4)	18 (12.8)	24 (2.7)
Mixed	141 (60.0)	157 (41.9)	45 (31.2)	33 (24.1)	377 (42.1)
Unspecified	34 (14.5)	116 (30.9)	84 (58.3)	41 (29.1)	275 (30.7)
No education	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
Total	235 (100.0)	375 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	141 (100.0)	895 (100.0)

7.7. Employment Status

Employment status was investigated using multiple response frequencies (N cases = 895; N responses = 906). Almost a third of published studies in international journals did not specify the employment status of participants (31.3%). The most prominent employment category for adult participants was a *mixed* employment status (26.3%), and 8.9% of studies focused on *employed* populations. Almost a third of studies used participants that technically were not in an employment category because they were enrolled in education or too young to be employed. More specifically, 23.5% were classified as a *child/scholar* and 5.7% were *students*. The results show that the singular focus on *unemployed* groups was very rare (1.8%), as was the focus on *retired* individuals (0.7%).

The use of adults of *mixed* employment status was highest in the AJCP (36.9%), though prominent across all of the journals. The JCP and JCASP had the highest proportion of studies in which employment status of participants was *unspecified* (41.3% and 47.9%, respectively). The JPIC had the highest proportion of articles that studied *employed* groups (23.0%). *Unemployed* groups were neglected across all of the journals, although they were most scarce in the JCP (0.3%). Likewise, a focus on *retired* people was infrequent in all of the journals, but was completely absent in the JCASP (0.0%).

The use of adults of *mixed* employment status was highest in the AJCP (36.9%), though prominent across all of the journals. The JCP and JCASP had the highest proportion of studies in which employment status of participants was *unspecified* (41.3% and 47.9%, respectively).

Table 63. *Employment Status in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (% r)**	**JCP** **n (% r)**	**JCASP** **n (% r)**	**JPIC** **n (% r)**	**All** **n (% r)**
Child/scholar	63 (26.7)	100 (26.5)	15 (10.4)	34 (23.0)	213 (23.5)
Student	7 (3.0)	20 (5.3)	10 (6.9)	15 (10.1)	52 (5.7)
Unemployed	9 (3.8)	1 (0.3)	3 (2.1)	3 (2.0)	16 (1.8)
Employed	15 (6.4)	18 (4.8)	14 (9.7)	34 (23.0)	81 (8.9)
Mixed	87 (36.9)	80 (21.2)	33 (22.9)	38 (25.7)	238 (26.3)
Retired	1 (0.4)	3 (0.8)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.4)	6 (0.7)
Unspecified	38 (16.1)	156 (41.3)	69 (47.9)	21 (14.2)	284 (31.3)
Other	16 (6.8)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	16 (1.8)
Total	236 (100.0)	378 (100.0)	144 (100.0)	148 (100.0)	906 (100.0)

The JPIC had the highest proportion of articles that studied *employed* groups (23.0%). *Unemployed* groups were neglected across all of the journals, although they were most scarce in the JCP (0.3%). Likewise, a focus on *retired* people was infrequent in all of the journals, but was completely absent in the JCASP (0.0%).

7.8. Distinctive Features

Distinctive features of participants were investigated using multiple response frequencies (N cases = 895; N responses = 1189). Approximately one quarter of participants in international studies were a *student/scholar* (24.8%), 15.0% were a *resident* of a neighbourhood, 8.2% were a *parent*, 7.3% were chosen due to their *occupation* or due to a *clinical disorder*, respectively. Other types of participant features were more sporadic.

Scholars/students were commonly used across all of the journals but most often in the AJCP (24.9%) and JCP (27.8%), as were *residents* (14.4% and 18.1%, respectively). *Parents* were most apparent articles in the AJCP and JPIC (9.7% and 10.0%). The JCP had the highest proportion of participants with a *clinical disorder* (9.3%). The JCASP had the highest amount of participants in a selected *occupation* (13.6%), and the lowest who were *scholars/students* (5.1%). The JPIC used *scholars/students* (22.5%) most frequently, followed by *residents* and *parents* (10.0% respectively). However, this journal also had high proportions of articles on *psychologists*, *substance users*, and participants in a specific *occupation* (8.0% respectively).

Table 64. *Distinctive Features of Participants in International Journals*

	AJCP **n (% r)**	**JCP** **n (% r)**	**JCASP** **n (% r)**	**JPIC** **n (% r)**	**All** **n (% r)**
Crime perpetrator	5 (1.5)	5 (1.1)	3 (1.7)	4 (2.0)	17 (1.4)
Crime victim	23 (6.7)	26 (5.5)	6 (3.4)	4 (2.0)	59 (5.0)
Student/scholar	85 (24.9)	131 (27.8)	34 (19.2)	45 (22.5)	295 (24.8)
Activity	4 (1.2)	11 (2.3)	11 (6.2)	6 (3.0)	32 (2.7)
Occupation	22 (6.5)	27 (5.7)	24 (13.6)	16 (8.0)	87 (7.5)
Health professional	6 (1.8)	7 (1.5)	5 (2.8)	4 (2.0)	22 (1.9)
Psychologist	0 (0.0)	3 (0.6)	2 (1.1)	16 (8.0)	21 (1.8)
Volunteer	13 (3.8)	21 (4.5)	3 (1.7)	5 (2.5)	42 (3.5)
Caregiver	9 (2.6)	6 (1.3)	4 (2.3)	3 (1.5)	22 (1.9)
Parent	33 (9.7)	36 (7.6)	9 (5.1)	20 (10.0)	98 (8.2)
Clinical disorder	22 (6.5)	44 (9.3)	9 (5.1)	13 (6.5)	87 (7.3)
Health condition	8 (2.3)	16 (3.4)	13 (7.3)	9 (4.5)	46 (3.9)
Substance user	16 (4.7)	6 (1.3)	8 (4.5)	16 (8.0)	47 (4.0)
Out of school youth	3 (0.9)	5 (1.1)	4 (2.3)	3 (1.5)	15 (1.3)
Cultural affiliation	9 (2.6)	17 (3.6)	7 (4.0)	1 (0.5)	35 (2.9)
Resident	49 (14.4)	85 (18.1)	24 (13.6)	20 (10.0)	178 (15.0)
Developmental stage	23 (6.7)	2 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.5)	28 (2.4)
Political affiliation	1 (0.3)	1 (0.2)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	3 (0.3)
Relationship status	1 (0.3)	2 (0.4)	3 (1.7)	4 (2.0)	10 (0.8)
Welfare-related	8 (2.3)	17 (3.6)	7 (4.0)	3 (1.5)	35 (3.9)
Other	2 (0.6)	2 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	5 (2.5)	9 (0.8)
Total	341 (100.0)	471 (100.0)	177 (100.0)	200 (100.0)	1189 (100.0)

8. Summary of Findings

This chapter compares CP articles appearing within four international journals. The chapter identified the main features of the articles in journals most renowned as sources of CP scholarship. In conclusion to the chapter, this section summarises this analysis.

8.1. Summary of Author Characteristics

A summary of author characteristics of international CP journal articles is presented here, including number of authors and affiliation details.

Table 65. *Summary of Author Characteristics in International Journals*

	Comparative Author Characteristics				
	AJCP	**JCP**	**JCASP**	**JPIC**	**All**
Number of authors	Single (28.2)	Dual (28.8)	Single (39.4)	Single (31.7)	Single (27.3)
Institutional linkages	Single (77.9)	Single (80.4)	Single (85.8)	Single (85.9)	Single (81.5)
Type of Institution	1. University (72.7) 2. University – NGO (6.0) 3. University-company (4.8)	1. University (74.8) 2. University-NGO (6.4) 3. University-government (3.6)	1. University (77.3) 2. University – NGO (3.5) 3. University – hospital/ University-company (2.8)	1. University (78.3) 2. NGO (4.4) 3. University-NGO (3.6)	1. University (75.2) 2. University – NGO (5.3) 3. University – government (3.3)

Nearly three quarters of published work is jointly published. Academia is the foremost institutional site of authorship within the international arena and institutional linkages between authors were also largely restricted to the academe. Only a quarter of publications show linkages outside of the academe. Where dual types of institutional linkages were apparent, these still largely included universities as partners, in collaboration with a variety of other institutions, including NGOs, companies and government agencies. Overall, these results show that scholars in academia dominate international knowledge production in CP, and there is little collaboration.

8.2. Summary of Publication and Research Characteristics

This chapter presented an overview of the publication and research characteristics of articles published in international journals. The main features of this analysis are summarised here.

Table 66. *Summary of Publication and Research Characteristics in International Journals*

	Publication and Research Characteristics				
	AJCP	**JCP**	**JCASP**	**JPIC**	**All**
Publication Type	1. Empirical (49.7) 2. Theoretical (15.5) 3. Case study (14.3)	1. Empirical (71.8) 2. Theoretical (12.7) 3. Case study (6.4)	1. Empirical (48.9) 2. Theoretical (15.8) 3. Book review (14.2)	1. Empirical (39.4) 2. Case study (35.3) 3. Editorial (10.4)	1. Empirical (55.3) 2. Case study (13.7) 3. Theoretical (12.9)

	AJCP	JCP	JCASP	JPIC	All
Primary approach (general)	1. Positivist (64.4) 2. Applied (22.2) 3. Critical (7.9)	1. Positivist (73.0) 2. Applied (11.7) 3. Interpretive (10.8)	1. Positivist (38.8) 2. Interpretive (33.3) 3. Applied (16.7)	1. Applied (37.6) 2. Positivist (33.9) 3. Interpretive (24.7)	1. Positivist (58.3) 2. Applied (19.9) 3. Interpretive (14.1)
Method of data collection (general)	1. Survey (41.7) 2. Qualitative (22.7) 3. Multi-method (16.3)	1. Survey (38.0) 2. Multi-method (24.4) 3. Qualitative/ Test/scale (13.4)	1. Qualitative (39.4) 2. Survey (23.9) 3. Multi-method (20.0)	1. Survey (30.1) 2. Multi-method (21.0) 3. Autobiography (16.1)	1. Survey (35.5) 2. Multi-method (20.7) 3. Qualitative (20.4)
Primary approach (people)	1. Positivist (82.6) 2. Critical (8.5) 3. Applied (4.7)	1. Positivist (80.0) 2. Interpretive (10.9) 3. Mixed (4.8)	1. Positivist (44.4) 2. Interpretive (40.3) 3. Mixed/ Applied (6.9)	1. Positivist (42.6) 2. Interpretive (31.9) 3. Applied (20.6)	1. Positivist (69.1) 2. Interpretive (14.6) 3. Applied (9.2)
Method of data collection (people)	1. Survey (57.0) 2. Multi-method (11.5) 3. Qualitative (10.6)	1. Survey (46.1) 2. Multi-method (23.7) 3. Test/Scale (14.7)	1. Qualitative (38.2) 2. Survey (28.5) 3. Multi-method (23.7)	1. Survey (37.6) 2. Multi-method (18.4) 3. Qualitative (12.8)	1. Survey (42.9) 2. Multi-method (19.0) 3. Qualitative (15.0)
Context of data collection (people)	International (98.7)	International (98.9)	International (98.6)	International (100.0)	International (98.8)
Region of data collection (people)	1. North America (88.8) 2. Europe/ Asia (2.9) 3. Australia (1.7)	1. North America (78.8) 2. Europe (8.5) 3. Australia (5.8)	1. Europe (61.1) 2. Australia (18.1) 3. North America (12.8)	1. North America (92.3) 2. Africa (2.8) 3. Australia/ Asia/Latin America (1.4)	1. North America (72.7) 2. Europe (14.3) 3. Australia (6.1)
Setting of data collection (people)	1. Home (27.5) 2. School (16.7) 3. Community (11.3)	1. Home (16.9) 2. School (18.4) 3. Community (12.7)	1. Unspecified (30.1) 2. Home (12.2) 3. Hospital/ clinic (11.5)	1. School (17.2) 2. University (13.8) 3. CBO/ Hospital/clinic (11.5)	1. Home (18.6) 2. School (16.1) 3. Unspecified (13.7)

	AJCP	JCP	JCASP	JPIC	All
Sample size (people)	> 500 (43.0)	> 500 (34.9)	31-100 (28.5)	31-100 (24.1)	> 500 (30.3)
Data analysis (people)	1. Descriptive (44.1) 2. Inferential (42.7) 3. Content analysis (8.9)	1. Inferential (45.4) 2. Descriptive (44.6) 3. Content analysis (6.7)	1. Descriptive (30.6) 2. Inferential (30.1) 3. Content analysis (19.0)	1. Descriptive (39.7) 2. Inferential (36.0) 3. Interpretive analysis (15.0)	1. Descriptive (41.8) 2. Inferential (41.3) 3. Content analysis (9.2)
Theory (people)	1. Prevention (30.2) 2. Traditional (22.2) 3. Ecological (16.1)	1. Prevention (46.0) 2. Ecological (12.4) 3. SOC (11.6)	1. Prevention (31.0) 2. Empowerment (19.0) 3. Social (12.9)	1. Prevention (39.4) 2. Ecological (20.6) 3. Empowerment (9.6)	1. Prevention (37.3) 2. Ecological (14.6) 3. Traditional (12.9)
Topic (people)	1. Child, youth & family (18.7) 2. Social networks & support (15.7) 3. Difference & exclusion (12.1)	1. Child, youth & family (18.7) 2. Social networks & support (16.3) 3. Mental health & mental illness (11.2)	1. Social networks & support (16.3) 2. Difference & exclusion (10.2) 3. Child, youth & family (18.7)	1. Child, youth & family (18.3) 2. Mental health & illness (11.4) 3. Difference & exclusion (10.0)	1. Child, youth & family (17.8) 2. Social networks & support (14.6) 3. Difference & exclusion (11.6)

The results show the consistent primacy of an *empirical* orientation in international CP scholarship. *Theoretical* and *case study* contributions were also fairly prominent articles types across the international journals. Within the empirical tradition, *positivist* research is most common. Whilst the topic of *difference and exclusion* was conspicuous across empirical studies, surprisingly little international research is located in a *critical* paradigm. *Survey* research was by far the preferred methodological tool of data collection, and the use of large-scale survey designs with multiple standardised questionnaires within a survey battery was common. Studies often reported on selected aspects of a larger survey. In the AJCP and JCP, especially, the use of a survey methodology of data collection was accompanied by the use of very substantial datasets, typically with *over 500 cases*. The JCASP and JPIC showed the more prominent use of *qualitative* methods of data collection, which was reflected in the greater presence of smaller datasets of *31-100 cases*. The JCP and AJCP showed greater similarities in a range of methodological choices, such as sample size, region of data collection, and setting of data collection. *Schools* were the most common institutional setting in empirical research, but there were also a large proportion of

participants recruited from residential areas. The absence of indicating the setting of data collection was notable in many studies. Across the journals, most data was collected in *North America, Europe* and *Australia*, revealing the marginal presence of contributions of majority world countries and continents in international CP journals. In particular, the contribution of research drawn from *Africa, Asia* and *Latin America* was scarce. Empirical scholarship from South Africa in international journals had only a limited presence. Quantitative forms of data analysis, including both *descriptive* and *inferential* statistics, were the most prominent analytic choices. Where qualitative analysis was found, *content analysis* or interpretive methods were preferred. Critical forms of data analysis such as *discourse analysis* were rare in international research. The theoretical strand of *prevention* was by far the most dominant epistemology, but *ecological* and *traditional* approaches are also common. Approaches related to *empowerment, sense of community* and *social psychology* were more characteristic of selected journals, namely, the JCASP and JPIC, rather than being consistently pervasive theoretical strands. This reveals the stronger presence of biomedical epistemologies than social scientific epistemologies. The topic analysis reflects dominant themes of articles across the journals that are inclusive of *child youth and family development, social networks and support, difference and exclusion* and *mental health and mental illness*. These topics reflect the psychological-social dialectic of community psychology, though the articles reflect a preference for traditional psychological approaches or preventionist epistemologies rather than incorporating critical or social scientific frameworks, and critical methodological choices.

8.3. Summary of Participant Characteristics

The chapter highlighted participant characteristics in empirical research on people appearing in international journals. The main features of this analysis are summarised in Table 67. Across the international journals, the use of participants of mixed race and ethnicity was most common. In the US-based journals, that is, the AJCP, JCP and JPIC, the use of participants of mixed US ethnicities was most conspicuous. Within specific US ethnic categories, the focus of research using participants from the African-American population was the most pronounced. The European influence of the JCASP was evident in the selection of participants, indicating the more common use of mixed EU ethnicities. Adults were the most frequent age category researched in international studies, though the proportion of studies exclusively on adults was far more frequent in the US-based journals than in the JCASP. Research mostly focused on mixed gender groups, although this ranged from just over half of articles in the JPIC to three quarters of articles in the AJCP.

Table 67. *Summary of Participant Characteristics in International Journals*

	Participant Characteristics				
	AJCP	**JCP**	**JCASP**	**JPIC**	**All**
Race	1. Mixed US (66.4) 2. African-American (8.5) 3. Unspecified (6.8)	1. Mixed US (46.7) 2. Unspecified (14.9) 3. African-American (8.5)	1. EU Unspecified (41.0) 2. AU/NZ Unspecified (13.9) 3. Mixed US (6.3)	1. Mixed US (46.8) 2. Unspecified (29.1) 3. African-American (8.5)	1. Mixed US (45.4) 2. Unspecified (13.9) 3. EU Unspecified (9.4)
Age	Adult (51.1)	Adult (45.1)	Adult (34.0)	Adult (64.5)	Adult (47.9)
Gender	Mixed (74.9)	Mixed (67.5)	Mixed (67.4)	Mixed (56.7)	Mixed (67.7)
Marginality	More marginalised (54.5)	More not marginalised (60.3)	More not marginalised (72.9)	More marginalised (54.6)	More not marginalised (56.1)
Types of marginalised groups	1. SES (27.9) 2. Race (25.5) 3. Gender (21.1)	1. Race (38.8) 2. Gender (31.1) 3. SES (13.1)	1. Gender (47.8) 2. SES (17.4) 3. Migration/ Race (10.9)	1. Gender (30.8) 2. SES (26.9) 3. Race (23.1)	1. Gender (28.2) 2. Race (28.1) 3. SES (22.0)
Level of education	Mixed (60.0)	Mixed (41.9)	Unspecified (58.3)	Unspecified (29.1)	Mixed (42.1)
Employment	Mixed (36.9)	Unspecified (43.1)	Unspecified (47.9)	Mixed (25.7)	Unspecified (31.3)
Distinctive features	1. Student/ scholar (24.9) 2. Resident (14.4) 3. Parent (9.7)	1. Student/ scholar (27.8) 2. Resident (18.1) 3. Clinical disorder (9.3)	1. Student/ scholar (19.2) 2. Resident/ Occupation (13.6) 3. Health (7.3)	1. Student/ scholar (22.5) 2. Resident/ Parent (10.0) 3. Psychologist/ Parent/ Substance user (8.0)	1. Student/ scholar (24.8) 2. Resident (15.0) 3. Parent (8.2)

Employment was reported in the majority of international studies, although almost a third of studies made no reference to employment as a demographic feature. Most studies used participants of mixed employment categories. Thus, the targeting of specific employment categories was less common, and a specific focus on unemployed populations was rare. Similarly, the selection of certain educational categories was less common compared to participant groups with mixed or unspecified educational levels. The omission of reporting

educational level occurred most often in the JCASP. Approximately a fifth to a quarter of studies across the international journals selected participants who were students or scholars. The selection of participants for being a resident in a particular area was also a consistent feature in these publications. Other participant characteristics were more variable. The majority of studies in the AJCP and JPIC focused on a marginalised group. In the JCASP and JCP, this was not the case. In the categories of marginalisation, structural forms of social exclusion such as race, gender and SES featured most strongly across the journals, but migration also appeared to be a notable feature of marginality. Other categories of marginality were more variable across journals and were far less prominent.

8. Conclusion

This chapter has illustrated some important ways in which CP scholarship was characterised within international journals. In terms of authorship, published work in CP remained largely academic rather than primarily originating in applied contexts outside academia. Knowledge production in international journals was dominated by studies conducted in the US, Europe and Australia. Empirical articles were the most common type of publication in CP, but case study and theoretical articles were also notable forms of knowledge production. Empirical research was largely positivist in its choice of methodological approach, and was associated with the use of surveys as a tool for data collection. Empirical research on people also largely utilised *prevention* as the dominant conceptual framework, which was the most prominent approach across all of the international studies. The greater proportion of empirical research on people was not dedicated to the study of marginalised groups. This research maintained a focus on structural forms of marginality related to race, gender and SES. However, marginalised groups were typically investigated from theories and methods located in a bio-medical, rather than a social scientific tradition. The use of critical methodological approaches was peripheral in the international journals. This illustrates a significant tension in relation to the historical identity of CP as a field that emerged during a period of social unrest and critical resistance to the deficits and limitations of mainstream psychology. Data collection was conducted in both institutional and non-institutional settings, though research focussed on residential and scholastic settings.

This chapter has sought to highlight trends in internationally published CP articles. The analysis now turns to providing a comparison of local and internationally authored CP publications. This analysis sets local knowledge production against its international counterpart to assess the ways in which it conforms with or deviates from the thrust of global trends.

Chapter 10

A Comparison of Local and International Articles

1. Introduction

This chapter presents a comparative and integrated analysis of the features of South African and international published articles in CP. This analysis synthesises the trends in South African scholarship both locally and abroad, and situates these in comparison to trends in international scholarship, before noting their collective knowledge contribution. In this chapter, articles included in the category of South African scholarship include both those classified as CP articles that were published in local journals as well as those appearing in international journals that have authors affiliated to South African institutions. This chapter therefore extends the analysis of South African CP scholarship beyond the limits of local journals to include articles authored by South Africans in international journals. International scholarship includes all articles appearing in international journals collectively, excluding local contributions. The purpose of this chapter is to foreground the features of South African CP publications and offset these against the broader context of international knowledge production. This analysis permits the identification of aspects of knowledge production that are consistent or novel across contexts. This assists in distinguishing the contextually relevant aspects of knowledge production from those more indicative of intra-disciplinary influences.

Like the format in the preceding two chapters, analysis begins with a description of the general publication and authorship trends. The chapter then provides an exposition of the dominant conceptual and methodological features of international and local articles, and the characteristics of research participants in this corpus of work.

2. Description of the Dataset

2.1. Total Number of Articles

The dataset for the analysis presented here comprises a comparison composite of CP articles published by local and international authors from all of the journals between January 2000 and December 2009 (N = 1670). There were 1591 articles (95.3%) published by international authors. These articles were solely from the AJCP, JCP, JCASP and JPIC. There were 79 articles (4.7%) published by local authors, and these were drawn from all six journals.

2.2. Publication Rate

The overall publication rate was fairly stable and showed little fluctuation. The lowest number of articles was published in 2005 (8.3%), and the highest number occurred in 2008 (11.5%).

Table 68. *Number of Local and International Articles*

	Local n (%)	**International n (%)**	**All n (%)**
2000	5 (6.3)	162 (10.2)	167 (10.0)
2001	9 (11.3)	172 (10.8)	181 (10.8)
2002	5 (6.3)	136 (8.6)	141 (8.4)
2003	18 (22.5)	161 (10.1)	179 (10.7)
2004	9 (11.3)	137 (8.7)	147 (8.8)
2005	4 (5.1)	134 (8.4)	138 (8.3)
2006	11 (13.8)	154 (9.7)	165 (9.9)
2007	5 (6.3)	173 (10.9)	178 (10.7)
2008	5 (6.3)	187 (11.7)	192 (11.5)
2009	9 (11.3)	174 (10.9)	183 (11.0)
Total	80 (100.0)	1590 (100.0)	1670 (100.0)

International CP articles were published consistently over the 10-year time period investigated. The rate of publication ranged between 8.4% and 11.7%, indicating only a 3% variation in the publication rate over the time period examined. In the local dataset, this same level of consistency was not evident. The rate of publication ranged between 5.1% and 22.5%, indicating a variation range in the publication rate of approximately 17.7%. A special issue of the JPIC on post-apartheid South Africa in part affected the high level of variation in 2003 (See Appendix D, Table D 4). Despite this, however, the results suggest that local CP has yet to establish the level of stability noted in international articles.

3. Author Characteristics

3.1. Number of Authors

Just over a quarter of the articles were single authored (27.7%). This was followed by 26.5% that had two authors, and 17.7% that had three authors. The mean number of authors for the total dataset was 2.78 (*SD.* = 1.791).

Table 69. *Number of Local and International Authors*

	Local n (%)	**International n (%)**	**All n (%)**
1 author	25 (31.3)	437 (27.5)	462 (27.7)
2 authors	29 (36.3)	413 (26.0)	442 (26.5)
3 authors	12 (15.0)	284 (17.9)	296 (17.7)
4 authors	7 (8.8)	198 (12.5)	205 (12.3)
5 authors	2 (2.5)	121 (7.6)	124 (7.4)
More than 5	5 (6.3)	137 (8.6)	141 (8.4)
Total	80 (100.0)	1590 (100.0)	1670 (100.0)

Of the internationally authored articles, 27.5% were single authored. 26.0% had two authors, and 17.9% had three authors. The number of authors for international authors ranged from one to 17 authors, with a mean of 2.8 (*SD.* = 1.805). Trends for local authors differed slightly. Most local articles were co-authored by two authors (36.3%), followed by 31.3% that were single authored and 15.0% that had three authors. The number of authors for local articles ranged from one to seven authors, with a mean of 2.35 (*SD.* = 1.442). Overall, collaborative writing is more common in international CP articles, and includes a greater range of authors.

3.2. Types of Institutions and Institutional Linkages

In examining the *types of institutions* and the *institutional linkages* represented amongst the authorship collective, the results indicate that the vast majority of authors were affiliated to a *single* type of institution (81.4%). A small number of authors in this dataset were associated with *dual* types of institutional linkages (15.0%), and even fewer are associated with three types of institutions (3.6%).

Table 70. *Types of Institutional Linkages of Local and International Authors*

	Local n (%)	**International n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Single	64 (80.0)	1296 (81.5)	1360 (81.4)
Dual	14 (17.5)	236 (14.8)	250 (15.0)
Triple	2 (2.5)	58 (3.6)	60 (3.6)
Total	80 (100.0)	1590 (100.0)	1670 (100.0)

Of the individual types of institutions to which authors belonged, *universities* were by far the most common, constituting 75.3%.

Table 71. *Types of Institutional Affiliations in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
University	63 (78.8)	1194 (75.1)	1257 (75.3)
NGO/CBO	0 (0.0)	42 (2.6)	42 (2.5)
Hospital/clinic	0 (0.0)	11 (0.7)	11 (0.7)
Company	0 (0.0)	20 (1.3)	20 (1.2)
Government	1 (1.3)	14 (0.9)	15 (0.9)
Private	0 (0.0)	15 (0.9)	15 (0.9)
University-NGO	4 (5.0)	82 (5.2)	86 (5.1)
University-hospital	3 (3.8)	37 (2.3)	40 (2.4)
University-company	0 (0.0)	48 (3.0)	48 (2.9)
University-government	6 (7.5)	51 (3.2)	57 (3.4)
University-private	0 (0.0)	11 (0.7)	11 (0.7)
University-school	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)
NGO-company	1 (1.3)	1 (0.1)	2 (0.1)
NGO-government	0 (0.0)	2 (0.1)	2 (0.1)
NGO-hospital	0 (0.0)	3 (0.2)	3 (0.2)
University-hospital-government	2 (2.5)	6 (0.4)	8 (0.5)
University-hospital-company	0 (0.0)	2 (0.1)	2 (0.1)
University-hospital-NGO	0 (0.0)	4 (0.3)	4 (0.2)
University-NGO-government	0 (0.0)	8 (0.5)	8 (0.5)
University-NGO-company	0 (0.0)	10 (0.6)	2 (0.1)
University-NGO-church	0 (0.0)	5 (0.3)	5 (0.3)
University-NGO-private	0 (0.0)	2 (0.1)	2 (0.1)
Government-NGO-company	0 (0.0)	2 (0.1)	2 (0.1)
University-government-company	0 (0.0)	8 (0.5)	8 (0.5)
Total	80 (100.0)	1590 (100.0)	1670 (100.0)

CP articles by local authors were overwhelmingly affiliated to a single institutional type (80.0%), 17.5% had linkages to two types of institutions, and only 2.5% had linkages to three types of institutions. For local authors, the institutional affiliation was mostly to *universities* (78.8%), with government being the only other *single* institutional affiliation (1.3%). Where linkages to *two* types of institutions were evident, these were mainly *university-government* (7.5%), *university-NGO* (5.0%), and *university-hospital* (3.8%) configurations. Only one type of *triple* institutional linkage was found, which was a *university-hospital-government* configuration, constituting 2.5% of articles. The range of combinations of institutional linkages evident in international scholarship was not found in articles by local authors.

In comparison, community articles published by international authors yielded very similar trends. Most international authors were from a *single* type of institution (81.5%), followed by 14.8% from *two* types of institutions, and 3.6% that were comprised of *three* types of institutional linkages. Most authors were affiliated to *universities*, which comprised the biggest proportion of *single* types of institutions that authors belonged to (75.1%). This was followed by authors affiliated to *two* types of institutions, of which *universities* were the common denominator in these dyads. These included *university-NGO* (5.2%), *university-government* (3.2%), *university-company* (3.0%), and *university-hospital* (2.3%) partnerships. Overall these findings attest to the centrality of the university in CP knowledge production.

4. Publication Type

Of the combined CP dataset, most were *empirical* studies (55.4%), followed by *case studies* (13.2%), and *theoretical* articles (12.8%).

Table 72. *Publication Types in Local and International Articles*

	Local n (%)	**International n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Empirical	39 (48.8)	886 (55.7%)	925 (55.4)
Methodological	4 (5.0)	52 (3.3)	56 (3.4)
Review	1 (1.3)	49 (3.1)	50 (3.0)
Theoretical	8 (10.0)	205 (12.9)	213 (12.8)
Editorial	2 (2.5)	87 (5.5)	89 (5.3)
Case study	14 (17.5)	207 (13.0)	221 (13.2)
Book review	12 (15.0)	46 (2.9)	58 (3.5)
Short report	0 (0.0)	9 (0.6)	9 (0.5)
Commentary	0 (0.0)	48 (3.0)	48 (2.9)
Conference report	0 (0.0)	1 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
Other	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Total	80 (100.0)	1590 (100.0)	1670 (100.0)

Similar trends were found in the internationally authored articles. Of these articles, most were *empirical* (55.7%), followed by *case studies* (13.0%) and *theoretical* publications (12.9%). In the locally authored articles, there were slight variations in publication type. Most articles were *empirical* but the proportion of empirical contributions was notably smaller (48.8%). This was similarly followed by a preference for *case study* research, although to a greater extent than was found internationally (17.5%). The third most common type of publication among South African scholars in CP was *book reviews* (15.0%). The

salience of *book reviews* in locally authored publications is not shared in international CP scholarship, with only 2.9% being of this type. However, it should be noted that this is mainly a feature of publications in PINS, rather than in South African CP scholarship generally. Beyond this, theoretical articles were also fairly common in local CP (10.0%). *Short reports*, *commentaries* and *conference reports* were absent in locally authored CP publications.

5. Methodological Characteristics of Empirical Research

The primary research approach used and method of data collection are considered here in relation to articles classified as empirical and empirically based case studies (n = 1115).

5.1. Primary Approach

More than half the empirical research in CP (58.3%) was *positivist* in nature. This was followed by *interpretive* (14.1%), and *applied* research (19.9%). The use of *critical* approaches was minimal (2.9%), as was the use of *mixed method* research (4.8%).

Table 73. *Primary Research Approach in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Positivist	14 (31.8)	648 (59.3)	650 (58.3)
Interpretive	9 (20.5)	156 (14.3)	157 (14.1)
Critical	3 (6.8)	30 (2.7)	32 (2.9)
Mixed	5 (11.4)	52 (4.8)	54 (4.8)
Applied	13 (29.5)	207 (18.9)	222 (19.9)
Total	44 (100.0)	1093 (100.0)	1115 (100.0)

In comparing preferences for research approaches across the international and local datasets, it was evident that the use of positivist research methods was far less common in local studies. Only 31.8% of local authors used *positivist* approaches, compared to 64.7% of international authors. Local studies in general used a greater range of research approaches. In particular there was a greater preference for the use of *interpretive* approaches in local studies (20.5%) compared to international studies (15.8%). Local authors also used *mixed method* approaches to a far greater extent (29.5% compared to 9.5%).

5.2. Primary Method of Data Collection

In the combined dataset, the use of *surveys* was the most common primary method of data collection (30.1%), followed by the use of *qualitative* methods (22.4%) and *multi-method* types of data collection (17.7%).

Table 74. *Primary Method of Data Collection in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Survey	11 (26.2)	281 (30.3)	292 (30.1)
Test	2 (4.8)	114 (12.3)	116 (12.0)
Experimental	0 (0.0)	39 (4.2)	39 (4.0)
Quasi-experimental	0 (0.0)	43 (4.6)	43 (4.4)
Qualitative	14 (33.3)	203 (21.9)	217 (22.4)
Archival	2 (4.8)	42 (4.5)	44 (4.5)
Multi-method	12 (28.6)	160 (17.2)	172 (17.7)
Autobiography	0 (0.0)	14 (1.5%)	14 (1.4)
Other	1 (2.4)	32 (3.4)	33 (3.4)
Total	42 (100.0)	928 (100.0)	970 (100.0)

International studies showed a slightly greater preference for using *surveys* (30.3%) compared to local studies (26.2%). International studies also showed a more frequent use of standardised *scales* (12.3%) compared to local research (4.8%). On the other hand, local authors more frequently selected *qualitative* methods of data collection (33.3%) compared to international authors (21.9%), and they also used *multi-method* forms of data collection to a greater extent (28.6% compared to 17.2%). In general, international studies showed a greater variety in the choice of methods of data collection than locally authored studies.

6. Methodological Characteristics of Empirical Research on People

Of the empirical research on people, 94.4% (n = 873) were *empirical* articles and 5.6% (n = 52) were empirical *case studies*, yielding a total of 925 articles for the analysis that follows.

6.1. Primary Approach

Over two thirds of empirical research on people was conducted using a *positivist* approach (68.1%). This was followed by the use of *interpretive* approaches (15.0%), and *applied* research (9.3%). Very few studies used a *critical* approach (2.5%).

Table 75. *Primary Research Approach in Research on People*

	Local n (%)	**International n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Positivist	14 (32.6)	616 (59.8)	630 (68.1)
Interpretive	9 (20.9)	130 (14.7)	139 (15.0)
Critical	2 (4.7)	21 (2.4)	23 (2.5)
Mixed	6 (14.0)	41 (4.6)	47 (5.1)
Applied	12 (27.9)	74 (8.4)	86 (9.3)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

The use of positivist research methods was far less common in local studies (32.6%) than in international research (59.8%). Local studies used a greater range of research approaches. *Interpretive* approaches and *mixed method* approaches were more common in local than in international research.

6.2. Primary Method of Data Collection

In the combined dataset, the use of *surveys* was the most common primary method of data collection (30.1%), followed by the use of *qualitative* methods (22.4%) and *multi-method* types of data collection (17.7%).

Table 76. *Primary Method of Data Collection in Research on People*

	Local n (%)	**International n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Survey	11 (25.6)	382 (43.3)	393 (42.5)
Test	2 (4.7)	74 (8.4)	76 (8.2)
Experimental	0 (0.0)	37 (4.2)	37 (4.0)
Quasi-experimental	0 (0.0)	46 (5.2)	46 (5.0)
Qualitative	14 (32.6)	133 (15.1)	147 (15.9)
Archival	1 (2.3)	20 (2.3)	21 (2.3)
Multi-method	14 (32.6)	161 (18.3)	175 (18.9)
Autobiography	0 (0.0)	14 (1.6)	14 (1.5)
Other	1 (2.3)	15 (1.6)	16 (1.7)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

More international research used *survey* methods (43.3%) than local studies (25.6%). Local authors used *qualitative* methods more often (32.6%) compared to international authors (15.1%), as well as *multi-method* data sources (32.6% compared to 18.3%). The use of experimental and quasi-experimental research was absent from local CP articles.

6.3. Context of Data Collection

The majority of empirical studies in CP include data collected from *international* sites (95.9%), with data collected from *local* sites constituting 3.8% of studies. Overall, 0.3% of studies included data collection from *both* international and local contexts (e.g. comparative studies).

Table 77. *Context of Data Collection in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **N (%)**
International	7 (16.3)	880 (99.8)	887 (95.9)
Local	34 (79.1)	1 (0.1)	35 (3.8)
Both	2 (4.7)	1 (0.1)	3 (0.3)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

Most of the research published by international scholars was collected from *international* contexts (99.8%), with few international scholars using *local* data (0.5%). Local scholars was also gathered data mostly in a *local* setting (79.1%), but a greater proportion of local scholars used *international* sites for data collection (16.3%) than vice versa (0.1%).

6.4. Region of Data Collection

The region of data collection was tabulated using multiple responses frequencies (N responses = 940; N cases = 925). Most empirical research in CP is based on data collected in *North American* (70.4%), followed by *Europe* (13.8%) and *Australia* (5.9%). However, South Africa does have a presence in this body of research that seems more pronounced than CP scholarship collectively drawn from the rest of the African continent.

International studies have a slightly higher affinity for data collection in *North America*, *Europe* and *Australia*, with proportions of data collection in *North America* constituting nearly three quarters of empirical research (73.8%), followed by 14.4% from *Europe* and 6.2% from *Australia*. Local trends suggest that few scholars have utilised international datasets, but those who have done so, have selected the regions of *North America* (4.3%), *Europe* (2.2%) and *Asia* (4.3%). It appears that South African scholars in CP have largely ignored the rest of the African continent as a site for data collection, with no empirical studies documenting the findings of data sourced in this region.

Table 78. *Region of Data Collection in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
National SA	9 (19.6)	2 (0.2)	11 (1.2)
Gauteng	8 (17.4)	0 (0.0)	8 (0.9)
Western Cape	12 (26.1)	0 (0.0)	12 (1.3)
Eastern Cape	2 (4.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)
KZN	7 (15.2)	0 (0.0)	7 (0.7)
Free State	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
North West	2 (4.3)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)
Limpopo	1 (2.2)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)
Mpumalanga	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Northern Cape	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Africa (excl.RSA)	0 (0.0)	7 (0.8)	7 (0.7)
Europe	1 (2.2)	129 (14.4)	130 (13.8)
Australia	0 (0.0)	55 (6.2)	55 (5.9)
North America	2 (4.3)	660 (73.8)	662 (70.4)
Latin America	0 (0.0)	10 (1.1)	10 (1.1)
Asia	2 (4.3)	30 (3.4)	32 (3.4)
Other	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)
Total	46 (100.0)	894 (100.0)	940 (100.0)

6.5. Setting of Data Collection

Setting of data collection was determined using multiple response frequencies (N responses = 1102; N cases = 925). Most data was sourced at the participant's *home* (18.4%). *Schools* were the second the most favoured choice of setting (16.0%). Eliciting participants from *hospitals or clinics* (10.7%) or the *general community* (11.0%) was also common. A large number of studies conducted data collection in *unspecified* settings (13.6%).

The participant's *home* was the primary setting for data collection internationally (18.9%), but that this was far less common in local CP studies (9.1%). Local studies more frequently drew participants from *schools* (16.4%), the *general community* (14.4%), and *universities* (12.7%). The proportion of studies that collected data in *unspecified* locations was slightly lower in local research (10.9%) compared to international research (13.7%).

Table 79. *Setting of Data Collection in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Hospital/clinic	6 (10.9)	114 (10.9)	120 (10.9)
University	7 (12.7)	82 (7.8)	89 (8.1)
School	9 (16.4)	166 (15.9)	175 (15.8)
Company	3 (5.5)	65 (6.2)	68 (6.2)
Residential care	1 (1.8)	49 (4.7)	50 (4.5)
Home	5 (9.1)	198 (18.9)	203 (18.4)
Rural	2 (3.6)	2 (0.2)	4 (0.4)
Police/legal	2 (3.6)	12 (1.1)	14 (1.3)
Recreation	0 (0.0)	25 (2.4)	25 (2.3)
General community	8 (14.5)	115 (11.0)	123 (11.2)
Internet	2 (3.6)	16 (1.5)	18 (1.6)
CBO/support group/church	3 (5.5)	57 (5.4)	60 (5.4)
Correctional centre	1 (0.1)	3 (0.3)	4 (0.4)
Unspecified	6 (10.9)	143 (13.7)	149 (13.5)
Total	55 (100.0)	1047 (100.00)	1102 (100.0)

6.6. Sample Size

Most empirical research in CP used very large datasets of *more than 500* cases (29.7%), followed by the use of *201-500* cases (19.9%), *31-100* (17.6%) cases and then *101-200* (16.5%).

Table 80. *Sample Size in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
1-10	3 (7.0)	57 (6.5)	60 (6.5)
11-30	4 (9.3)	72 (8.2)	76 (8.2)
31-100	16 (39.5)	146 (16.6)	163 (17.6)
101-200	5 (11.6)	148 (16.8)	153 (16.5)
201-500	5 (11.6)	178 (20.2)	184 (19.9)
>500	6 (14.0)	269 (30.5)	275 (29.7)
Unspecified	2 (4.7)	12 (1.4)	14 (1.5)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

However, it was also clear that there are notable differences in the size of the datasets used in local and international research. Local research showed the use of much smaller datasets in general, with the largest proportion of studies utilising 31-100 cases.

6.7. Method of Data Analysis

Multiple response frequencies were used to investigate method of data analysis (N responses = 1604; N cases = 925). The results reflect the overall dominance of quantitative data analytic techniques, with a large proportion of studies that used *descriptive statistics* (41.3%) and *inferential statistics* (41.1%). This was followed by the substantially lower proportional use of *content analysis* (9.6%).

Table 81. *Method of Data Analysis in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **N (%)**
Descriptive statistics	7 (13.5)	655 (42.2)	662 (41.3)
Inferential statistics	15 (28.8)	644 (41.5)	659 (41.1)
Content analysis	19 (36.5)	135 (8.7)	154 (9.6)
Interpretive analysis	6 (11.5)	80 (5.2)	86 (5.4)
Discourse analysis	3 (5.8)	29 (1.9)	32 (2.0)
Other	2 (3.8)	9 (0.6)	11 (0.7)
Total	52 (100.0)	1552 (100.0)	1604 (100.0)

However, quantitative methods of data analysis were far more commonly used in international research than in local research. Only 13.5% of local studies used *descriptive* statistics and 28.8% used *inferential* statistics, compared to 42.2% and 41.5% in international studies, respectively. The use of qualitative data analytic methods such as *interpretive* forms of analysis (5.4%) and *discourse analysis* (2.0%) was scarce overall. However, both of these forms of analysis were more popular in locally authored than internationally authored research, with 11.5% of locally authored studies employing *interpretive* methods and 5.8% using *discourse analysis*, compared to 5.2% and 1.9% of studies in internationally authored research, respectively.

6.8. Theories

Theories were analysed using multiple response frequencies (N = 925; n responses = 1538). More than one third of articles relied on theories related to *prevention* (37.2%), followed by *ecological* systems (14.4%), and equivalent proportions of *traditional* theories and *empowerment* theory (12.4%), respectively.

Comparisons between local and international studies revealed that the strands of *prevention* and *ecological* systems were influential across contexts. Thus, these epistemologies originally rooted in biomedical traditions such as the health and natural

sciences were the leading conceptual strands that frame and inform community psychologists' understandings of social and community phenomena.

Table 82. *Theories used in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Prevention	30 (39.0)	542 (37.1)	572 (37.2)
Structuralist	2 (2.6)	18 (1.2)	20 (1.3)
Empowerment	13 (16.9)	177 (12.1)	190 (12.4)
Ecological	8 (10.4)	211 (14.4)	219 (14.2)
Cultural diversity	6 (7.8)	116 (7.9)	122 (7.9)
Sense of community	1 (1.3)	132 (9.0)	133 (8.6)
Traditional	6 (7.8)	185 (12.7)	191 (12.4)
Post-modern	7 (9.1)	22 (1.5)	29 (1.9)
Social	4 (5.2)	58 (4.0)	62 (4.0)
Total	77 (100.0)	1461 (100.0)	1538 (100.0)

Theoretical strands linked to *empowerment*, which is typically a hallmark of CP's articulated identity, featured lower in the list of theoretical choices evident in published work at 12.4%. In local studies, *empowerment* theory was more common (16.9%) than in international studies (10.5%). However, the use of empowerment theory, particularly in international research, was typically located at the individual level, such as studies that advocated the importance of self-determination, psychological empowerment, sense of mastery or control, or the use of an empowerment epistemology as a stipulated value base. Conceptual elaboration of empowerment constructs were focused on empowerment in intrapsychic or individual terms, and were particularly concerned with increasing precision around the measurement of empowerment, and the development of measures of empowerment. The use of empowerment as a construct to theorise about social transformation and activism, collective social movements, or challenging inequitable social relations, was virtually absent, especially in international literature.

In international research, *traditional* theories were found in published research (12.7%), but were seldom found in local CP studies (7.8%). Other notable differences included the use of theory related to *sense of community* and associated constructs in international CP scholarship (8.0%), which was fairly prominent in international scholarship but relatively absent in local CP literature (1.4%). By contrast, *post-modern* theory was a greater feature in local research (9.6%), whereas this theory was scarcely applied in international work (1.5%).

6.9. Topics

Topics were analysed with multiple response frequencies (N cases = 925; N responses = 2114). The most frequent article topic in the collective dataset was *child, youth and family* (17.6%). This was followed by *social networks and social support* (14.2%), *difference and exclusion* (11.8%), and then *mental health and mental illness* (11.4%).

Table 83. *Topics in Local and International Articles*

	Local n (%)	**International n (%)**	**All n (%)**
Mental health & mental illness	13 (13.4)	228 (11.3)	241 (11.4)
Social networks & support	4 (4.1)	296 (14.7)	300 (14.2)
Difference & exclusion	16 (16.5)	233 (11.6)	249 (11.8)
Child, youth & family	13 (13.4)	360 (17.8)	373 (17.6)
Violence & abuse	5 (5.2)	151 (7.5)	156 (7.4)
Neighbourhood & residential	0 (0.0)	79 (3.9)	79 (3.7)
Civic participation	6 (6.2)	25 (1.2)	116 (5.5)
Sexual outcomes & HIV/AIDS	12 (12.4)	59 (2.9)	71 (3.4)
Media use & effects	1 (1.0)	25 (1.2)	26 (1.2)
Substance use & abuse	1 (1.0)	102 (5.1)	103 (4.9)
Physical illness & injury	1 (1.0)	36 (1.8)	63 (3.0)
Crime & criminal justice	1 (1.0)	4 (1.2)	37 (1.8)
Scale development & testing	0 (0.0)	26 (1.3)	26 (1.2)
Disasters & war	1 (1.0)	16 (0.8)	17 (0.8)
Intervention execution & evaluation	3 (3.1)	46 (2.3)	49 (2.3)
Work-related & organisational	6 (6.2)	44 (2.2)	50 (2.4)
Social policy & funding climate	2 (2.1)	17 (0.8)	19 (0.9)
Welfare, poverty & homelessness	3 (3.1)	90 (4.5)	93 (4.4)
Human resources & training	9 (9.3)	37 (1.8)	46 (2.2)
Total	97 (100.0)	2017 (100.0)	2114 (100.0)

Topics related to *mental health and mental illness* were equally popular in both local and international articles (13.4% and 11.3%, respectively). *Social networks and social support* was a preferred topic in international CP (14.7%), but much less common in local CP (4.1%). The *child, youth and family* topic was slightly more frequent in international scholarship (17.8%) than local CP (13.4). *Difference and exclusion* was more prominent in local studies (16.5%) than international research (11.6%). *Human resources and training* and *sexual outcomes and HIV* were also more common in local scholarship (9.3% and 12.4%, respectively), than in international published work (1.8 and 2.9%, respectively).

7. Participant Characteristics in Empirical Research on People

This section focuses on presenting the overall and comparative findings regarding the participant characteristics in published empirical research on people, and highlights qualitative observations about the differences in the use of these characteristics locally and internationally.

7.1. Race and Ethnicity Categories

The largest proportion of empirical research is based on the use of *mixed ethnicity* groups in the US (43.9%). Following this by quite a substantial margin, the next most prominent was groups of *unspecified ethnicity* (13.5%), and the use of *European* groups of *unspecified ethnicity* (9.1%). Cumulatively, over half of all the studies published in CP used participant groups from the US (58.4%), 11.2% of the studies used groups from Europe, and 4.2% used groups from Australia or New Zealand. 3.6% were groups from South African categories of race or ethnicity. These findings highlight the prominence of empirical findings drawn from minority world countries and regions, with comparatively few studies based on groups in majority world countries or developing regions. South Africa was the best represented of the countries in Africa.

The US dominated in international representation (45.8%). Among specific minority groups in the US, African-Americans were represented more often in empirical CP research than other groups (5.8%). Populations of unspecified ethnicity in the EU were also prominent (9.5%). In South African CP scholarship, studies using mixed South African race groups (typically drawing on all or several of the apartheid racial classification categories) were most common (41.9%). A few international ethnic groups formed part of this body of work, including Native American and mixed ethnicity groups from the US and Europe.

Table 84. *Racial and Ethnic Markers in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
African American (US)	0 (0.0)	51 (5.8)	51 (5.5)
Latino/Hispanic (US)	0 (0.0)	28 (3.2)	28 (3.0)
Jewish/Arab (US)	0 (0.0)	4 (0.5)	4 (0.4)
White/European American (US)	0 (0.0)	16 (1.8)	16 (1.7)
Native American (US)	1 (2.3)	10 (1.1)	11 (1.2)
Asian American (US)	0 (0.0)	18 (2.0)	18 (1.9)
Mixed ethnic group (US)	2 (4.7)	404 (45.8)	406 (43.9)
Other minority (US)	0 (0.0)	7 (0.8)	7 (0.8)
Cross national	2 (4.7)	10 (1.1)	12 (1.3)
NA (excl. US) mixed ethnicity	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)
NA (excl. US) unspecified ethnicity	0 (0.0)	13 (1.5)	13 (1.4)
EU unspecified ethnicity	0 (0.0)	84 (9.5)	84 (9.1)
EU mixed ethnicity	1 (2.3)	10 (1.0)	10 (1.1)
Immigrant to EU	0 (0.0)	9 (1.0)	9 (1.0)
EU White	0 (0.0)	6 (0.7)	6 (0.6)
AU/NZ unspecified ethnicity	0 (0.0)	34 (3.9)	34 (3.7)
AU/NZ mixed ethnicity	0 (0.0)	4 (0.5)	4 (0.4)
AU/NZ European ethnicity	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)
Immigrant to AU/NZ	0 (0.0)	4 (0.4)	4 (0.4)
Indigenous AU/NZ	0 (0.0)	2 (0.2)	2 (0.2)
Asian/Indian	0 (0.0)	16 (1.8)	16 (1.7)
Latin American	0 (0.0)	9 (1.0)	9 (1.0)
Jewish/Arab Israeli	0 (0.0)	16 (1.8)	16 (1.7)
African unspecified ethnicity	0 (0.0)	4 (0.5)	4 (0.4)
Mixed South African	18 (41.9)	0 (0.0)	18 (1.9)
Black South African	15 (34.9)	1 (1.1)	16 (1.7)
Not specified	4 (9.3)	121 (13.7)	125 (13.5)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

7.2. Age Categories

Adults were the age group that formed the most predominant focus in CP research (48.5%). A sizeable proportion of studies also used a *mixed* age category (24.9%), as well as *adolescent* groups (10.3%). In an effort to disaggregate the composition of *mixed* age groups further, a review of studies in this category revealed that mixed age groups typically comprised of a mix of *adult* with either *middle childhood* or *adolescent* groups, as in the case of studies conducted in schools where multiple participant groups were selected. The

empirical study of participants in *early childhood* or in the *elderly* age range was virtually absent (0.5%, respectively).

Table 85. *Age Categories in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Early childhood	0 (0.0)	5 (0.6)	5 (0.5)
Middle childhood	3 (7.0)	38 (4.3)	41 (4.4)
Adolescent	5 (11.6)	89 (10.1)	94 (10.2)
Adult	24 (55.8)	425 (48.2)	449 (48.5)
Elderly	0 (0.0)	6 (0.7)	6 (0.6)
Lifespan	3 (7.0)	8 (0.9)	12 (1.2)
Mixed	7 (16.3)	224 (25.4)	231 (25.1)
Unspecified	1 (2.3)	87 (9.9)	88 (9.5)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

The choice of *adult* samples was equally prominent across local and international contexts (55.8% and 48.2% respectively). The use of participants in *early childhood* was scarce (0.0% and 0.6% respectively), as was those in *middle childhood* (7.0% and 4.3% respectively), and *elderly* participants (0.0% and 0.7% respectively).

7.3. Gender Categories

Two thirds of published studies used mixed *male and female* samples (67.7%), followed by the use of *female* samples (18.0%), and then studies in which gender was *unspecified* (9.6%). Few studies used groups of *male* participants (4.6%). Only 0.1% of the studies included a mixed gender sample incorporating an additional gender classification, namely transgender.

Table 86. *Gender Categories in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Male	2 (4.7)	40 (4.5)	40 (4.5)
Female	6 (14.0)	160 (18.1)	161 (18.3)
Male and Female	30 (69.8)	596 (67.6)	596 (67.6)
Male, Female & Transgender	0 (0.0)	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)
Unspecified	5 (11.6)	85 (9.6)	84 (9.5)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

A comparison of the gender composition showed that trends noted overall were typical of publications in both groups. Local research showed a slightly higher usage of mixed *male and female* samples (69.8% compared with 67.6%), and a slightly lower usage of *male* samples (4.7% compared with 4.5%). The proportion of studies in which the gender composition was *unspecified* was roughly equal (11.6% and 9.6%, respectively). The citation of the category of *transgender* was a feature in one international study, and did not appear in any local CP articles. In addition to the salience of mixed gender samples, the prominence of studies that did not specify the gender of participants is a further indicator that a mixed gender sample is normative or assumed.

7.4. Marginality

Overall, the majority of research in CP journals did not focus on any form of marginalised group (55.4%).

Table 87. *Marginality in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Marginal	27 (62.8)	386 (43.8)	413 (44.6)
Not marginal	16 (37.2)	496 (56.2)	512 (55.4)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

The exclusive focus on a marginalised group was more frequent in local research (62.8%) than in international studies (43.8%).

7.5. Types of Marginalised Groups

Types of marginalised groups were analysed using multiple response frequencies (N = 413; N responses = 598). *Race* was the most frequent marker of marginality (28.3%), followed by *gender* (27.9%), and then *SES* (21.4%). A minimal proportion of studies investigated groups marginalised by *sexual orientation* (3.0%), *HIV status* (3.0%), *disability* (2.0%) and *age* (1.5%).

Comparative analyses showed some important differences in the focus on marginalised groups. In local CP research, *location* and *race* (29.2%, respectively) were the primary markers marginality, followed by *SES* (20.8%). No local studies examined groups defined by *migration* or *sexual orientation*. The proportion of studies that included groups marginalised by *HIV status* (6.3%) or *disability* (2.1%) was low. In international studies, a focus on groups defined as marginalised by *gender* was most common (29.3%), followed by

race (28.2%) and SES (21.5%). Looking at comparative trends, it is evident that a focus on marginality by *gender* was far less prominent in local CP articles (12.5%). A focus on *location* was less prominent in international research (4.5%).

Table 88. *Types of Marginalised Groups in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **N (%)**
Race	14 (29.2)	155 (28.2)	169 (28.3)
Gender	6 (12.5)	161 (29.3)	167 (27.9)
Sexual orientation	0 (0.0)	18 (3.3)	18 (3.0)
HIV status	3 (6.3)	15 (2.7)	18 (3.0)
SES	10 (20.8)	118 (21.5)	128 (21.4)
Disability	1 (2.1)	11 (2.0)	12 (2.0)
Migration	0 (0.0)	40 (7.3)	40 (6.7)
Location	14 (29.2)	25 (4.5)	39 (6.5)
Age	0 (0.0)	7 (1.3)	7 (1.2)
Total	48 (100.0)	550 (100.0)	598 (100.0)

7.6. Level of Education

A *mixed* level of education was the most common among the participants of empirical research (41.6%), followed by studies where the participants' level of education was *unspecified* (30.4%). The third most common educational level was the *secondary school* level (11.0%).

Whilst education was indicted in just over two thirds of studies, the prominence of *mixed* groups suggests that it may be a peripheral or incidental consideration in participant selection. There is a large proportion of studies in which a description of participants' level of education did not feature at all (30.4%). This further compounds the oversight or de-emphasis of this marker in contributing to the understanding or interpretation of research data. The prominence of *secondary school* as a category of education for the most part stems from this level of education being found in both adult and adolescent populations, as well as the use of schools as settings for data collection.

A comparative analysis of local and international studies reflects that studies with unspecified levels of education were equally common (30.2% and 30.4%, respectively). In local research, there were slightly higher proportions of studies that examined participants at specific levels of study, including primary, secondary, tertiary and postgraduate. This suggests that defined educational levels were more significant within local studies, but this is also reflective of the types of settings used for data collection and specific groups of

interest. For example, the high proportions of studies that used universities as settings in local studies contributed to the prominence of participants with a tertiary educational level. Likewise, the choice to study psychologists largely underpins the prominence of postgraduate educational levels in local research. The lower proportion of studies with mixed educational levels in local CP literature reflects the less common use of neighbourhood cohorts and population wide data sources in South African CP scholarship.

Table 89. *Level of Education in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Preschool	0 (0.0)	8 (0.9)	8 (0.9)
Primary	3 (7.0)	50 (5.7)	53 (5.7)
Secondary	6 (14.0)	96 (10.9)	102 (11.0)
Tertiary	4 (9.3)	60 (6.8)	64 (6.9)
Postgraduate	6 (14.0)	24 (2.7)	30 (3.2)
Mixed	10 (23.3)	375 (42.5)	385 (41.6)
Unspecified	13 (30.2)	268 (30.4)	281 (30.4)
No education	1 (2.3)	1 (0.1)	2 (0.2)
Total	43 (100.0)	882 (100.0)	925 (100.0)

7.7. Employment Status

A multiple response frequency was used for employment (N cases = 925; N responses = 936). Almost a third of empirical publications utilised participants whose employment status was *unspecified* (30.7%). The most commonly used employment category was a *mixed* employment status (26.3%), and the use of *children/scholars* (23.3%).

Table 90. *Employment in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Child/Scholar	9 (20.5)	213 (23.7)	218 (23.3)
Student	8 (16.2)	51 (5.7)	59 (6.3)
Unemployed	0 (0.0)	16 (1.8)	0 (0.0)
Employed	5 (13.6)	80 (9.0)	86 (9.2)
Mixed	11 (25.5)	235 (26.3)	246 (26.3)
Retired	1 (2.3)	6 (0.7)	7 (0.7)
Unspecified	7 (15.9)	280 (31.4)	287 (30.7)
Other	2 (4.5)	15 (1.7)	17 (1.8)
Total	44 (100.0)	892 (100.0)	936 (100.0)

The use of adults of *mixed* employment and *children/scholars* was a feature of both local and international research, while *student* samples were more common in local studies (16.2% compared with 5.7%). The large proportion of studies where employment status was not mentioned suggests that employment status was either not a significant concern, or that employment was assumed. Thus, omission within the arena of publication is an important indicator of what is considered normative. The prominence of *unspecified* employment status combined with *mixed* employment status groups and the frequent use of *scholars* as participants in empirical studies, suggests that employment status is not a primary concern in the empirical investigation of psychological and community phenomena.

In terms of employment status, groups that were neglected in both local and international research included the *unemployed* (0.0% and 0.6%) and *retired* individuals (2.3% and 0.7%). The presence of studies on retired individuals was minimal in both local and international research. A focus on *unemployed* groups was also extremely scarce in CP literature generally, but was wholly absent from local scholarship. This is noteworthy, given the especially high rates of unemployment in South Africa.

7.8. Distinctive Features

Distinctive features of participants were analysed using multiple response frequencies (N cases = 925; N responses = 1219). Approximately one quarter of participants were a *scholar* or *student* (24.8%), 15.1% were *residents* of a specific area, and 7.4% were *parents* or had a specific *occupation*, respectively. Overall, internationally authored studies displayed a greater range of distinctive features than locally authored studies, consistent with the larger proportion of published studies within this grouping.

Students/*scholars* were uniformly prominent groups selected across both local and international studies (25.5% and 24.9%), whereas being a *resident* was a more specific characteristic of local CP research (23.5%) compared to international research (14.5%). Being a *psychologist* was a third most common attribute of locally selected research participants (12.8%) compared to international studies (1.8%). Features that were more common in international samples included being a *parent* (8.3%) compared to 2.1% in local studies, and engaging in a specific *activity/sport* (8.3%), which was not found in local research (0.0%).

Table 91. *Distinctive Features of the Participants in Local and International Articles*

	Local **n (%)**	**International** **n (%)**	**All** **n (%)**
Crime perpetrator	0 (0.0)	17 (1.5)	17 (1.4)
Crime victim	2 (4.3)	59 (5.1)	61 (5.0)
Student/scholar	12 (25.5)	290 (24.7)	302 (24.8)
Activity	0 (0.0)	32 (2.7)	32 (2.6)
Occupation	4 (8.5)	86 (7.3)	90 (7.4)
Health professional	0 (0.0)	22 (1.9)	22 (1.8)
Psychologist	6 (12.8)	21 (1.8)	27 (2.2)
Community volunteer	2 (3.4)	40 (3.4)	42 (3.4)
Caregiver	1 (2.1)	21 (1.8)	23 (1.8)
Parent	1 (2.1)	98 (8.4)	99 (8.1)
Clinical disorder	3 (6.4)	87 (7.4)	90 (7.4)
Health condition	2 (4.3)	45 (3.8)	47 (3.9)
Substance user	0 (0.0)	47 (4.0)	47 (3.9)
At risk youth	0 (0.0)	15 (1.3)	15 (1.2)
Cultural affiliation	1 (2.1)	34 (2.9)	35 (2.9)
Resident	11 (23.4)	173 (14.8)	184 (15.1)
Developmental stage	2 (4.3)	28 (2.4)	29 (2.4)
Political affiliation	0 (0.0)	3 (0.3)	3 (0.2)
Relationship status	0 (0.0)	10 (0.9)	10 (0.8)
Welfare-related	0 (0.0)	35 (3.0)	35 (2.9)
Other	0 (0.0)	9 (0.8)	9 (0.8)
Total	47 (100.0)	1172 (100.0)	1219 (100.0)

8. Summary of Findings

In conclusion to this chapter, this section provides a synopsis of the most salient findings that emerged in this analysis and some final observations about these trends.

8.1. Summary of Author Characteristics

The key findings of the comparative analysis of local and international author characteristics are detailed in Table 92. Of the internationally authored and locally authored articles, similar proportions were co-authored. Overall, the results suggest that collaborative writing is common in CP articles, but highlight that the number of potential collaborators has a much more extensive range in international scholarship. This is indicative of more large-scale projects featuring in international studies.

Table 92. *Dominant Author Characteristics in Local and International Articles*

	Comparative Author Characteristics	
	Local	**International**
Number of authors	69.7% co-authored	72.5% co-authored
Institutional linkages	Mainly single type affiliations (80.0%) that are largely academic (78.8%), but a few links to hospital, government and NGO sector	Mainly single type affiliations that are academic (81.5%), that are largely academic (75.1%), but more likely to be linked to 2 or 3 types of institutions, especially with hospital, NGO and government linkages. A greater range of types of institutions and combinations of institutional relationships

8.2. Summary of Publication and Research Characteristics

Table 93 provides a synopsis of the top category rankings related to research and publication characteristics. The table clearly distils the central contribution of the analysis provided in this chapter, which serves to illustrate some striking similarities between trends in local and international CP publications, as well as some more subtle areas of difference. In the realm of publication type, empirical and case study articles predominate across these groups. Some areas of distinction are the prominence of book reviews in locally authored articles, and the salience of theoretical articles in international publications. In terms of primary research approach, positivist, interpretive and applied methods are the most common choices for both local and internationally authored research. Similarly for methods of data collection, the same preferences for surveys, qualitative and multi-method studies are evident for international and local studies.

Local authors show a clear preference for using local contexts for data collection, as international authors prefer international contexts, although there is a greater tendency for local scholars to shift the direction of knowledge production towards the use of international contexts. Within each sphere, the most prominent regions for data collection reflect the gravitation of authors towards conducting research in the urbanised and westernised epicentres of these locales. Thus, in the local dataset, the prominence of South Africa's three largest cities is evident, whilst in the international dataset the dominance of highly urbanised and westernised regions is patently manifest.

Table 93. *Dominant Publication Characteristics in Local and International Articles*

	Comparative Publication and Research Characteristics	
	Local (%)	**International (%)**
Publication type	1. Empirical (48.8) 2. Case study (17.5) 3. Book review (15.0)	1. Empirical (55.7) 2. Case study (13.4) 3. Theoretical (12.8)
Primary approach (general)	1. Positivist (31.8) 2. Applied (29.5) 3. Interpretive (20.5)	1. Positivist (58.3) 2. Applied (19.9) 3. Interpretive (14.1)
Method of data collection (general)	1. Qualitative/Multi-method (32.6) 2. Survey (25.6)	1. Survey (43.3) 2. Multi-method (18.3) 3. Qualitative (15.1)
Primary approach (people)	1. Positivist (32.6) 2. Applied (27.9) 3. Interpretive (20.9)	1. Positivist (59.8) 2. Interpretive (14.7) 3. Applied (8.4)
Method of data collection (people)	1. Qualitative/Multi-method (32.6) 2. Survey (25.6)	1. Survey (43.3) 2. Multi-method (18.3) 3. Qualitative (15.1)
Context of data collection (people)	Mainly local settings (79.1)	Mainly local settings (99.8)
Region of data collection (people)	1. Western Cape (26.1) 2. National SA (19.6) 3. Gauteng (17.4)	1. North America (73.8) 2. Europe (14.4) 3. Australia (6.2)
Setting of data collection (people)	1. School (16.4) 2. General community (14.5) 3. University (12.7)	1. Home (18.9) 2. School (15.9) 3. Unspecified (13.7)
Sample size (people)	31-100 cases (39.5)	> 500 cases (30.5)
Data analysis (people)	1. Content analysis (36.5) 2. Inferential statistics (28.8) 3. Descriptive statistics (13.5)	1. Descriptive statistics (42.2) 2. Inferential statistics (41.5) 3. Content analysis (8.7)
Theory (people)	1. Prevention (39.0) 2. Empowerment (16.9) 3. Ecological (10.4)	1. Prevention (37.1) 2. Ecological (14.4) 3. Traditional (12.7)
Topic (people)	1. Difference and exclusion (16.5) 2. Child, youth & family/ Mental health & mental illness (13.4) 3. HIV & sexual outcomes (12.4)	1. Child, youth & family (17.6) 2. Social networks & social support (14.2) 3. Difference & exclusion (11.8) 4. Mental health & mental illness (11.4)

Both local and internationally authored articles reflect the frequent use of schools as settings of data collection, but differences were seen in drawing participants from the general community and from universities in local studies, whereas international studies often collected data in participants' homes or did not specify the context of data collection. Local research seemed to use smaller samples of less than 100 cases, whereas international studies often used samples larger than 500 cases. Both groups preferred the same methods of data analysis, namely descriptive statistics, inferential statistics and content analysis. Epistemologies related to the strands of prevention and promotion, as well as person-environment fit were prominent across contexts, but local research showed the more frequent use of theoretical strands related to social action and empowerment, whereas international research often employed traditional individual psychological theories.

In terms of providing a synopsis of the data, important commonalities were also evident in patterns of absence noted in research and publication characteristics (See Table 94). Both *reviews* and *methodological* articles were scarce choices of publication type in both groups. In both groups as well, the use of *critical* and *mixed method* research was relatively uncommon compared to the use of other methods. *Archival, experimental/quasi-experimental* and *autobiographical* research methods were not especially frequent in either dataset. Regions largely absent in terms of sites for data collection, namely *Africa, Latin America* and *Asia,* were consistent across local and international studies. Both international and local studies neglected *correctional centres* as sites for data collection. Other settings of data collection that were uncommon in local studies were the use of *recreational* sites and the use of *residential care* facilities. International studies scarcely used *police/legal* facilities or drew participants from *rural* areas, reflecting the dominance of empirical knowledge drawn from higher income contexts. Both local and international studies lack the inclusion of studies using small datasets of 10 or fewer cases, and accordingly both also neglected the use of *discourse analysis* and *interpretive* data analytic methods. Theoretical strands that were poorly represented across contexts included *structuralist* theories, *social psychological* theories and *organizational* theories. Theoretical absences related to the theoretical strand of *sense of community* were found in local literature, whereas privations in *post-modern* theories were found in international research.

Table 94. *Marginal Publication Characteristics of Local and International Articles*

	Comparative Publication and Research Characteristics	
	Local CP	**International CP**
Publication type	Short report (0.0) Commentary (0.0) Review (1.3) Editorial (2.5) Methodological (5.0)	Short report (0.6) Book review (2.9) Commentary (3.0) Review (3.1) Methodological (3.3)
Primary approach (general)	Critical (6.8) Mixed method (11.4)	Critical (2.7) Mixed method (4.8)
Method of data collection (general)	Experimental/quasi-experimental (0.0) Autobiography (0.0) Archival (4.8)	Autobiography (1.5) Experimental (4.2) Archival (4.5)/Quasi-experimental (4.6)
Primary approach (people)	Critical (4.7) Mixed method (14.0)	Critical (2.4) Mixed method (4.6)
Method of data collection (people)	Experimental/quasi-experimental (0.0) Autobiography (0.0) Archival (2.3)	Autobiography (1.6) Archival (2.3) Experimental (4.2)/Quasi-experimental (5.2)
Context of data collection (people)	International settings (16.3) International-local comparison (4.7)	Local settings (3.8) International-local comparison (0.1)
Region of data collection (people)	Mpumalanga/Northern Cape/Free State Africa/Australia/Latin America (0.0)	South Africa (0.2) Africa (0.8) Latin America (1.1) Asia (3.4)
Setting of data collection (people)	Recreation (0.0) Correctional centre (0.1) Residential care (1.8)	Rural (0.2) Correctional centre (0.3) Police/legal (1.1) Internet (1.5)
Sample size (people)	1-10 cases (7.0)	1-10 cases (6.5)
Data analysis (people)	Discourse analysis (5.8) Interpretive analysis (11.5)	Discourse analysis (5.8) Interpretive analysis (5.2)
Theory (people)	Sense of community (1.3) Structuralist theory (2.6) Social psychology theory (5.2)	Post-modern theory (1.5) Structuralist theory (1.2) Social psychology theory (4.0)

8.3. Summary of Participant Characteristics

Table 95. *Dominant Participant Characteristics of Local and International Articles*

	Participant Characteristics	
	Local CP	**International CP**
Racial/Ethnic markers	1. Mixed South African (41.9) 2. Black South African (34.9) 3. Unspecified (9.3)	1. Mixed US (45.8) 2. EU unspecified (9.5) 3. Unspecified (13.7)
Age	1. Adults (55.8) 2. Mixed (16.3) 3. Adolescent (11.6)	1. Adults (48.2) 2. Mixed (25.4) 3. Adolescent (10.1)
Gender	1. Mixed (69.8) 2. Female (14.0) 3. Unspecified (11.6)	1. Mixed (67.6) 2. Female (18.1) 3. Unspecified (9.6)
Marginality	Marginal (62.3)	Not Marginal (56.2)
Types of marginalised groups	1. Location/ Race (29.2) 2. SES (20.8) 3. Gender (12.5)	1. Gender (29.3) 3. Race (28.2) 4. SES (21.5)
Level of education	1. Unspecified (30.2) 2. Mixed (23.3) 3. Secondary/Postgraduate (14.0)	1. Mixed (42.5) 2. Unspecified (30.4) 3. Secondary (10.9)
Employment status	1. Mixed (25.5) 2. Child/Scholar (20.5) 3. Student (16.2) 4. Unspecified (15.9)	1. Unspecified (31.4) 2. Mixed (26.3) 3. Child/Scholar (23.7)
Distinctive features	1. Student/scholar (25.5) 2. Resident (23.4) 3. Psychologist (12.8)	1. Student/scholar (24.9) 2. Resident (14.5) 3. Parent (8.3)

In both local and international studies, *mixed* ethnic/racial groups were common, as were the use of samples with *unspecified* ethnic/racial markers. Both international and local research selected participants that were *adults*, *adolescents* or *mixed* age categories. Both also selected participants of *mixed* gender, used *female* participants or did not specify the gender characteristics of the sample. Both also had a majority that did not focus on participants from a marginalised group. Where there was a focus on marginality, there was a shared emphasis on *race* and *SES*. Local studies highlighted marginality due to location to a greater extent, whereas marginality due to gender was far more present in international research. Both international and local studies used participants that were mostly from groups with a *mixed* educational background, at a *secondary* educational level or had an

unspecified educational status. A focus on *postgraduate* level participants, and particularly the use of postgraduate psychology interns and Masters students was particularly characteristic of local studies, but did not feature in international research. Both local and international research selected mostly groups with a *mixed* employment status, used *children/scholars* as participants, or did not specify the employment status of their participants. Participants were often selected by virtue of being *students* or *residents* in both local and international research.

Table 96. *Marginal Participant Characteristics in Local and International Articles*

	Comparative Participant Characteristics	
	Local CP	**International CP**
Race/ethnicity	White South African (0.0)	Specific US Minorities
Age	Early childhood (0.0) Elderly (0.0) Middle childhood/Lifespan (7.0)	Early childhood (0.6) Elderly (0.7) Middle Childhood (4.0) Lifespan (0.9)
Gender	Transgender (0.0) Male (4.7)	Transgender (0.1) Male (4.5)
Marginality	Not marginal (37.2)	Marginal (43.8)
Types of marginalised groups	Age (0.0) Sexual orientation (0.0) Migration status (0.0) Disability (2.1) HIV Status (6.3)	Age (1.3) HIV Status (2.7) Disability (2.0) Sexual orientation (3.3) Location (4.5) Migration status (7.3)
Level of education	No education (2.3) Preschool (0.0) Primary school (7.0)	No education (0.2) Preschool (0.9) Postgraduate (2.7) Primary School (5.7)
Employment status	Unemployed (0.0) Retired (2.3)	Retired (0.7) Unemployed (1.8)
Distinctive features	Perpetrator of crime (0.0) Activity/sport (0.0) Drug/alcohol user (0.0) Relationship status (0.0) At risk youth (0.0) Welfare recipients (0.0) Political affiliation (0.0)	Political affiliation (0.3) Perpetrator of crime (1.5) Relationship status (0.9) At risk youth (1.3) Psychologist (1.8) Health professional (1.9)

In examining aspects of the data that suggest patterns of absence, it was evident that few studies focused on *white* participants in local research, and in international research, the use of ethnic *minorities in the US* were seldom groups of interest. As for age, both international and local studies neglected *elderly* populations and those in *early childhood*. Specific studies on *males* and *transgendered* individuals were seldom found across contexts. The presence of studies on *unemployed* or *retired* individuals was also scarce in both international and local literature, as were studies that used participants with *no education*, *preschool* or *primary level education*. Local and international studies shared a common neglect of the study of groups marginalized by *sexual orientation*, *disability*, *migration status* and *HIV status*, however local studies also neglected groups marginalised by *gender* whereas international studies more frequently overlooked groups marginalised by *location*. There was some variation in the absence of distinctive features of groups, although both local and international studies did not commonly focus on *perpetrators of crime*, *at risk youth*, groups of specific *political affiliations* and those of a particular *relationship status*. Local studies were more likely to avoid selecting groups that were *drug-alcohol users*, *homeless/welfare recipients* or groups involved in an *activity/sport*. International studies rarely studied *psychologists* and *health professionals*, yet this was a common preoccupation of local studies.

8. Conclusion

This chapter presented a comparison of the characteristics of articles authored by local and international authors within the complete dataset of journals in the study, namely the AJCP, JCP, JPIC, JCASP, SAJP and PINS. The chapter as a whole served to synthesise the global trends in knowledge production uncovered in the study. It also provided an analysis of trends specific to the selected CP publications penned by local scholars and those authored by international scholars. This enabled the identification of the specific features that were pervasive across contexts, as well as those qualities that are most closely associated with South African and international CP scholarship, respectively.

Chapter 11

Crisis and Recapitulation in Community Psychology Knowledge Production

1. Introduction

The previous chapter has dealt with comparing characteristics of published work in CP across the South African and international contexts. It has highlighted both differences and commonalities, through focussing on aspects of dominance and marginality. This chapter presents an additional method of exploring how the field can be constructed. A qualitative approach to demarcating patterns in knowledge production is illustrated here, by means of a critical reading of selected extracts of published work. Moving from the features evident about dominance and marginality in CP within a very large collection of articles, this research now turns to a closer qualitative analysis of specific extracts of published text to complement, extend and problematise these insights about the field. In thinking about the trends that were presented in the previous results chapters, this chapter has sought to move beyond this descriptive account to explore some of the mechanisms observed in the data that show *how* power is exerted and contested through discourses in publications. This exploratory critical interpretation of a tightly selected corpus of texts provides a counterpoint that serves to enrich understandings of published work and its role in creating and reinforcing the boundaries of CP in knowledge production. It attempts to reveal the dominant narratives in publications and explicate some of the tensions and contradictions that emerge in published work. The chapter illustrates an additional method for uncovering the issues at stake for the field that may be distilled from and maintained by the critical scrutiny of its knowledge products. It presents an interpretation of the texts, which is one of many possible interpretations that emerge when scholarly work is read with questions of dominance and marginality in mind. In line with the line criticism of CP that emerges from the work of Smail (1994), this analysis similarly does not attempt to devalue or undermine the contributions of academics in CP. Rather, it is an opportunity for us to critically "demystify" the field as community psychologists in order to more fully and reflexively engage with its political implications (Smail, 1994, p. 7).

2. Positioning the Texts

This critical reading focuses on two texts: Text 1 is the commentary on CP presented in the 2004 APA Division 27 Presidential Address by Paul Toro (2005). In this article, Toro

(2005) summarises the major debates in contemporary CP by using a developmental analogy of the field experiencing a mid-life crisis. In the article, he proposes a resolution to this crisis and a potential direction as being one of expansion advocating that CP should become a "big tent". This imperative to expand CP is also applied to the theoretical perspectives and problems of interest, as well as to particular groups, such as members of the international community, community practitioners, ethnic minorities, students and early career professionals (Toro, 2005).

Text 2 is the published response of the recipients of this address that is documented by Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al. (2005). The article includes the points that were raised by particular individuals who attended the meeting and the conversation that ensued after Toro's (2005) address. Whilst these two articles have been chosen for critical scrutiny here, this critical reading is not definitive and the perspective that is offered is made with a particular lens that highlights how tensions between dominance and marginality became manifest in this published work. In addition, this report illustrates how these conflicts emerge in the context of international published articles. For a different perspective, local texts could also have been chosen. However, from the analysis conducted in the previous chapters, these articles surfaced as being abundant with the types of examples that would serve to extend an understanding of the discursive dimensions within published work that can be identified using an alternative yet embedded analytic approach.

These publications are rich data sources because these have significance at several levels. Firstly, they provide insight into the mechanisms of institutional and intra-disciplinary power in the field due to the historical centrality of the SCRA in US CP. Such presidential addresses are key works that have jointly sought to provide a summative account of its current state and future path. The institutional prominence of these texts of CP internationally provides a valuable opportunity to engage with the ideas presented from the vantage point of relative marginality. Secondly, these texts were published at the mid-point of the decade examined in this thesis, situating them within the contemporary temporal milieu of relevance to the focus of this thesis. Thirdly, these publications present a multitude of discourses within a cross-publication dialogue format. This facilitates the identification of divergent and dialogical discourses in the data that constitute internal tensions and expressions of power. These discourses are the mechanisms that maintain the status quo in CP, as well as areas where there is also dissent and contestation. They illustrate how difference is invited and foreclosed, and offer the presence of dialogical voices in the identified themes. The analysis here draws principally on these two texts for illustrative purposes. However, it should be noted that the analysis of these texts draws from the

process of reading and coding all of the articles in the dataset, which led to the identification of recurring themes and discourses. Examples from other sources are also discussed to further support their presence in scholarly work more broadly.

3. The Qualitative Report

A discursive appraisal of the power relations evident in representations of CP within the articles are presented in the report that follows here. The analysis is approached through the identification of themes that occur across and within different parts of both texts. Particular attention is given to the constructions of polarities, the formation and contradiction of value statements, and the use of metaphors within the selected texts. Extracts are used to illustrate some of the ideological tensions that can be uncovered in published work. The parts of these extracts that are discussed are placed in bold and italicised. Quotation marks that appear are those used by the authors of the original articles.

3.1. Our Political Credentials

In Text 1, the reader is immediately interpolated into a construction of CP as a politicised field through the provocative title of this article, ***Community psychology: Where do we go from here?*** (Toro, 2005). Toro (2005) explicitly makes reference to an important and influential political text, illustrating the role of intertextuality related to political discourse in this example of CP knowledge production. The article's first political reference is to Martin Luther King, Jnr's 1967 book, ***Where do we go from here: Chaos or community***. This book is acknowledged as the impetus for the title of the article. The reference to this book in the title, and then later in the body of the article, serves an important function of situating the arguments made in the article, and its constructions of CP, as part of a protest against social inequality, originating within a particular time period of the 1960s. This association immediately places the field within the historicity of opposing power relations, and aligns the article with the principles of a global human rights movement through this icon. It associates CP with a period of social transformation and the Civil Rights Movement. Thus, by framing the field in this way, it establishes CP as part of a far greater political project. However, articulating these associations initially in the form of questions, this provides an appearance of tentativeness in tenor. This phrasing precludes a direct comparison being made prematurely, and allows the argument of the writer to unfold.

> "So why the "history lesson"? What does community psychology have to do with Dr. King, his book and the Civil Rights Movement?" (Toro, 2005, p. 9)

And later on, Toro (2005) concludes this point after elaborating and substantiating this political alignment:

> "So, Dr. King and community psychology have promoted some similar directions for social change." (Toro, 2005, p. 9)

The use of this strategy derives its political credentials by association, which serves to minimise the possibilities of political criticism. Also, it deliberately ties CP to its formal documented origins in the US through endorsing the importance of this history in describing the field. It therefore serves a political function of aligning contemporary CP with progressive social ideals, but simultaneously underlines the US and the SCRA as the international and institutional home of this sub-discipline, and thus confers these reference points as having the authority to guide its trajectory. By framing this title as a question also represents a call of community psychologists to action that presupposes an appearance of openness and inclusivity for the field as a whole, especially when paired with the response by Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al. (2005). However, it may be argued that the expression of this field as a US-produced sub-discipline, simultaneously excludes other views from this perspective, and also recreates this discursive frame in every description of the field, no matter where it is located. This discourse is illustrated in the above extracts but it can be identified widely in CP scholarship. This discourse is evident not only in texts authored internationally, but can also be found in descriptions of CP in South African literature that align the field with a climate of anti-apartheid activism in the 1970s and 1980s. Some scholars have similarly critiqued community psychologists in South Africa for getting their political credentials from the field's association with the anti-apartheid activist movement during the period of social unrest in South Africa's transition to democracy (Vogelman et al., 1992). What is important to consider here is not so much the issue of the role of social movements in the genesis and guiding values of the field, but what function this discourse serves when it is used in contemporary published work. Casting the field as a political venture appears to serve as a mechanism within CP to harness the power of its association with a social movement as a means to instil in its members a strong sense of devotion to social justice. This discourse may also serve to diminish a sense of political failure or de-politicisation of CP in the current state of the field, and thus may function as a form of recourse in situations where it may be critiqued for a lack of political accountability. It also evokes a sense of nostalgia for the power of a collective activist spirit of a particular bygone historical era (see Kelly, 2002). Thus, this political discourse may be employed as a way of minimising the disjuncture between the ideals and the actual achievements of the field.

3.2. Reclaiming Origins

In Text 1, Toro (2005) ponders the potential direction that CP may take in the future. The article responds to the posed question: ***Where do we go from here?*** by proceeding with a statement about where CP formally originated, and goes on to describe the formation of the field at the 1965 conference that was held in Swampscott. The article continues, as follows:

> "It is widely known that community psychology was "born" in the midst of all the events just described." (Toro, 2005, p. 9)

The above extract illustrates that several mechanisms are discursively used to reclaim the origins of CP. The use of the present tense to make this statement about CP's origins excludes alternative versions of the genesis of the field, and the use of the term ***widely*** is also employed to present the appearance of consensus. This historical reference is a part of the repertoire of the discursive strategies employed in CP to claim its US origins. Likewise, the personification of the field through the use of the term ***"born"*** suggests a linear, developmental account of the disciplinary history of CP, punctuated by this singular event, or 'birth right', within the narrative of a singular 'life story'. This discourse is important as it re-establishes the necessity of referring back to these same founding events every time the identity of the field is discussed or considered using this narrative. In most articles on the trends in CP, reference is made to the Swampscott conference. Therefore, this is an important strategy in holding scholars to the bounds of this event defined by scholars at this conference, and to be upheld by all subsequent scholars in CP. It also refers back to the function of asserting the role of US dominance in the field, and establishing the discursive parameters of this point of origin as vital to mention whenever writing about CP's current state or future direction. Thus, all considerations about CP must refer to this understanding of its genesis, and needs to show continuity or development from this event. It is interesting that, even when scholars in other contexts contest or resist this construction (e.g. Fryer, 2008a; Seedat & Lazarus, 2011), they still directly or indirectly refer to the Swampscott, conference, which paradoxically reinforces the power and status of this event. The use of this discourse in the narrative of CP is consistent with an image of unity and consensus, as well as of the proposed resolution to socio-political challenges to the relevance of psychology.

3.3. The Journey Metaphor

A pervasive narrative employed in published work to construct the identity of the field is the use of the 'journey' metaphor. The journey metaphor creates the impression of CP's

dynamism and progress throughout its 'lifespan'. The identity of CP is presented using this motif, which is perhaps best exemplified by the title of Text 1, *Community Psychology: Where do we go from here?* This metaphor is also found elsewhere in statements such as:

> "The field needs to determine where to go from here." (Toro, 2005, p. 9)

The journey metaphor maintains the idea of CP as having a transitional quality, and this is an integral part of how the field is constructed in discourse. This is illustrated here in the extracts from Toro (2005). However, this is a recurring metaphor in a range of publications and texts in CP. For example, the preface of Nelson and Prilleltensky's (2010, p. xxviii) text states: "We can think of CP as a journey and we use this metaphor throughout the book". The journey metaphor casts CP as the protagonist a quest that is fraught with both successes and challenges. This metaphor maintains the notion of a continuum of development and progress in the field, as it is perpetually moving from its previous state towards its ultimate goal.

The starting point in this journey is the Swampscott conference, reinforced in Text 1 as offering ***"a history lesson"*** (Toro, 2005, p. 9). This discourse creates the illusion of a crisis that is resolved through presenting its history of resolving a social crisis, which creates the assurance of being able to resolve any crises that is currently posed in the same manner. Thus, the journey metaphor establishes the scene for the drama of resolving various threats and tensions that unfolds through invoking notions of crisis.

3.4. The Crisis in Community Psychology

In Text 1, Toro (2005) speaks about CP using the analogy of Erikson's (1963; 1968) theory of psychosocial development, and locates the sub-discipline in the stage of 'generativity vs. stagnation'. This description sets forth the assertion that the field is currently experiencing a crisis that is couched in mainstream psychological discourse:

> "Community psychology may be entering a "mid-life" crisis as it enters "middle age"." (Toro, 2005, p. 9)

> "But now I am wondering, consistent with the Eriksonian issues that crop up during middle age (Erikson, 1963), perhaps our field "wants more from life" and is concerned about its "long-term legacy"." (Toro, 2005, p. 11)

> "Becki Campbell began the discussion by agreeing with Toro that SCRA and community psychology were facing a mid-life crisis." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 17)

> "Those present felt that the field was facing a 'mid-life crisis' and needed to re-establish its

identity." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 17)

The crisis in community psychology functions as an important component of how the field of CP is constituted and how constructions of the field are contested. A crisis discourse propels the identification of a threat or tension. It creates momentum to stimulate action, but as will be argued here, also re-creates and perpetuates the status quo and is a dominant narrative in the field. The crisis function allows several positions to emerge. It is used to provoke members into restating the historical purpose of the field, as well as to foreground and revisit its internal tensions. This articulation of a crisis mobilises a further set of discourses that ultimately lead to be expression of a resolution, to spur them on to anticipate future achievements and actions.

Burman (1996) also identified similar discourses about a 'crisis' within social psychology, and argued that these were an integral part of the narrative that constituted this sub-discipline. Burman (1996) argues that these are discourses are used to subvert alternative narratives that might suggest the implausibility of this field's goals and the contest the desirability of its continuation. Likewise, such discourses are evident in CP scholarship, and the extracts above suggest that these may play a similar role of propelling it under the guise of resolution with respect to the field's internal contradictions and tensions, rather than heralding its potential demise.

The choice of a developmental crisis metaphor for the field is extended from Rickel's (1987) initial analogy at a prior APA Presidential address, which re-establishes an intertextual link between these articles and the historical forms of knowledge production. The reference to Rickel's (1987) metaphor simultaneously refers to both the 20th Anniversary of Swampscott, as well as its translation into a special issue of the AJCP. However, the crisis of 'generativity vs. stagnation' is quickly reformulated and deployed as a crisis of identity. The crisis of identity in CP is explicitly outlined in this extract:

> "Similar to the psychological process of identity formation (Erikson, 1968), the discipline appears to be in a phase of defining and re-defining itself, in relation to what it has been, is and can be." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

The crisis of identity is described in psychological terms through the (further) use of personification, which serves to normalise this point of tension within an expected continuous developmental trajectory. This analogy thinly conceals the understated historical relationship between CP and clinical psychology. It describes the field as attempting to resolve its crisis of identity, which is set within a transition between the temporal polarities of the past and future, old and new.

In the extract that follows, the process of conveying and passing on an understanding of this identity from old students to new students is seen as one that hampers the potential development of the field:

> "Jackie Brown, a student from the University of Hawaii, felt that defining what community psychology is, and what community psychologists do to potential new students, was a challenge." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19)

In the extract below, the new generation is presented with the task of both simultaneously ***developing*** and ***maintaining*** the identity of the field. This presents the contradiction between the imperatives of change and self-preservation. In the extract below, the speaker is situated in the text by locating the resolution of this task and tension with the next generation.

> "Hiro Yoshikawa shifted the conversation by stating that it was important to hear from the next generation of community psychology students in terms of developing and maintaining their identity as community psychologists." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19)

Given that defining the identity of the field has been a hallmark of the field, such statements serve to symbolically 'pass the baton' from old to new students, thus preserving the same structure but also the same crisis by allowing for its re-emergence and continuity. Here, great emphasis is placed on the role of students in the generation of community psychologists. Whilst presenting this quintessential task in this section of the discussion, a later extract contradicts the need for establishing an identity by stating that this has already been defined in the past:

> "Many experienced community psychologists identified what the field "has been" in terms of the "founding theoretical principles" and core values that drew them to the profession…There was concern that newer community psychology students were unaware of and disconnected from such principles, and there was a call to make such principles explicit for the next generation." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

Thus, invoking the crisis of identity presents the guise of openness to re-definition, as a process of reflexively questioning the self and one's positioning, but this crisis is countered by simultaneously invoking threats to identity that can be resolved by being bound to certain historically endorsed principles.

3.5. The Threat of Disintegration

The crisis of identity resonates closely with discourses around an imminent threat of the field's disintegration, disappearance, aging or demise. As Toro (2005) states:

> "I developed as a community psychologist during what many might consider the field's heyday in the United States (US) in the 1970s and 1980s." (Toro, 2005, p. 10)

This statement again presents another nostalgic turn to the origins of the sub-discipline, in which the author infers as being stronger and in its prime. This comment serves to evoke a sense of nostalgia and longing for the past. Through the use of words like ***what many might consider***, Toro (2005) also intimates that a collective within the field shares this view. The author's association with this ***heyday*** gives him the status of a founding figure in the field, as it pays tribute to the origins of the sub-discipline, as well as giving the author authority to comment on the state of the field. It also sets up the tension between a time (in the past) when the field was considered to be thriving, and a time (in the present) where it is being threatened by demise, and introduces the importance of paying homage to history, but also re-introducing the notion of crisis that is central to the discourses that define the field. Toro (2005) later articulates the potential threat of the field dying as:

> "I think many of us wonder if the field will endure. Might it simply "fade into the sunset" over the coming decades with its ideas absorbed by other disciplines?" (Toro, 2005, p. 11)

The statement emphasises that this is a collective sentiment of the disintegration of the field that is shared by ***many of us***, which serves as a form of legitimation. Such rhetoric invites the question of the function these statements serve. They appear to generate a threat of disintegration, as well as the mobilisation of strategies to address this danger.

> "I wish to encourage community psychology to consider positive global growth rather than anticipating a slow decline and ultimate demise of our field." (Toro, 2005, p. 15)

This statement reiterates the polarities of growth (and thus, life) versus death, which invokes an existential crisis. This links to the discourse of a crisis of identity, as it relates to knowledge of the self, as a sub-discipline. Using these absolutes and the process of identification created through a developmental analogy, this discourse is intended to invoke the existential anxiety of death, and thereby cast the death of the field as a feared and undesirable outcome. This discourse, for example, appears in the provocative title of the article on 'The Death of Community Psychology in the United States' by Perkins (2009) that considers future prospects of the field. As Burman (1996) suggests, the use of a crisis discourse excludes narratives that may formulate a field's death as a potentially desirable eventuality. As such, discourses of disintegration may be instrumental in hindering sub-disciplinary change.

3.6. Desperate Times

Several strategies are proposed in these texts to prevent this impending death.

> "He stated that there are procedures to get new people into community psychology, and different conditions that bring people into the field. He felt new professionals would be more likely to remain in the field through roles, attention and connections. In order to do this, he suggested there also needed to be roles for more seasoned community psychologists so they would stay involved in the field." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

In order to avoid the possibility of its death, a call to action is made to increase the number of new professionals, and decrease the attrition of ***more seasoned professionals***. One of the strategies proposed is to bring more ***new people*** into the field, which it is subsequently revealed are actually ***new professionals***, and to prevent ***more seasoned community psychologists*** from leaving.

Here, a clearer role definition for old and new community psychologists is presented as a way to grow and retain professional capacity. Toro (2005) concludes his address presenting the problem of disintegration by overtly stating that there is a need for growth in the field. Advocacy, persuasion and recruitment are further stated in the discussion as the mechanisms through which to avoid the threat of the sub-discipline's demise. However, it is interesting that this activity is directed towards the field's insertion in academia and the profession, rather than other social spaces or to other audiences. The threat of disintegration serves to inspire and create a burst of ideas about activity to generate momentum in the field:

> "One person suggested community psychologists take the time to advocate for the field by committing to a presentation during a lecture meeting of an introductory psychology class." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

This type of advocacy suggests the field needs to insert itself into the everyday activities in the discipline of psychology in order to grow (and live), which simultaneously reinforces its marginalised status.

> "Another student said that at the very least, they should have a community psychology section in the introductory class at every school with a community psychologist." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

> "She felt that community psychologists needed to document what they do and 'get the word out' about the field to students in college. She thought that when people see what community psychologists do, they would be persuaded to enter and support the field." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19)

Here advocacy is proposed through the strategies of persuading others about the field's

merits, as well as documenting these actions. These strategies suggest the need for credibility in an academic sphere through its reference to ***a lecture meeting*** and ***students in college***, and also suggest that greater power may be conveyed through translating forms of practice into academic knowledge. This suggests that, to ensure its survival, the field requires academic support rather than the support of those outside academia.

3.7. The Fallacy of Coherence

There are questions in scholars' minds about the tensions between theoretical perspectives of CP are prominent within CP scholarship, and these surface as a recurring debate within the field. This is evident in the extract below:

> "One consistent question was whether the "broad container" of community psychology should be defined by one strand (e.g., social action), or multiple strands." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

A dominant narrative used by scholars to construct CP, and respond to dissent about different perspectives in the field, is the 'discourse of coherence'. Whilst the theoretical traditions in CP have vast and divergent disciplinary influences, this discourse serves to uphold the idea of coherence between them in narratives about the field. The discourse of coherence is poignantly illustrated in this extract:

> "Although other prominent community psychologists might disagree with me, I do not see any major contradictions between the many strands evident in our field. Rather, it is my position that strands can be woven into a fine cloth that is more complete than any strand would be alone." (Toro, 2005, p. 12)

This extract supports the view that theoretical perspectives and ideas in CP form a coherent and integrated body of knowledge. Toro (2005) uses the metaphor of individual (theoretical) ***strands*** that ***can be woven into a fine cloth*** as a way of arguing for this coherence. The metaphor of a cloth implies the qualities of strength, complexity, intricacy and complementarity. However, this statement is also phrased in the future tense through the choice of the phrase ***can be***, which suggests that this coherence does not presently exist.

> "Many experienced community psychologists identified what the field "has been" in terms of the "founding theoretical principles" and core values that drew them to the profession... There was concern that newer community psychology students were unaware of and disconnected from such principles, and there was a call to make such principles explicit for the next generation." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

The discourse of coherence is established through the ***"founding theoretical principles"***

and ***core values***, as evidenced in this extract. The polarities and tensions around coherence are raised between historically espoused perspectives - what 'old' community psychologists regard as the field's identity - and the future generation's lack of awareness of this identity. There was a ***concern*** about how the ***next generation*** may change the ***core*** theoretical aspects that are part of this identity. The resolution presented here is not that there is no identity, but that this identity is not ***explicit.*** It therefore simply needs articulation. The recapitulation of the past into the future is then justified through bringing the new generation from a state of unawareness to an awareness of the principles and values that constitute this identity, and simultaneously shifting them from a state of disconnection to the field to a state of connection. The search and task of establishing a new identity is thereby recast and the resulting threats implicit in a crisis are resolved through the prodigal return of ***disconnected*** younger generations back home to the field's ***founding*** tenets. Thus, deviating from the founding tenets is undesirable, as is any deviation from the path set out by experienced community psychologists. This means that the rebellious new community psychologists need to be kept in check so that they do not create incoherence in the sub-discipline of CP.

> "She indicated that, historically, persons tended to enter the field because of its commitment to broad theoretical practices and values such as empowerment, prevention, and an ecological perspective. She felt that students needed to be reconnected to the founding theoretical components of community psychology." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)
>
> "…there is some danger that new students will be interested in 'niches' of research and not connected with the "broader theoretical perspectives" of the field." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)

The extract indicates that ***historically*** people entered the field because of ***its commitment to broad theoretical practices*** and ***values***. This implies that the new generation of community psychologists does not share the same motivations, value base or that the new ideas are '***niches*****'** and therefore peripheral. This emphasis is underlined through placing this word in quotation marks. Inherent in the construction of these niches of research is that they present ***some danger*** to the composition of the field. The image of the new generation through the reference to students invokes optimism and hope for the future, but is simultaneously destabilising and threatening. The use of 'old' evokes symbolism of continuity with the past, stability and reprieve from crisis. These statements therefore serve to simultaneously invoke an identity crisis with its images of transformation, and then present change as threatening in order to reign in dissenting perspectives and nullify this crisis. This is presented with a tentative cadence, through the use of modalities like ***persons tended to***

enter the field, ***some danger***, suggests only a partial commitment to these statements, which prevents these statements from appearing prescriptive. At the same time, the deontic modality of ***needed to be reconnected*** represents a high level of obligation and necessity. And the use of the phrase ***will be*** disavows the existence of current dissent or difference, by postulating that the threat lies with the "***new students***" in the future. This serves as an injunction for current students not to challenge the status quo. This produces a partial and recurring cyclical process that serves the purpose of presenting the guise of change whilst proposing that the antidote to this crisis is to maintain the status quo. Thus, the crisis of identity is subdued but never fully resolved, as the future remains beholden to the past, and can continuously be drawn on as needed as a strategy for both introducing the idea of change whilst maintaining the stability of the field.

The image of a crisis of identity thus simultaneously evokes the past and the future, locating identity in a temporal and developmental trajectory in which the present must be articulated with reference to the past (founding principles, values and theoretical tenets) and the future (as a vision for the field constructed at its origin). This polarity constructed as a crisis of identity and its partial resolution through establishing continuity with the past is therefore is in itself one of the defining discourses of this field.

The solution to the threats posed by the crisis of identity is the fallacy of coherence offered by maintaining theoretical fidelity. New community psychologists are initially constructed as being important agents in the shaping and developing the identity of the field initially, but later on they appear to pose a threat to an established identity. When this happens, the 'new' community psychologists need to be brought into line by reminding them of 'old' founding principles and theories. Thus, there is a rivalrous tone associated with the 'new' challenging the 'old'. The extract below illustrates the implicit instruction for the new generation to maintain theoretical fidelity:

> "He reiterated that topical areas can be brought back to broader theoretical perspectives. Campbell further elaborated, saying that by studying different topics, each area can reinforce what is learned in the other. For instance, studying prevention in one population can be related to the construct and implementation of prevention as a whole." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)

Thus, the future generation receives a mandate to work within the parameters of existing concepts, rather than develop new ones, and not to challenge the discourse of the field's theoretical coherence. This is facilitated by the use of the word ***reinforce***, which conveys the notion of generating strength in the field through this approach. The example provided of relating prevention in ***one*** population to prevention ***as a whole*** suggests that one should

not deviate from the collective project, but work with populations within the framework of existing concepts. This extract suggests that there is value in conceptual conformity and asserts that the identity of CP is established through existing theoretical perspectives, not topics or populations. The use of the concept of ***prevention*** to illustrate this principle is a subtle means to foreground prevention as a dominant conceptual model in the field. Text 1 introduces the notion of the theoretical tensions in CP:

> "Let me now take up what appears to be one of the recurring controversies of our field: Namely, should we attempt to emphasise one particular strand in community psychology (such as prevention, empowerment, diversity, an emphasis on social experimentation or an ecological perspective) or should we remain a "big tent" under which many perspectives can co-exist and many people working in research, policy and other settings can "find a home"." (Toro, 2005, p. 11)

> "Whilst I have found all of these (previous presidential) addresses interesting and provocative, I have often wondered if they might not be somewhat divisive, leading at least some in our field to feel that their favourite orientation is not fully appreciated. Sometimes community psychologists can get into acrimonious debates that may have the effect of "pushing away" our newest recruits." (Toro, 2005, p. 12)

Text 1 suggests that introducing a challenge to this status quo will have the effect of diminishing the field by alienating the new generation. By stating that some may not have their ***favourite orientation appreciated***, Toro (2005) suggests that community psychologists should feel equal affinity to all theoretical perspectives, and that having a preference may be destabilising. Therefore, there is an appeal to a sense of egalitarianism in the discourses by including all theoretical perspectives. Later, Toro (2005) reinforces this discourse with the metaphor of viewing CP as a ***big tent*** when he adds:

> "I am going to argue that we should remain a big tent." (Toro, 2005, p. 11)

This ***big tent*** metaphor suggests that there is reprieve from dissent and safety in including all perspectives equally. However, the ***big tent*** also masks differences in the positions, and the dynamics of power and dominance that are exerted between positions.

3.8. Decentring Social Justice

While all theoretical perspectives are argued to be equal, this position is contradicted in other discourses. For instance, the principles of ***social action and justice*** are espoused, as the core values and ***most*** important principles in CP, in this extract:

> "Many experienced community psychologists identified what the field "has been" in terms of the "founding theoretical principles" and core values that drew them to the profession, such as prevention and health promotion, an ecological perspective, empowerment, and, most

importantly, social action and justice." (Jozefowics-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

In contrast, the extract that follows suggests that the core values like ***social justice***, ***equity*** and ***civil rights*** have not experienced enough growth:

> "Similar to Campbell, Anne Mulvey stated that she was drawn to community psychology by the role of ideology and a broad value base on contentious issues. These values included social justice, equity, and civil rights. She felt these values have been realized in various ways and thought that more research strands in community psychology were better. However, while there has been growth in topical areas, she has had trouble seeing growth in the broader ideological framework. She thought community psychology could be a broad container that allows room for a wide range of research topics, personal and ideological views, policy, and political action. She could not believe, however, that community psychologists were not talking and doing more about issues like the war in Iraq and the recent 'Defense of Marriage' Act and wondered if community psychology should be more political." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)

The extract implies that CP is not as political as it suggests in its values. Instead, it has failed to adopt clear positions or actions on contemporary controversial political issues in the US, such as the ***war in Iraq*** and the ***Defense of Marriage Act***. However, this is done in a pensive manner through the use of terms like stating that she ***has had trouble seeing growth*** or she ***wondered if community psychology should be more political***.

The response by Toro cited in the extract below shows that the reification of diversity can be a useful mechanism with which to contest the primacy of social justice in CP.

> "Toro responded by saying that being political could be another strand that fits into the cloth of community psychology and that community psychologists are concerned about social justice. He said that everyone has a particular container, and that we can all have different containers. The more difficult question is: What defines the broader container of community psychology?" (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)

From this extract, it is evident that Toro regards ***social justice*** or ***being political*** as one ***strand fits into the cloth of community psychology***, and it is not the central basis of CP. The statement contradicts the previous extract's positioning of social justice as its core ideological framework, and thereby decentres its position and dilutes its potency. This retraction represents an attempt at the resolution of difference that elides the pressure placed on the field to adopt a clear stance on contemporary political injustices, and to act against these injustices. It evades the issues raised with regard to the injustices related to war or policy. This position contradicts the politicised discourses used to define the identity of the field that were discussed earlier.

In this extract, the stance of embracing a diversity of positions can be read as a default position that serves to justify political inaction against these injustices. In the extract below, social justice is more explicitly equated with diversity.

> "Brad Olson added that community psychology should define an identity based on the principles of action and social justice. He stated that, while a group often attempts to find a few terms to define itself as it searches for an identity, in fact, a single term can encompass a wide range of diversity. He noted that "diversity can bring chaos and hostility, but it can also add value to the field . . . diversity can also attract people from other fields by being open and appreciating diversity in every sense." He said a uniqueness of the field of community psychology is an appreciation of differences." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18-19)

Here, social justice is restated as an ***appreciation of differences***. The extract contains several rich ideas that foreground tensions in the field. It explicitly introduces the notion of conflict within the field. ***Chaos and hostility*** are introduced as aspects of diversity that are undesirable and can hence detract from the field. The extract below extends this idea of a potentially detrimental outcome of focussing on issues of social justice only.

> "Brenna Bry responded by saying that the "big tent" has struggles, and she felt that diversity was very useful in better preparing community psychologists to deal with struggles faced in the "big tent." She warned, however, that it was important not to develop "camps" and exclude others. She stated that community psychologists needed to consciously practice affirmative action." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19)

A uniform stance on diversity that is aligned with a social justice agenda is being constructed as potentially divisive with the potential for ***chaos and hostility***, creating ***"camps"*** and being exclusionary. Addressing marginalisation is also used to attenuate social action. A political stance on issues of injustice is taken to mean the exclusion of others, and thus is an undesirable course of action. In this way, the case for diversity can function as a highly effective strategy for sterilising political topics. This discourse thus tacitly supports the maintenance of the status quo in CP.

3.9. Questions of Agency and Individuality

Part of the identity struggle involves establishing a sense of uniqueness that identifies the field as different from psychology, and as different from fields outside psychology. This could be viewed as another permutation of the 'insider/outsider' tension in experienced by community psychologists (Rappaport, 2004). It suggests a self-articulated need for individuality and separation from two encroaching borders, as demonstrated below:

> "Much of the post-address dialogue focused on how to define community psychology as a valued and unique discipline, distinctive from the broader discipline of psychology and other related disciplines." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

The extract above constructs the field as very ***much*** preoccupied with notions of self-definition, being viewed as unique and distinctive, and being valued for this identity. However, it simultaneously situates the field as needing to be separate from but recognisable to the ***broader*** parent discipline and indicates its ***related [ness]*** to other fields. The challenge is about being part of, but at the same time, separate and negotiating these boundaries and proximities. This suggests there is a permeable and potentially unstable (or artificial) boundary between CP and psychology, and CP and other disciplines. Thus, the field must negotiate the challenge of maintaining its individuality and potentially losing this distinctiveness if these boundaries collapse and lead to merging from both sides. The extract suggests threats of merging into psychology and other fields. However, the prioritisation of the need for distinctiveness from the ***discipline of psychology*** before ***other related disciplines***, suggests that the former is a more pressing tension. Through the use of terms such as ***how to***, the extract conveys a sense of agency by presenting the establishment of this unique, distinctive identity as an imperative or task that those in the field must recognise and engage with. It therefore functions as a call to action to address this task. However, it re-configures this challenge as a future endeavour rather than recognising this as a historical tension.

> "Indeed, it could be that a unique characteristic of community psychology, relative to other disciplines in psychology, is its inclusion of multiple strands and a wide range of topics." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

Again, the extract above illustrates the persistently articulated need for uniqueness in relation ***to other disciplines in psychology***. However, it positions its ***unique*** identity as including many theories and topics. This is an interesting component in the argument, as it constructs other disciplines in psychology as homogenous in orientation and focus. The location of community psychology ***at the margins*** and the movement towards ***mainstream psychology*** is further elaborated in the extract below:

> "Another dimension surrounding the definition of community psychology and what community psychologists do is the theme of co-optation and the "giving away" of community psychology. As community psychologists worked at the margins and on the cutting edge in its infancy, mainstream psychology began to embrace its tenets as it aged. And, seemingly, like many majority cultures do, there is a sense that mainstream psychology absorbed some of the theoretical values and practices of community psychology, with little or no acknowledgement of community psychology's contribution." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

Here, the statement suggests that CP ***worked at the margins*** and ***on the cutting edge*** before succumbing to the enveloping ***embrace*** of mainstream psychology. It suggests that this is

the appropriate position of CP and that this is what the field has lost. It re-evokes a sense of nostalgia for the genesis of the field by asserting the idea that CP will lose its distinctiveness from the rest of psychology with time. The extract shows that CP is invested in maintaining a marginalised identity that was present at its inception, but that this identity and what it contains is simultaneously under threat of erosion as time passes. This erosion is viewed as occurring both internally by "***giving*** [itself] ***away"*** and externally by the ***co-optation*** and absorption of its contents. Threats to its existence are therefore located within and without, which re-inscribe the notion of maintaining individuality. The extract also conveys a sense of needing to maintain a sense of ownership over certain theoretical principles, values and practices, and that external validation for the origins of these contributions is required. The contradiction that presents itself here is that the field aspires to have a greater presence, but attaining this would constitute an identity threat. The identity is paradoxically invested in maintaining the status quo and evoking the anxieties and mechanisms associated with disintegration to prevent this prospect from occurring. However, this position presents a problem, as maintaining a marginalised identity is viewed as having implications in terms of access to the resources and other forms of disciplinary power that come from its association with psychology. Furthermore, the extract suggests that there is pressure to incorporate itself within mainstream psychology through its ***embrace***. In the extract the follows, a caution is presented to the field of what may occur if attempts are made to dissociate its identity too much from the ***larger field of psychology***.

> "Anna Gassman-Pines, a student from NYU, further wondered how to stretch beyond SCRA and community psychology to define community psychology as a speciality to the larger field of psychology, particularly for practical reasons such as funding." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

The statement shows the association with the SCRA and CP is portrayed as both limiting and impractical. It is evident here that there is a desire for CP to be more closely aligned to psychology, for the economic benefits this entails. In the extract below, there is an interesting strategy and contradiction proposed through positioning the identity of community psychologist as marginalised, ironically even within CP training programmes:

> "He conjectured that perhaps in community psychology programs, being a community psychologist is one of their identities, but perhaps not their central identity." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005)

The extract suggests (albeit tentatively) that the identity should ***perhaps*** not be ***central***, and therefore CP is not only part of multiple identities but to offset this notion of a core identity and shift it to a more a peripheral or marginalised position among other identities. This

discourse conveys that there are difficulties inherent in CP maintaining a dominant position.

3.10. Questions of Value and Validation

One of the contradictions that emerges in CP is the imperative to foreground its achievements but to simultaneously introduce its lack of value. It value is defined internally by community psychologists themselves but the field is under-valued by those outside the field, and this introduces a sense of dissatisfaction, and a sense of marginality. This discourse of questioning the field's value then sets in motion, a series of justifications and shifts in the identity of CP. Toro (2005), for example, asserts:

> "I will now review what we have accomplished in our early adulthood over our second 20 years." (Toro, 2005, p. 11)

Later Toro (2005) adds:

> "The ideas of community psychologists are now widely understood among many psychologists, even if those ideas are not fully embraced and celebrated." (Toro, 2005, p. 11)

This extract introduces the phrase of ***widely understood*** ideas, suggesting that these ideas have permeated and become general knowledge, but then also stipulates that these ideas are ***not fully*** accepted. This suggests that there is an element of truth in that these ideas are identified and known but disowned and 'othered'. He also sets up the polarity between ***community psychologists*** and the ***many*** [other] **psychologists**, which again places CP in a marginalised position in relation to its more dominant overarching discipline. We find evidence of this tension again in the ***red flag*** as articulated by Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al. (2005) in the extract that follows:

> "In relation to the co-optation point raised by Blank, one phrase that was a red flag for Bry was: ". . . and we'll get the recognition we deserve." She felt community psychology was not getting the recognition it deserves and that it was being "given away." She noted that the work done by community psychologists is rarely identified as "community psychology" work. She is now less concerned with the idea of being recognized. "We [community psychologists] give credit to others and don't get the credit we deserve." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19)

This introduces the binary between getting/not getting. However, the extract continues with a shift towards giving/getting. This functions as a form of legitimation for CP being overlooked. This shift transforms the identity of the field from being viewed as weak, to being viewed as benevolent. It also introduces notions of difference through the distinction between the deserving and the un-deserving. If CP is constructed as deserving of acclaim, this raises the question of who/what is un-deserving, and on what basis this unrecognised

merit rests. The strategy here seems to invoke a moral position that aligns CP with marginality, yet tries to preserve its intrinsic value and moral superiority as a way to counteract this position of vulnerability. This functions to construct the identity of the field as associated with the qualities of generosity, selflessness, and morality. In the latter part of this extract, we have the 'us and them' juxtaposition, articulated as credit to ***others*** versus ***credit we deserve***. Likewise, the contrast between being ***rarely identified*** and ***being recognised*** are presented together. Again, the question arises as to who/what should be identifying or recognising work as being part of CP, and why.

3.11. Academic Turf Wars

Toro (2005) articulates this as the tension between getting/giving away differently as giving away/being taken. Toro (2005) implies the necessity of being vigilant about this threat not only from psychology but from other disciplines:

> "Are we content with other areas within and outside of psychology "co-opting" our ideas?" (Toro, 2005, p. 11)

The above extract suggests that others may clamour into ***"co-opting"*** the content of CP, and that there are threats exist both internal and external threats to the discipline of psychology. Furthermore, a rhetorical question is used reinforce the undesirability of such co-opting, that places CP in an adversarial position in relation to both psychology and other fields. This statement directly contradicts the notion of the value from inter-disciplinarity, as well as the potentially threatening implications from the infusion of CP ideas and principles into mainstream psychology.

The notion of identity is also raised in its relationship with other fields. This is articulated as a tension between defending against the erosion of its sub-disciplinary territory versus establishing cooperative relationships with related disciplines. Here, the focus described above is on the threat of co-opting ideas from those external to psychology. In the extract below, a colleague from a different discipline raises the potential benefits of inter-disciplinary collaboration.

> "…Debbie Jozefowicz-Simbeni encouraged students to link with faculty in related disciplines, like her own (social work). She stated that she has found many commonalities in the two professions, and she has enjoyed her collaborations with Toro and the community psychology graduate students at the Research Group on Homelessness and Poverty at Wayne State University in Detroit." (Jozefowics-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

In the extract below, the threat that is posed by inter-disciplinarity emerges within the context of identity of CP:

> "She cautioned that when someone faces an identity struggle, or a lack of identity (such as occurs in the field of community psychology), there can be a tendency to become defensive or competitive with one another. She encouraged future community psychologists not to be threatened by related disciplines, but to connect with them to more effectively address social problems." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21)

This conflict is humanised through the use of the phrase, ***when someone faces an identity struggle***. Here, there is an interesting reference to the crisis faced by ***someone*** and the crisis that occurs ***in the field of community psychology***. This suggests that part of the identity struggle or lack of identity resolution resides within the individuals themselves, and not necessarily in the field. This emphasis supports a medical model discourse of distancing and locating the problem within the individual rather than in social structures.

The contrast is presented between first postulating an ***identity struggle***, and then shifting to asserting that there is *a lack of identity*. This implies a shift from process to outcome. The ***lack of identity*** is associated with an experience of threat associated with negative attributes such as ***defensiveness*** and ***competitiveness***. Thus, this sense of competitiveness is set up to combat the imperative to create present inter-disciplinary cooperation.

The extract also argues that there is conflict with existing community psychologists and suggests that the onus lies with ***future*** community psychologists to establish closer relationships to ***related disciplines***. The use of the term ***defensive*** implies a misreading of the threat, but simultaneously suggests the presence of inter-disciplinary conflict. The onus is on future generations to find a resolution to this conflict through establishing cooperative relationships. CP maintains the idea of its uniqueness through not establishing collaborative relationships with other related disciplines. When engaging with other fields, such as social work or public health, community psychologists are confronted by threats to its uniqueness and individuality in the form of sharing concepts and constructs with these fields.

In the extract below, community psychologists are cautioned about grounding the identity of the field on such constructs. This position directly contradicts the previous assertions that theoretical perspectives are definitive of CP's identity. The following extract addresses this tension:

> "I think it's important to think about cooperation. The idea of prevention doesn't just belong to community psychology. We have to be careful about 'owning' certain concepts." He stated that community psychology's uniqueness is not in its use of borrowed constructs, but springs from action research and community psychologists' roles as activists who borrow from other fields and then take action." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)

The statement begins by asserting that the author ***think[s]*** it is important for community

psychologists to ***think about*** cooperation. By using the term ***think about cooperation***, rather than to cooperate *per se*, the statement distances this possibility by situating this mandate in the realm of recursive reflection rather than action, which presents this statement as tentative rather than as ***important***. The statement reiterates that the argument that constructs of CP were not formulated within the field. Instead, they are borrowed, and therefore cannot be claimed by CP. This suggests that conceptually, the field has little individuality. Again, prevention is the concept used to convey the point about conceptual ownership, simultaneously indicating its prominence in the field. The tension this creates is reduced by the assertion that taking ***action*** ascribes the field with a sense of originality. However, taking action is contrasted with the previous emphasis on thinking. It also positions other fields and disciplines as inert and lacking an ***activist*** role. This serves to maintain the discourse of the field's uniqueness in creating change.

> "Although some more experienced community psychologists refused to be thwarted by this issue or are less concerned about it, some students raised the pragmatic issues of needing to define and gain recognition in the context of gaining employment and obtaining research funding. Thus, defining and educating others about the field of community psychology is important not only in terms of recruitment and expansion of the field, but also in supporting and advocating for resources within the academic and research environment." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 22)

Here, there is an expressed desire for both separation and merger. The extract raises a concern for what may happen if CP breaks away from mainstream psychology and the power it holds over it. These types of expressed ideas denote threats from within, and the potential of being overtaken by mainstream psychology. For CP, this break away has implications in terms of losing access to resources within academia.

3.12. Consolidating Marginality

While the aim of CP is to grow and expand the field, there are also discourses that show an investment in the field maintaining a marginalised and limited role. In Text 1, Toro (2005) introduces the idea of the marginalised status of CP:

> "So here is where the title of the paper comes in: Where do we go from here? Do we wish to expand or remain "small" and on the "fringes" of both society and psychology?" (Toro, 2005, p. 11).

The question posed in this extract is rhetorical; implying that being ***"small"*** and on the ***"fringes"*** is undesirable. Thus, the need for a more central and dominant role is underlined. The extract below uses the political party metaphor to consolidate the marginalised identity of CP. Through the use of this metaphor, the extract adopts the stance that the field should

embrace its marginality by serving as an irritant or painful reminder to psychology of ideas that are unpopular, controversial or express dissent within the discipline.

> "In terms of growth in the field, Peter Dowrick applied the analogy of the Green Party from New Zealand or Germany to community psychology. He argued that it is the Green Party's job to irritate the major parties, to champion unpopular ideas based on party beliefs, and to force the major parties to attend to issues and adopt positions with or without recognition of the Green Party's role in the process. He thought community psychology could become a major party - he cautioned, however, that it may be important to remain a minority party. He expressed concern that if community psychology became too big or too mainstream it would be harder to advocate controversial or unpopular positions and the field could lose its distinctiveness. Toro stated that it may be important to be the "gadfly party" as Julian Rappaport has advocated. However, he expressed confidence that community psychology could be big and still advocate unpopular or controversial positions. Community psychology could grow and be a "big bee with a big sting"." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19).

The extract suggests that there is value in maintaining marginality ***with or without recognition***. This suggests that the field has value in the role that it plays, and that it must be insulated and located outside of mainstream to fulfil this role. It conveys that with marginality, comes distinctiveness and protection, from that which is mainstream. But the extract also implies that marginality is a conscious choice, that is, that CP ***could become a major party*** - if it wanted to. However, it continues to add that CP should not attempt to do this, through phrases like – ***cautioned*** and ***expressed concern***. This concern is attributed to the danger of the field becoming ***too big*** or ***too mainstream***. This suggests that the field may need to stay small and peripheral in order to oppose these attributes. Thus, the extract articulates ***it may be important to remain a minority***, to avoid these perils, and for the field to find solace in its marginal identity and this function. The cautious inflection of this statement conveys a sense of resignation to this approach to resolving the dilemma, and support for the notion of a rescinded, yet controversial, identity.

Later, the extract qualifies that the field should not be too big, but could be bigger. However the progression from the metaphor of a ***gadfly*** or small irritant function to the image of a ***"big bee"*** with a ***"big sting"*** – suggests a delicious contradiction. Under the guise of being ***big***, the image conveys the need to be stronger but the field is still described as a bee, just a bigger one. It paradoxically reinforces the qualities of being small but aggressive and surreptitiously powerful. Thus, the image circumvents the problem of weakness that is inherent in marginality. Expansion and acceptance are both constructed as threats to the role of community psychologists. It is useful to contrast this narrative with Toro's (2005) narrative on to expanding, spreading, recruiting and growing CP as a ***big tent***. Introducing a reference to Julian Rappaport serves an inter-textual function to reinforce this construction of CP, through its endorsement by one of the founding members of the field.

3.13. The Weight of the World

Discourses related to a sense of burden in CP are introduced in these texts. This sense of burden is used to distinguish it from those that work within and those outside the sub-discipline. It seems that being a community psychologist is immensely difficult work, and this idea is created through the use of discourses that suggest a sense of martyrdom and a sense of social responsibility that is almost too much to bear. However, there is disagreement about precisely what makes the field so difficult and burdensome. There is consensus that this burden is shared within CP, and one not carried by those outside it. Toro (2005) locates this difficulty in relation to outsiders being unable to grasp the field's theoretical complexity:

> "With at least half a dozen major "strands", it is hard to describe the field of community psychology to outsiders." (Toro, 2005, p. 13)

The same discourse of burden emerges in other extracts:

> "Viola also expressed his views on the training of students in community psychology. He stated that he has talked with many students, and most have expressed a common frustration: a lack of support in completing their degree program. These frustrations did not stem from the complex theories and ideas in community psychology, but the demands of the workload involved." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

The extract above constructs the training of community psychologists as more cumbersome than other forms of psychology. The extract simultaneously introduces the dimension of the complexity of concepts in CP and by implication distances CP from the 'simplicity' of concepts in other branches of psychology. However, the difficulty is not attributed to grasping the ***complex theories and ideas*** in teaching material but to the ***demands of workload***, coupled with a ***lack of support***. This discourse frames the identity of CP through the notions of unfairness and injustice. Here, this sense of injustice is articulated with reference to mainstream psychology.

In the two extracts below, even explaining what being a community psychologist means to others is constructed as a cumbersome task, and one that should sometimes be avoided, as it is easily misunderstood. This discourse re-inscribes the notions of the field's importance, and which remains a continuous burden that community psychologists have to endure.

> "Judah Viola, a community psychology student at DePaul University, admitted "taking the easy way out" on occasion by saying he was a consultant, rather than stating he was a community psychologist and explaining what that means." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

> "Jackie Brown, a student from the University of Hawaii, felt that defining what community psychology is, and what community psychologists do to potential new students, was a challenge." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19)

The following extract emphasises the notion of CP as a burden even further:

> "Community psychology students must take many classes in a variety of areas and disciplines. The task of completing degree requirements is time consuming, and requires the understanding and aid of faculty. He felt that professors needed to assist students in persisting and finishing their degrees." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

From this extract, CP is constructed as more complex, and requiring more time, more work, and more persistence than other fields. Thus, community psychologists are viewed as requiring additional support, understanding and aid to effectively shoulder this impossible burden. This reinforces the identity of the field as a multifarious and highly complex one, which is coupled with a sense of unfairness at this load, but also functions to support its value by heightening the sense of mastery of its various demands.

3.14. Institutional Inclusivity and Exclusivity

These texts set up a tension and polarity between incorporating others and the threats that this may pose. Toro cited in Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al. (2005) advocates for representing all voices and perspectives:

> "Toro responded by stating that all topics can be studied under the "big tent" of community psychology and that all people should be encouraged to be in the tent." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)

The extract elaborates on the issues at stake for CP with regard to the dynamics of inclusion and exclusion. By encouraging the inclusion of ***all people*** in the ***big tent*** of CP as something that ***should*** be done, the extract implies that there are people who have been excluded, and focuses attention on the future. It does not elaborate on why this is the case at present, but rather advocates for a move towards greater inclusivity.

> "As the primary organization founded by and comprised of American academic community psychologists, the question remains whether the organization wants to and can become a "bigger tent" through the recruitment of individuals from all of these constituencies, and "by embracing diversity in every sense.". (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 22)

> "In the spirit of community psychology, the next steps are to bring together those absent from the table, listen to their voices, and move to action." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 22)

The extract situates the centrality of the SCRA in CP. It is further marked as being American in origin and composition. The extract poses the question of whether or not the organisation wants to be inclusive. It is interesting that this is posed as a question that implies agency, and the threats this inclusivity poses to cohesion and individuality. It also presents the SCRA as having the power to include or exclude, alienate or endorse others in the field.

> "I advocate expansion over remaining "small and pure"." (Toro, 2005, p.13)
>
> "I might recommend developing nations as a particular "frontier" for the development of community psychology. Certainly, with their numerous pressing social problems such nations have a great need for community psychology." (Toro, 2005, p. 14)
>
> "In encouraging growth in nations outside the US, it is very important that we Americans very carefully avoid pursuing activities that have even the slightest hint of "imperialism"." (Toro, 2005, p. 14)
>
> "I think we can accomplish growth by "thinking globally" as we expand. Expansion need not be seen as "colonialism"." (Toro, 2005, p. 15)

The curious use of the phrase **"*small and pure*"** has several interesting connotations. Whilst it is put forward here as a recommendation, the lack of purity implied by the strategy of expansion suggests that there are negative associations with its expansion in bringing a sense of contamination or dilution to the field.

The first extract conjures up the imagery of imperialism through the use of a word like "frontier", which suggests that the author is attempting to distance himself from its associations, but using the term simultaneously introduces them. Furthermore, the words ***"frontier"***, ***"imperialism", "think globally"*** and ***"colonialism"*** all appear in inverted commas, which has the same effect of introducing these issues but also of disavowing them at the same time. However, they also suggest a connection to the journey metaphor, and may signal its hidden colonial intent.

If one follows all the italicised words in these extracts, we see that ***developing nations*** and ***need*** are emphasised. Such emphases may be viewed as constructing other nations outside the US as needy, with a multitude of social problems in comparison of the US, whilst not addressing the root causes of these social problems, and their interconnectedness globally. When one takes these elements in combination, it seems to present a justification for appropriating global community psychologies under the guise of their need and US benevolence, whilst subsuming a symbolically colonialist intent. Together, this suggests that US community psychologists should expand into other countries

but also disavows the work historically done in these contexts. This reinforces the dominance of the US in the field, and the marginality of other nations. But this is also the reason why some countries have disavowed having CP for its covert colonial intention.

Though there is a lack of attention as to why there are excluded voices in the first place, several extracts invite the participation of excluded groups. Here, the following extract situates community members as members of the excluded:

> "Lenny Jason felt that the address served to initiate a conversation and dialogue, and that community members needed to become involved." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 20)

However, this presents a challenge to the status quo. Furthermore, by advocating for greater diversity as an antidote to the demise of the field through the recruitment of individuals from different constituencies, rather than for diversity as a core value of the field, suggests that there are contradictory aspects of how diversity is viewed.

> "As membership expands, areas of interest will change, and people can feel disconnected. We need to be sensitive to this." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 18)

In other statements, the tensions that exist in the different perspectives on diversity are evident. The extract above introduces the potential threat of inclusivity and how it may bring undesirable change, by suggesting that existing members will feel ***disconnected***. In this extract, sensitivity must be shown to these existing (American) members, not to new members. This implies that dominance lies with the established insiders and that these members should be appeased. Therefore, American CP is situated as having the right to control who may and may not be part of the field, through membership with SCRA. It simultaneously suggests that expansion of the field may occur only on certain (American) terms, as long as fundamental change are not made and as long as the existing current situation is not threatened in any way.

3.15. Are Some More Equal than Others?

There are tensions and contradictions evident within these publications in relation to the agenda of advancing the marginalised, even among community psychologists themselves. In the extract below, the composition of the SCRA is discussed with regard to three issues: ***ethnicity, research interests and community practitioners***.

> "…SCRA was referenced primarily in terms of membership characteristics, particularly with regards to ethnic diversity. Audience members discussed and supported the notion of diversifying, particularly in terms of ethnicity, research interests, and bringing in community

> practitioners. There was specific reference not only to increasing the numbers amongst under-represented groups, but also the need to insure equal power among majority and oppressed group members in SCRA." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 22).

Here, there is an expressed ***need*** for diversity. The proposal is made to ensure equality in power relationships between dominant and marginalised groups. The extract suggests that there are unequal power relationships and clear power differentials between ***majority*** and ***oppressed group members***. It also suggests that research interests are neutral, and that CP is mostly comprised of academics not practicing or applied psychologists. However, premising this expressed need with precursors such as ***although mentioned less frequently*** undermines the importance of creating change in these areas. The extract below suggests there is doubt about the realities of social transformation among institutional CP structures, and points to the dominance and marginalisation of particular groups within the SCRA:

> "…Gary Harper wondered if the statistics on SCRA membership reflected "voices"—not just numbers. He further questioned whether minority persons have access to the same power structure - and cautioned that SCRA, as an organization, should not perpetuate oppression through its own power structure. "Make sure people of colour have voices. It's easy to say that we have 'X' members of diverse groups, but if they have no voice, so what?" He also wondered whether, beyond ethnicity and culture, other oppressed groups (e.g., gays and lesbians; people with disabilities) had a voice. He felt that there are similarities and differences in oppressed group identities, but that all voices need to be invited and present at the table." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 19)

This argument is framed in a tentative manner through the use of term such as ***wondered*** and ***questioned***. The extract ends with arguing for greater inclusivity, but likewise does not address why these patterns of exclusion have occurred. Similarly, in the extract below, the othering of ***international colleagues*** and ***colleagues from allied disciplines*** is evident through premising that ***less discussion*** was focused on these issues:

> "Less discussion was focused on the comments in Toro's address regarding the broadening the SCRA membership base through the recruitment of international colleagues and colleagues from allied disciplines." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 22)

This serves to reinforce the notion that these are fringe concerns for the field. However, it should also be noted that introducing international colleagues before colleagues from allied disciplines also suggests allegiances, though weaker than with US-based community psychologists, with those in the field above those outside the field.

3.16. Maintaining Academic Elitism

The academic-practitioner split is another recurring polarity in the field that is referred to in

the Toro (2005) address and in the ensuing discussion by Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al. (2005). Discourses that maintain academic elitism are rife in published work. The heading – "***A Place for Non-Academics*"** in Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al. (2005 p. 21) immediately raises the discursive disavowal of practitioners, through the use of the 'non' prefix. This represents a form of exclusion and othering, and a form of constructing a power differential that demarcates academic community psychologists as dominant and practitioners as marginal. This tension has two consequences. On the one hand, this narrative argues for including practitioners but simultaneously maintains the idea of an academic-practitioner split. This asserts there is both a difference between psychologists who are academics and those who are practitioners, and moreover, that academics have power over practitioners. This duality is the result of valuing science over practice.

> "Meg Davis said it may help students to know that there are diverse outcomes for community psychologists, and that the perspective of community psychology being discussed was primarily that of academics. She felt this did not take into account the perspective of practitioners—and that the field is only now bringing in community practitioners from applied settings (e.g., school psychologists)." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21).

To illustrate the historical intertextuality of this polemic, consider the following extract where Dorr (1986, p. 119) identifies this same tension almost 20 years previously:

> "In my earlier (Dorr, 1984) response to Elias, Dalton, Frank and Howe (1984) I argued that despite their expressed concern for remediating the "academic/applied spilt" in community psychology their elitist tone contributed to the split. I remain convinced that this was true. Consider again: "Differences between academic and non-academic psychologists may be viewed as immutable, worthy of encouragement, or as a situation which the latter group must remedy be becoming 'more scientific' [italics added]." (Elias et al., 1986, p. 300). The remainder of this short section does little to qualify or soften the implications of this statement which, to me, illustrates an elitist attitude vis-à-vis the "non-academic"."

Whilst the discussion views research and practice as different, it presents this polarity as a dilemma to be traversed, since it is a community-based practice that offers the field of psychology its relevance, and which lies at the core of the field's applied nature and theoretical tenets. The discussion by Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al. (2005) formulates research and practice as different identities; and constructs this as a contemporary challenge in the field, even though it is as old as CP. This extract asserts that the identity of the field has been developed within and through the academia. Consider the extract below:

> "Audrey Bailey, a student from DePaul University, felt it was important to find positive mentors in academia and in the community. She thought it was also important to find mentors who not only shared their research with the University community, but who also shared their research with the broader community and involved the community in the design and writing

> of research. She said interaction with the community and academia assists students in defining career choices and "identifying identities." She thought mentors could serve as identity developers, and stated she would like to see more community members present at APA and other conventions." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 21).

In this extract, the ***who*** of the broader community is appears to be different at different times, giving an interesting perspective of who is included and excluded within CP. It also illustrates how the discourse of inclusivity functions with different groups and simultaneously excludes others. In the previous extract by Meg Davis, ***school psychologists*** are presented as an example of ***community practitioners***. This suggests that when referring to other community practitioners, this actually means other psychologists. This begs the question as to why these individuals are not also referred to as community psychologists. In the above extract, there appears to be a similar construction in the mandate to ***find positive mentors in academia and in the community***. These ***positive mentors*** appear to be psychologists either in academia or in applied contexts. It is presented that psychologists in applied contexts should ***share*** their research with academic community psychologists and with the ***broader community***. It then proceeds to mention the inclusion of broader community members in the design and writing of research, though this appears to simply be an extension of this argument that situates the notion of inclusivity within the endorsed theoretical tenets of the field. However, the implication of the extract is that sharing research is unidirectionally the mandate of psychologists in applied contexts, and including community members is also part of this mandate. This distances those in academia from the necessity of having to be inclusive, sharing their research, or involving the broader community. This maintains the elitism of the so-called academic community psychologists. This runs contrary to the uncritical endorsement of the notion of 'giving psychology away' (Smail, 1994).

This tension is introduced again by a student, as part of coming to terms with the contradictions in the field. As such, she asserts the need for mentors in both academic and applied contexts to serve as "identity developers", indicating the difficulty of resolving the contradictions inherent in this polarity. When the suggestion is offered that more ***community members*** should be present APA and other conventions, this again suggests these are other psychologists rather than the ***broader community*** as such. However, this remains a peripheral concern for academic CP as evidenced by this later extract:

> "Audience members discussed and supported the notion of diversifying, particularly in terms of ethnicity, research interests, and bringing in community practitioners." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p.22)

> "Similarly, there was little reflection on if and how to involve members of the community in

the Society." (Jozefowicz-Simbeni et al., 2005, p. 22)

The first extract above introduces the notion of inclusivity through describing how bringing in community practitioners is supported. The second extract then disavows this as being important by stating there ***was little reflection*** about it, especially ***on if and how to involve members of the community***. The use of the term ***if*** suggests that this idea was actually not widely supported by those attending the presidential address or this standpoint is being reflected as such in this published work. This supports the notion of applied work and the inclusion of community members as being less important to the field, than other preoccupations. This standpoint reinforces the perspective that there are ideological tensions that are continuously present and discernible through a close critical scrutiny of discourses in published work. Although community psychologists may seek to align themselves with a progressive social agenda, they are not immune from being implicated in discourses that may contradict and counteract this purpose.

4. Conclusion

This chapter has sought to uncover and illustrate some of the discourses that can be identified in CP using a critical qualitative textual analysis of two publications. The extracts from the articles analysed in this chapter show that there are several meta-narratives operating in CP that can be identified in the texts. Salient among these are the various formulations of crises that emerge through the debates about the CP's historical, contemporary and future identity, as well as the identification of the challenges and obstacles encountered by the field due to differences among community psychologists themselves, other psychologists, and other disciplines. These difficulties are also inherent in the field's bold agenda of finding ways to address and solve contextual problems and create transformative social change. The use of metaphors in the texts that were used to describe the experiences and challenges of CP reveals its implicit affiliation to the emphasis of mainstream psychology on the individual, instead of the community. The themes and discourses identified here play an instrumental role in the construction of the sub-discipline in published work and beyond. These discourses establish its priorities and ideas, and as well as those that are considered peripheral or potentially threatening to how the field operates. These discourses also underpinned by tensions and contradictions that reveal the power struggles in knowledge production, and their broader social ramifications.

These discourses initially became apparent in this study through the process of reading and re-reading the published articles in the dataset while coding the data presented in the previous three chapters. However, it was the findings of these chapters that sparked

the choice of texts for the qualitative analysis presented here. This process highlights the value of using a mixed methods design within a critical-emancipatory paradigm for generating innovative insights about how the field is constituted through knowledge production. While this chapter has used two particular texts to demonstrate these discourses, it is underlined that these discourses are pervasive and can be found in numerous CP texts. In examining these discourses closely, there are several internal tensions and contradictions within the field that become apparent, and there are also conflicts at play between CP, mainstream psychology and other disciplines in the social and health sciences. In addition, these discourses prompt us to critically engage with the collective role of scholarship in the field, and to look beyond its use and significance. This lens raises questions about what function these discourses serve at an ideological level, and alert us to the hidden agendas, possibilities and pitfalls that exist in the use of particular discursive frames. In identifying the prominent discourses in scholarly work, the purpose of this chapter is to permit a more reflexive engagement with our narratives about the field of CP and our conceptualisation about our roles as community psychologists. Therefore, it supports the necessity of a critical reflexive gaze in CP, but highlights the dangers of recapitulating to the dominant discourses that have contributed to the establishment of the sub-discipline. By acknowledging and becoming more alert to the potential constraints and implications of using these discourses may lead us, as community psychologists, to expand our ways of thinking, writing and practicing in this field.

Chapter 12

Discussion

1. Introduction

This final discussion chapter is structured as follows. The first part of this chapter offers a sequential synopsis and discussion of the most salient findings of each of the previous results chapters presented in this thesis. Here, the emphasis is placed on novel features of the data and the implications of these findings in comparison to previous research. Thus, this first part of the chapter begins with considering the state of scholarly work in locally published community psychology articles within the broader scope of published work in psychology within South Africa. This is followed by an overview of trends in published work appearing in the international community psychology journals selected for analysis. Then, the characteristics of local and international community psychology articles are juxtaposed, with particular attention to patterns of dominance and marginality. Lastly, the interplay of dominant and marginal positions found within the extracts selected for an in-depth critical qualitative analysis is considered. The second part of this chapter presents conceptual reflections that have emerged from the findings as a whole, considering how the overall state of the field can be constructed through the lens of both qualitatively and quantitatively analysing patterns of dominance and marginality within this corpus of scholarly work. This section reflects on the authorship dimensions as well as the theoretical and methodological aspects of the dataset. This discussion refers back to key ideas presented regarding the role of knowledge production, both in CP and beyond. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the strengths and limitations of this study and considerations for future research of this nature.

2. Discussion of Findings

2.1. Published Work in Local Journals

Psychology in South Africa has a history of being implicated in perpetuating apartheid ideologies of racism, sexism, and classism (Anonymous, 1986; Dawes, 1985; Duncan et al., 2001; Suffla & Seedat, 2004). South Africa witnessed profound changes since the country's 1994 transition to democracy that have impacted on every sphere of life, including psychology (Stevens & Lockhat, 1997). While there have undoubtedly been significant changes in psychology over the past 20 years since apartheid was abolished, these

ideological power relations associated with its past are still deeply entrenched. Notwithstanding its controversial history, psychology today is a well-established profession and one of the most popular disciplines in universities (Cooper & Nicholas, 2012). However, some scholars have surmised that the end of an era of critical thinking in universities and in psychology was ushered in along with the end of apartheid, together with the emergence of entrepreneurial scholarship and academic-corporate research partnerships (Painter, Kiguwa, & Böhmke, 2013). While debates about the 'relevance' of psychology were especially popular in academic writing in the 1980s and 1990s (Long, 2013), several scholars as have argued for a continued focus on the 'relevance' of psychological knowledge production (see de la Rey & Ipser, 2004; Macleod, 2004; Macleod & Howell, 2013). Critical and community-oriented psychologists have sought to align themselves with a social justice agenda and establish relevance through their commitment to the country's democratic vision (Seedat, 2010). However, Seedat (2010) argues that efforts to establish the 'relevance' of community work to the country's populace have at times 'decentred' the importance of criticality. Long (2013) argues that the concept of 'relevance' in psychology is now itself irrelevant, and that greater attention should be paid to understanding the relationship between science and society in the global knowledge production arena.

Community psychology in this context has a historical alignment with the liberation movement and the ideals of achieving social transformation (Seedat et al., 2004). However, in the new dispensation, questions have emerged regarding the extent to which CP still holds this critical agenda (Painter et al., 2006), and its role in knowledge production in contemporary South Africa (Seedat et al., 2004). Long (2013), for instance, contends that South Africa's entry into the international community post-1994 has facilitated the insertion of its academe into global knowledge systems, which has facilitated the process of knowledge commodification. These issues related to knowledge production in psychology and community psychology in contemporary South Africa are considered here in relation to the findings of the present study.

The overall representation of CP articles in the SAJP and PINS was low at 8.5% of the total publications in these journals. However, this was higher than the 5.7% reported by Seedat from 1984-1988 in seven South African psychology journals (Seedat, 2001b). This dearth of scholarship in CP was especially notable in PINS, which has historically been the journal of choice for critically orientated CP scholars (Seedat, 2001b), where CP articles constituted only 9.3% of all articles. There appears to be a declining interest in CP on the part of more critically oriented academics, and a shift towards publishing CP articles in the more mainstream SAJP. Overall the publication rate of CP articles in South African journals

was extremely variable, ranging between 1% and 18% of total contributions per annum, compared to the more stable publication rate in psychology overall of 7.7% to 12.1% over the decade reviewed.

As Macleod (2004) and Macleod and Howell (2013) observed, an analysis of the author characteristics in South African psychology publications shows that most authors publish from institutions located in the country's major cities (Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban), which are located in the country's wealthiest, most resourced provinces (namely, Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal). In psychology, most scholars were located in Gauteng, one of the fastest growing cities in the world, and the economic capital of Sub-Saharan Africa (Richter, Panday, Swart, & Norris, 2009). In CP, most scholars are based in the Western Cape. Regional comparisons showed that for authors in Gauteng, publishing CP articles was far less common than other areas of psychology, whereas the converse was true for the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. A greater proportion of authors in CP were based at historically Afrikaans institutions than has previously been reported. By comparison, it was more common for scholars of the rest of the publications in psychology to be based at historically English universities, as was found by Macleod (2004) and Macleod and Howell (2013).

Authors that published in local journals were most often also locally based. The results showed that there are only a few international scholars in CP that publish in South African journals, and that there is even less collaboration between local and international authors in locally published CP articles than is evident in the rest of psychology. Macleod (2004) and Macleod and Howell (2013) similarly found a paucity of inter-country collaboration in published research in psychology broadly, especially between South African and other scholars on the African continent. International collaboration is therefore an important priority for South African psychology to address in the climate of a global knowledge economy, but this area is especially relevant to scholarship in CP. In particular, greater efforts to extend research collaboration beyond minority world countries should be established.

Authors that publish in local journals in psychology and CP are largely affiliated to academia, and are most frequently affiliated to departments of psychology. This trend underlines the strong academic base of professional psychology in contemporary South Africa. CP articles hail from a more diverse range of academic units than articles in psychology. Where connections exist between academic scholars and scholars from other institutions outside of academia, there is some evidence to suggest that there is a greater range of connections with institutions outside of universities in CP, compared with

psychology, despite the overall picture of academic isolation and insularity that characterise the knowledge production landscape of the field. Most institutional relationships between scholars in CP and those outside academic psychology are associated with other academic departments, government and teaching or public hospitals. This suggests a shift in the alignment of CP to government institutions and institutions that benefit from government research and teaching subsidies in South Africa. This is a significant finding given the historical alignment of CP with the NGO sector, and historical genesis of opposition to the apartheid government in the pre-1994 period. These allegiances have shown a profound shift in the post-apartheid period in line with the changes in the direction of donor funding for community work discussed by Yen (2008). This change suggests that CP in South Africa has become more academic, and has developed weaker connections to community based organisations and community-based forms of mental health service delivery. This finding echoes the argument by Bhana et al. (2007) that advances in CP, as an academic field, have not translated into the growth of the field in practice. Within an academic sphere, journal publications continue to be produced, as they are able to tap into the resources associated with government research subsidies. However, it also implies that the primary audience of journal articles in CP is other academic community psychologists, and the primary purpose of publications is the generation of cultural capital or to serve as knowledge economy outputs in an academic context. This also suggests that there may be different knowledge production imperatives for the NGO sector that are not linked to journal publications, such as policy briefs, grant proposals and baseline studies, and that there may be limited benefits for this sector in academia. This also has implications for the potential growth of a knowledge economy in South Africa.

In terms of the demographic representation of authors, CP showed less pronounced authorship disparities by race and gender, in comparison to the wider discipline of psychology. White males dominated the authorship of publications in psychology overall, confirming the exclusion of women from knowledge production noted by Shefer et al. (2004). Similar to the results by Seedat et al. (2004), there were equivalent proportions of male and female authors in locally published CP articles. While this suggests greater gender equality in CP scholarship, the proportion of female scholars is still under-subscribed given the feminised nature of the profession of psychology in South Africa (Graham & Langa, 2011; Mayekiso, Strydom, Jithoo, & Katz, 2004). As found by Shefer et al. (2004), the gap between black and white female authors is far more pronounced in South African articles than between black and white male authors, and only a marginal proportion of black women publish locally in psychology. The present study suggests that this gap has narrowed slightly

from 78% white females and 22% black females in the 2000-2009 period, compared to 17% and 83% found by Shefer et al. (2004) in the SAJP from 1994-2003. However, these findings underline the compounded experience of marginalisation of black women in academia (see Carolissen & Swartz, 2009).

While there was slightly greater representivity of black authors in CP, white scholars continued to occupy the first author positions of articles in both psychology (75.8%) and CP (65.4%). The results suggest there is still much to be done to address the country's apartheid legacy of racism in knowledge production. The under-representation of black scholars is particularly glaring given that over 90% of the country's populace is black (Cooper & Nicholas, 2012). By comparison, Duncan et al.'s (2004) analysis of race in authorship patterns in the SAJP reported that 82.5% of first authors were white in the 1994-2003 period. This suggests that there has been a slight improvement in the representation of articles by black scholars at the level of first authorship. However, what is especially troubling about these results is that Seedat (1990) found that in the four decades prior to 1990, 75% of all articles published in the South African journals, including the SAJP and PINS, were penned by white authors. This suggests that little has changed in the subsequent two decades, even with the profound legislative changes have occurred in the country. Duncan et al. (1997) also highlighted the disparities in academia between black and white scholars, and argued that this shows that role of psychology in perpetuating racist ideologies. The present study's findings on local journals suggests that the legacy of white hegemony in knowledge production within psychology has persisted, and is also manifest in CP, even though racial disparities among authors in CP are less pronounced. The inclusion of the perspectives of black scholars in knowledge production is a fundamental imperative for transforming the discipline of psychology in line with a more liberatory agenda (Duncan et al., 2004; Duncan & Bowman, 2009; van Niekerk & Shefer, 2001).

Foucault's (1982) coupling of power/knowledge suggests that trends in knowledge production are indicative of wider power relations in a discipline. The predominance of the white male as the dominant authorship profile in academia suggests that demographic transformation at an institutional level is still plagued by a legacy of racist and patriarchal ideologies. Like Suffla and Seedat (2004) argue, this study reflects that South Africa still has a long way to go to ensuring equality in knowledge production that reflects the demographic composition of South African society. Monitoring trends related to the racial and gender composition of scholars in the institutional arenas of academic knowledge production provides a useful benchmark for assessing the level of transformation in psychology. However, comparisons between specific domains like CP with the rest of

psychology are needed to shed light on whether racialised and gendered patterns are pervasive across different areas of psychological specialisation.

In the decade studied here, empirical articles were the most common publication type in South African journals, including publications in CP. The overall proportion of empirical articles in the local journals was fairly low at just less than half of the overall types of publications that were represented. This suggests that greater research productivity is needed in psychology to facilitate the discovery of innovative, contextually embedded knowledge for understanding the mental health concerns of the South African populace. The representation of empirical studies in CP (59.6%) was higher than in psychology (48.1%). However, the inclusion of PINS in the dataset, with its more limited emphasis on empirical work, reduced the overall proportion of empirical articles found for psychology. In psychology, the levels of empirical studies in the SAJP only (58.4%) were comparable to results found by Macleod and Howell (2013). The results for CP were also higher than the 38.8% of empirical articles found in CP in the same journals by Seedat et al. (2004) from 1994-2003. The presence of theoretical articles had decreased substantially from the 31.9% in the same journals found by Seedat et al. (2004) to 7.7% in the current study. The change in article type has also had repercussions for authorship arrangements. Seedat et al. (2004) also found that most articles in CP were single-authored (63.9%). However, this proportion appeared to have decreased substantially as only 40.4% of studies were single authored.

The prominence of book reviews as publication types in South African journals, at nearly a quarter of all publications in both psychology and CP, is especially disconcerting, but also perhaps an idiosyncratic feature of the journals selected for analysis. While other studies such as Macleod (2004) and Macleod and Howell (2013) have also identified that a positivist approach to empirical research is typical of publications in psychology, there seems to be a decline in popularity of positivist research paradigms. The current study found that positivist research is less common in locally published CP research. Within CP, empirical studies published in local journals used a greater proportion of interpretive and mixed method analyses, suggesting that a greater diversity and plurality of methodological approach is utilised and accepted among scholars in this sub-discipline than in psychology. The use of qualitative research methods of data collection was particularly high in CP (41.9%). However, empirical contributions in psychology remarkably showed a greater utilisation of critical methodological approaches than articles in CP. This finding is especially relevant as CP scholarship has historically lauded its criticality as an inherent part of its identity, especially in South Africa. This finding therefore supports the view by that CP and critical psychology have severed their ties in this context (Painter et al., 2013).

South African scholars frequently chose surveys and qualitative methods for data collection in both psychology and CP. The use of standardised scales was less common in CP than in psychology generally, reflecting its less positivist bias. In keeping with the gap in research collaboration in local scholarship, data in CP and psychology was mainly collected locally, but this was more common in CP. Similarly to where academics were institutionally based, most collected their data from participants in the country's three major cities. Macleod (2004) and Macleod and Howell (2013) reported similar findings. Moreover, this trend was not only evident for research in psychology, but also research in CP. This finding raises concerns about the paucity of studies conducted locally in rural areas of South Africa. Universities, schools and hospitals were common sites of data collection in psychology and CP alike, but CP studies also collected data in residential and non-institutional community-based settings. The absence of racial descriptors, the use of apartheid categories, and the use of proxy terms for black participants, was common in both CP and psychology. The lack of critical engagement with racial terminology in articles across CP and psychology was striking. Participants in psychology and CP were largely adults and were of a mixed gender composition.

The focus on marginalised groups was a distinguishing factor between CP and psychology articles in local publications. A greater proportion of studies in CP were conducted exclusively on a socially marginalised group (66.7%), compared to psychology (53.4%), supporting the greater focus in CP on marginalised groups. Marginalisation was mainly represented in structural forms of inequality related to race, gender and location within psychology and CP. A much higher proportion of research in CP focussed on accessing those marginalised by geographical location. This finding highlights the continued legacy of social marginalisation by geographical area under the apartheid system. It also suggests that research in CP has made greater inroads to accessing populations in under-serviced areas than research in psychology generally, in keeping with CP's emphasis on extending mental health service delivery (Seedat et al., 2004). The exclusive use of women as research participants was far more common in psychology (30.7%) than in CP (14.3%) Studies on participants marginalised by sexual orientation and migration status were entirely absent from CP scholarship, and studies on disabled and HIV positive participants were rare. This is a significant finding, given that scholarship in the areas of migration, sexual orientation and disability studies were all identified as growth areas in critical psychology in South Africa (Painter et al., 2013), but this growth has not translated into locally published CP publications. CP's neglect of the HIV/AIDS pandemic in South Africa has been noted previously (see Yen, 2008). This is especially significant in

contemporary South Africa given that rates of infection in this country are the highest in the world (UNAIDS, 2012). Elderly populations are similarly neglected in South African psychology and CP publications. This trend supports Ntshangase, Duncan and Roos's (2007) position that contemporary CP has neglected issues facing the aged, despite the central role they play in South Africa, especially in low-income families.

The choice of participants in locally published research in psychology reflects several indicators of privilege. For instance, there were high proportions of participants with tertiary or postgraduate levels of education, even though less than 2% of the country's population was enrolled in public higher education institutions in 2011 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2013). The study of formally uneducated groups was largely absent in psychology and CP, also reflecting the focus on the urban centres of the country where education is more accessible. Studies in psychology focussed mainly on participants who were employed in specific occupations of interest, who were university students, or they often omitted to indicate the employment status of participants entirely. Macleod (2004) and Macleod and Howell (2013) similarly found high proportions of studies using student samples in psychology. However, the present study indicated that the use of students was also high in CP, reflecting the field's preoccupation with issues related to the training and experience of professionals in community settings and the pedagogical aspects of CP (e.g. Gibson, Sandenbergh, & Swartz, 2001; Pillay, 2003; Pillay & Harvey, 2006; Roos et al., 2005). The absence of research on unemployed populations is alarming, especially since unemployment rates in the country are among the highest in the world, averaging 2% in the 2000-2009 decade and currently placed at 24.7% of the country's population (Statistics South Africa, 2014). This trend links with Macleod's (2004) and Macleod and Howell's (2013) concern that South African published research has neglected issues of poverty and unemployment, despite its implications for mental health, and continued to focus on middle class populations. These findings suggest that CP in South Africa needs to reconsider its relationship to notions of social change (Seedat & Lazarus, 2011).

2.2. Published Work in International Journals

Internationally, the journals that were studied are relatively established, and there is a long tradition of trend analyses of the AJCP and JCP with which the findings of the current study can be compared. However, this study's inclusion of the JCASP and JPIC, which have not previously been studied, has led to novel insights about these journals that do not appear in any other studies and provide baseline data for future comparisons.

Almost three quarters of all the articles appearing in the international CP journals were collaboratively written between two or more authors (72.7%). However, in comparison to previous trend analyses, the results show that sole authorship had increased and that the collaboration among multiple authors had decreased. For instance, Martin et al. (2004) reported 14% of publications were single authored in the AJCP from 1993-1998, compared to 28.2% in the same journal presently, and 27.3% in all of the journals in the study combined. In addition, Martin et al. (2004) reported that 62.0% of studies had three or more authors, compared to 50.5% in the current study for the same journal and 46.4% in all of the journals. While overall collaboration is still high, these results suggest a trend towards decreasing levels of collaboration between scholars. This is in keeping with the commodification and commercialisation of knowledge in a knowledge economy, and the emphasis on producing a greater quantity of research output. However, this may have implications for the nature of the knowledge produced, including limiting the possibilities for divergent voices in strengthening knowledge contributions.

International authors were mostly based in academia (75.2%), and their collaborations were largely limited to this arena. However, the proportion of scholars in the academe had decreased slightly from levels noted in other trend analyses. While there are variations in methodological approach that make exact comparisons difficult, Martin et al. (2004), reported that 80% of scholars in the AJCP were in academia in the 1993-1998 period, compared to 72.7% in the same journal in the present study from 2000-2009. Prior to this, Speer et al. (1992) found that 82% of scholars were in academic settings. This trend should be monitored to determine whether it suggests greater inclusivity of scholars from other settings. The high proportion of articles by scholars in academia, along with the trends about the continued dominance of empirical work, have led scholars like Martin et al. (2004) to reflect on the appropriateness of the researcher-practitioner model as a basis for CP. While there is evidence of applied research in the present study, published work reflects a stronger basis in a traditional researcher orientation.

Empirical articles were largely positivist and there was a dearth of international research that was based in a critical research paradigm. Applied community approaches were represented, but mainly comprised programme evaluations. Large-scale population surveys using standardised questionnaires were the favoured method of data collection. This was especially popular in the AJCP and JCP. Despite this, significant increases in popularity of qualitative (15.0%) and mixed method (19.0%) data collection from the early period of CP's development appear to be evident. The proportion of qualitative methods of data collection found here were comparable to the 17% reported by Luke (2005) in the AJCP

from 2000-2003, and far greater than the 4% found from 1981-1983 in the same study (Luke, 2005).

In 1975-1978 and 1984-1988, these research designs were entirely absent from published research (Lounsbury et al., 1980; Speer et al., 1992). Martin et al. (2004), for 1993-1998, reported that 3.5% of studies used mixed method research and 15.1% used qualitative methods, including case studies. The results of the present study suggest a decline in the exclusive use of qualitative methods in the JCP (9.6%) and AJCP (10.6%), but qualitative research was high in the JCASP (38.2%). Overall, there was a marked increase in the use of mixed methods of data collection. Archival research was negligible, as has consistently been reported in trend analyses of CP journals (Lounsbury et al., 1980; Martin et al., 2004; Speer et al., 1992). The JCP and AJCP showed very similar overall trends in methodological preferences of scholars, suggesting a high level of homogeneity in orientation between these journals, and the dearth of methodological innovation (e.g. the use of GIS coordinates), and the use of participatory methodologies (e.g. photo-voice, PAR).

In terms of research settings, there was a low level of studies conducted in mental health settings like clinics and hospitals in this dataset (10.6%), which was fairly consistent across all the journals. This is much lower than 32% found in JCP and AJCP from 1973-1978 (Lounsbury et al., 1980), but comparable to the 12% found from 1984-1988 (Speer et al., 1992), and slightly higher than the 6% found from 1993-1998. The proportion of studies using schools as research settings (16.1%) was fairly consistent with previous analyses. Schools constituted 14% of settings in 1973-1978 (Lounsbury et al., 1980), 15% in 1984-1988 (Speer et al., 1992) and 13.8% in 1993-1998 (Martin et al., 2004). Universities constituted 17% of settings in 1973-1978 (Lounsbury et al., 1980), 13.0% in 1984-1988 (Speer et al., 1992), 6.3% in 1993-1998 (Martin et al. (2004), and 8.0% in 2000-2009. Similarly, to Martin et al. (2004), the study found that general community settings, particularly those without an organisational affiliation, were popular (36.3%). Due to this trend, the present study has for the first time differentiated between participants accessed in the general community (11.0%) and private residences of individuals (18.6%).

The positivist bias in international research was reflected in the dominance of a positivist paradigm of research (58.3%) and a preference for quantitative methods of data analysis like descriptive (41.8%) and traditional inferential statistics (41.3%). Despite its strong positivist slant, there has been a staggering decline in the use of ‘hard science’ quantitative research designs, such as experimental and quasi-experimental research over the decades since CP was first formalised. The study found that only 4.1% of studies in international journals used experimental designs (5.1% in the AJCP and 2.9% in the JCP)

and 5.1% used quasi-experimental designs (4.3% in the AJCP and 5.9% in the JCP) from 2000-2009. By comparison Novaco and Monahan (1980) reported 51.8% of studies in the AJCP had experimental designs from 1973-1978. Lounsbury et al. (1980) found that 39% used experimental designs in the AJCP and JCP, which then dropped to 22.0% in 1984-1988 (Speer et al., 1992), and 9.3% in the AJCP from 1993-1998 (Martin et al., 2004). The reported the use of quasi-experimental designs has showed a similar decline. Lounsbury et al. (1980) found that 58.0% used quasi-experimental designs from 1973-1978 in the AJCP and JCP, compared to a peak of 73.0% in 1984-1988 (Speer et al., 1992), and 19.8% in the AJCP from 1993-1998 (Martin et al., 2004). This finding confirms the gains identified in the popularity of more naturalistic methods in CP (Martin et al., 2004), but suggests that the survey approach to data collection is now the most common form of research design internationally in CP, reflecting the field's growing emphasis on social epidemiology (Orford, 2008). However, the appropriateness of survey methods as a methodological approach for CP is questionable. Likewise, the use of traditional statistical methods has been critiqued for its potential to distort the contextual elements of data (Luke, 2005).

Though some shifts have been noted with respect to the greater inclusion of qualitative and mixed method research in CP, published research conducted from 2000-2009 in international journals reflects the choice of less critical approaches. Qualitative analyses were largely restricted to content analysis or interpretive analytic methods, with discourse analysis being extremely rare in international research (1.8%). From their study on the history of community-based helping services to children, Levine and Levine (1970; 1992) found that within a conservative global configuration related to economic recession, scholars preferred using biological, individualistic theories, whereas in times of economic prosperity, social and environmental theories were more popular in conceptualising human behaviour. This is a profound paradox, suggesting that social power and its effects are most neglected under conditions of intensified socio-economic burden. The findings of this study support Levine and Levine's (1970; 1992) hypothesis, but suggest that these patterns are not restricted to theories, and are also indicated in the choice of research methodologies.

The findings on the theoretical orientation of research in CP show that approaches linked to the concept of prevention were by far most popular (33.7%), followed by traditional psychology theories (16.7%) and ecological approaches (14.1%). Epistemologies related to the concepts of empowerment, sense of community and those drawn from social psychology were more characteristic of articles in the JCASP and JPIC, rather than being pervasive features of international CP scholarship.

Most available research in CP is drawn from data collected in North America (72.7%), Europe (14.3%) and Australia (6.1%), reflecting the global dominance of these regions, and their centrality in the rankings of knowledge economy indicators. International scholarship has by and large shown few contributions of authors from majority world countries. In particular, international CP journals by comparison rarely published research conducted in Africa, Asia and Latin America. There was limited empirical scholarship from South African authors in international journals (1.0%).

International knowledge production in CP is characterised by the use of participants of mixed race and ethnicity, mixed gender, mixed employment status and mixed educational levels, reflecting the preoccupation of CP with large-scale population surveys on a large range of indicators, rather than research that focuses on specific groups. The understanding of specific realities of marginalised social groups may be neglected in this broad-based population wide survey approach to data collection. This approach also reflects the economic advantage of many international scholars from minority world countries who have greater access to research funding and infrastructure that is necessary to support such research. Likewise, there is a preponderance of empirical research in CP that investigates groups of mixed gender, mixed ethnicity, mixed employment status and mixed educational levels, and this was common across all of the journals. Mixed ethnicities of European populations were reflected in the JCASP, whereas US-based ethnicities were evident in the other journals.

In looking at trends related to ethnicity in the US, a very small proportion of studies focused on specific ethnic groups. However, there were some improvements noted from previous research. For instance, from 1965-1985, Loo et al. (1988) found that only 5.5% of studies focused exclusively on ethnic minorities in the US. This proportion of studies seems to have increased over the 2000-2009 period, with 5.7% of studies on African Americans, 3.1% on Latino/Hispanic, 1.1% on Native American, 0.4% on US Jewish/Arab participants, and 2.1% on Asian Americans. As was found by Loo et al. (1988), African Americans constituted almost half of the studies on ethnicity, and the current study's results were similar to the overall proportion of African Americans in CP studies of 4.8% found by Gutierrez (2010) over the period of 1973-2007. Research on Latina/Latino groups was very similar in proportion to the 3.7% found by Bernal and Enchautegui-de-Jesus (1994) and the 4.5% found by Gutierrez (2010). The results for the representation of research on Native Americans and Asian Americans were also comparable to those found by Gutierrez (2010). While some minor increases or proportionate cases are notable from prior studies, the overall results suggest that ethnic minority groups in the US are neglected in contemporary

research, especially in comparison to the representation of these groups in the US population. Given the scarcity of research from regions outside the US, it goes without stating that issues of ethnicity, race and nationality beyond US minority groups are grossly overlooked in CP journals. The low proportion of studies on males supported the findings of Gutierrez (2010) in which only 2% of studies had all-male samples.

Employment status was reported in several international studies, especially as a demographic variable in survey research. However, it is significant to note that almost a third of studies on adults made no reference to the employment status of participants, despite most of this research having been conducted in the US, in the midst of the Global Financial Crisis. It is important to highlight that the study of unemployed populations was also extremely rare in international research. International studies more often selected students or scholars as research participants, or focused on residents of particular neighbourhoods. The exclusive focus on marginalised groups in international CP research was variable across the journals. Where marginality was a factor, it was most often related to structural inequalities on the basis of race, gender and SES, rather than other forms of social marginalisation. This finding has been emphasised in previous trend analyses, which have criticised CP for not adopting a more inclusive approach and for not paying adequate attention to other aspects of diversity and marginalisation and their intersections (Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus, 1994; Gutierrez, 2010; Loo et al., 1988; Martin et al., 1988).

The findings on topics showed that an interest in child, youth and family development, social networks and support, social difference and exclusion, and mental health and mental illness were the main topics addressed in international journals. While these topics appear to show consideration of individual, family and social issues, they were most often paired with the use of traditional psychological and preventionist theoretical approaches rather than critical or social scientific theoretical frameworks, or critically oriented methodological choices. This suggests that a largely biomedical and individualistic understanding of mental health and wellbeing persists, and there is pervasive neglect of the effects of social power on individuals and communities in CP scholarship. Overall, these findings from an analysis of published work suggest a somewhat different picture to the one portrayed in the articulation about the values, ideals and foci of the field. Despite this apparent disconnection in its identity (Perkins, 2009), this research shows that there are aspects of the field that have shifted over time, yet others that have remained robust.

2.3. Local and International Comparisons of Published Work

Psychology in South Africa developed in historical isolation from psychology in the

Western world (Cooper & Nicholas, 2012). As part of this discipline, CP was also relatively isolated in its development in this country during the 1980s. However, in the decade that was investigated in this thesis, South Africa had re-established its international ties following its transition to democracy and process of democratic consolidation. At the same time, the information era and burgeoning knowledge economy has allowed for unprecedented levels of knowledge exchange. The findings of this aspect of the study are particularly intriguing, as prior research on knowledge production in CP has not engaged with local-international dimensions of knowledge production. However, as Painter et al. (2006) argue, to focus only on the local may obscure the power relations in which psychology operates at a transnational level. Here, the discussion emphasises aspects of the data that were shared across contexts, in terms of both areas of dominance and marginality.

The comparative analysis of local and international CP shows some remarkable similarities in contemporary preferences in theory and methods of published research. However, there are few peculiarities too, which are highlighted as more contextually sensitive aspects of knowledge production. In CP articles, similar proportions of internationally and locally authored publications were sole and co-authored. The results suggest that collaboration between scholars is fairly common in CP across contexts. International studies included a larger range of authors. It is postulated that this trend is related to the large-scale projects that featured in international research and by implication the stronger funding base for research in minority world countries.

Empirical and case study articles were the most common article types across local and international research. Some areas of distinction include the prominence of book reviews in locally authored articles, and the salience of theoretical articles in international publications. Both international and local research showed gaps in the publication of literature reviews and methodological articles. The diminishing importance of the literature review is attributable to the rise in information accessibility via the Internet. However, the gaps in methodological contributions are concerning, given that methodological tensions have been flagged in debates about the focus on the field (Martin et al., 2004; Tolan et al., 1990).

In terms of primary research approach, positivist, interpretive and applied methods are the most common choices for both local and internationally authored research. Similarly for methods of data collection, the same preferences for surveys, qualitative and multi-method studies are evident for international and local studies. Both also neglected to use critical paradigms in favour of other methodologies. While empirical research was common, there was also a marked decrease in the use of ‘hard science’ research methods (Macleod, 2004;

Macleod & Howell, 2013), like experimental and quasi-experimental designs, in both contexts.

Local authors mostly collected data locally, and international authors collected data in international locations, reflecting the relative isolation of scholars in the field and the lack of collaborative relationships cross-nationally. However, it was more common for local scholars to shift the direction of knowledge production towards the use of international contexts, than vice versa, reflecting Montero's (2010) concern about the directional flow of information globally towards the West and North. Within each sphere, the most prominent regions for data collection are those in the urbanised and westernised epicentres of these locales. Thus, in the local dataset, the prominence of South Africa's three largest cities is evident, whilst in the international dataset the dominance of highly urbanised and westernised regions is patently manifest. Data collection in the African, Latin American and Asian continents was relatively rare globally. Both local and internationally authored articles reflect the frequent use of schools as settings of data collection, but local studies drew more participants from the general community and from universities, whereas international studies often collected data in participants' homes. The use of survey methods as a favoured data collection tool reiterates the concern about reductionist research methods voiced by Tolan et al. (1990) and Martin et al. (2004), as does the failure of the common analytic methods to 'capture context' (Luke, 2005). Both local and international CP scholars favoured the use of descriptive statistics, inferential statistics and content analysis, and neglected to use discourse analysis and interpretive analysis. Across local and international research, the absence of basic methodological indicators related to the characteristics of research participants (e.g. unspecified gender, education, employment, race/ethnicity) or procedures of data collection (e.g. unspecified settings) was concerning due to its implications for ignoring key demographic and contextual aspects of participants that may be relevant in interpreting research findings.

The concepts of prevention and promotion, as well as person-environment fit, were common in international and local research, reflecting more biomedical and clinical origins of CP. Local research drew more often on the concepts of social action and empowerment, whereas international research used more of the traditional individual psychological theories. Greater inclusion of the principles of social action is perhaps linked to the history of social activism in South Africa. However, structuralist theories and social psychological theories were very poorly represented in published work across contexts. For the most part, the theoretical trends observed show that scholars prefer traditional clinical and biomedical epistemologies to social scientific epistemologies. In particular, structuralist and social

psychological theories were neglected in international scholarship. This echoes the depoliticised, individualistic nature of CP scholarship and suggests that research in CP internationally shows greater proximity to the health sciences, than to the social sciences. Again, this echoes the salience of biomedical discourses rather than social understandings of human behaviour. For Luke (2005), this bias is rooted in the individual-level emphasis of the training of most community psychologists in clinical and general psychology, and scholarship in CP also reflects this as the historical orientation of the field (Martin et al., 2004).

While overarching trends were similar, some theoretical differences were found with respect to the concept of sense of community, which was only found in international research, and post-modern theories, which were only found in local studies. The lack of footing that the concept of sense of community has had in South Africa is an area for further investigation, but may be more popular in international CP scholarship due to the greater individualism of Western countries. The presence of some post-modern theories in South African CP reflects its historical basis and alignment with critical psychology scholarship.

In both local and international studies, mixed ethnic/racial groups were common. Both international and local research selected participants that were adults, adolescents or mixed age categories, of mixed gender, used female participants or did not specify the gender characteristics of the sample. Both also had a majority that did not focus on participants from a marginalised group. Where there was a focus on marginality, this was a shared emphasis on race and SES. Local studies highlighted marginality due to location to a greater extent, whereas marginality due to gender was far more present in international research. Both international and local studies used participants that were mostly from groups with a mixed educational background, at a secondary educational level or had an unspecified educational status. A focus on postgraduate level participants, and particularly the use of postgraduate psychology interns and Masters students was particularly characteristic of local studies, but did not feature in international research. Both local and international research selected mostly groups with a mixed employment status, used children/scholars as participants, or did not specify the employment status of their participants. Students or residents of particular neighbourhoods were often used as participants in both local and international research.

Both international and local studies neglected to research elderly populations. Specific studies exclusively on males were seldom found across contexts. Local studies also neglected to focus on women in comparison to international research. Given the high levels of gender inequality in South Africa, it may be that a focus on issues of race has eclipsed a

more gendered focus in CP. The presence of studies on unemployed or retired individuals was also scarce in both international and local literature, as were studies that used participants with low levels of education. Local and international studies shared a common level of neglect of groups marginalized by sexual orientation, disability, migration status, age and HIV status. Local studies more frequently looked at groups marginalised by location, suggesting the influence of Apartheid segregation by area in this country.

Overall, these trends suggest key areas of emphasis in the selection of research methods, topics and theories in current CP scholarship, as well as areas of marginality, over the years from 2000-2009. On the whole, the similarities in terms of areas of dominance and marginality between international and local published work in CP are considerable. This is particularly relevant, given the isolation of psychology in South Africa under apartheid. The results suggest that while there are elements of knowledge production that are especially sensitive to the realities of social, political, economic and geographical contexts in which this knowledge is produced, there are also other dimensions of context that are influential in published work, which should not be underestimated. These include intra-disciplinary forces and those inherent in academia that manifest in knowledge production. In line with Long (2013), the results of this comparison suggest that greater cognisance of the relationship between society and science is crucial in knowledge production, and this is evident within the field of CP. This dimension is especially relevant within the context of current debates and theorisation about the global role of a knowledge economy, and its implications for knowledge development in countries such as South Africa.

When one examines what CP is supposed to stand for, and what is revealed through an analysis of published work, there is a persistent "gap between the field's rhetoric and [its] research" (Novaco & Monahan, 1980, p. 131). For Bourdieu (1998), this would be no surprise, as he argues that there will always be a disjuncture between theory and practice. In this line, Novaco and Monahan (1980, p. 144) argue that the need for conceptual frameworks in CP raises the possibility that "community psychology is actually two fields", rather than a single one.

2.4. The Discourses of Community Psychology

As articulated in the discourses about CP identified in this study, the field of CP is a complex one, and one premised on a multitude of dominant narratives, as well as contradictions in these narratives that signify the conflicts between dominant and marginal positions. When examining these discourses, it is clear that they illustrate the power relations that underpin the field's 'recurring controversies' and that these are central to how

the field is constructed and sustained through knowledge production. The use of critical theory provides CP with a greater understanding of the broader social and historical influences that are implicated in perpetuating oppression (Davidson et al., 2006), including those that can be identified in published work. The discourses also illustrate the taken-for-granted knowledge in the field, and these should alert us to the workings of ideology. For instance, the uncontested political agenda of CP, and the legitimacy and the course of its emergence in the US, are such areas where we should allow more critical scrutiny. Foucault's work cautions us about accounts of history that suggest a rectilinear progression of events, as is present in psychology and CP (van Ommen & Painter, 2008). Such accounts can alert us to the presence of discursive mechanisms that serve to eliminate contradictions in understandings of history, and thus conceal power relations. For example, in the discourses evident in the construction of the political nature of CP in US and its alignment with the civil rights movement, as well as the global implications of the events at the Swampscott conference alert us to the ways in which such accounts may signal the power relations of a deeper political agenda. Such discourses about political alignment may also serve to expunge contemporary community psychologists with having to engage with issues of social responsibility and social injustice in present-day society. In the extracts about the future direction of CP that were analysed, we see several positions emerging in the discourses. The growth of the field is both threatening and desired. The 'new' directions in CP are necessary but potentially dangerous. The 'old' order brings a sense of stability but has ultimately failed to deliver on its mandate. CP practitioners should both be included in the field but also excluded. Inter-disciplinarity is both welcomed and rebuked. International scholars are needed but remain on the periphery. CPs location in mainstream psychology is both advantageous and limiting. All of the theories in CP are all equally endorsed, but some are more important than others. The identity of the field is at once established, contested and unknown. CP in the US dominates the field but fears being cast as dominating and losing its dominant position. The field is both stagnant and evolving. CP is both unique and unoriginal. CP is both powerful, but ultimately marginal within psychology. Scholars, especially those in CP in South Africa and other majority world countries, should be mindful of such narratives, as these may be uncritically reproduced in published work. There are conflicting interests evident in these meta-narratives which suggest that in its future development, CP needs to revisit the 'transformative concern' in the nature of the scholarly work it produces, and the implications of its epistemological choices for action (Davidson et al., 2006). This may involve reconsidering whether its original goals are

desirable or feasible, and whether there may be new ways of conceptualising its focus and role that principally focus on the analysis of power (Smail, 1994).

3. Emergent Conceptual Reflections

3.1. The Dimensions of Discipline and Context

The defining values and aspirations espoused in traditional CP literature construct a vision of the field's identity as one that is bold and unyielding in its challenge of the dominant hegemonic forces in psychology. This identity is predicated on the premise that CP is a controversial anomaly in an otherwise uniformly stagnant psychological discipline that is characterised by a depoliticised, decontextualised and individualised understanding of human life, gained through an over-reliance on and glorification of positivist methods of psychological inquiry (Seedat et al., 2004). In this account, CP emerges as the heroic protagonist in a tale of the quest for relevance in psychology in an otherwise politically barren disciplinary landscape. This pervasive rhetoric in CP is both "inspirational" and "grandiose" (Smail, 1994, p. 3). This role has been consistent in narratives of the history of international and local CP, where it is typically noted that CP emerged as a result of a confluence of socio-political shifts and the discontent with traditional psychology's relevance and ability to respond to pressing psychosocial issues (Stevens, 2007a). CP is thus a product of psychology's failure to transform in terms of theory and method, and its failure to acknowledge the influence of social factors in psychological phenomena foregrounded by unique changes in socio-political conditions (Seedat et al., 2004). It therefore represents the interaction of the forces of *discipline* and *context*. Through harnessing the momentum of contexts in transition, the field has captured a dialectical interface and tension between positions of dominance and marginality. This study takes these ideas and questions forward in a systematic mixed method examination of how they are manifested in contemporary knowledge production. This discussion engages with the ideas of context as represented in geographical location, but also with context as a social position in an academic knowledge field.

The formation of the field of CP has raised several critiques, which centre on notions that the field has simply served to absorb the criticisms against mainstream psychology, thus leaving mainstream psychology essentially unaltered (Painter, Terre Blanche, & Henderson, 2006). Here, it is important to foreground that the identity of CP is premised in articulation to mainstream psychology (Kagan et al., 2010), and does not exist without being situated as an intradisciplinary counterpoint. CP has retained its linkages to psychology, and never

severed its ties to psychological discourse (Smail, 1994). It has thus adopted a contradictory and contested position. As such, CP is bound within a frame of constructing a position of marginality in relation to psychology's dominance (Kagan et al., 2010). These tensions are manifested within the articulations and discourses surrounding its identity in published work. Like a planet in psychology's orbit, CP is still unable to escape the powerful gravitational pull of its parent discipline, and ultimately to traverse Rappaport's (2000) 'conceptual precipice' or follow Smail's (1994) call to 'de-psychologise' itself. Here, it is critical to note the position and functions the sub-discipline serves, as this role is strongly evoked in criticisms of CP itself. Examining CP through the lens of knowledge production reveals that the field is riddled with internal contradictions, and there are both continuities and discontinuities between predominant values, methods and aspirations of the field and those found within the sphere of knowledge production. In this line, Painter et al. (2006) argue that the rhetoric of CP can be interpreted as a radical re-configuration of an essentially conservative psychology. This discussion critically engages with dominance and marginality in terms of the dimensions of context and discipline in CP and the ways in which they coalesce in knowledge production.

In this study, sub-discipline has different dimensions that come to the fore in considering knowledge production, consumption and exchange in a globalised world. CP in South Africa is an offshoot of the broader discipline of psychology in South Africa, but also a derivative of CP internationally. Thus, the sub-discipline of CP refers to varied forms of the field exist across the globe, and also to psychology, locally and internationally. The study highlights the intersection of these components in knowledge production in the field. While knowledge production is only one form of the disciplinary expression of knowledge, it is one of the most significant. Whilst formal forums of knowledge production are not the only forms of knowledge that are valued, and much credence is given to local knowledge, experiential knowledge and co-constructed forms of knowledge within CP, scientific knowledge is a specific arena of knowledge that is subject to a disciplinary sanction. Within scholarly knowledge production, disciplinary processes are involved in the shaping, endorsing and gate keeping of the types of knowledge that are considered to be of value (Seedat, 1990). The process of following the mandates set out by journal specifications, authorship guidelines, peer review, editorial license, copy approval, and such expressions of scientific rigour and authority, all contribute to the formulation of the knowledge product. The acceptability of this product is solidified with the transfer of scientific status or indicators that express the worth and impact of this knowledge relative to other knowledge products. The specifications of the forms in which ideas are expressed are subject to the

exercise of disciplinary requirements and standards, as well as the parameters endorsed within a knowledge economy (ASSAF, 2010). Thus, academia and the workings of a knowledge economy are also the context for the emergence of and positioning of disciplinary knowledge (Long, 2013).

Chapter Eight engages with the first of these intersecting dimensions of discipline and context. This chapter distils the contribution of locally published CP publications in relation to local publications in the wider discipline of psychology. This analysis reflects knowledge produced in local journals, mostly by local authors for a local audience. Thus, it sketches the background of sub-discipline against the larger discipline, within a particular forum of knowledge production and geographical, material, and socio-political context. This analysis thus presents constancy in knowledge production context and socio-political context, with variation in juxtaposing sub-discipline against discipline.

Chapter Nine engages with knowledge production from a different coordinate of the intersection of discipline and context, looking at knowledge production in the international arena, and more specifically the Euro-American locus of CP knowledge production. This analysis foregrounds aspects of the sub-discipline in particular forums of knowledge production, illustrating both cross-cutting trends and the ways in which particular journals foreground specific types of knowledge. This allows for the emergence of intra-disciplinary differences to emerge within the realm of international publications, specifically foregrounding the features of knowledge produced within the American and European contexts.

Chapter Ten presents a further analysis that engages with the dimensions of discipline and context. Here, articles that fall within the same sub-discipline are structured in terms of being local and internationally authored, where context is defined by the author's national affiliation and position within a particular set of socio-political conditions. The aspects that are foregrounded in this analysis are comparisons by the identification of local or international location of authors.

Chapter Eleven focuses on the discourses that can be identified in international (US) CP that are present in published work. These discourses show the power relations that can be distilled in different epistemological positions, as well as the ideological features of the field relationship to practitioners, international scholars, scholars in other disciplines and marginalised groups. In highlighting such discourses, this chapter alerts us to the ways in which these manifest in published work and how they may be uncritically reproduced in other contexts. Thus, the chapter serves to illustrate how these discourses support and resist the status quo in CP.

Owing to different stages of disciplinary development, as well as substantive differences in material conditions and human resource capacities, CP's response to and engagement with psychology has some distinct qualities in South Africa when compared to international contexts that are worth highlighting and have significant implications in view of the results of this study. Particularly in the US, but also in other high-income countries, psychology is a far more developed and established discipline, as is CP. These include, but are not limited to, differences in the number of qualified psychologists, the existence of specialised doctoral training programmes, as well as the generation journals and books, and other forums for knowledge exchange such as conferences and symposia. Both psychology and CP in the US have all of these hallmarks of formal disciplinary identity. The founders of the sub-discipline in the US were quick to recognise the importance of embedding the fledgling field within independent forums of scientific knowledge production. The journals included in this study are some of the dedicated forums of knowledge production in the field, and the AJCP and JCP have particular historical relevance (Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010a). Formal CP knowledge products in South Africa are still found in mainstream psychological journals, and no doctoral programmes exist. South African textbooks of CP have only emerged more recently (e.g. Ratele et al., 2004; Seedat et al., 2001; Visser, 2007b; Duncan, et al., 2007). CP internationally and CP in South Africa have largely operated in relative isolation from each other, along with the isolation of psychology more generally (Cooper & Nicholas, 2012). Here, international CP is the dominant player both historically and in terms of the continued dominance within formal knowledge domains. Most journals of CP are housed internationally, and, as indicated in the present study are populated by the work of international scholars, predominantly from the US, Europe and Australia. Thus, international CP and local CP represent sub-disciplines in separate geographical contexts. Despite this, these disciplines still engage with, reflect, and reproduce aspects of each other. However, this process is not reciprocal and mutual. Western knowledge forms still prevail and ensure their dominance.

This raises the question as to whether South African CP is simply an echo of Western dominant views. For the most part, there is evidence from this study that there are substantial similarities between articles published in international and South African journals, in terms of features that are dominant and features that are marginal. This is cause for concern for South African scholars, but may also be a feature of its attempt at entry into the global arena of knowledge production. However, there are particularities in South African CP, such as the issues that emerged around racial markers. There are few studies in South Africa that provide a careful examination of knowledge production. The field of CP,

although relatively smaller, adopted a strong political position that has served it well in navigating the challenges of a transitional South Africa. Thus, CP has situated itself in opposition, within dynamics between individual and social, mainstream and periphery, dominant and marginal. It occupies a pivotal position in a dialectical debate about the forces at play in understanding the interplay between the individual and society at large.

3.2. The Author

Like many other studies have found (e.g. Lounsbury et al., 1980; Martin et al., 2004; Seedat et al., 2004; Speer et al., 1992), the author in CP scholarship is an academic. Bonds with other institutions are rare, but more common in international (largely minority world) community scholarship, reflecting the greater union of science and state in post-industrial countries (Rappaport, 2005), and greater complexity in institutional configurations and institutional relationships. Where bonds exist, they more commonly form between academics and government institutions, rather than between the academics and civil society. However, for the most part, the academic community psychologist operates either independently or in cooperation with others within an autonomous academic field (Bourdieu, 1988). Like Bourdieu (1988) suggests this trend reflects that scholarly publication serves a primarily academic function in service to the imperatives of science, and shows both social engagement and social disinterest. International scholarship reflects a greater tendency for large collaborative authorship arrangements, suggesting a greater presence of funded large-scale research projects in which authorship is more formalised and also systematically acknowledged. In this regard, community psychologists should engage with the ways in which the social and community responsibility aspects of their work can be enhanced.

Whilst this study does not contain comparative data regarding the demographic details and characteristics of authors from international studies, local data suggests that authorship in CP is decidedly white and in psychology, especially, is male dominated. This has been evident in several other studies of race and gender in psychology (e.g. Duncan et al., 2004; Shefer et al., 2004). Whilst the profession of psychology and the collective authorship in psychology is largely white, there are some notable gender disparities. In line with Seedat et al. (2004) there seems to be greater representation of women in CP than the rest of psychology. However in a largely feminised profession, the male domination of forums knowledge production is indicative of the continuation of patriarchal power inherent in authorship and institutional knowledge production (Shefer et al., 2004).

3.3. The Nature of Publication

As found in previous studies of this kind, the CP scholar in contemporary forums of knowledge production is foremost an empiricist. Empirical work in the form of empirical articles and empirical case studies are the preferred contributions of this author in both local and international contexts. In the collective body of work examined in this study, a similar proportion of work in the field is empirical in both local and international scholarship and thus there is uniformity in this aspect of discipline. This is significant, especially given the vastly different positions occupied by South African scholars in a knowledge economy, and the vastly different stage of disciplinary development that is evident, especially in comparison to countries like the US that is predominantly represented in the international cohort. This suggests that discipline has a wide reaching influence on the nature of published work, regardless of vast disparities in context as well as in disciplinary historicity.

In the international and local arenas, the empirical work generated by the CP scholar is still largely positivist. However, it is notable that qualitative and mixed methodological approaches are more common than in previous trend analyses. In the local domain, there is exists slightly greater variation in the hierarchies of methodological approach. However, across contexts, empirical research is mainly positivist or interpretive, reflecting that the author in this field selects a traditional approach to science in generating knowledge products, and one that does not interrogate the existing social order. Again interpretive perspectives are predominantly content rather than theory driven. This is evident in the large proportion of studies that utilise forms of content analysis as an analytic technique that is devoid of rootedness within a qualitative epistemology. Often this qualitative research is simply reported thematically and sometimes even the data is reconfigured in quantitative form, in preference to using narrative, ethnographic, phenomenological or discourse analytic methods of data analysis. Theory-driven qualitative research is typically nested within theoretical strands related to prevention and ecology. Mixed method research typically attempts to marry positivist with more qualitative content analysis rather than adopting critical qualitative approaches.

Contrary to the stated ideals of the field, the author in CP scholarship is not foremost a critical social commentator, but shows a clear preference for bio-medical epistemologies related to public health, ecological theories or individualist psychological interpretations. Critical, social, political, and economic theories are rarely utilised to understand community phenomena. This shows the much closer alliance between CP and mainstream psychology, as well as between community psychology and the allied health fields. This shows the

enduring nature of the origins of CP in clinical psychology and community mental health. This suggests that where CP will end, was already dictated by where and how it began.

Methods used to serve the research agenda are uniform in CP. These are typically the use of standardised tests and scales, surveys and structured interviews and focus group discussions. Participatory methods are predominantly found in case studies, and not in empirical articles. Thus, the use of participatory methods is linked to reporting on experiences within specific applied projects, rather than being a feature of the research endeavour more generally. In this sense, one can detect a separation between the methods used in 'real world' and academic CP. The empiricist role appears to cast the community psychologist in the traditional role of scientist in which social problems or community phenomena of interest are regarded with a traditional distanced, hierarchical and objective stance, and in this role, traditional positivist methods are preferred.

Whilst some forms of knowledge, like empirical articles, seem to be more stable, other forms of knowledge in the field are changing. In an empirically dominated domain, theoretical work is a somewhat feint presence, and the literature review and methodological contributions are disappearing. The presence of theoretical contributions is uncommon in the field, again suggesting the reification of empirical scientific work. In particular, the presence of articles that include social theory and theory that addresses structural inequality remains virtually absent. This suggests again that biomedical understandings of people have been extended into the community sphere, and that the influence of psychology's allegiance to biomedical sciences has permeated CP and infiltrated context. Theoretical contributions are less about social critique.

The review article is perhaps a relic of a pre-information society age of scholarship, increasingly becoming redundant in the present era of unprecedented access to technology, where through Internet search engines, an instantaneous literature review is accessible to anyone, on any topic, at any time. The author in CP scholarship is not a critical empiricist, and is likewise not a critically orientated theorist. In the forms of knowledge produced by scholars in the field, the structure of the social order in which communities are located is largely un-interrogated. Rather, the social order is reduced to a carefully delineated set of predicting, moderating and outcome variables, and thematic observations or interpretations. Data is collected from the most advanced economic epicentres or regions in the world, illustrating that symbolic capital in academia follows material capital closely. Scholars in the international context are largely concerned with the empirical investigation of their own context, as are local scholars, although more local scholars gravitate to international

contexts than vice versa, reflecting the migration of advanced career South African scholars to more advanced economies.

In forums of knowledge production within CP, we see a clearly occidental dominance. Three quarters of our knowledge in international CP scholarship emanates from authors located in North America, and the groups investigated are also largely based in the US. The social categorisation of groups investigated reflects this, as many demographic features of participants have relevance only in the US, and the most differentiated demographic aspects found in the data relate to categorisation by race and income that has specific relevance in this context. This highlights how the economic dominance of the US is reflected in a knowledge economy through the dominance of knowledge production. After the US, contextual location is dominated by the work of scholars in Western Europe and Australia. In the AJCP and JCP, which are described as "journals reflective of the field of community psychology" (Loo et al., 1988, p. 334), and "the best sources of representative research in community psychology" (Angelique & Culley, 2003), the continents of Africa, Latin America, the Middle East and Asia are relatively absent both in authorship representation and as a focus of scholarly investigation. In knowledge production spheres, CP is most representative of individualist western contexts, and thus reproduces patterns of western ideological and disciplinary dominance. Whilst this is not only historically entrenched, in contemporary demands of a knowledge economy, several of the international journals investigated (e.g. AJCP and JCP) are typically held as a benchmark for scholars in developing nations as a marker of quality in the scientific enterprise due to their ISI accreditation.

In journals produced and located in Euro-American contexts within more advanced or post-industrial economies, we see slightly different manifestations of institutional relationships among authors, as perhaps anticipated in the context of debates about Mode 1 and Mode 2 knowledge production in these societies. Here, there are some indications of the role of context in shaping knowledge production. Although complex institutional arrangements are not pervasive and typical, we still see more institutional variation and more complex intra-institutional and inter-institutional bonds in the affiliations of international authors publishing in international journals than are evident in South African journals or among South African authors publishing in international journals. This should alert us to the ways in which knowledge domains as institutions outside of academia influence or authorise forums of science, and the ways in which science has infiltrated and connected different institutions. Drawing on Paul Feyerbend's scholarship on the philosophy of science (Feyerbend, 1975; 1979), Rappaport (2005) argues that the union of

science and state poses one of the most significant challenges to academic freedom. Rappaport (2005) continues by critiquing the ways in which the imperatives of government are influential in dictating the methodological choices of academics, and highlights how this can be detrimental to work that is more critically orientated. For Rappaport (2005, p. 234), this relationship "is a very convenient [one] for certain elites". Here, Rappaport (2005) reminds us that science can be used to serve bureaucratic and largely conservative agendas. If academic freedom is to be defended, in the form of rejecting the bonds between science systems and the state, are there any ways in which scholars can be held accountable for reproducing patterns of scientific dominance that are beyond the influence of these institutions? This raises questions about whether there should be more active engagement around the production of knowledge, the conscious contestation and critique of the institutional arrangements, and the possibilities of scholarship to be held to ransom by vested interests in the guise of scientific credibility or public accountability. Perhaps academics should be more vigilant of the subtle and insidious ways in which the external bodies and agendas may shape knowledge production in the guise of quality assurance.

In terms of settings selected in empirical studies, CP has shifted its locus of operation. With CP originally being primarily associated with community mental health services, and the decentralisation of psychiatric and psychological services (Pretorius-Heuchert & Ahmed, 2001; Seedat et al., 2004), research in this field has diversified its focus and reach, which can be seen in the selection of a more extensive range of settings in which research is conducted. In addition to retaining some presence in clinic or hospital settings, signalling its origins in the clinical psychology tradition, contemporary scholarship in CP now focuses on individuals outside of the 'clinic', and contemporary research is more strongly located predominantly in secondary and tertiary educational settings or in residential or general communal areas near where people live and work. On one level, this may suggest a shift away from the medicalisation of the field towards its deployment and engagement in more every day, naturalistic settings (Martin et al., 2004). However, its empirical focus, preferred methodologies and theoretical choices suggest that this medicalisation has simply been transposed into new settings, and that the characteristics of this work have simply been extended further and have not fundamentally changed from its original community mental health orientation. Once typified by a shift in setting from hospital to community clinic, the field now appears to have permeated other community spaces. The 'clinic' has extended its reach and now operates in educational institutions as well as in the naturalistic settings such as the places people live, work, move and are at leisure. They are even in the privacy of participants' homes, where everyday people are

sourced through carefully delineated neighbourhood surveys, and more recently, in the form of the Internet.

However, when it comes to the settings chosen by researchers, there are some differences between local and international research. The accessing of participants in the home context is far less evident in South African CP scholarship, with a few exceptions being more rural settings and underdeveloped areas. Perhaps this can be seen to signify important historical and socio-economic aspects of context within this body of work. Large-scale neighbourhood surveys of the kind typically found in US studies is labour intensive, costly and requires the use of pre-existing infrastructure and administrative systems, such as telephonic and address databases. This is far less evident in local research, perhaps because this research infrastructure is often lacking in many South African communities, as are reliable population estimates, particularly in more disadvantaged or rural areas. In addition, issues of crime and concern for safety in South Africa potentially also play a role in the willingness of researchers to enter into the homes of participants, and the willingness of participants to let strangers into their homes. In local studies, historical racial segregation has also meant that researchers in CP, who often hail from more privileged backgrounds, would often enter into relatively unfamiliar spaces when conducting research. Here, neighbourhood studies would require researchers to traverse racialised divides and venturing into unfamiliar social and geographical territory, the most intimate of which is the home of the participant. Thus, in local CP research, we find scholars more likely to access participants from communal or public spaces rather than private residential spaces.

In examining the types of publications generated by CP scholars, there are clearly tensions in the ways in which community psychologists conduct research and the imperatives of community practice. The present analysis shows varied positions adopted by scholars in negotiating the roles of researcher and the practitioner, and highlights some of the dilemmas this poses in the field of knowledge production. When published work is empirical, authors adopt a positivist paradigm in an effort to gain the credibility of the scientific method (Novaco & Monahan, 1980). However, the subjective often enters in a different knowledge format – the case study. In some ways these knowledge forms compete for legitimacy within journals, although empiricism emerges as the clear winner.

CP needs to engage with its habitus and how it reproduces itself in particular knowledge forms, and consider more substantively what the role and the authority of the author is in CP. All of these questions attest to an impossible task of marrying such vastly different agendas and attempting to render these coherent. However, the dominant narratives in the field function to conceal its inherent epistemological contradictions. For

Bourdieu (2004), 'epistemic reflexivity' is the key to maintaining greater vigilance about falling into the trap of serving the agendas of power elites in society. The role of the author in a critically oriented, social scientific field is to engage with these tensions reflexively rather than to uncritically reproduce them (Bourdieu, 2004). The prevailing perspectives in CP theorising about power have framed the way we speak about CP and communities. The study highlights the universe of theories and methodologies that are brought to bear on theorising about communities, and these are, for the most part, decidedly asocial and uncritical. In fact, the absence of social, critical or political theory informing contemporary scholarship is alarming. However, for some theorists like Smail (1994. p. 6) "political action is not a matter for a professional elite, but for citizenry itself". Smail (1994) argues that it is impossible for psychologists to distance themselves from their own power to pursue the interests of others, rather than their own self-interests. As psychologists, we "have to remind ourselves constantly of the limitations inherent in our own role and social position" (Smail, 1994, p. 6), and that we are not any more effective than any other social group in creating change. Nevertheless, the knowledge produced by scholars who adopt the intellectual role has a crucial function in any society, and therefore it has implications for teaching, practice, policy as it related to how we conceptualise communities.

3.4. Marginality and Marginalisation

The study engages with issues of marginality and processes of social marginalisation, as one of the defining features of the sub-discipline (Angelique & Culley, 2007; Nelson & Prilleltensky, 2010b; Seedat et al., 2001). Whilst marginality occurs in different forms across methods, theories, and groups, specific conceptual issues can be raised regarding the analysis of marginalised groups. Firstly, by looking for marginalised groups, it should be acknowledged that the study paradoxically reinforces notions of marginality. Thus, we must critically engage with the ways in which research of this nature also re-entrenches our understandings of existing social categories (Shirley, 2010). This analysis also raises the question as to what proportion of research on marginalised groups would be considered an adequate focus on this issue in CP. For instance, should CP only focus on marginalised groups? In considering trends that focus on the presence of marginalised groups, the context in which research is conducted is especially instructive in this regard, and plays a key role in the interpretation of such data. While more than half of research in CP in South Africa focussed on a marginalised group, it is also important to compare this finding in relation to the demographic features of the population. It is also clear from the analysis of marginalisation that the categories of marginalisation may be shifting to include a wider

range of groups and issues than were previously considered in knowledge production (e.g. migrants or HIV positive individuals). Of key concern in this study, was the potential for marginality to entirely disappear in use of large-scale epidemiological surveys with mixed populations. Thus, researchers need to be vigilant about the ways in which the choice of methodology used can conceal layers of marginalisation.

3.5. Fusion Methodology and the Reproduction of Disciplinary Habitus

This study emphasises the inter-connectedness of the quantitative and qualitative findings that were generated using a critical theoretical paradigm. Through using this approach, the research has engaged with and challenged traditional notions of research paradigm and method. It has attempted to demonstrate how different research methods can be used in complementary ways to generate more novel insights into knowledge production than could be produced by either perspective alone. I have presented calculable results of trends in knowledge production in the quantitative analysis chapters, whilst simultaneously adding to and disrupting these insights through using critical discursive analysis of selected texts. This study illustrates how mutually reinforcing the methodological principles of both holism and particularism are (Langhout, 2003), through their use in a mixed methodological study. As Feis (1990) argues, research methods should not be viewed dichotomously. A view of research methods as mutually exclusive is inappropriate for CP. This thesis has sought to extend the ways of researching knowledge production in CP that are often limited by the 'habitus' and 'doxa' of a discipline (Bourdieu, 1988). In applying a critical empirical lens to the published work of contemporaries in CP, this study uses the constructs and frames of reference in CP itself to bring about greater reflexivity about the dominant and marginal epistemologies in the field.

Theoretical choices in CP publications reflect the inter-disciplinarity of the field. Inter-disciplinarity is expected in a socially oriented field since "social problems do not respect disciplinary boundaries" (Sandler & Keller, 1984 cited in Feis, 1990, p. 202) and the answers to social problems similarly cannot be found within a single academic discipline (Feis, 1990). Diversity of theory and methodology is espoused as a valued component of the field that should be cultivated, along with flexibility, creativity and the use of innovative methodological approaches (Feis, 1990).

4. Strengths and Limitations of the Study

Several methodological strengths and limitations of the study can be noted, which are typical of studies of this nature. Generalisability is limited to the parameters of the dataset

and the coordinates determined by the time frame and journals selected for analysis. First, it is important to mention the limitations associated with the selection of journals included in the study. As illustrated in the analysis, the choice of journals has direct bearing on the types of findings generated. Whilst every effort was made to be more inclusive of a range of journals than have previous studies of this nature, the study does not incorporate all possible journals and all possible articles in CP, and for this reason, findings are limited in their generalisability. However, the study's dataset is much more extensive in magnitude and in number of journals included, than any identified study of this nature. This serves to minimise within-journal variations. The study thus arguably succeeds in presenting a more inclusive perspective on CP knowledge production, especially representing scholarship form Africa. Similarly, the findings are limited by the selection of the specific time parameters of the study, which were concentrated on a specific decade of published research. This time period represents a compromise between the selection of a few focus areas over more lengthy time periods and more content coverage within the dataset in a shorter time frame. In part, the pragmatics of analysis in relation to the proportion of research published informed the time parameters. Nevertheless, the study includes a substantial body of work. This in itself presented further challenges. Given that such an extensive corpus of published work was selected, meant that the analysis could not be exhaustive, and it was constantly necessary grapple with the tension between breadth and depth of inquiry. Invariably, this was an area in which the study sought to balance presenting the broad overarching patterns in knowledge production with the finer textual analysis of a critical discursive approach to analysing the data.

Whilst the study could have been extended in the direction of additional quantitative analysis, or alternatively additional close qualitative analyses, this research represents both a compromise between and an integration of these imperatives. The study has worked not only to highlight aspects of published work, but also to stimulate further engagement with this area of knowledge inquiry. The study embodies the author's synthesis of the collective contribution to knowledge generated from previous studies across temporal and geographical contexts, as well as her approach brought to bear on the selection, grouping, and analysis of the data itself. The methodology employed introduces aspects of subjectivity, both in the creation of variables and data sources that have never been explored in this manner, and in presenting some that have been routinely investigated but never in this combination. The insights generated from the data offer a current, overarching perspective on CP, both locally and internationally, and have value in identifying potential areas for further study, in terms of both subject matter and methodological choices. They

also extend our understanding beyond the trends in knowledge production in CP, into the realm of knowledge re-production, as well as highlight both the temporal, geographical and ideological aspects of scholarship.

5. Potential Trajectories for Future Research

There are several potential directions for future research that emerge from this study. Each of the study's coordinates, and its limitations mentioned above, lends itself to continued investigation. This includes extending parameters such as the time period investigated, the choice of data sources, and the methodology employed. However, the most pressing areas that require further investigation are those that will serve a critical agenda. Firstly, it would be useful to conduct further analyses on the social construction of difference in published work. This could include the construction of socially marginalised and socially dominant groups defined by race, gender, disability, sexual orientation, age and migration status, as well as the ways in which these dimensions intersect. More research on the representation of neglected groups in CP is also warranted. In terms of theoretical trends, further investigation of the historical development of specific theoretical constructs and methodologies in CP, and the discourses and ideologies employed within these choices, is needed. Here, it would also be useful to explore why specific theories and methods are neglected or silenced. In a South African context, it would be particularly interesting to conduct a discursive analysis of locally published CP texts.

An analysis of specific social issues along a more lengthy time continuum would also prove informative. Along the lines of Shirley's (2010) study of the representation of HIV in community research, it would be useful to investigate the ways in which social phenomena, such as violence, crime, poverty, homelessness and substance abuse have been studied over time from a CP perspective. Further exploring intersections between social marginality and social problems, as well as the critical analysis of constructions of marginalised groups in CP articles, would be fruitful. Additional areas of exploration in the domain of knowledge production would be to further investigate the role of trend analysis studies themselves in reproducing and contesting the central tensions in the field that are foregrounded in this report.

6. Implications for Community Psychology

This research highlights several questions and imperatives that community psychologists should critically and reflexively engage with. Firstly, it is incumbent upon scholars in the field to acknowledge the ways in which the academic enterprise is situated within a

knowledge economy and the ways in which this influences the knowledge we produce, and its role in society. This places scholars in the position of foregrounding the tensions that exist between accountability to communities and accountability to the academe. It is these tensions that come to the fore, due to the competing interests at play in the nature of academic work. Here, this research suggests that community psychologists should resist the commodification of knowledge into forms that reproduce acontextual, apolitical understandings of communities; develop our social theoretical base so that we can better account for how social-political structures and histories in different societies influence our understanding of community life; open up more discussion about the ideological basis of values in CP and debate the viability of the stated ideals of the field; and maintain fidelity to a critical and transformative project through the inclusion of critical social theories and critically oriented methodologies. Community psychologists within academia need to recognise these imperatives in the published formats of our work, and maintain a greater connection to practical community work. We also need to be attuned to trends within the field and alert to the underlying ideological reasons for neglected methods, theories, groups and areas of research.

7. Significance of the Study

Like Macleod and Howell (2013), this study views psychology as a discipline embedded in power relations, and holds that knowledge production should attempt to address power imbalances and social inequalities. Theorising about knowledge production in CP has both intra-disciplinary and inter-disciplinary importance, as well as ultimate significance for its role in society. The study follows in the tradition set forth by several international and local scholars in the field. However, whilst acknowledging this foundation, the study builds steadily on this work in several respects. The study introduces some distinctive foci such as local-international comparisons; utilises a more inclusive selection of journals in its dataset; includes novel variables and variable combinations; and maintains a comprehensive perspective across multiple domains of interest simultaneously. Its comprehensive parameters have given support to the trends observed and conclusions drawn. Its emphasis on providing a critical perspective in CP scholarship contributes not only a better understanding of what these trends are, but to understanding how power dynamics are reproduced in the theories, topics, and methods of published work, across contexts. This is especially important for foregrounding the under-representation of marginalised groups, as well as highlighting the features of knowledge production that are contextual versus intra-disciplinary, and maintaining an emphasis on issues of dominance and marginality -

distinctions that have not been explored previously. This has ultimate significance for the future development of CP across contexts, and developing new ways of thinking about community work. The broad coverage of the study will appeal to a wide academic audience, but also has implications for training and practice of community practitioners. Its findings can potentially contribute to an alternative view of contemporary and future developments in CP, opening up the possibilities for new discourses about the field, its ideological base and its desired trajectory to emerge.

8. Conclusion

After the process of closely categorising and analysing knowledge produced in CP, I end this thesis precisely where I began. Seeking to question the identity, foci and values of CP, and the theories and methods employed by the field, is indeed, not a novel endeavour, but one that I have argued is intrinsic to the competing power relations that constitute this field. This research has taken me through this very journey, in which I have similarly been complicit in reproducing the revolving cycle of disciplinary – contextual introspection that sits at the core of CP. I have sought to demonstrate this process is an important but also highly fraught one, especially if the wider intrinsic and extrinsic relations of power informing knowledge production are acknowledged. This thesis supports the notion of the need for epistemic reflexivity. However, we should all the while be mindful of how we, even unwittingly, may recapitulate the status quo in this process, and foreclose on possibilities for alternative narratives and understandings, about the field to exist. Therefore, it is necessary to recognise and foreground the enactments of power through examining patterns of dominance and marginality, and to be mindful of the ways in which published work reflects and entrenches power imbalances. This thesis shows that even a well-intentioned effort, needs to remain vigilant to its complicity in the ideologies of social exclusion and how these may insidiously enter publications. This research has shown that attention to patterns of dominance and marginality in CP scholarship, the exploration of new methodological approaches for exploring relations of power, and the analysis of knowledge production across contexts, can open up and stimulate different understandings of the field that may create innovative possibilities. In so doing, this study reiterates Rappaport's (2005, p. 232) view: "To the extent that we provide alternatives and analyses that are intellectually and morally compelling, the field will make unique contributions to scholarship, research and action".

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Appendix A. Additional Community-Related Journals

Table A 1. *Summary of Additional Community-Related Journals Reviewed in Journal Selection*

Journal Name (Place of Origin)	**Institution/ Publisher**	**Area of Focus in Journal Description**	**Disciplinary Emphasis**
Australian Community Psychologist (AUS)	Australian Psychological Society	Work relevant to community psychologists and others interested in the field	Community Psychology
Community Development Journal (UK)	Oxford University Press	Political, economic and social programmes, which link people with institutions and government; theory and practice of policies, programmes and methods, covering community action, village, town and regional planning, community studies and rural development	Social Sciences Development Studies
Community Mental Health Journal (US)	Springer	Improvement of public sector services for people affected by or at risk for severe mental disorders, serious emotional disturbances and/or addictions	Community Mental Health
Community, Work & Family (UK)	Routledge	Interconnected and contested nature of communities, work organizations and communities, social and organizational change	Social Sciences
Family & Community History (UK/Ireland)	Community Historical Research Society	Studies of family and household structures, family life cycles, family roles, kinship relationships, social networks, and religious/ occupational communities in the UK and Ireland	History Social Sciences Sociology
Family & Community Health (US)	Lippincott, Williams & Wilkins	Multidisciplinary perspectives and approaches for effective public health programmes in a wide variety of population groups; topic based	Paediatrics Epidemiology Public Health
Journal of Health & Social Behaviour (US)	American Sociological Association	Application of sociological concepts and methods to the understanding of health, illness, and medicine in social context	Medical Sociology

Journal of Primary Prevention (US)	Vermont Conference on Primary Prevention/ Springer	Primary prevention theory, practice and research on promoting mental health and social/emotional functioning, prevention of negative outcomes and programme evaluation	Public Health
Journal of Rural Community Psychology (US)	Marshall University	Dissemination of information related to the sociological, psychological and mental health issues in rural and small community settings	Community Psychology Sociology Community Mental Health
Journal of Social Issues (US)	Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues	Application of behavioural and social science theory on human and social problems; social topic based	Social Psychology Social Sciences
Prevention Science (US)	Society for Prevention Research/ Springer	New developments in the theory, research and practice of prevention, including etiological, epidemiological and intervention issues with regard to social and health problems	Public Health
The School Community Journal (US)	Academic Development Institute	Scholarly inquiry, discussion and reportage of topics related to the community of the school, including teachers, students, parents and staff	Sociology of Education

Appendix B. Overview of International Empirical Studies of Knowledge Production in Community Psychology

Table B1. *International Empirical Studies of Knowledge Production in Community Psychology*

Author(s)	Names of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Angelique & Culley (2000)	• American Journal of Community Psychology Journal of Community Psychology	Titles and abstracts	1973-1997 (25)	Community Psychology	*Gender* • Women relevance in topics • Feminist content • Diversity issues in women relevant articles (class, race, sexual orie**n**tation, urban-rural, disability)	Selected 214 abstracts that were women relevant, then determined 64 were feminist. Looked at themes within these abstracts and report frequencies
Angelique & Culley (2003)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Titles and abstracts	1973-2000 (28)	Community Psychology	*Gender* • Gender conscious and feminist content • Power asymmetries • Contextual analyses • Competencies and macro-level determinants • Gender and intersecting identities (race, sexual orientation, class, disabilities)	Extension of study above – used 64 feminist articles from previous analysis, added 25 to yield 89 abstracts. No male-related gender studies included. Qualitative descriptive thematic analysis.
Angelique, Rodriguez, Culley, Brown, & Binette (2013)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Titles, abstracts and articles	1973-2010 (37)	Community Psychology	*Social power* • Individual-level power • Group-level power • Structural analyses of power • Historical shifts in conceptualisation of power over time	Selected 96 articles using a keyword search of the word power in abstracts and titles. Reports on descriptive statistics and identified 4 themes in research on power using frequencies and thematic analysis

Author(s)	Names of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Bernal & Enchautegui-de-Jesus (1994)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1973-1992 (20)	Community Psychology	*Ethnicity* (*Latino/Latinas*) • Ethnic minority groups • Latino/Latina group • Author ethnicity • Percentage of ethnic minority content	Selected 1851 articles, and content analysed frequencies and percentage ranges for ethnic group, and conducted a thematic qualitative analysis for topics in 110 articles on Latinos/Latinas
Boyd & Angelique (2002)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Titles and abstracts	1977-2000 (24)	Organisational psychology Community psychology	*Organisational studies* • Organisational psychology authors in community scholarship • Articles with a community and organisation-related focus • Theoretical orientation • Ecological level • Topics • Trends over time	Assessed overall publication rate of organisational articles for the years 1977 to 2000. Searched all titles and abstracts selected 41 studies on organisational issues and conducted a quantitative analysis of themes and topics from 1988-2000.
Boyd (2014)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Titles and articles	2001-2011	Organisational psychology Community psychology	*Organisational studies* • Organisational psychology authors in community scholarship • Articles with a community and organisation-related focus • Organisational setting • Organisational concepts • Organisational theory • Trends over time	Assessed overall publication rate of organisational articles for the years 2001 to 2011. Searched all titles over the time period. Selected 252 studies on organisational issues for a more detailed quantitative content analysis of each construct and trends over time.

Author(s)	Names of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Davidson et al. (2006)	• Annual Review of Critical Psychology • Critical Sociology • Critical Studies in Media Communication • Radical Pedagogy • Radical Philosophy • Radical Teacher • Review of Radical Political Economics	Published articles	1992-2001 (10)	Interdisciplinary	*Power, oppression, social action* <u>Power:</u> • Theory of power • Reference of power • Analysis of oppression • Examples of oppression • Power in interventions <u>Social action:</u> • Recommendation for change • Action for change • Not applicable	Used a rating scale (absent, low, medium, high) to evaluate 70 articles (10 from each journal) on the extent to which authors addressed each construct, as well as the sub-type of the construct addressed. Provides tables on rating results and general thematic commentary on the implications for CP.
Duncan (1991b)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology • Health Psychology • Psychology and Health	Published articles	1988-1989 (2)	Community Psychology & Health Psychology	*Topic* • Comparison in topic between community and health psychology	Quantitative content analysis of topics with reporting of top ten percentages of topics for each journal.
Graham & Ismail (2011)	• Journal of Community Psychology	Abstracts	2003-2007 (5)	Community Psychology	*Topic and method* • Article type • Paradigm and method • Topic area • Participant characteristics (race/ethnicity, gender, age)	Quantitative content analysis of 245 abstracts with frequencies and percentages

Author(s)	Names of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Ismail (2008)	• Journal of Community Psychology	Abstracts	2003-2007 (5)	Community Psychology	*Topic and method* • Article type • Paradigm and methods • Topic area • Participant characteristics (race/ethnicity, gender, age) • SA authors and SA samples	Quantitative content analysis of 245 abstracts with frequencies as reported in the above study, but also reflects the number of studies by SA authors and studies using SA samples in the same dataset
Gutierrez (2010)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1973-2007 (34)	Community Psychology	*Diversity* • Gender, race, disability and sexual orientation • Trends over time	
Leonard, Pokorny, Patka, Adams, & Morello (2007)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles and citations	1973-2004 (32)	Community Psychology	*Institutional ranking and influence* • No. of articles published • Institution's ranking • Institution's impact score through citation indices • Trends over time	Chose 1132 articles and reported publication frequency and scientific influence of each institution and rank ordered these in 3 decade long time periods
Loo, Fong, & Iwamasa (1988)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Community Mental Health Journal • Journal of Community Psychology	Titles and abstracts	1965-1985 (20)	Community Psychology	*Cultural diversity* • Differences between journals • Trends over time • Types of articles	Selected 1883 articles and examined the presence of cultural markers using a quantitative content analysis.

Author(s)	Names of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Lounsbury, Leader, & Meares (1980)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1973-1978 (5)	Community Psychology	*Authorship, topic, method* • Author region and affiliation • Topic area • Purpose of article • Participant age and gender • Research design • Measures and types of variable • Trends over time	Selected 478 empirical articles and content analysed quantitatively, and reports Chi Square values.
Lounsbury, Roisum, Pokorny, Sills, & Meissen (1979)	• Community Mental Health Journal	Published articles	1965-1977 (12)	Community Mental Health, Community Psychology, Community Psychiatry, Social Work, Clinical Psychology	*Topic* • Article topics • Trends over time (4 x 4-year periods)	Coded 604 articles for topic, excluding book reviews and announcements. Used multiple response coding. Reports rank order, frequencies and percentages for overall categories, and sub-categories.
Luke (2005)	• American Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1981-1983 & 2001-2003 (6)	Community Psychology	*Article method* • Article type • Statistical technique usage in empirical articles • Trends over time (2 x 3-year periods)	Coded 144 articles and 160 articles in each time period for article type. Conducted a quantitative content analysis of the 215 empirical articles, and presented comparison of frequencies and percentages in each period.
Martin, Lounsbury, & Davidson (2004)	• American Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1993-1998 (5)	Community Psychology	*Theory and method* • Author characteristics (gender, race, age, SCRA) • Participant affiliation • Research topic • Research design • Dependent variables	Selected a random sample of 132 articles from a total of 244; excluded all non-empirical articles then conducted a quantitative content analysis on 106 with percentages.

Author(s)	Names of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
McClure, Cannon, Belton, D'Ascoli, Sullivan, Allen, Conner, Stone, & McClure (1980)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology • Community Mental Health Journal • Journal of Applied Social Psychology	Published articles	1975-1978 (4)	Community Psychology, Social Psychology, Community Mental Health	*Topic, method and authorship* • Author 's conceptual framework based on four typologies comprising level of intervention and form of intervention • Individual/small group level vs. community/organisational level • Deficit remediation vs. competency enhancement • Methodological design • Trends per journal	Used a stratified random sampling procedure to select a sample of 176 articles, with equal proportions from each journal; and excluded all articles not presenting new conceptual models or new data. Conducted quantitative content analysis with descriptive statistics.
Novaco & Monahan (1980)	• American Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1973-1978 (5)	Community Psychology	*Content, theory and method* • Article type • Theoretical linkage (direct, indirect, none) • Hypothesis formulation • Institutional setting • Procedural focus • Design of study • Prevention level • Focus on deficits and/or competencies	Coded 235 articles for articles type and then coded 168 empirical articles for the remaining variables. Conducted a quantitative content analysis with Chi Square associations
Sasao & Yasuda (2007)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology • Japanese Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1997-2003 (5)	Community Psychology	*Topic and method* • Article type • Article topic • Research design • Setting • Outcome variable • Trends over time	Coded 36 empirical articles from the JJCP and conducted a content analysis with frequencies. Compared results with 3 previous trend analyses using same coding framework (i.e. Lounsbury et al., 1980; Martin et al., 2004 & Speer et al., 1992)

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Schruijer & Stephenson (2010)	• Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology	Published articles	1990-2010 (20)	Community Psychology & Social Psychology	*Authorship, topic and method* • Author's country of origin • Number of authors per article • Broad themes in topics	Selected all articles and analysed no. published articles and author's country affiliation in four 5-year periods (excl. brief reports, editorials and book reviews), Offers general thematic commentary on salient topics and methods
Shirley (2010)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology • South African Journal of Psychology	Titles and abstracts	1990-2009 (20)	Community Psychology	*HIV/AIDS and marginalised groups* • Article type • Article topics • Preferred methods • Preferred theories • Representation of groups by race, gender, age, sexual orientation, disability, location, SES, and HIV status	Selected all community-based research articles that focused on HIV/AIDS. Conducted a quantitative content analysis of 138 abstracts and presents frequencies for each variable.
Speer, Dey, Griggs, Gibson, Lubin, & Hughey (1992)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology	Published articles	1984-1988 (5)	Community Psychology	*Authorship, topic and method* • Author characteristics (affiliation, no. of authors) • Topic area • Participant characteristics (age, gender, ethnicity, setting, sample size) • Research design • Research hypotheses • Dependent variables • Sample representativeness	Analysed 235 empirical articles and conducted a quantitative content analysis and chi square associations. Results compared with Lounsbury et al. (1980)

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Watling Neal, Janulis & Collins (2013)	• American Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Community Psychology • Journal of Clinical and Consulting Psychology • American Journal of Public Health • American Sociological Review	Citation reports	2009 (1)	Interdisciplinary	*Cross-disciplinarity* • Total citations of journals appearing in selected publications • Journal disciplines • Citations of cross-disciplinary journals • Journal citation networks • Citing relationships • Relative homophily	Analysed 55 journals that had at least 10 citations in the AJCP or JCP in 2009. Presents names of journals by discipline, descriptive statistics using percentages, and homophily score calculations using the JCCP, AJPH and ASR for comparative purposes

Appendix C. Overview of Local Empirical Studies of Knowledge Production in Psychology

Table C 1. *Published South African Empirical Studies of Knowledge Production in Psychology*

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Duncan (2001)	• Journal of Behavioural Science, • Journal of Industrial Psychology • Journal of the National Institute for Personnel Research • National Institute for Personnel Research Bulletin • Perspectives in Industrial Psychology • PIRSA Monographs • Psigoflitse • Psigorama • Psigosoma • Psyche • Psychologia Africana • Psychology in Society • Psychotherapeia • Psygram, Sielkundige Studies, • South African Journal of Psychology • South African Journal of Psychology and Education • South African Journal of Science • South African Psychologist • South African Psychological Review • University of Zululand Journal of Psychology • Unisa Psychologia	Published articles	1866-1988 (120)	General Psychology	*Race and racism* • Topics on race • Constructions of race • Manifestations of racism	Quantitative content analysis with frequencies of selected race topics. Discursive analysis of constructions of race in 48 articles using Thompson's (1990) approach to discourse analysis

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Duncan, van Niekerk, & Townsend (2004)	• South African Journal of Psychology	Author details	1994-2003 (10)	General Psychology	*Race and authorship* • Race of authors, gender breakdown within race groups • Changes in race of authors over time • Changes in race by gender group • Order of authors • Sole/collective authorship • Institutional affiliation of authors by race • Comparison with figures of HPCSA registration data	Selected 692 authors from published articles, and report frequencies of the authors' race, and race by gender
Durrheim & Mokeki (1997)	• South African Journal of Psychology	Published articles	1970-1995 (25)	General Psychology	*Race and racism* • Topics dealing with race • Race and method (scientific vs. political)	Selected 478 articles from SAJP and quantitatively content analysed major topic areas, research design and type of race-related focus. Presents frequencies and Chi-Square associations
Kiguwa & Langa (2011)	• South African Journal of Psychology • Psychology in Society	Published articles	1994-2009 (15)	General Psychology	*Gender in topic* • Gender and HIV • Gender and violence • Masculinity studies	Selected 95 articles from SAJP and 42 from PINS, content analysis with frequencies about the number of articles focusing on gender, with some qualitative thematic commentary on the three sub-focal areas

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Macleod (2001)	• Nursing RSA • South African Medical Journal • Salus • Outlook • Social Science & Medicine • International Journal of Adolescence & Youth • South African Journal of Psychology • South African Journal of Sociology	Published articles and unpublished research reports and theses	1970-1997 (27)	Inter-disciplinary Research	*Teenage pregnancy and mothering* • Constructions of teenage pregnancy • Discourses that serve to regulate mothering	Discourse analysis of text/body of 77 articles (drawing on the work of Derrida, Parker, Foucault, Rose and Fairclough). Presents 20 illustrative extracts to illustrate discourses that regulate mothering
Macleod & Durrheim (2002)	• Nursing RSA • South African Medical Journal • Salus • Outlook • Social Science & Medicine • International Journal of Adolescence & Youth • South African Journal of Psychology • South African Journal of Sociology	Published articles and unpublished research reports and theses	1970-1997 (27)	Inter-disciplinary Research	*Teenage pregnancy and race* • Race of authors of research on teenage pregnancy • Race of participants in research on teenage pregnancy • Racialised discourses in studies with black participants	Presents a discourse analysis (drawing on the work of Derrida, Foucault, Parker, Fairclough) of 16 documents that use black participants to illustrate the racialisation of teenage pregnancy by both black and white authors
Macleod (2003a)	• Nursing RSA • South African Medical Journal • Salus • Outlook • Social Science & Medicine • International Journal of Adolescence & Youth • South African Journal of Psychology • South African Journal of Sociology	Published articles and unpublished research reports and theses	1970-1997 (27)	Inter-disciplinary Research	*Teenage pregnancy and adolescence* • Deconstruction of teenage sexuality and pregnancy • Deconstruction of adolescence	Discourse analysis of text/body of 77 articles to illustrate shifts in the construction of notions of adolescence and the function this serves

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents Accessed	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Macleod (2003b)	• Nursing RSA • South African Medical Journal • Salus • Outlook • Social Science & Medicine • International Journal of Adolescence & Youth • South African Journal of Psychology • South African Journal of Sociology	Published articles and unpublished research reports and theses	1970-1997 (27)	Inter-disciplinary Research	*Teenage pregnancy* • Topics related teenage pregnancy • Changes in representations of teenage pregnancy over time	Discourse analysis of text/body of 77 articles to illustrate shifts in the constructions of teenage pregnancy as a social problem
Macleod (2004)	• South African Journal of Psychology (APA, 1986) • PsycInfo abstracts	Articles and abstracts	1999-2003 (5)	General Psychology	*Topic, theory, method, authorship* • Article type • Topic of article • Theoretical framework • Participant characteristics (age, race, gender, province, setting) • Collaboration with international scholars • Author affiliation	Selected 432 abstracts and 147 articles and conducts a quantitative content analysis with some thematic commentary; excludes articles conducted in foreign countries; comparisons with figures from the United Nation Development Programme's *South Africa Human Development Report 2003*

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents Accessed	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Macleod & Howell (2013)	• South African Journal of Psychology • PsycInfo abstracts	Articles and abstracts	2007-2012 (6)	General Psychology	*Topic, theory, method, authorship* • Article type • Topic of article • Theoretical framework • Participant characteristics (age, race, gender, province, setting) • Collaboration with international scholars • Author affiliation • Comparison of trends with Macleod (2004) in SAJP and PsycInfo	Selected 243 and conducts a quantitative content analysis
Mauer, Marais, & Prinsloo (1991)	• PSYCInfo Abstracts	Abstracts of published SA articles, theses & dissertations	Unspecified +/-1985-1990 (5)	General Psychology	*Topic* • Variation in topic between articles, theses and dissertations	Selected 1009 abstracts of South African research on PsycInfo and classified topic using the APA classification system. Compares general percentages of topics for different types of articles and presents overall percentages
Seedat (1990)	• South African Journal of Psychology • Psychology in Society	Published articles	1983-1988 (5)	General Psychology	*Authorship, topic, race and gender* • Field of psychology • Race and gender of authors	Selected 153 articles and conducted a comparative analysis of the two journals. Reports percentages of topics for both journals and some cursory gender/race observations in author characteristics

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents Accessed	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Seedat (1998)	• South African Journal of Psychology • Psychology in Society • Humanitas • Psychologia Africana • Index of Psychological abstracts • Journal of Behavioural Science • Psygram	Published articles	1948-1988 (40)	General Psychology	*Authorship, topic, race and gender* • Race and gender of authors • Author affiliation and collaboration • Article type • Race and gender of authors • Field of Psychology and topics within these fields	Selected 977 theoretical and empirical articles, but excluded all books reviews, short reports, conference proceedings and the like. Conducted a quantitative content analysis with frequencies and percentages.
Seedat (2001a)	• South African Journal of Psychology • Psychology in Society • Humanitas • Psychologia Africana • Index of Psychological abstracts • Journal of Behavioural Science • Psygram	Published articles	1948-1988 (40)	General Psychology	*Authorship, race and gender* • Race and gender of participants • Race and gender of authors • Setting • Author affiliation • Language of article • Article type	Quantitative content analysis of 970 articles with frequencies. Coding of article type and finer coding of the whole corpus of empirical articles
Seedat (2001b)	• South African Journal of Psychology • Psychology in Society • Humanitas • Psychologia Africana • Index of Psychological abstracts • Journal of Behavioural Science • Psygram	Published articles	1948-1988 (40)	General Psychology	*Authorship, race and gender* • Race and gender of participants • Race and gender of authors • Setting • Author affiliation • Language of article • Article type	Quantitative content analysis of 970 articles with frequency comparisons between journals as a means to critically discuss broad ideological themes

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents Accessed	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Seedat, MacKenzie, & Stevens (2004)	• South African Journal of Psychology • Psychology in Society	Published articles	1994-2003 (10)	Community Psychology	*Authorship, topic, method* • Article type • Author characteristics (Race, gender, institutional affiliation) • Sole/collective authorship • Topic • Participant characteristics (race, gender, age, setting)	Conducted a quantitative content analysis of 47 articles with frequencies
Shefer Shabalala, & Townsend (2004)	• South African Journal of Psychology	Author details	1994-2003 (10)	General Psychology	*Gender and authorship* • Gender of authors, racial breakdown for gender groups • Changes in gender/race group over time • Comparison with figures of HPCSA registration	Selected 663 authors, reports frequencies for gender, and gender by race
Stevens (2001)	• South African Journal of Psychology	Titles and abstracts	1990-2000 (10)	General Psychology	*Race and racism* • Topics on race • Research methods used	Qualitative thematic and discursive analysis of 100 abstracts using Thompson's approach

Author(s)	Name of Journals/Documents	Data	Years (n)	Field	Focus	Method
Terre Blanche & Seedat (2001)	• NIPR project reports	Project titles	1946-1984 (42)	Industrial Psychology	*Race and gender* • Race of participants • Gender of participants	Quantitative content analysis with frequencies of themes and a discursive analysis of terms used to refer to race and gender, and words surrounding these terms
Visser & van Staden (1990)	• South African Journal of Psychology	Published articles	1979-1988 (10)	General Psychology	*Method* • Population characteristics • Methods of sample selection • Sample composition (student, intra-cultural; cross-cultural) • Types of research design • Approaches to knowledge building (Replication, Extending previous findings, test of theory) • Changes over time	Selected 149 articles and conducted a quantitative content analysis using pre-defined categories. Reports frequencies and percentages for each year
Van Staden & Visser (1990)	• South African Journal of Psychology	Published articles	1979-1988 (10)	General Psychology	*Topic* • Article type • Article topics • Average number of topics per article • Statistical techniques	Selected 230 articles and conducted a quantitative content analysis of topics/areas of psychology addressed by articles with frequencies and percentages. Compared with trends in US journals

Appendix D. Special Issues in International Journals

Table D1. *Themes of Special Issues in the AJCP*

Year	Theme of Special Issue
2000	Minority issues in prevention
	Feminism and community
	Feminist methods
2001	Community collaboration
2002	Youth mentoring
2003	Liberation psychology
	Science and community psychology
	GLBT and community psychology
	Unemployment
	Experimental social innovation and dissemination
2004	Process of research and action
2005	Science and community psychology
2006	Diversity challenges
	Interdisciplinary research
	Community practice
2007	System change
2008	Bridging science and practice
	Mental health self help
	Acculturation
2009	Culturally situated interventions
	International community psychology
	Social ecological approaches

Table D 2. *Themes of Special Issues in the JCP*

Year	Theme of Special Issue
2000	Spirituality, religion and community psychology I
	Effective community interventions
	Community narratives and faith based settings
	Violence in communities
2001	Effects of violence on children
	Spirituality, religion and community psychology II: Resources, pathways and perspectives
2002	Community psychology in Australia
2003	-
2004	Community violence
2005	Youth-adult relationships in community programs: Diverse perspectives on good practices
	Serving the needs of women with co-occurring disorders and a history of trauma
2006	Addressing mental health disparities through culturally competent research and community-based practice
	Youth mentoring: Bridging science with practice
2007	Exploring the intersection of organisation studies and community psychology
	Youth and democracy: Participation for personal, relational, and collective well-being
	Findings from a national evaluation of services to improve outcomes for women with co-occurring disorders and a history of trauma
2008	Power and psychopolitical validity
	The many histories of community psychology
	Youth violence as adaptation to community violence
2009	-

Table D 3. *Themes of Special Issues in the JCASP*

2000	Health, community and development
	Social changes in globalised societies and the redefinition of identities
2001	Power, control and health
	The modern city as a community
2002	-
2003	Homelessness
	Action research
2004	Social constructionism in community and applied social psychology
2005	Community policing
2006	Disrupting the dynamics of oppression in intercultural research and practice
	Understanding and challenging stigma
2007	Power in community psychology research and practice
	Community psychology and media
2008	Dissolving the diaspora
2009	Interrogating (dis)orders of body weight and body management

Table D 4. *Themes of Special Issues in the JPIC*

Year	Theme of Special Issue
2000	HIV/AIDS prevention: Current issues in community practice
	Employment in community psychology: The diversity of opportunity
	Diverse families, competent families: Innovations in research and preventive intervention practice
2001	Family systems/family therapy: Applications for clinical practice
	People with disabilities: Empowerment and community action
	Workplace safety: Individual differences in behaviour
	Prevention issues for women's health in the new millennium
2002	The transition from welfare to work: Processes, challenges, and outcomes
	Preventing youth access to tobacco
	Community interventions to create change in children
2003	Prevention and intervention practice in post-apartheid South Africa
	Culture, peers, and delinquency
	Traumatic stress and its aftermath: Cultural, community, and professional contexts
	Empowerment and participatory evaluation of community interventions: Multiple benefits
2004	Leadership and organisation for community prevention and intervention in Venezuela
	Understanding ecological programming: Merging theory, research, and practice
	Six community psychologists tell their stories: History, contexts, and narrative
2005	Technology applications in prevention
	Psychological, political, and cultural meanings of home
2006	Creating communities for addiction recovery: The Oxford House model
	Community action research: benefits to community members and service providers
2007	HIV: Issues with mental health and illness
	The Healthy Families America ® initiative: Integrating research, theory and practice
2008	Community psychology in practice: An oral history through the stories of five community psychologists
	Women and depression: Antecedents, consequences and interventions
	Sexual violence: Current perspectives on prevention and intervention
2009	GIS: A useful tool for community assessment
	Improving services to the homeless
	A review of behavioural community research
	Community violence prevention and intervention strategies for children and adolescents: The need for multilevel approaches