

UNIVERSITIES  
and  
lifelong learning

# Knowledge, democracy and action

Community–university research  
partnerships in global perspectives

Edited by

Budd Hall, Edward Jackson, Rajesh Tandon,  
Jean-Marc Fontan & Nirmala Lall

UNIVERSITIES AND LIFELONG LEARNING SERIES

Knowledge, democracy and action



Manchester University Press

## UNIVERSITIES AND LIFELONG LEARNING SERIES

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in global perspectives

*Edited by*

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Jean-Marc Fontan, Nirmala Lall

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## Series editor's foreword

### A dialogue between Sir David Watson and Tan Sri Dzul kifli Abdul Razak\*

*Sir David Watson (DW):* Dzul – our colleagues, who have written this timely and challenging book have focused on ‘societal well-being’, the reduction of poverty, sustainability and what they call the ‘emerging democracy movement’. What do you think the extent and limits of university involvement in and responsibility for such hugely important issues are, in fact? In terms of geography, and possibly also culture, we are communicating about this from opposite ends of the world. Are there similar considerations for each of our institutions as we try to play a part in their agenda, or are we fatally determined by where and what we are? Should we both buy the book?

*Tan Sri Dzul kifli Abdul Razak (DAR):* David – thanks. The book is very much welcomed at a time when universities are at a crossroads with their relevance being seriously questioned vis-à-vis ‘societal well-being’. I recall a quotation from David Orr (1994): ‘Why is it that those who are exploiting the poor communities, and the Earth’s ecosystem, are those who have BAs, MBAs, MScs and PhDs, rather than the “ignorant” poor of the South.’ His statement seems to suggest that universities can have a detrimental impact on society if they are not serious enough in considering some of the issues that you have raised.

My take on this is that, as universities scramble for prestige, they are shaped by how ‘prestige’ is defined. And that to my mind is not about long-term goals such as sustainability or reduction of poverty. Often it is about more immediate, and at times superficial, recognition, especially when funding is in short supply. In that respect I think we (the universities) are all the same. The ‘emerging democracy movement’ seems to be premised along the same thinking, too, I am afraid. It is not so much where we are, but more ‘what’ we are, and the universities have pretty well defined that for us!

*DW:* I’m not as pessimistic as you are, Dzul. As you know, I encourage universities looking at strategic options to return to their ‘founding’ purposes, as reflected in charters, legislation and the like. You will very rarely find ‘prestige’ as an objective there, even if such concerns (and the related drive for ‘world-classness’) has

\* Sir David Watson is Professor of Higher Education and Principal of Green Templeton College, University of Oxford, UK; Tan Sri Dzul kifli Abdul Razak is Vice-Chancellor of Albukhary International University (AIU), Malaysia



more or less overwhelmed today's dialogue. Returning to our roots can help to generate a more profound sense of social engagement for a higher education institute.

But I would like to return to the question of cultural specificity. I am struck by how universities in the global South and East often do more with less than those in the relatively privileged North and West. I perceive a stronger sense of societal pull (over institutional push) in terms of the universities in your part of the world. Do you agree? Do the case studies in this book in any way bear this out? How 'translatable' are they across national, regional and hemispheric boundaries?

*DAR:* I like the idea of returning to 'founding' purposes – not just the legalistic ones, but also the 'philosophical' and 'sociocultural' ones. I agree that the 'prestige' and related goals are just icing on the cake which is clouding the 'founding' purposes (hence my previous comments on the forgotten long-term, sustainable, societal goal!).

My sense is that the societal worldview is what makes a university what it should be (and this should include relevance, etc.). You must have read that students in Harvard are walking out of their economic classes, citing irrelevance as a reason, given what they have observed happening around the world.

In other words, cultural specificity and sensitivity are imperative. Because the South and East are more community-oriented (compared to the North and West's orientation towards individuals), the societal pull is an accepted call. The sharing of 'cost' – especially in terms of the local resources that are available – makes 'the less for more' axiom more likely.

It is only when we try to emulate what is deemed to be 'prestigious' (sorry to come back to this, but it is real – ironically many more mission statements of the universities in the South/East talk about being 'world class' than in the North/West) in the universities of the North/West that the schizophrenia sets in.

In the case of Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), our deliberate focus on the 'bottom billion' (borrowing from Paul Collier) in the mission statement adds emphasis to societal focus as part of the university *raison d'être*. We can provide some examples of how this is translated into real societal terms, at least locally and nationally. At my present university, Albukhary International University (AIU) – since 80 per cent of our students are from the bottom billion internationally – the opportunity to translate the USM experience is very real. This is the challenge now for me.

Like you I shall explore the cases in the book. Once cultural values and needs are factored in, the chances of 'translation' should be higher. Of course, political will and mindsets, are often the immediate barriers!

*DW:* Politics is important, of course, but we must not make it an excuse. In addition to telling truth to power, our universities and our national university systems have to tell the truth to ourselves. Our common ground with political leaders is around all of those elements of university activity that strengthen communities: high-quality teaching, services to business and the community, partnership with other public services, sensitivity to rural as well as metropolitan

issues, and, above all, social mobility and social justice. These are just the things that the international league tables ignore. Writing from the UK and Oxford, this should be as powerful an imperative as it is from Malaysia and Albukhary. Incidentally, I admire your strapline: the 'human university'. Martha Nussbaum described higher education as being about 'cultivating humanity' (1998). Let's hope that this book plays its part.

*DAR:* I think we are gradually converging on the idea that a university is foremost about people and humanity, so to speak. More specifically it is about uplifting the quality of life across boundaries and borders, as well as narrowing as many gaps as we can manage. Broadly, I think this is what the book is aiming at, by providing the argument for such an engagement to be effectively carried forward as part of the university's role and core responsibility. I share Nussbaum's articulation of humanity as rooted in cultures and traditions which are an integral part of any society. The points on multiculturalism and the significance of non-Western cultures underline the importance of universities in safeguarding the notion of humanity. The metaphor – *humaniversity* – that AIU adopted is intended to highlight such a concern.

I humbly believe that we are again on the verge of a major shift that will take place in the new century, impacting universities and tertiary education in a very persuasive way. If this is the case, then the 'emergent democracy movement' the authors identify could well be the driving force behind transformative change in the higher education institutions globally. The pressure in the Global South is necessarily greater just because of the sheer numbers of people vying for post-secondary education and the stark disparities that exist in many of its larger societies.

Yes, it is about social justice powered by more equitable education opportunities in uplifting the quality of life of the greater majority. Perhaps this is the ultimate goal of community–university partnership in global perspectives, as envisaged by this book.



# Preface

This book is about the potential of community–university research partnerships to contribute to poverty reduction and sustainability strategies. Our work is framed within three questions: what are the changing roles of knowledge in society? What are the roles of higher education in society? What can we say about the contributions of community–university research partnerships to societal well-being? Our book draws on a selection of the literature in this field of study and on an analysis of original case studies drawn from around the world, summarized in this book. Our collection also includes reflections on and recommendations about policies and practices of community–university research partnerships. Finally, we attempt to understand the role of community–university research partnerships within what we identify as an emerging knowledge democracy movement. The origins of this book are to be found in a comparative international study of the potential of community–university research partnerships funded by Canada’s International Development Research Centre (IDRC) and the Canadian Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC).

The evidence generated by the study itself responded to the following questions: what examples of community engagement and research involving higher education institutions (HEIs) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) exist in different parts of the world that demonstrate excellence and success in practices, outcomes and evidence-based policy development? What are the institutional arrangements working within higher education institutions to sustain successful partnerships? What policies are needed by national and international organizations and government agencies to support these kinds of arrangements?

We drew on a variety of methods for the original study, including mapping of community–university research partnership structures; an organizational review of diverse institutional structures supporting community–university research partnerships; case studies of research partnerships; a review of how some of the facilitative structures of community–university research partnerships have found support from a variety of policy environments (with a focus on science shops in Europe); a review of training materials used to build community–university research capacity and ways in which higher education curriculum has been impacted in several different university settings. Finally, we offer several approaches to evaluation and measurement of the impact of research partnerships.

## PREFACE

The book is a project of the Global Alliance on Community Engaged Research (GACER), brought to life through the generosity of the PASCAL International Observatory, the editors of this series of books. GACER is a 'network of networks'. It is a loose twenty-first-century space composed of several independent global and regional networks that focus on community-based research, community-university research partnerships and research and knowledge creation linkages between communities and social movements and higher education institutions. The main objective of the Alliance is to facilitate the sharing of knowledge and information across continents and countries to enable interaction and collaboration to further the application and impact of community-based research for a sustainable, just future for the people of the world.

The key international and regional networking partners at January, 2011 were: Asia Pacific University Community Engagement Network (Penang, Malaysia); Centro Boliviano de Estudios Multidisciplinario (CEBEM-La Paz Bolivia); Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (CCPH-USA, Canada); Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI-Barcelona, Spain); Living Knowledge Network (Bonn, Germany and Groningen, Netherlands); African Participatory Research Network (REPAS-Dakar, Senegal); and Society for Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA-New Delhi, India).

Additional research partners involved in the original study that produced this report include the Office of Community-Based Research at the University of Victoria; the Community University Partnership Project of the University of Brighton; the Faculty of Public Affairs at Carleton University, the President's Office at PRIA; the Social Economy Project at the Université du Québec à Montréal; the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex; the Science University of Malaysia.

# Acknowledgements

Our purpose in producing this book was to illuminate the structure, objects, methods and results of community–university research partnerships. But transforming an international research project, based on case studies from many parts of the world, into a book, turned out to be a much more complex and time-consuming job than we had ever imagined. Nevertheless, it has been a very fulfilling task, and a privilege.

We are extremely grateful for the initial support for the research project itself from the Canadian Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council, as well as the International Development Research Centre. We are grateful as well to the University of Victoria and the Office of the Vice-President Research for their support to the Office of Community-Based Research which was the home of the project during its birth and early years. We acknowledge the School of Public Administration and the Faculty of Human and Social Development as they have been the home of the book project over the past year or so of writing and editing.

This project has drawn on the writing skills, creativity and analytic capacities of a wide range of authors and editors. Most of their names are provided in the list of contributors. We are so very grateful to each of them for their contributions. Inevitably, there were those whose ability to focus and provide detailed leadership at various stages of the project, and eventually the book, proved to be absolutely key. Rupert Downing was the initial project coordinator for this initiative. His work was followed by that of Nirmala Lall, a doctoral candidate at the University of Victoria, who played a central role in moving the project along, helping us to turn the first corner in the challenge of making this into a book. Sarah Amyot was a second graduate student at the University of Victoria who helped with case study interviews. And Crystal Tremblay, still another graduate student, assisted in editing several more of the case studies.

There was a moment when the sheer complexity of the book – with its many authors, case studies, analytic pieces and lessons learned – was about to overcome Budd Hall, lead editor on the project. As he was about to disappear into the tunnel of no return, he reached out to Lona McRae, a copy-editor at the University of Victoria without whose work we would simply not have a book at all!

Of course, we acknowledge our families for their support. Many late nights and weekends were sacrificed as we poured our energy into make this book happen.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Love and thanks to each of you.

We are certain that we have forgotten many people who we will feel badly about omitting later. Please forgive us!

This project and the book has been a combined work of many of us over many years. We have learned much from the work and hope that readers find it helpful as well.

With deep appreciation to you all,

*The Editors*

*Budd L. Hall, Edward T. Jackson, Rajesh Tandon, Nirmala Lall, and Jean-Marc Fontan*

# Abbreviations

ACU	Association of Commonwealth Universities
AIU	Albukhary International University (Malaysia)
APUCEN	Asia-Pacific University–Community Engagement Network
ARUC–ÉS	Community–University Research Alliance in Social Economy (Quebec)
ASEM	Asia–Europe Meeting
AUCEA	Australian University Community Engagement Association
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
BSU	Bukidnon State University (Philippines)
CABI	Capitanía del Alto y Bajo Izozo (Bolivia)
CAP	Chantier d'activité partenariale Financement (Quebec)
CASSA	Comunidad Andina Suma Satawi (Bolivia)
CBR	community-based research
CBRC	Community-Based Research Canada
CCBR	Centre for Community Based-Research (Canada)
CCPH	Community–Campus Partnerships for Health (North America)
CDRC	Citizenship Development Research Consortium (UK)
CEBEM	Centro Boliviano de Estudios Multidisciplinarios
CENDA	Centro de Comunicación y Desarrollo Andino (Bolivia)
Chantier	Le Chantier de l'Économie Sociale (Quebec)
CIFOR	Center for International Forestry Research
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CLI	Community Learning Initiative
CoP	Community of Practice
CREA	Centre for Theories and Practice in Overcoming Inequalities
CSL	Community service learning
CSO	civil society organization
CUE	community–university engagement
CUexpo	Community–University Exposition
CUPP	Community–University Partnership Programme (UK)
CURA	Community–University Research Alliances
CURA–SE	Alliance of Community–University Research in the social economy (Quebec)



## ABBREVIATIONS

DENR	Department of Environment and Natural Resources (Philippines)
DESIS	Design for Social Innovation and Sustainability
DN	Danish Society for Conservation of Nature
EC	European Commission; European Community
ERA	European Research Area
FLACSO	Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences
GACER	Global Alliance for Community Engaged Research
GIS	geographic information system
GUNI	Global University Network for Innovation
HARC	Himalayan Action Research Centre (India)
HE	higher education
HEA	Higher Education Authority (Ireland)
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England
HEI	higher education institution
HEIF	Higher Education Innovation Funding (UK)
IAU	International Association of Universities
ICAE	International Council for Adult Education
IDR	Institute of Development Research
IDRC	International Development Research Centre
IDS	Institute of Development Studies (UK)
IEG	Institute of Environmental Governance (BSU, Philippines)
INTERACTS	Improving Interaction between NGOs, Universities and Science Shops
IPRA	Indigenous Peoples' Rights Act (Philippines)
ISALP	Investigación Social y Asesoramiento Legal Potosí (Bolivia)
ISSNET	Improving Science Shop Networking
KU	University of Copenhagen
MAP	Masters in Participation
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MDRC	Mountain Development Research Centre
MKAETDC	Mt. Kitanglad Agri-Ecological Techno-Demo Center (Philippines)
NCAIP	National Commission on Indigenous Peoples (Philippines)
NCCPE	National Coordinating Centre for Public Engagement (UK)
NGO	non-governmental organization
OAIMDD	Academic Organization for Environmental Engineering
OCBR	Office of Community-Based Research (Canada)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OISE	Ontario Institute for Studies in Education
ONG	Fundación Machaca (Bolivia)
PAR	participatory action research
PERARES	Public Engagement with Research and Research Engagement with Society
PPSC	Participation, Power and Social Change (UK)
PRI	Panchayat Raj Institutions (India)
PRIA	Society for Participatory Research in Asia

## ABBREVIATIONS

RCUK	Research Councils United Kingdom
REAP	Reciprocity, Externalities, Access and Partnership
REC	Rural Extension Centre (India)
REF	Research Excellence Framework (UK)
REPAS	African Participatory Research Network
RQCC	Microcredit Network of Quebec
RQRP-ÉS	Réseau québécois de recherche partenariale en économie sociale (Quebec) [Network of Research Partnerships in Social Economy]
RRRLF	Raja Ram Mohan Roy Library Foundation (India)
RT	resilience therapy
RTD	Research and Technology Development
RUC	Roskilde University Centre (Denmark)
SAS2	International Social Analysis Systems
SC	Scheduled Castes (India)
SCIPAS	Study and Conference on Improving Public Access to Science through Science Shops (Europe)
SEMTA	Servicios Múltiples de Tecnologías Agropecuarias (Bolivia)
SNDT	Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University (India)
SSHRC	Social Sciences and Humanities and Research Council (Canada)
ST	Scheduled Tribes (India)
TCCBE	Trent Centre for Community-Based Education (Canada)
TK	Tanggol Kalikasan (Philippines)
TRAMS	Training and Mentoring of Science Shops
UAM	Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana (Mexico)
UBC	University of British Columbia (Canada)
UCAD	Cheikh Diop University (Senegal)
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNILAB	Universidade de Interação Internacional da Lusofonia Afro-Brasileira
UofB	University of Brighton (UK)
UQAM	Université du Québec à Montréal
USM	Universiti Sains Malaysia
UVIC	University of Victoria (Canada)
VDS	Village Development Societies (India)
WPEL	Women's Political Empowerment and Leadership (India)



# **PART I**

## Introduction



# 1

## Knowledge, democracy and action: an introduction

*Budd L. Hall*

In the city where I live, Victoria, Canada, a wealthy city in a wealthy country, there are 1,500 women and men (in a population of 250,000) who do not have a place to sleep at night. In spite of the creation of a Coalition to End Homelessness, the numbers of people who suffer from poor health, violence, substance abuse as a result of poverty and homelessness continues at about the same level.

In India, one of the fastest-growing economies in the world, 600 million people live without literacy, adequate water and sanitation, poor health facilities and insecure food security. Indigenous people in North and South America, Africa and Asia have dramatically lower life expectancy and higher levels of health difficulties than non-indigenous members of their communities. Their languages are disappearing daily and, with the languages, extraordinary parts of our human knowledge base and culture.

Climate change is having a more dramatic impact on the poor and marginalized persons in all our communities; one has only to look at the earthquake in Haiti or the floods in Pakistan to see how natural disasters have an impact on the poor.

Concerns with the protection of the wealthy from risk, the protection of access to non-renewable resources and water occupy the minds of vast numbers of the world's inhabitants and a dramatically disproportionate level of government budgets.

The neo-liberal global economic machine produces wealth in historically unheard of quantities but exacerbates the gap between the rich and the poor both within and among nations.

These situations exist in spite of bodies of recent quality research on the impacts of inequality in our lives at both local and global levels. Richard Wilkinson and Kate Pickett's exhaustive study of inequality and its impacts around the world is but one of the many technically competent and evidence-based studies which illustrate what many of us see in our work in communities on a day-to-day basis. According to Wilkinson and Pickett (2009), on almost every index of quality of life, or wellness, or deprivation, there is a strong correlation between a country's level of economic inequality and its social outcomes. Almost always, Japan and the Scandinavian countries are at the favourable 'low' end, and almost always, the UK, the US and Portugal are at the unfavourable 'high' end, with Canada, Australia

and continental European countries in between. What is so powerful in their research is evidence that both the rich and the poor fare better in societies with less inequality. And this is true whether one speaks of mortality and morbidity, educational outcomes, mental health, obesity, violence or the status of minorities.

It is the unequal world, however, that we live in. It is a world where greed continues to be celebrated and economic growth stubbornly put forward time and time again. This is the world that our work as researchers, as teachers, as activists, as scholars and intellectuals, as higher education (HE) administrators, must address. Gandhi used a Sanskrit word in his teachings to say that we must measure the success of our work in terms of how it serves ‘Antyodaya’, the last person. This is the challenge of our generation.

### **The organization and structure of this book**

There has been a significant increase of writing on community–university engagement over the past five to six years. Ernest Boyer laid down some of the conceptual foundations with his development of the concept of *engaged scholarship* (2006). The Kellogg Commission, on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities, shifted the terms *research, teaching and serve* to *discovery, learning and engagement* (1999). Susan Ostrander from Tufts University did a study of civil engagement on five campuses in the United States during 2001, which resulted in the articulation of a number of necessary components for effective engagement (2004). David Watson, former Vice-Chancellor of Brighton University, initiated a robust Community–University Partnership Programme (CUPP), but is also an eloquent spokesperson for the links between lifelong learning, communities and university engagement (Watson, 2007; Watson *et al.*, 2011). Angie Hart, formerly academic director of CUPP, has added much to our understanding of how community engagement works, and has also given useful ideas about how to evaluate the impact of this work (Hart *et al.*, 2008). Barbara Holland and Judith Ramaley have reviewed community engagement approaches in the UK, Spain, Germany, India, Japan, Vietnam, Thailand, Philippines, Australia, US, Canada, Mexico, Argentina, Brazil and South Africa. From their reviews they have created a typology of how universities approach community–university engagement (2008). Lorraine McIlrath and Iain Mac Labhrainn of the National University of Ireland, Galway, leaders of the Community Knowledge Initiative, have also pulled together a very useful collection of papers of international perspectives entitled *Higher Education and Civic Engagement* (2007). The strength of the collection is in the depth of analysis of how student engagement or ‘service learning’, as it is referred to in the United States, is working to transform higher education. John Goddard and Paul Vallance from Newcastle University have elaborated on the idea of the ‘civic university’ as an effective way of reuniting the city and the university (2010). The Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) initiated a major programme of work related to supporting the contributions of higher education institutions (HEIs) to regional development. This programme has involved conducting in-depth reviews in fourteen regions across twelve countries.

The key aspects of the reviews looked at the contribution of research to regional innovation; the role of teaching and learning in the development of human capital; the contribution of HEIs to social, cultural and environmental development; and the role of HEIs in building regional capacity to act in an increasingly global competitive environment (Goddard and Puukka, 2008).

This book offers several new contributions to the literature. First, its focus is on community–university *research partnerships* rather than the broader community–university engagement. Second, it is based on a global empirical study of the role of community–university research partnerships within the context of poverty alleviation, the creation of sustainable societies and, broadly speaking, the Millennium Development Goals. Third, we have gone further to frame the contribution of community–university research partnerships within a larger knowledge democracy framework, linking this practice to other spaces of knowledge democracy, such as the open access movement, the new acceptance of the methods of community-based and participatory research and the call for what is sometimes called *cognitive justice* or the need for *epistemologies of the Global South*.

The chapters in this book are of two kinds: conceptual and analytic chapters which have emerged from the several years of research by our partners around the world (Part I), and summaries of the case studies themselves (Part II), so that readers can have a look at the diversity of examples we have drawn on and know who they might contact for further information. This introductory chapter provides a theoretical framework for the study and important contextualizing background. Chapter 2 contains lessons on building partnerships drawn from the case studies from the North and South summarized in the latter half of the book. Chapter 3 takes a particular look at the variety of structures that have been created in the various universities and civil society research organizations to facilitate and enhance research partnerships. Chapter 4 offers readers a more detailed look at how one of the best-known civil society community-based research organizations in the world, the Society for Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA), builds capacity with grass-roots NGOs in India. Chapter 5 provides evidence of the impact of community–university research partnerships on the curriculum in several HEIs. Chapter 6 tells us about the policy dance that community–university research partnerships are engaged in, by looking at the work of the European science shop movement. Chapter 7 is an evaluation framework for partnership research that has emerged from important work in Quebec. Chapter 8 reviews the variety of approaches to measuring impact of community–university research partnerships, drawing on the empirical work of the study and the literature. All of the remaining chapters, save the final chapter, are the case studies that, in their fuller form and details, provided the bulk of the data for our study. The final chapter offers some thoughts on the future of community–university research partnerships within the context of a knowledge democracy movement.



## Knowledge economies and knowledge societies

The contemporary use of the concept of *knowledge economy* is most often attributed to Peter Drucker. In his 1969 book he noted that 'knowledge had become a fundamental driver of society. . . We have moved from an economy of goods to an economy of knowledge' (pp. 242–9). He drew on earlier work by Friedrich Hayek, in his 1948 study, *The Use of Knowledge in Society*. Further development of the knowledge economy concept has been done by scholars working on what has been called *new growth theory*, which strengthened the ascendancy of the view of knowledge as a critical factor in economic growth. Paul Romer, best known of the new growth economists, noted that, 'knowledge is the basic form of capital. Economic growth is driven by the accumulation of knowledge' (1990, p. 80). The World Development Report of 1999 expressed the relationship as follows:

For countries in the vanguard of the world economy, the balance between knowledge and resources has shifted so far towards the former that knowledge has become perhaps the most important factor determining the standard of living ... more than land, than tools, than labour. Today's most technologically advanced economies are truly knowledge-based. (p. 16)

National governments have one after another taken up this language as they seek to build more skilled workforces, invest further in scientific and technological research and strengthen links between business and universities in the interest of global competitiveness. Adult education, lifelong learning policies and higher education strategies around the world are often linked to the argument that developing a more skilled workforce will better position a given individual, region or even nation, in the global economy.

This is not to suppose that the understandings of the role of knowledge in our societies have arisen in an ideological vacuum. As Sörlin and Vessuri note, 'if knowledge is as potent a source of social power as the concepts knowledge economy and knowledge society seem to suggest, we would certainly expect different interests to occur in the workings of how knowledge shapes societies' (2007, p. 1). Their book explores the differences between the discourses of a knowledge economy and that of a knowledge society. They suggest there is a democratic deficit in the notion of a knowledge economy that they believe is overcome by the use of the concept of knowledge societies.

Knowledge-based economies are growing all around us, but they do not always acknowledge the democratic deficit and normative dimensions of science and scientific institutions. The knowledge economy is market driven and performs according to a market ideology, which stands in a problematic but not necessarily conflicting relation to the norms and ideas of the knowledge society (Sörlin and Vessuri, 2007).

UNESCO's report, *Towards a Knowledge Society*, further makes the case for differentiating between the idea of a knowledge economy and a knowledge society: 'Knowledge societies are about capabilities to identify, produce, process, transform, disseminate and use information to build and apply knowledge for

human development. They require empowering social vision that encompasses inclusion, solidarity and participation' (2005, p. 27).

Abdul Waheed Khan, senior UNESCO specialist in the area of communication and information at the time of the World Report, went further in noting that 'knowledge societies include a dimension of social, cultural, economic, political and institutional transformation and a more developmental perspective' (UNESCO, 2005). Mala Singh (2007) notes, however, that universities have been dethroned as the sole agency for the management of knowledge and, in order for them to find their new roles within a concept of social engagement, 'the terms of the knowledge society will themselves have to be emancipated from the monopolistic demands of the market, and reconceptualized to include political, social and ethical considerations that are currently absent or only weakly gestured to' (see Sörlin and Vessuri, 2007, p. 7).

### Ecologies of knowledge

Boaventura de Sousa Santos, Portuguese sociologist and legal scholar, provides us with a way to emancipate the concept of a knowledge society. He has expressed a broader, more inclusive understanding of knowledge and our world. His narrative begins with his observation that, in the realm of knowledge, *abyssal* thinking 'consists in granting to modern science the monopoly of the universal distinction between true and false to the detriment of two alternative bodies of knowledge: philosophy and theology'. Although this exclusionary action is the source of much contemporary debate in epistemological circles, it actually is a debate taking place on what he calls 'this side of the line' (2007, p. 47). The global lines he is referring to are those that separate the visible constituents of knowledge and power from those who are invisible. Popular, lay, plebeian, peasant, indigenous, the knowledge of the disabled themselves and more cannot be fitted in any of the ways of knowing on 'this side of the line'. They exist on the other side of the 'abyss', the other side of the line. Because of this invisibility they are beyond truth or falsehood. The 'other side of the line' is the realm of beliefs, opinions, intuitive or subjective understandings which at best may become 'objects or raw material for scientific inquiry' (p. 52). This understanding of knowledge goes beyond the formulations of Sörlin and Vessuri (2007) in linking knowledge to values or transformation and illustrates the limits of the knowledge society discourses. De Sousa Santos makes the link between values and aspiration in saying, 'Global social injustice is therefore intimately linked to global cognitive injustice. The struggle for global social justice will, therefore, be a struggle for cognitive justice as well' (2007, p. 63). On an epistemological front, he sees a return of the colonial or the colonizer in the form of resistance to what is perceived to be too much intrusion by the colonial (or any from 'the other side of the line') into metropolitan societies. Terrorism is a threat to the West. Waves of undocumented workers pouring into Europe or the United States are a threat. Refugees from natural and economic disasters are a threat.

A way forward lies in the concept of *ecologies of knowledge*. Post-abyssal thinking is linked to the notion of subaltern cosmopolitanism, or what de Sousa

Santos refers to as an ‘epistemology of the South’ (p. 65). An ecology of knowledge framework centred in the knowledges from the ‘other side of the line’ is based on the idea that the diversity of the world is inexhaustible, that this epistemological diversity does not yet have a form and that the contribution of knowledge is to be measured through knowledge as intervention in reality rather than knowledge as representation of reality. ‘The credibility of cognitive construction is measured by the type of intervention in the world that it affords or prevents’ (p. 73). Influenced by the work of intellectuals-activists linked to the World Social Forum, de Sousa Santos feels that the global movement of indigenous knowledge has, as a form of post-abysal thinking, the most hope to provide us with a strong indication of how ecologies of knowledge might function. The achievement of post-abysal thinking will depend, according to de Sousa Santos, on the achievement of a radical co-presence of all knowledges with an understanding of the incompleteness of knowledge.

### **A knowledge democracy movement?**

Building on de Sousa Santos’s radical recognition of ecologies of knowledge, we turn towards thinking about the use of knowledge in a strategic, organizational, intentional and active way. John Gaventa, a theoretician on power and citizenship, a pioneering participatory research leader, past Chair of Oxfam UK, and Director of Canada’s Coady International Institute, was the first person in our experience to speak of social movements using a ‘knowledge strategy’ as their core political organizing strategy (Gaventa and Cornwall, 2008, p. 90). Early work at Highlander Research and Education Centre in the US Appalachian Mountains involved the support of citizen researchers going to local courthouses to search the ownership of local coal mines. Absentee landlords owned all mines in question, from New York to London. And while profits were good, taxes were very low for these absentee landlords, and resources were not sufficient to cover the costs of good schools, health services or other social services to allow mine workers and their families to flourish. These citizen researchers, using a ‘knowledge strategy’ for organizing, pooled their knowledge across six or seven Appalachian states and produced an important study on mine ownership. This had the impact on changing tax structures in some states. Highlander and Gaventa were later to move into a campaign for environmental justice using many of the same principles (see Cable and Benson, 1993).

Gaventa’s linking of knowledge to the organizing of a people’s movement is similar to the thinking of the late Julius K. Nyerere, the philosopher-founding President of Tanzania, who is purported to have said that poor people do not use money for a weapon – they use knowledge and leadership. Freire articulated a faith in the embedded knowledge of people living lives of poverty, exclusion, oppression and disadvantage. His central theme was that the ability to understand and articulate the experience of lives of struggle was not only possible, but a necessary condition for organizing and transformation. He did not speak of a knowledge movement per se, but his poetic illuminations of the role of dialogue

and learning based in the daily-lived experiences of people looking for more gave us tools and approaches to support a knowledge movement.

Rajesh Tandon, one of the collaborators in this book, and Chair of the Global Alliance on Community Engaged Research (GACER), founded a civil society-based research institute more than thirty years ago, based on principles of knowledge democracy. PRIA has gone on to become one of the most influential independent not-for-profit research centres in the Global South. Based on the belief that knowledge is power, PRIA has worked with grass-roots movements and their civil society partners to create activist and practice-based research in fields of health and safety in the workplace, violence against women, rural planning, the empowerment of women politicians and much more (Tandon, 2008).

How can we understand a concept like a 'knowledge democracy movement'? First, we are working on an assumption that social movements remain at the heart of local and global change, that they are important sources of power to shift the way people imagine various relations of power. With that argument we are building on the long tradition of learning and social movement theory and practice, including much that has been written about in earlier forms (Hall, 2009 a, b, c, d). Here we are not referring to engaged scholarship or HE and community engagement itself as a movement, although there are movement elements to the ways in which community–university partnerships are expanding. We are also not thinking of the access to knowledge movement on its own (Ostrom and Hess, 2006). And we are most certainly not using other words to speak about the 'knowledge economy'.

A knowledge democracy movement is an action-oriented formation that recognizes, gives visibility to and strengthens the knowledge created in the context of, as Marx said, people trying to 'change the world'. A knowledge democracy movement would recognize, value and support the recovery and deepening of indigenous ways of knowing (Wangoola, 2002; Williams and Tanaka, 2007). A knowledge democracy movement would recognize the epistemic privilege of the homeless themselves as a key to taking action on issues of homelessness. It would celebrate the intellectual contributions of young people who are differently abled. It would honour the early work of Engels, gathering the insights of workers in nineteenth-century factories of Manchester, England, or Marx's work in the Moselle river valley of Germany, learning from vineyard workers. It would recognize that the Gay and Lesbian and HIV/AIDS movements have been built fundamentally on the knowledge of gay and lesbian citizens themselves.

A knowledge democracy movement or a movement that uses knowledge as a key mobilizing and organizing strategy is centred within the lives and places of those who are seeking recognition of their rights, land claims, access to jobs, ecological justice, recovery or retention of their languages. Knowledge itself within such a movement formation is most likely place based and rooted in the daily lives of people who increase the knowledge of their own contexts. By sharing what they are learning with allies and others like themselves, they move, as Freire says, towards being agents in the *naming* of the world. The proliferation of discourse and practices within the world of community–university knowledge partner-

ships, in this conceptualization, would be contributors to the broader knowledge movement. The extensive and important access to information developments would also be supportive of and a contributor towards a variety of knowledge movements. But neither access to information developments nor community–university engagement advancements form a knowledge democracy movement by themselves, but are part of the necessary conditions for knowledge movements to gain footholds and to flourish.

### Higher education and society

Higher education institutions are institutions to which society has entrusted the main responsibility for knowledge management. As the awareness of the role that knowledge plays in economic development has grown, so has the strategic importance and investment in higher education grown. There are many excellent books on the state of higher education. Two such respected scholars are Schuetze and Inman (2010). They provide a concise list of trends having an impact on the role of higher education and society in Great Britain and North America. Major trends that they note include: advancement in communications technologies, development of a global market for students, worldwide ranking systems, commercialization of knowledge, rise of ‘managerial’ or ‘entrepreneurial’ models of governance. To this list of trends we would add what may be implied by Schuetze, that is, the trend of extraordinary growth of higher education provision itself over the last twenty years, driven particularly by enrolments in the emerging economies, the so-called *massification* of higher education. And, perhaps implied in Schuetze’s list, there is the proliferation of private universities throughout the world. In Africa, for example, there are over sixty private universities in Ethiopia, over twenty in Tanzania, and more than thirty-two in Nigeria. The numbers of private universities in Latin America, India and elsewhere in Asia would run into the thousands. Quality becomes an issue: also, risk of exploitation of students as well within this sector of the market. Philip Altbach, one of the most influential scholars in the field, assesses the impact of globalization on higher education:

In some ways globalization works against the desire to create a worldwide academic community based on cooperation and a shared vision of academic development. The globalization of science and scholarship, ease of communication, and the circulation of the best academic talent worldwide have not led to equality in higher education. Indeed, both within national academic systems and globally, inequalities are greater than ever. (2008, p. 4)

Jamil Salmi, coordinator of tertiary education at the World Bank, notes that, in addition to the issues raised by Schuetze and Altbach, leaders of today’s institutions have to meet competing demands of diverse and more active stakeholders in the name of accountability. These include society at large, various levels of government, employers, academic staff and students themselves (2007). Among the OECD nations, HEIs have faced anything from status quo budgets in places like Canada (which does not take account of inflation) and dramatic cutbacks in jurisdictions such as England, with 80 per cent of the support for the humani-

ties and the social sciences being cut as governments struggle to find the funds to cover the costs of bail-outs of the financial sector. Yoshiaki Obara, President of Tamagawa University in Japan, notes that the combination of continuing slow economic growth linked to an ageing population is threatening the future of some universities. He notes that, 'With no sign of extra assistance from the government directed to small/rural institutions, it is likely that some ... of them will be driven out from the market' (2009, p. 18).

India is one of the emerging economies with a remarkable year-by-year GDP growth performance. It also contains one of the largest numbers of the world's 'bottom billion' of the poor, with huge gaps between the rich and the poor. Pawan Agarwal, Secretary of Science and Technology in West Bengal, characterizes higher education in India as being at the crossroads. He notes that, 'Institutions of higher education produce ordinary graduates with hardly any employable skills' (2008, p. 14), even though the enrolment rates in HEIs have risen by 11 to 20 per cent in recent years. There has been an explosive growth of private HEIs, but he and Altbach are not encouraging about a role beyond the barest minimal response to access that will come from this sector.

Higher education in Africa has suffered much since pre- and post-independence. The extramural departments of African universities were important places for independence leaders to hone their debating skills and discover the discourses of freedom, social and political justice. The older public universities in Africa were the hopes for beacons of change at independence as a new generation of women (not so many, actually) and men would emerge with knowledge and awareness of their own nations and aspirations. Many writers have described the deterioration of the conditions and the physical infrastructures during the 1980s and 1990s as the World Bank and other donors decided to put most of their funds into primary education (Mohamedbhai, 2010; Samoff and Carroll, 2002).

William Saint (2009) is the co-author of the World Bank's report on tertiary education and economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa. He notes that the emergence of a globally integrated knowledge-driven world economy has shifted the priority given in higher education by donors and national governments. His work highlights studies showing trends in rising rates of return to higher education in Africa. Investment to higher education from the World Bank and a host of other donors into African universities is making a difference, even though African universities are facing serious competition from Western universities overseas and within their own countries, in the form of 'franchise' or 'branch plants'. The proliferation of private universities, which offer questionable quality and little social engagement, is also a concern. The report in conclusion posits that, 'Tertiary institutions in Africa will need to transform themselves into a different type of educational enterprise: networked, differentiated and responsive institutions focused on the production of needed human skills and applied problem-solving research' (Saint, 2009, p. 15).

There is a great deal of innovation in the higher education field. Much of it is maximizing of profit by private and for-profit universities, such as the massive Phoenix University, based in the US, with 450,000 students. But there are other

kinds of innovative universities emerging, which offer models for another way of understanding the potential for higher education in the context of a more just and inclusive society.

One of these is the newly established Universidade de Intergração Internacional da Lusofonia Afro-Brasileira (UNILAB) in Redemption, Brazil. Redemption is where slavery was first banned in Brazil. Afro-Brazilian International University was created as a distance education university to serve the combined higher education needs of the Afro-Brazilian community in Brazil and those of Portuguese-speaking countries in Africa. UNILAB is designed to enrol 350 students divided equally between Brazil and Africa. It will start with courses in nursing, agriculture, public administration, electrical engineering, natural sciences and mathematics.

Another is the village-based Mpambo Afrikan Multiversity with its campus in a village in Eastern Uganda. Founded by Paulo Wangoola, a former Secretary-General of the African Association for Adult and Literacy Education, Mpambo exists to support mother-tongue scholars, women and men who have developed deep intellectual lives of learning and sharing through the means of African indigenous languages. The professors at Mpambo are leaders of traditional spiritual life – Elders who know the stories of the clans, herbalists and healers and musicians, story-keepers and dancers. Wangoola himself has spoken extensively in the United States, Canada, Asia and India on the need for and the ways to support the revitalization and recovery of Africa's indigenous knowledge (Wangoola, 2002).

### Community–university engagement

Cristina Escrigas, Executive Director of the Global University Network for Innovation, who produced the 2008 report, *Higher Education in the World, Higher Education: New Challenges and Emerging Roles for Human and Social Development*, says that it is time to 'review and reconsider the interchange of values between university and society; that is to say, we need to rethink the social relevance of universities' (see Taylor, 2008, p. xxviii). Humanity, she goes on to say, 'is now facing a time of major challenges, not to say, serious and profound problems regarding coexistence and relations with the natural environment. Unresolved problems include social injustice, poverty and disparity of wealth, fraud and lack of democracy, armed conflicts, exhaustion of natural resources and more' (*ibid.*, p. xxiv).

Martha Piper, former president of the University of British Columbia (UBC) in Vancouver, Canada, brings the question much closer to home when noting, 'even as we pride ourselves on our achievements, there are those who argue our influence in the world stage is waning. A walk down Hastings and Main in Vancouver is a sober reminder that poverty, homelessness and drug abuse lie, in the heart of one of the most affluent cities in the world, steps away...something is wrong' (2003, p. 128).

There are many examples of recently created community–university structures in other parts of the world. In Spain, the Instituto Paulo Freire, a national community–university research network, has its organizational base in several Spanish universities including Valencia, Gerona and Seville (see [www.institutopaulofreire.org](http://www.institutopaulofreire.org)). The Centre for Theories and Practice in Overcoming Inequalities (CREA)

was one of the sources of inspiration for the University of Victoria, Canada, when it started its Office of Community-Based Research. CREA is located in the Scientific Park at the University of Barcelona (<http://creaub.info>). In France, there is a tradition of *universités populaires et universités libres*. The Institute of Adult and Continuing Education at Makerere University is home to outreach strategies. Stellenbosch University in South Africa and the University of the Western Cape are both well respected for their work in engagement and community-based research. The University of Science in Malaysia and the University of Malaysia both have community engagement units headed by deputy vice-chancellors.

Not all the structures or organizations that facilitate the creation of community-university partnerships are located within universities. It is critically important to note that much of the early history of community-based research, participatory research and similar approaches originated within and/or were supported by civil society organizations. If we look at the science shop movement in Europe, for example, we will find that a majority of the science shops are based in universities, but not all. The Bonn science shop is a cooperative NGO that had its origins in a university, but found more freedom for progressive research and social action when located as an independent community organization. It works, as do other science shops, to link university students and researchers with community activists and organizations that need research to be done.

Based in New Delhi, PRIA is nearing thirty years of operations. Its motto is *knowledge is power*. It is legally structured as a non-governmental civil society organization. PRIA carries out research with communities of excluded and oppressed people. It provides capacity-building workshops and training opportunities for local government workers and grass-roots NGO workers in participatory research and evaluation. It works on issues of citizenship and governance, on health and safety in the workplace, on sustainability and local economic development and in local planning. Because of its long-term skills and reputation for ethical and democratic research approaches, universities in India have sought out PRIA to provide teaching and field placement opportunities for students who are going in to work in rural areas, in fields of social work or as community-based researchers. PRIA brokers community-university research partnerships but from the community side.

In Canada, the Community-Based Research Centre was established nearly twenty-five years ago as a local NGO. It has grown over the years to have a staff of twenty-five to thirty persons working on behalf of community organizations, to serve their research and evaluation needs. They work on issues of anti-racism and multicultural health, employment and cultural issues. They draw on the resources of several universities in the Waterloo region of Ontario (about one and one half hours west of Toronto). In May of 2011, they hosted the fourth Community-University Exposition (CUexpo 2011), a national and international space for community and university partners to meet to share with others ([www.cuexpo2011.ca](http://www.cuexpo2011.ca)).

Let us be clear that the relationship between knowledge and power has not been lost on global capitalism itself. 'Market forces' are often held out at both a global level and local level to be almost magical in their abilities to shape social



needs, including learning needs. Indeed, the rise of interest in the role of higher education in our societies over the past thirty years is illustrated by the emergence of concepts such as the ‘knowledge economy’ or the ‘knowledge society’. Universities in the Global North were urged to create technology transfer and business-incubating structures some thirty years ago, by the private sector. Pharmaceutical companies, engineering and science industries, computing and information technology companies are strongly linked to their counterparts in universities. A very useful 2010 study on university–enterprise partnerships within the European Union provide ten case studies on the ways that these structures are working (Mora *et al.*, 2010). Global competitiveness is the game, we are told, among cities, regions and nations, with success being dependent on the creation and support of large numbers of well-educated, disciplined and flexible workers and managers.

It is also critically important to note that, over the past twenty-five years, we have seen the dismantling of many of the structures put in place in our universities as early as the late nineteenth century, for the sharing of knowledge with communities. In England, *liberal education* is a song sung by increasingly nostalgic voices. The independent funding of extramural studies in England was similarly eliminated some years ago and the many historic departments of adult education and extramural studies have disappeared from Manchester, Leeds, Hull, from Nottingham and elsewhere. In 2011, there are enormous pressures at the University of Glasgow to cut adult education provision in the last of the UK institutions to combine academic research and provision in a single administrative unit. In Canada, Continuing Education units in our universities have moved nearly totally into a revenue–recovery and market-oriented world.

### A look at Canadian developments

In Canada, Edward Jackson at Carleton University has conceptualized what he calls the ‘CUE (Community–University Engagement) Factor’. He writes of the dynamic triangle of community–university engagement being community-based experiential learning, community-based research and community-based continuing education. He calls on universities across Canada to, ‘increase their CUE factors by deepening and broadening their teaching, research and volunteering activities with the external constituencies that have the greatest need for sustainable solutions to the challenges they face every day’ (2008, p. 1).

One of the three legs of Jackson’s CUE Factor, community-based research (CBR), has a particularly strong Canadian history and specificity. In the mid-1970s, a group of researchers based in Toronto, associated with the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) and the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE), created the *participatory research project*. Hall, Jackson, Marino, Barndt, Conchelos and others had a variety of community-based research experiences in Canada and other parts of the world. They were supported by the late Drs J. Roby Kidd and James Draper, professors in the Adult Education Department at OISE and, in the case of Dr Kidd, the Secretary-General of the newly launched International Council for Adult Education (Hall, 2005).

The term CBR in use at the University of Victoria encompasses a spectrum of research that actively engages community members or groups to various degrees, ranging from community participation to community initiation and control of research. From a university perspective, CBR refers to a wide variety of practices and is supported by several academic traditions: academic or scientific knowledge put at the service of community needs; joint university and community partnerships in the identification of research problems and development of methods and applications; research that is generated in community settings without formal academic links at all; academic research under the full leadership and control of community or non-university groups; joint research, which is conceived as part of organizing, mobilizing or social advocacy or action.

The University of Victoria uses a modified definition published by Kerry Strand and others in 2003:

CBR involves research by community groups with or without the involvement of a university. In relation with the university, CBR is a collaborative enterprise between academics and community members. CBR seeks to democratize knowledge creation by validating multiple sources of knowledge and promoting the use of multiple methods of discovery and dissemination. The goal of CBR is social action (broadly defined) for the purpose of achieving (directly or indirectly) social change and social justice. (2003a, p. 5)

Inspired in part by Canada's early work in participatory and community-based research and by the experience of the science shops in the Netherlands, the Canadian Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council created the SSHRC Community–University Research Alliance (CURA) funding structure. The CURA model has become known widely throughout the world and has resulted in a unique meeting space called the Community–University Expositions (CUexpos) which have now taken place in Saskatoon in 2003, Winnipeg in 2005 and Victoria in 2008. Out of this combined energy has come the recently created Community-Based Research Canada (CBRC) and the Global Alliance for Community-Engaged Research (GACER) ([www.uvic.ca/ocbr](http://www.uvic.ca/ocbr)).

Within our universities, CBR has begun to become institutionalized. The University of Victoria in January of 2007 created the Office of Community-Based Research as a university-wide structure reporting to the Vice-President of Research (<http://uvic.ca/ocbr>). The Harris Centre at Memorial University in Newfoundland serves a similar function throughout Newfoundland and Labrador (Fitzpatrick, 2008). The Trent Centre for Community Education, the Institute for CBR at Vancouver Island University, the Community–University Partnership at the University of Alberta, the Centre for Community-Based Research in Kitchener, the Centre for Community Research, Learning and Action at Wilfred-Laurier University in Waterloo, the Service aux Collectivités at the Université du Québec à Montréal (UQAM) and others have sprung up across the country ([www.sac.uqam.ca/index.aspx?ID=accueil](http://www.sac.uqam.ca/index.aspx?ID=accueil)).

## Knowledge democracy and higher education

On a global scale, universities, higher education institutions and systems of tertiary education have become the focus of intense national and international systems planning and priorities over several decades. The state sees public research universities as key players in the competition for global markets, both from a human resource point of view and a research and technology perspective. The market is looking to universities as sources of high-quality, low-cost research and development. They would like to see universities closely linked to the bottom-line expectations of capital accumulation and profit generation.

We also see, however, that cities, regions and places are looking at their universities with new eyes. Given the persistence of chronic social and economic issues at the local level and with no new money likely to come from various levels of government, universities are seen as being resource rich, given the numbers of students, sources of knowledge and access to global information and policy networks. Universities are responding sometimes by dusting off earlier policy statements, as in the case of Land-Grant universities in the US or civic universities of the UK. Sometimes they are responding by reinventing themselves in new ways never tried before, such as the Universiti Sains Malaysia's commitment to the 'bottom billion' people in the world and to supporting an Asian community-university network. The most recent world conference on Higher Education held at UNESCO headquarters in Paris called for priority to be given to the idea of social responsibility in higher education (UNESCO, 2009).

In China, India and other parts of the rapidly emerging Asian economies, the focus is on growth. New public universities are said to be emerging at a pace of one per week. Private universities of dubious quality, perhaps even exploitative in nature, quite literally are growing like mushrooms. The demand for higher education in Asia, Latin America and Africa is well beyond the supply.

But we also know that the virtual monopoly of the global market economic model produces periodic booms and busts as was predicted in the late nineteenth century by various economists, most notably Marx. We have to contend with persistent issues of ill health, poverty, violence against women, racism and intolerance, homelessness and deep issues of sustainability and climate change. We have seen a dramatic unfolding of democratic aspirations in the Middle East.

Knowledge is more than expertise passed down from those who know to those who do not know. Knowledge about a more just world is being created, co-created and co-generated in social movements, in communities, in homes, in governments and in businesses. Knowledge and its creation and flow is linked to economic development, but is also the most active ingredient in our thinking about acting in our world to deepen democracy, promote inclusion and build just and sustainable communities. Communities and universities are reinventing each other, and the new forms of research partnerships are an important means by which reinvention is happening. Among the lessons to be learned from our study and this book is the proposition that communities and universities working together in new forms of respectful co-creation of useful knowledge have an enormous potential to contribute to a growing knowledge democracy movement.

## 2

# Building blocks of partnerships: lessons from case studies from the South and North

Rajesh Tandon and Edward T. Jackson

It is said that practice makes perfect. Indeed, we are convinced that it is only by doing community–university partnerships that engaged academics, reflective practitioners, progressive policymakers and innovative funders can both understand and strengthen this approach to mobilizing knowledge for livelihoods, sustainability and democracy. While, as Paolo Freire showed, action and reflection are two mutually reinforcing and dialectical forces, permanently entwined, we believe that practice takes precedence. Action, in our view, is *primus inter pares*.

In putting this book together, we were informed by the rich experiences of a group of diverse case studies of community–university partnerships, diverse in terms of their context, form and substance. They take place in both urban and rural settings in Canada, the United Kingdom, Europe, India, the Philippines, Bolivia, Brazil and Senegal. Some take the form of projects, others are programmes, and still others have grown into permanent centres. And the substance of what these interventions work on varies, as well – indigenous municipal governance, economic cooperation by small forest producers, student engagement in sustainable agriculture, environmental enforcement by local government officials, improved resettlement policies in hydro-power projects, and education for village development through rural libraries – all these issues and more are addressed by the cases.

While practice makes perfect, however, it rarely *is* perfect. Perfection is not the point. Learning and results are at the core of what makes community-level action valuable. Certainly, important learning stems from strategies, tactics and methods that are found to be successful. At the same time, some of the most valuable lessons arise from experiences or actions which don't succeed, or from unanticipated problems or conflicts. The case studies we review here offer both types of experiences.

It should be recognized that, as Edmund O'Sullivan said, 'the dream drives the action'. The leaders and animators of these partnerships share a common commitment to expanding the democratic space for actionable knowledge production – *co-production*, as most refer to it. Their work is focused locally, in villages and neighbourhoods, in regions, in provinces. Their essential dream is that, through the co-production and application of new knowledge, community–university partnerships can help achieve improved livelihoods, environmental integrity and

more responsive forms of governance. The case studies show that these key players are making demonstrable progress in realizing this shared dream.

Community–university research partnerships can enable the co-production of valuable, actionable new knowledge, especially in the areas of livelihoods, environment and governance and their intersection.

A main theme addressed by the Southern case studies is *strengthening local governance*. In Bolivia, the Bolivian Centre for Multidisciplinary Studies (CEBEM) worked with municipal officials to plan and implement indigenous governance and management systems, policies and practices in the Indigenous Municipality of Jesus do Machaca. In the Philippines, Bukidnon State University researchers partnered with local government units to enhance the capacity of local policymakers in environmental governance and enforcement. Biodiversity and sustainable farming systems were important topics in training designed by this partnership.

Three other cases worked more explicitly at the interface of *livelihoods and environmental sustainability*. In one of these initiatives, CEBEM cooperated with three municipalities in Bolivia's Chiquitania region to generate knowledge that enabled small wood producers to increase their revenue from value-added products. In another, the civil society group PRIA joined with Hemwati Nandan Bahuguna Garhwal University in Srinagar to set up the Mountain Development Research Centre (MDRC) to support local communities in managing natural resources and developing themselves, including intervening in a major resettlement dispute arising from a hydro power project. In the region around Dakar, in Senegal, the Sub-Saharan Africa Participatory Action Research Network (REPAS), Cheikh Anta Diop University and the University of Brighton piloted a new student engagement project, where students contributed to local agriculture and soil erosion efforts in partner villages. A sixth Southern case, in Sriniketan, India, involves a network of thirty-four rural libraries, affiliated to a Rural Extension Centre (REC) that provides information and education in support of almost forty village development societies.

The two cases from Europe also demonstrate a similar trend. Danish Society for Conservation of Nature (DN) in Frederikssund and Roskilde University Centre (RUC) worked together to analyse and improve the quality of water in a village pond with support from the local residents. Quality and quantity of water supply to communities in Iasi, Romania, was the focus of a second case study where the Academic Organization for Environmental Engineering (OAIMDD) partnered with a local NGO, InterMEDIU, with a view to assess and propose improvements in the water supply to the town residents.

The UQAM case (Quebec, Canada) is focusing on social economy in the region, and ways to improve the livelihoods and investment in social economy enterprises.

That valuable knowledge is maintained and produced by non-academic partners is not a new insight. For more than three decades, the participatory research movement has proved this truism thousands of times. It has examined in detail the theory underlying the process of knowledge production by community members, social movements, governments and other segments of society that

are not universities or colleges. What is new, in this sense, about the cases in this book?

First, at a very basic level, each research partnership is a new test of how such knowledge is produced and also how it can make a contribution to a better world – a better life for citizens, households, enterprises and communities. Second, the cases focus on a particular cluster of issues – most cases group around environment, governance and livelihoods – that respond to challenges currently faced by communities under twenty-first-century globalization. Third, these cases illustrate the latest set of participatory methods, including web-enabled technologies. Fourth, the scale of these initiatives is substantial, covering regions or clusters of communities rather than single villages or neighbourhoods. Finally, unlike much early participatory research experience, which often involved oppositional efforts in conflict with the state, the cases reported here work extensively with government, especially at the local and regional levels, as an integral component of their partnership strategy. Taken together, these features constitute a body of practice that is very new.

Successful partnerships demonstrate the value of non-academic knowledge that arises from practice in the community – and the value of new knowledge co-produced by cooperating social participants

All of the Southern cases confirm that new knowledge co-produced by non-academic and academic stakeholders is valuable. As the two Bolivian projects illustrate, effective co-production of knowledge requires trust among the key players, and confidence of and incentives for community and professional members to participate fully. These projects found that the core of the process is what they refer to as a sustained and open ‘dialogue between knowledges’, that is, between the knowledge systems of the interests involved in the issue being researched. As CEBEM has observed, its teams learn as much as community members do in these processes. Yet it is also clear that the skills and knowledge of the CEBEM teams are also critical to the success of these initiatives.

Perhaps the most dramatic example of recognition of the value of non-academic knowledge is found in the MDRC case. With the approval of the governor of the state, an 80-year-old local practitioner of innovative, mixed forest management and a traditional-knowledge expert was invited by Garhwal University to assume a teaching position at the university. He is currently teaching there.

The most significant contribution of community participants to knowledge production came from the CUPP project (Brighton, UK) on resilience therapy (RT) for ‘disturbed’ children and their families. The champions of this approach to health and mental well-being of children and their families involved parents and other practitioners of care in developing knowledge from their own experiences; they emphasized the process of converting tacit soft knowledge into practical tools and methods for RT. The new knowledge had special relevance to those children who faced multiple disadvantages in their physical, mental, social and economic well-being. The recognition of such knowledge by a university was demonstrated in the invitation parents and practitioners received to provide training and education to a new generation of care providers.

In the social economy case from Quebec, several practitioners from social movements – housing, labour, women – were active partners in framing the research and undertaking investigations. The research coordinators at UQAM have acknowledged the deep and systematic knowledge contribution from their partnership.

This is an important aspect of such community–university research partnerships since it focuses on co-production of knowledge which is based on the acceptance of the value of knowledge in practice, from those who are non-academic. Traditionally, many such partnerships have continued to treat community partners as ‘service users’ or ‘beneficiaries’ of knowledge provided by the academic partners, and their roles have been limited to providing ‘evidence’ of validity or otherwise of the academic knowledge. This interplay of academic and non-academic partners helps to produce new knowledge which neither partner had before. Such a perspective in these partnerships respected the active engagement of community partners in knowledge production, not mere ‘consumers’ – and passive beneficiaries – of knowledge and related services offered by academic partners.

Participatory methods are at the core of successful community–university research partnerships. The Southern cases underscore the central role that participatory methods for inquiry and engagement play in the success of community–university research partnerships. Overall, the picture that emerges is that partnerships select the mix of participatory methods that best suit their objectives and context, and are consistent with the expertise of their resource persons and organizations.

We have already highlighted the importance of the steering or coordinating committee as a vehicle for multi-stakeholder planning, implementation and monitoring of partnership activities. Other methods utilized in the cases include: needs assessments through stakeholder engagement (Machaca, Chiquitania, Senegal, Bukidnon, MDRC and Sriniketan); participant-oriented and problem-based training (Machaca, Senegal, Bukidnon, MDRC, Sriniketan); integration of learning into action plans (Machaca, Bukidnon) and new policies (Machaca, Chiquitania, Bukidnon, MDRC); field exposure and field projects (MDRC, Senegal); public hearings (MDRC, workshop-based SAS2 tools: Chiquitania, Machaca); co-production of systematized knowledge products such as books (Machaca) and training manuals (Bukidnon); and creation of an accessible knowledge pool (MDRC, Sriniketan). The CEBEM projects also used logical frameworks, in-depth interviews and stakeholder analysis charts. For its part, Sriniketan’s REC made extensive use of grass-roots seminars, cultural programmes and the performing arts, dialogue with schoolteachers, parents and readers, wall magazines and newsletters.

The cases also reinforce the view that online tools can facilitate stakeholder collaboration across time, space and sector. One example was the use by stakeholders from different countries of CEBEM’s Forestry Development Platform, to coordinate their work on the Chiquitania small forest producer project and related projects in Latin America. The two Bolivian projects also took advantage of the sliding scale of complexity and technical language in the SAS2 tools, and used the tools easily understood – diagrams and symbols to engage the widest

range of stakeholders. At the other end of the online tools experience, however, the rural libraries project in Sriniketan found that it had insufficient funds to fully lever the benefits of information and communication technologies.

One promising area for future experimentation in community–university research partnerships is social media. At this point, it isn't clear the extent to which tools such as Facebook, Twitter and YouTube can be deployed. There are still real limits on the population's access to such technology in poor regions (often rural or isolated) with low household income and underdeveloped communications infrastructure. Nonetheless, a growing percentage of Southern citizens of all ages own and utilize mobile telephones, in particular. Moreover, currently, most organizations in all sectors – post-secondary institutions, government agencies, NGOs – have at least minimal, and often very substantial, computing and internet capacity. The experimentation that could prove most productive involves testing various combinations of technology to expand and deepen citizen engagement (blending cell-phone and FM radio systems in sub-Saharan Africa, for example). In addition, ways and means of *paying for* additional online capacity for partnership stakeholders should also be tested and refined. It may be that a greater percentage of future budgets of partnerships should be allocated to social media expenses.

The CUPP initiative in Brighton evolved an extremely innovative method of Community of Practice (CoP) where participation of students, faculty, practitioners, parents and service providers was enabled. CoP became the vehicle for co-production of knowledge, specially systematizing tacit knowledge. This participatory innovation was possible only because the leaders of the project were ready to 'deconstruct' academic assumptions. In the science shop-enabled cases, the 'objectivity' of research was seen as necessary to influence the government; therefore, 'scientific' methods of enquiry were preferred. However, in the study of water quality in village ponds, residents became informants and collaborators of students, 'surveying' ponds in their boats. In addition, the findings of the study, though presented as objective research, were presented in a form that residents could understand and discuss. The case from Quebec made very innovative use of colloquia as a forum to share emerging findings, to generate new analysis and frame new questions. These colloquia were jointly designed and facilitated by researchers and practitioners in the coordinating team.

In cases where science shops acted as intermediaries, it is useful to note that the research questions were posed by the community, on water quality. Residents, their associations and NGOs working with them were interested in finding answers to these questions, and the researchers from universities felt accountable to them for the same. Residents of these communities also took charge of the findings, and used them in the public domain to work towards cleaner water in their communities.

An important lesson from these cases is to be open to innovation in designing participatory methods – innovations happen when constraints arise; finding new spaces and sites for innovation also enables accountability of research findings to academic and non-academic partners and stakeholders as well.



Government matters a great deal, both in terms of the engagement of policy-makers as partners, and also in terms of implementing and scaling up the knowledge that is co-produced by the partnerships.

The Southern cases show that community–university research partnerships can advance government policies to promote better livelihoods, environmental sustainability and indigenous culture. Most Southern partnerships display strong functional linkages with local and state or provincial government agencies and officials, in particular. The two Bolivian cases and the Philippines project are the most well developed in this regard. However, both Indian initiatives also demonstrate strong working links to governments, as well. Partnerships involving universities, civil society groups, communities and governments – including multiple levels and sectors of the state simultaneously – can achieve broader and deeper results than actions taken without government involvement. Indeed, the activities of such partnerships can and do serve as policy experiments whose models and methods can be adopted as mainstream policy and scaled up efficiently.

At the same time, universities and their civil society and community allies can use research partnerships to challenge governments. MDRC in Srinagar has used a series of public hearings to determine, first, the perspectives and demands of local residents who would be displaced by a hydro-power project. Then the centre brings together community representatives, government officials and the private power project company. In one case, MDRC pressured the company to raise its compensation rate from Rs10,000 to Rs30,000 per acre, a significant gain. University faculty and social workers drafted a broader proposal to guide compensation and resettlement in future power projects, submitted this to government, and met with the Chief Minister to discuss the proposal.

In the CUPP initiative in Brighton, several statutory agencies and National Health Service staff were actively involved; it ensured that RT as a methodology and CoP as practice were used by official agencies; it further enabled new knowledge so generated to be included in the curriculum of teaching for new public service providers. In Romania and Denmark, the local municipalities were actively engaged in sharing the findings from the study. In Romania, Water Works Company was invited to engage with residents in a public dialogue about the research findings. In Denmark, the local municipality initially showed no interest in the research, but later agreed to discuss its findings.

In Quebec, the research on financing of social economy enterprises was regularly engaging with federal, provincial and municipal governments; these engagements focused on finding answers to various research questions, as well as exploring solutions to the challenge of new capital investment models for social enterprises in the region. As a consequence, a major ‘patient capital’ fund of \$10 million for social enterprises was sanctioned jointly by federal and Quebec provincial governments, which has since resulted in enhanced investments and job creation in social enterprises.

Promoters of community–university research partnerships must make the necessary efforts to include local government agencies as co-producers of knowl-

edge; that partnership can also enhance their sense of ownership of the findings, thereby creating enabling conditions for relevant government action. Large-scale impacts of such outcomes can only be generated through multiplier policy impacts, necessitating active government engagements in the partnerships.

These partnerships can be operationalized through a variety of vehicles, such as projects and centres, though institutionalizing their functions and funding can be challenging.

Half of the Southern partnerships were carried out as projects. The Bolivian partnerships were part of CEBEM's overall project portfolio. The Senegal partnership was framed as a pilot project in student engagement. However, the two Indian partnerships were operationalized through centres – the MDRC in Srinagar and the RECs in Sriniketan. Each centre, in turn, managed a group of programmes and projects. The Philippines initiative was run as a project but triggered the creation of an Institute of Environmental Governance to continue training of local officials and conduct research on priority issues, in coordination with relevant government bodies.

In the three European cases, centres were enablers of partnerships. In the case of Romania and Denmark, the centre was a science shop established to promote such partnerships between community and university to address some specific problems faced by the local communities. In the case of the University of Brighton, UK, the Community–University Partnership Project (CUPP) has been the anchor for their work on ‘resilience therapy’ with children and their families; even though called a project, CUPP has evolved into a working centre over its eight-year evolution.

The advantage of the centre option is that it is a more permanent structure through which a range of specific partnership initiatives may be carried out over time. The challenge is that it requires ongoing funding, typically with a budget that is larger than that of a project. The partnerships reviewed here understood there are two sources of this kind of long-term support: universities and government. The rural libraries attached to the REC in India receive annual non-matching grants from a national library foundation, plus additional matching grants. The centre itself is supported by an annual recurrent budget from the Institute of Rural Reconstruction, part of Vishva-Bharati, designated as a central university.

For its part, the MDRC has had the support of senior university-level officials. In the short term, the ‘nodal agent’ at MDRC has been paid a stipend by the university for his work, and the centre runs otherwise on external project funds. However, a proposal for the expansion and permanent status of its budget and staff compliment has been delayed by politics related to the government of India's decision to classify Garhwal University as a central university.

The partnership in Quebec began with RQCC (microcredit network of Quebec) and researchers in UQAM created a coordinating mechanism for the CURA-funded research in 2003; it resulted in the emergence of *Le Chantier de l'Économie Sociale* as a coalition to focus on financial investment issues in social enterprises. The consortium became so effective that it won the contract from the government of Quebec in November 2006 to hold the patient capital fund for such enterprises. The consortium was also able to undertake political engagement and

negotiation with various government agencies on the basis of emerging findings from research.

The science shops in Denmark and Romania had been set up over a period of time since the late 1990s (while these projects were conducted in 2001 and 1999 respectively); these science shops had received some funding from governments (Dutch government in case of Romanian science shop) and some infrastructure type of facilities from the universities. CUPP had consistently raised research grants from various government or foundation sources in UK, with active support from the University of Brighton.

Thus, institutionalizing the functions and funding of partnerships can itself become time-consuming and complex. Partnership champions, managers and activists should be prepared for this set of challenges.

Coordination of research partnerships can be achieved through multi-stakeholder working groups, management units embedded in key institutions, or informal, consultative arrangements.

Several Southern interventions were guided by multi-stakeholder working groups, usually called steering committees or coordinating committees. In particular, the Senegal project's steering committee was the heart of the initiative, including senior stakeholders from all key partner groups. In the case of Machaca municipality, the partners established a coordinating committee and also a technical committee of experts; it was necessary for CEBEM to coordinate both across and within these committees. Since this project was also part of a national network, it formed a working group of international partner representatives. In the MDRC case, the formation of an ad hoc committee organized by Garhwal University and local community experts, supported by PRIA, was followed by the establishment of a more formal committee to guide the work of the newly incorporated centre to serve students and faculty from multiple universities in the area.

At the same time, other approaches were used. In the Chiquitania forest producer initiative, responsibility for project direction was lodged in the natural resources unit of the area government, complemented by a dedicated management unit in the national government. In the Philippines case, the Institute of Environmental Governance worked informally, on a project basis, with key government units, including municipalities, councils of indigenous elders, and city government, as well as the national Department of Environment and Natural Resources. In yet another model, the Rural Extension Centre and its rural libraries support and are guided by the decisions and activities of village development societies.

In Brighton's CUPP initiative, an innovative approach of CoP was utilized to enable research partnership. CoP, comprising community volunteers, parents, students, faculty and service providers, would meet monthly to share knowledge, ensure coordination and identify challenges ahead. In the Romanian case, in addition to researchers and NGO staff and volunteers, the private sector – Green Consultancy – was also involved in the partnership. Coordination became a shared responsibility, and communication with the community was regularly maintained in this manner. Quebec's CAP Financement became a major multi-stakeholder coordination mechanism in the project; it included some private sector participa-

tion from the capital markets as well, so that research could benefit from their perspective, experiences and knowledge, too.

Regardless of what coordination or management model is used in research partnerships, the potential for stakeholder conflict is always present and must be managed. This is illustrated most strikingly in the Senegal project, when the university students went on strike for higher salaries and their case was vigorously supported by a steering committee member. The issue was eventually resolved, but a solution had to be negotiated by the committee. It is interesting to note that, when asked about the success factors in this project, the case-study authors point to the 'democratic spirit' of the committee.

Multi-stakeholder coordination mechanisms are designed to overcome the limitations of single-participant management; such multi-stakeholder mechanisms generate ownership of all the stakeholders in the timely and effective delivery of project results, as well as facilitate timely deployment of capacities and resources of all stakeholders in the project. However, such multi-stakeholder coordination mechanisms in any partnership face differences in style, priority, approach and standards, thereby generating conflicts. Community–university partnerships deploying effective multi-stakeholder coordination mechanisms need to be prepared to deal with conflicts in a constructive and transparent manner. Intensity and complexity of such conflicts, and therefore capacities required to deal with them, increase substantially where serious differences in power remain unresolved (like those related to use of resources and patenting of results).

### **Investment in an effective intermediary is critical as partnership catalyst**

One common theme linking the Southern cases is the importance of substantial, ongoing staff time to coordinate all partnership activities, including its methodological efforts. At one end of the spectrum is the example of the Machaca municipality project, to which CEBEM assigned three full-time staff members and supported the hiring of a number of part-time consultants. In the case of MDRC, the nodal agent undertakes all coordination, management and liaison functions in support of the centre's activities; other resources may be engaged on a project-by-project basis. Other partnerships, such as the Chiquitania and Bukidnon cases, benefited from significant staff time contributed towards project coordination and management by government officials at multiple levels of government.

In Europe, effective intermediation has been possible through investment over a decade. The science shops in Romania and Denmark (like hundreds of science shops in other European countries) have been invested in over two decades with capacities of staff who are able to act as partnership catalysts. The science shop in Iasi, Romania, had staff who knew how to communicate across various partners, academic departments and different universities, a private consultancy firm and the township residents. Similar intermediation functions were performed by the science shop in Denmark as it entailed working with multiple participants and keeping them regularly informed and involved. In CUPP, the project had staff dedicated to support the CoP, the key coordination mechanism. Staff time

(including those from the community) was compensated from project funds as continued involvement of capable facilitators would not have been possible without it. The mechanism of intermediation in the Quebec project is recognized by those involved as most valuable; they refer to it as ‘mediation’ between the two different worlds of research and practice. Active facilitation of communication, meetings, minutes and capacities enabled the social economy project to mediate both technical and relational aspects of the partnership. CURA funding enabled this process significantly.

More specifically, the staff of what we will call partnership catalyst organizations – CEBEM and PRIA being the two most prominent examples; the African Participatory Research Network (REPAS) is another – play a unique role in coordinating the methodological work of the partnerships. This requires expertise in and a commitment to facilitating knowledge co-production by the partners, especially among community members with local knowledge and technical professionals; facilitating the dialogue and mutual learning not only among academic and practitioner knowledge, but also across content areas and between content and process fields. Finally, these specialists must coordinate methods and knowledge co-production vertically, from the local to the state or provincial levels to the national and international levels. This set of skills and capacities among partnership catalyst organizations is invaluable. As some are doing already, these groups must train new staff cohorts in the years ahead.

In this sense, it is critical to ensure that effective intermediaries are essential as partnership catalysts in any community–university partnerships intermediation ensures that hitherto separately and independently acting partners (university faculty, students, community, NGOs, etc.) enter and remain in partnership to achieve shared goals. Intermediation thus is critical (Gaventa and Tandon, 2010); it doesn’t happen spontaneously; it requires sufficient investment in building, nurturing and deploying key staff capacities. Intermediation is also critical in creating and sustaining relationships across dissimilar others; in a community–university partnership, the value addition comes from the diversity of participants; they need to learn to build and maintain relationships. Partnership catalysts are intermediaries that facilitate relationships – the essence of partnerships. Over time, as PRIA, CEBEM, CUPP and science shops have shown, such intermediaries have their own web of relationships across diverse sectors, thereby facilitating new partnerships over time.

A common characteristic across many of these intermediaries in the cases described here is their civil society character: they are independent entities which promote this perspective of research partnerships; they may be funded by a university or government or foundation, but they maintain autonomy from their donors; they bring flexibility in their operations (to overcome institutional inertias in universities or governments); they can transcend institutional and thematic boundaries; they are committed to this perspective of co-production of knowledge.

All of these civil society organizations (CSOs) came to the partnership process with an impressive track record of expertise in community-based and partnered

research, and a deep commitment to applying participatory methods to the co-production of useful knowledge. Equally important, they all seem to have been quite willing to step back at the appropriate point in time to permit university, community and government interests to assume joint control over the partnerships. The CSOs then adjusted their roles as other stakeholders took over and set in motion decisions to institutionalize the partnerships or their functions. This, too, is an invaluable set of skills that can be learned. A new generation of CSO leaders, managers and activists must be trained in this important set of abilities.

Community–university research partnerships benefit from the involvement of university executives, professors and students from a wide range of academic disciplines and fields. In the Southern cases, engaged academics and students came from many disciplines and fields, including public administration, local development, training and information technology (Machaca); public administration, sociology, forestry, business and law (Chiquitania); applied economics and sustainable development (Senegal); rural extension, science, ecology, geography, training, monitoring and evaluation (Bukidnon); education, business management, anthropology, journalism and mass communication, horticulture, environmental science, social work and rural development (Srinagar); and rural extension, information technology and library sciences (Sriniketan). One of the notable features of this experience is the mix of content and process fields that they entail, both within and across the cases. Rural extension, rural development, social work, training and evaluation can be considered process-oriented fields of academic knowledge and practice. In some cases, NGOs provide this expertise, as well. At the same time, there are also content-rich fields of study – forestry, business, ecology, geography, business – which figure prominently in the Southern cases. Both types of engaged scholarship seem to have been necessary in order for these partnerships to achieve meaningful gains.

It is interesting to note that European cases suggest much engagement of students and faculty from multiple disciplines of enquiry. In CUPP at Brighton, faculty members from mental health, community service, child development and social work came together initially; some students got involved as well, but new faculty engagement depended on resource availability.

In the two cases which involved science shops, students were the prime drivers of enquiry and partnerships; students from multiple disciplines (environment, engineering, chemistry, etc.) began the project initiative, and then found supportive faculty supervisors. In the Romanian case, students contacted social science faculties from another university to prepare a social enquiry survey tool. Some faculty supervisors initially resisted such multidisciplinaryism; the students pushed for it, since the problem definition required use of multiple knowledge domains (like environmental chemistry and social inquiry in the Romanian case). Most faculty members are discipline based, not problem focused as community–university research partnerships require.

This is an important lesson for those working on developing and facilitating such partnerships. Be prepared to transcend disciplinary and departmental boundaries; be aware of the resistances that arise in any such collaborations; and

students can be valuable champions of boundary transgressions, so critical in producing effective outcomes in community–university research partnerships.

Sustained support from senior-level leaders is crucial to the success of community–university partnerships. Successful research partnerships benefit from sustained support by senior-level leaders in universities, governments and civil society. In the case of MDRC, the support of the Vice Chancellor of Garhwal University in Srinagar was instrumental in bringing together the original committee that initiated the centre. The state governor has also been active in key decisions concerning the centre, including approving the appointment of the local community-based forest expert to teach at the university. In addition, the chair of MDRC has always been a dean or department head. In the Philippines, the Institute of Environmental Governance is administered directly under the Office of the President of Bukidnon State University. State politicians there supported a total logging ban, including the transport of out-of-state logs across their state. Moreover, the area chief executive of local government units has provided financial support to the institute's work.

While the key university partners in the Senegal case were faculty members as opposed to university executives, local politicians and religious leaders, particularly imams, were mobilized to support partnerships in participating communities. With regard to the Senegal project's international allies, CUPP, at University of Brighton, had enjoyed strong and visible support from that University's Vice-Chancellor, who himself was a leading advocate of partnered research in the United Kingdom (see Watson, 2007). For its part, the Bolivian project involving indigenous governance in Machaca benefited from the strong, ongoing support of that municipality's mayor, support including the project's book featuring local peoples' presentation of Aboriginal systems, culture and management practices. Municipal officials also solidly supported the work of CEBEM and its partners on cooperation of small forest producers in Bolivia's Chiquitania region. Senior leadership of UQAM supported this project as they saw value in contributing to the growing significance of social enterprises in livelihood generation in Quebec.

It is critical that the top leadership of universities appreciate, value and support such partnerships. Their support can open doors; help overcome parochial resistances; enable energy to flow towards risk taking; inspire students and motivate faculty to engage with the community in an open manner. Leadership support is also essential from governments and donors; research councils and professional academic associations can indicate their interests in such partnerships, creating an enabling partnership environment. Therefore, promoters of community–university research partnerships would do well to identify critical top-level support needed to make these partnerships work well.

### **International cooperation can be very useful to local partnerships**

International cooperation can provide financial and methodological support for community–university partnerships. For its part, the indigenous governance project in Bolivia's Municipality of Jesus de Machaca benefited from a regional

initiative funded by the European Union and coordinated by CEBEM. The same project also used methods and tools from the SAS2 group ([www.sas2.net](http://www.sas2.net)), based at Carleton University in Ottawa, funded by Canada's International Development Research Centre (IDRC). CEBEM's other project, on small forest producers in the Chiquitania region of Bolivia, was funded by Spanish Cooperation, Spain's aid agency, through the University of Cordoba. It, too, utilized SAS2 methods whose development and dissemination was supported by IDRC. In both projects, CEBEM played a catalytic role in negotiating and managing international funding flows and access to methodological expertise.

In addition, international cooperation resulted in important funding, expertise and solidarity for the Senegal student engagement project. Through the Global Alliance for Community-Engaged Research, REPAS, the sub-Saharan Africa network based in Dakar, developed a link with CUPP, University of Brighton. Together, CUPP and REPAS were able to access funding through the Education Partnership Project Grants window of the British Council. Moreover, CUPP provided additional knowledge in the strategy and tactics of partnership management and activities, particularly with regard to student engagement techniques – and important solidarity when this project experienced challenges.

At the same time, research partnerships may be successfully undertaken *without* foreign cooperation. In particular, the cases of the MDRC and REC in India, and the environmental governance initiative in Bukidnon State, the Philippines, did not utilize international cooperation to design or implement their interventions, funding their activities through local and national resources. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that PRIA, the NGO think-tank, was itself funded by international agencies as well as local sources during the MDRC project. The science shop in Romania was funded by the Dutch government; the science shops movement in Europe has been actively supported by the European Union. When national funding sources (like social science research councils or other government agencies) are risk averse, and focus on traditional academic knowledge, international cooperation can nudge these new partnerships. Seeking support from international agencies, however, has to be handled in a manner that doesn't create perceptions of external domination (especially northern domination) in research enterprise itself.

Political advocacy is distinct from partnered research, and is essential for research to influence policy. The experience of the Community–University Research Alliance in the Social Economy in Quebec, coordinated by the University of Quebec at Montreal, Canada, has emphasized the importance of distinguishing between research partnerships and the broader process of social change, which is usually led by social and political movements. As Fontan and Bussi eres advise in Chapter 7 of this volume: 'The expectation for change far surpasses the research objectives specific to the research partnership, and involves different participants and actions that differ from the basic research process. Some of these include community facilitation, training, citizen action, and the formation of coalitions with others in the community who are not involved in the research' (see, p. 81).

Accordingly, the tool they propose to use to evaluate such research partnerships also makes this distinction. Indeed, the final question in the tool asks



whether the research partnership 'has a positive effect on the area targeted for change' (*ibid.*, p. 85).

Active advocacy with local municipality and regional government was pursued in Iasi, where quantity and quality of water supply to communities had suffered due to indiscriminate industrialization. Local media used the findings to generate public debate and create pressure on the government to improve the water supply. One of the newspapers presented the findings in a manner as to sensationalize the issue. However, public debate in the town hall helped to focus the real issues.

In Quebec's social economy case, political engagement was key to success in securing a fund for investment in such enterprises. At an opportune time when research fundings were available, the consortium invited then-Prime Minister Paul Martin to a colloquium where findings and possible solutions were shared.

When there is sufficient political space to engage in advocacy and other change processes, for example, in Canada or India, this is a very useful distinction. However, what is to be done when the context is politically repressive? It may be in such a case that the community–university research partnership will only be able to achieve modest objectives in terms of political or social change. However, at some point in the future, allied organizations outside the immediate partnership may be able to use the research results to bolster efforts towards change. The timing and tactics used to make such an advance will likely depend on the ebb and flow of local or national politics. So, it is essential that the community–university partnerships – that originally co-produced the knowledge together – also serve as joint stewards of this production until such time as conditions permit further action. Staying power, resilience and focus on the end goal of change are all important factors of success in this situation. Building larger alliances within the country, and even beyond, can assist in redefining the relations of power with political authorities and related vested interests.

It is possible, and necessary, to systematically evaluate community–university research partnerships.

At the beginning of the second decade of the twenty-first century, economics matters everywhere, all the time. Funding agencies, especially governments, are very interested in social interventions that have measurable economic impacts. In the current context, therefore, those interventions that can demonstrate credible economic results are more likely to attract ongoing resources. This applies to the Southern case studies. One of the lessons from the Senegal student engagement project was that the collection of real data by the partnership is an important means of optimizing longer-term funding. The project did some of this, but could have done more. What was the value, in terms of additional income and better nutrition, to villages and households of reducing soil erosion and expanding food production? Similarly, if other projects had collected more detailed, granular data on the economic impacts of partnership activities on individuals and households, the positions of those partnerships would have also been further strengthened.

For example, what impact on poverty reduction would an increase in resettlement compensation from Rs10,000 to Rs30,000 per acre exert on village households in the Srinagar area? Or what economic benefits would accrue to the households

of entrepreneurs and workers deriving income from value-added forest products in the Chiquitania region? In the years ahead, community–university research partnerships should be better equipped to collect and utilize such data.

Chapter 7 demonstrates that not only are engaged scholars and reflective practitioners around the world designing and implementing a wide range of community–university partnerships, they are also working on ways to evaluate and improve these initiatives. The UQAM team presents a tool, based on extensive partnership work in Quebec over the past five years, which is aimed at assessing the research partnership process. This instrument comprises a questionnaire that requires *yes* or *no* answers to twenty-four questions organized according to the phases of a partnered research project: co-definition, co-implementation, mobilization of the knowledge produced and results of the research. The questions hold partnerships to a high standard of design and performance. Upon completion of the questionnaire, a diamond diagram is produced for each partnership evaluated. The raw scores and diagrams for each partnership assessed can then be compared. The authors indicate that: ‘Primarily, the model is targeted at the protagonists in research partnerships, to give them tools with which to reflect on their research partnership experience and identify areas for improvement’ (*ibid.*, p. 88).

Other strategies and tools can be deployed to evaluate community–university research partnerships. In terms of facilitating stakeholder engagement in the evaluation process, PRIA’s participatory evaluation work over thirty years is a valuable source of methodological experience and techniques. Other sources in this area include Chevalier and Buckles (2009); Gaventa and Tandon (2010); Jackson and Kassam (1998), and others. With regard to results-based management, logic-model analysis is also a potential approach to evaluating research partnerships. So, too, is cost–benefit analysis, especially in the field of economic development. In terms of the social dimensions of the costs and benefits of community–university research partnerships, the emerging tools for measuring social return on investment may also prove useful (see Mook *et al.*, 2007).

The development of a knowledge democracy movement worldwide can benefit from ongoing, robust and independent evaluation of research partnerships at all levels. The tasks of designing, testing and refining strategies, methods and tools for this purpose are crucial to the long-term success of the movement. This area deserves concerted effort in the years ahead.

From local partnerships to a knowledge democracy movement, there is no macro without micro. It is said that all politics are local. Likewise, all movements – at least all effective ones – are based on and informed by local action. A global knowledge democracy movement must be rooted in local-level experiences and organizations. The case studies in this book demonstrate the vitality, creativity and relevance of local community–university research partnerships. They and hundreds, perhaps thousands, more like them around the world constitute a solid platform upon which a global knowledge democracy movement can be built.

They can be improved, too. We have seen that there are key strategies or tools for strengthening these partnerships. Once strengthened, they can then be replicated and scaled up to generate broader and deeper impacts. Facilitating their

exchange of information and experience among local partnerships is an important step in making this happen. So, too, is the training and mentoring of leaders and activists in this field, within universities, in civil society, in the state and, yes, even in the private sector – and proactive networking across and within these constituencies.

These cases are thus valuable in multiple ways. Not only have the cases reviewed here achieved important practical gains on the ground for local people and policies, which they have done impressively. These interventions have also made contributions to the building of the theory of democratic knowledge (co-) production and application. And, above all else, they vividly bring to life what a knowledge democracy can – and actually does – look like in practice, and what it can deliver in order to create better livelihoods, cleaner environments and more effective governance.

# 3

## An architecture understood: effective support structures for community–university partnerships

*Edward T. Jackson, Letlotlo M. Gariba and Evren Tok*

### Introduction

Good architectural design is fundamental to the successful construction, maintenance and liveability of a home. Likewise, the appropriate architecture is necessary in instituting policies and programmes that deepen, broaden, improve and sustain community–university research partnerships. The good news is that much is known about how to design effective support structures to foster and nurture these partnerships.

This chapter reviews ten proven examples of such structures, all drawn from the Global North. These structures operate variously at the macro (national or multinational), meso and micro levels. The chapter also discusses strategies and tools for evaluating partnerships that can be used by support structures. Finally, the chapter addresses the question of how the Global South can institute support structures to promote community–university research partnerships in poor emerging countries, building on the experience of the North.

### Macro-level structures

#### *Community–university research alliances in Canada*

For more than a decade, the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) of Canada, a federal agency set up by the Liberal government in 1977, operated the Community–University Research Alliance (CURA) programme. Allocating more than \$120 million to this initiative, the council funded national, regional and local partnerships between engaged scholars and reflective practitioners in such fields as Aboriginal languages, social enterprise, food security, and environmental assessment (see Hall, 2009b). CURAs were provided with substantial funds – \$1 million over five years – to coordinate what were often sprawling networks of collaborators, to promote knowledge mobilization and to foster extensive graduate student participation. One disadvantage to community partners was that CURA funds could only be channelled through universities, and then ‘out’ to community groups. However, CURAs did eventually support stipends for practitioners to work on CURAs, recognizing the value of their knowledge and the opportunity of their participation. In 2010, SSHRC intro-

duced new programme architecture that sought to make its support of partnered research even more flexible and responsive (SSHRC, 2010). This new architecture is currently being tested.

#### *Support for higher education's social and economic contribution in England*

The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), an arm's-length body with its own board, began distributing public funds to universities and colleges in 1992. In 2009–10, for example, the Council received about £8 billion from the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills, and, in turn, distributed these funds to higher education institutions as block grants. Among other areas, HEFCE allocated funds to the theme of 'Enhancing the contribution of higher education to the economy and society'. It was from this programme window that HEFCE supported the South East Coastal Communities Project of the Community University Partnerships Programme (CUPP) at the University of Brighton. Prior to the election of the Conservative government in the United Kingdom, the council was to undergo a review of its effectiveness. In the wake of radical Conservative cuts in 2011 to higher education, the Council's own future is in question.

#### *Lifelong learning in Europe*

Operating at the supranational level, the European Commission manages its large-scale Lifelong Learning Programme, whose 2007–13 budget is €7 billion. Encompassing a wide range of educational, vocational-training and e-learning initiatives, the programme aims to enable Europeans at all stages of their lives, in diverse cultures, to pursue stimulating learning opportunities and to enhance their mobility to access employment in the euro region. Grants are awarded on the basis of a call for proposals. The programme frequently funds collaborations between universities and other partners, including both private and non-profit sectors. In the wake of Europe's continuing debt crisis, proposals to renew this programme will face stiff competition and scrutiny as the European Commission deals with cuts to its overall budget.

These three examples of macro-level structures are instructive in many ways: the progressive framing and design of their programmes; their innovative practices of funding grantees, and the ways in which they themselves have been shaped by broader, and continuously evolving, political and economic conditions. It is clear from these cases that establishing such structures is a twofold task: one that is both technocratic and political at the same time.

### **Meso-level support structures**

#### *Community–Campus Partnerships for Health*

Community–Campus Partnerships for Health (CCPH) is a non-profit organization founded in 1996 that aims to promote health through partnerships between communities and higher-education institutions. With a growing membership of more than 1,800 community organizations, universities and colleges, and individuals across the United States and Canada, the organization facilitates networking,

exchange and mutual learning on service learning, community-based participatory research and other partnership strategies. It has also produced a toolkit for faculty members who do partnered scholarship and are seeking tenure or promotion. CCPH organizes an influential annual conference and, through its website and newsletter, provides information on funding and publication opportunities. Governed by a board of directors of community members, faculty and students, CCPH is supported by cash and in-kind contributions from public and private organizations, government agencies, foundations and individuals.

### **The Living Knowledge Network (science shops)**

With its origins in the Netherlands in the 1970s, the concept of science shops has evolved and expanded to many countries. While they take a variety of organizational forms, science shops generally provide independent, participatory research services in response to issues identified by citizens' organizations. Involving both the hard and social sciences, science shops may be based within universities, or they may be stand-alone NGOs operating in the community. For its part, the Living Knowledge Network connects science shops across Europe. The network offers online resources and toolkits relating to science-shop organization and activities and other forms of community–university partnerships. Since 2000, the European Commission has provided financial assistance to science-shop research, networking and conferences, through its 5th, 6th and 7th Framework Programmes of EU-wide research. Science shops receive funding and in-kind support from the universities with which they are affiliated, studentship and research grants, co-funding with partner NGOs, and their own social entrepreneurship.

#### *Community–university partnership in practice*

CUPP is a collaborative involving the University of Brighton and communities in and around Brighton. Established in 2003, this partnership has aimed to tackle disadvantage and promote equitable and sustainable development in local communities through research and action. In particular, the CUPP help desk serves as an entry point to the university for local community, voluntary and statutory organizations seeking assistance with research and other tasks. Committed to ongoing learning and improvement, the collaborative built in a phased external evaluation of its work in the period 2004–06, and adjusted its plans and activities in light of the evaluation's findings. CUPP also uses a matrix entitled REAP (Reciprocity, Externalities, Access and Partnership) as a self-assessment tool to capture and measure the inputs, outputs and outcomes for both university and community partners. As noted earlier, CUPP benefited from multi-year financial support from HEFCE.

#### *Le Chantier de l'économie sociale, Quebec*

Le Chantier de l'économie sociale is Quebec's umbrella organization for movements and organizations involved in the broad social-economy sector, including day-care centres, housing cooperatives, social enterprises for disadvantaged groups, and

much more. The Chantier has been the prime regional partner for a series of research collaborations with the University of Quebec at Montreal (UQAM) on the social economy and social-purpose finance (see Chapter 7 in this volume). These projects were funded by the CURA programme of SSHRC. This research informed the Chantier's proposal to establish a non-profit trust to finance the expansion of the social economy in Quebec. The trust was launched in 2006–07 with support from the governments of Canada and Quebec, further strengthening Chantier's influence and capacity. The organization's regional research collaboration with UQAM continues.

These are four different meso-level structures. The CCPH network is organized along *thematic* lines. In this case, health, broadly defined, is the common focus of a wide variety of partnership programmes, projects, centres and institutes. For its part, the Living Knowledge Network is organized by the type of *partnership mechanism* it supports: the science shop. Members of the networks undertake action research with community partners on a diversity of issues, from water quality to youth unemployment. The third example is that of CUPP, which is a more *localized network* coordinated by one university and serving a group of communities in a common catchment area. The case of the Chantier is different again; it is a *social-movement mechanism* that makes demands on and directs community–university partnerships. In all four cases, however, multi-year funding has been crucial to the effective operation of these structures. Of the four, CCPH and the Chantier appear to have developed the most diversified mix of revenue streams.

### Micro-level structures

#### *University of British Columbia Community Learning Initiative*

In 2006, the University of British Columbia (UBC) in Canada launched its Community Learning Initiative (CLI) to promote community service learning and community-based research. Funded by the J.W. McConnell Family Foundation and the University, the initiative is a broad-based collaboration of faculties, departments and community organizations overseen by three UBC vice-presidents: academic, students and external. CLI offers support to course instructors and facilitates meaningful student engagement through ongoing relationships with community partners. In 2009, Community Service Learning (CSL) projects focused on such areas as sustainability, marginalization, poverty and gender politics. UBC has evaluated the initiative regularly, surveying the perspectives of faculty, student and community organizations. Challenges identified through the evaluation process include the need to develop deeper partnerships in the planning of projects, and establishing the growth of CSL as a strategic priority of the university.

#### *Kids in the Hall Program, Edmonton*

The Kids in the Hall Program was a collaboration of the Community–University Partnership unit of the University of Alberta and the Edmonton City Centre Church, in Alberta, Canada. Funded by a grant of about \$250,000 from the

federal government's National Crime Prevention Strategy, the programme sought to address the root causes of crime through counselling in life management, career planning and links to employment opportunities for young people with prior criminal records, substance abuse problems and poverty backgrounds. The University of Alberta team conducted evaluation research from 2003 to 2005 to enable the programme to adjust and improve its delivery approach.

### *Trent Centre for Community-Based Education*

The Trent Centre for Community-Based Education (TCCBE) was set up as a separate non-profit organization to expand and deepen Trent University's engagement with community organizations in Peterborough and Haliburton in southern Ontario, Canada. The founding organizations were the Frost Centre for Canadian Studies at Trent University, the Peterborough Social Planning Council, and the non-profit Community Opportunity and Innovation Network. TCCBE connects students and faculty with local organizations to generate opportunities for community-based research, service learning and other experiential education opportunities. Projects are aimed at enhancing the social, environmental, cultural and economic health of local communities in its programming region. During the period 2004 to 2009, the centre benefited from a grant from the McConnell Foundation of nearly \$1 million to expand its services. Also funded by grants and contacts from the federal and provincial governments, TCCBE is governed by a board of directors of community leaders as well as advisory committees for the City of Peterborough and Haliburton County.

There are hundreds of micro-level structures for community–university partnerships across North America, the United Kingdom and Europe. These three examples present a structure that is inside the university institutional base, one that is both inside and outside (Kids in the Hall), and one that is outside the university (TCCBE). In all cases, once again, the importance of multi-year funding has been key to the success of these structures.

Clearly the optimum scenario is for micro-level structures to flourish in a context in which they are supported by both meso- and macro-level structures. Another lesson from these examples is that ongoing evaluation can be used by structures at all levels to assist in continuously adjusting and improving services. And, behind each of these examples is also the story of an impressive, resilient leader – pragmatic visionaries – who bring these structures to life, and sustain them.

### **Assessing performance: promising directions**

Running alongside the evolving experience of support structures for community–university partnership has been a parallel stream of work on appropriate ways of assessing the performance of local and regional partnerships. In North America, the United Kingdom and Europe, this literature is found in the fields of higher education, educational planning, health services, social work and programme evaluation itself. Discussion of evaluation approaches is particularly evident in the



area of service learning, where various assessment models have been advanced. One, for example, is the 3-I model, which assesses three dimensions of the service-learning partnership under study: the initiator, the initiative and impact (Berry, 2009). In the area of research partnerships, Currie *et al.* (2005) propose a process-oriented evaluation approach that assesses three mid-term impact domains: enhanced knowledge, enhanced research skills and use of information.

Perhaps the most comprehensive assessment framework has been advanced by Holland (2001), a leader in service learning and partnerships more generally for many years. Holland's model for evaluating service learning is based on a goal-variable-indicator-method design, where *goal* refers to 'what do we want to know?', *variable* to 'what will we look for?', *indicator* to 'what will be measured?' and *method* to 'how will it be measured?'. The Holland approach uses a matrix to assign appropriate methods with key variables and their associated indicators. Overall, Holland argues for measuring a few important indicators well, rather than collecting large and time-consuming amounts of data for many indicators.

While her earlier work concentrated mainly on results related to students, Holland later focused on ways of assessing the partnership itself. This framework aims to assess partnership performance on common themes, such as exploration and expansion of separate and common goals and interests; understanding of the capacity, resources and expectations of all partners; evidence of mutual benefit; and shared efforts to sustain the core relationship among the partners (Holland, 2005). More recently, Holland has carried out cross-national analysis of experiences in community-university engagement in Asia, Europe and North America. In this work, she examines three types of engagement processes: routine, strategic and transformative approaches (Holland and Ramaley, 2008). It is understood that universities and communities can, and should, deploy a combination of these approaches in order to address the complex challenges and opportunities they face (Hall, 2009b). And partnerships should be evaluated on this basis, as well.

Furthermore, other scholars have argued that, in order to counter built-in biases, evaluative strategies and tools should be intentionally tilted towards the interests and outcomes that are priorities for community organizations, and away from a focus on the interests and outcomes that are priorities for universities. This is as true for community service learning as it is for community-based research (Stoecker, 2008, 2009, 2010). Indeed, there is a new wave of experimentation which explores, and tests, this perspective on partnership evaluation.

While all of this work on ways of assessing the performance of community-university partnership can be adapted and used by partnership support structures at all levels, this body of analysis and practice could be strengthened by insights and tools from international-development evaluation and in other evaluation subfields. In particular, development evaluation's focus on results-based management, logical frameworks (Rist and Morra Imas, 2009) and theory of change (Rogers, 2008) can enrich partnership evaluation, as can the depth and breadth of its practice in stakeholder participation in the evaluation process (Jackson and Hall, 2005;). In other specialized areas of evaluation, such as social accounting (Mook *et al.*, 2007), there is much to learn and apply, as well.

Support structures which fund regional and local partnerships have a strong interest in performance assessment. Whether they are based in the Global North or Global South, these structures require evaluation methods and tools that are flexible, adaptive and respect local knowledge, promote both learning and accountability at the same time, and usefully inform funding decisions, in real time. The studies cited here show that it is quite possible to design and implement performance assessment systems that meet all of these requirements and more.

### **The developing country challenge – and opportunity**

This volume presents case studies from Latin America and South Asia that demonstrate the effectiveness and ingenuity of community–university research partnerships in developing countries. These cases primarily illustrate micro-level structures that enhance, deepen and sustain such partnerships. But what about macro- and micro-level structures in the developing world? The short answer is that these structures don't exist, at least not in the least-developed countries – yet.

A study of five Ghanaian universities illustrates the nature of the challenges faced by advocates of community–university research partnerships in that country. First, at the most fundamental level, the university sector in Ghana is badly underfunded by its national government. Second, government does not see value in directly including a role for the universities in its development and poverty-reduction strategies, such as Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers aimed at achieving targets towards the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). 'One needs to answer the question whether this is a reflection of the failure of the institutions themselves to demonstrate their relevance in such cases, or a lack of recognition by the appropriate authorities or a combination of both', observe Manuh *et al.* (2003, p. 32). Third, there has been no systematic mapping of interests and capacities in the university sector with development needs, on the one hand, and partnership opportunities in civil society and the private sector, on the other.

That is not to say that community–university engagement does not take place in Ghana. It certainly does, and often impressively. For example, the University of Development Studies in northern Ghana encourages its students to carry out partnered, action-oriented research in development studies, primary health care and other fields. At the University of Ghana in the south, the Institute of Social Sciences and Economic Research and the Institute of Adult Education have built partnerships with a range of constituencies interested in policy research and training, respectively. There are dozens of other examples.

However, the fact is that these micro-level activities are fragmented and lack support from the meso and macro levels – especially multi-year financial support. And that has meant that community–university engagement remains fragile, transitory, invisible, unscaled and marginal to mainstream development policy. But, this situation can and should be turned around. The most pressing need is to do so in the least developed nations of sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Central America.

The World Bank recognizes that universities can be powerful catalysts of

economic growth. A recent World Bank study examined a range of experiences in North America, Europe, Japan, China, India and Singapore with government policies that encourage university–industry links (UILs) to promote innovation, technology and business growth (Yusuf and Nabeshima, 2007). Both higher education and innovation strategies in these jurisdictions are being used by the state to foster commercialized research, increased registering of patents and the growth of targeted technology clusters in regions. Likewise, universities in these countries are ‘trying harder to commercialize scientific discoveries and connect with the business world’ (*ibid.*, p. 17). There is, therefore, a consensus in both industrialized and industrializing countries that university–industry linkages are important tools of competitiveness in an increasingly globalized world economy.

There is a real opportunity now for a coalition of universities, civil society organizations, donor agencies, foundations and governments in developing countries to build a similar consensus in the sphere of poverty-reduction action. The first step would be to map a theory of change that would make explicit how community–university partnerships would help reduce poverty in poor regions of poor countries, urban and rural alike. The second step would be to embed a significant, visible and accountable role for universities in national poverty-reduction strategies: the international community will need to renew or replace the MDGs in the run-up to their expiry in 2015. The third step would be for certain donor agencies, foundations and NGOs to work with governments and universities to underwrite the costs – for at least a decade – of new meso-level and macro-level structures whose support will deepen, broaden and sustain partnerships aimed at reducing poverty at the local and regional levels.

It is useful to imagine what is possible. Taking elements of the SSHRC–CURA programme from Canada and the Living Knowledge Network in Europe, this coalition could collaboratively design a ten-year programme to fund macro- and meso-level structures that, in turn, would help micro-level partnerships to flourish. It could be delivered on a regional basis in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Central America. Regular external and internal evaluations of the programme should be deployed for learning, accountability and continuous improvement.

Developing-country economies and politics are increasingly influenced by the new economic powers of China, India, Brazil and other emerging nations. The West must, in a very real sense, regroup and reposition itself in this new economic order. Accordingly, the donor agencies, foundations, NGOs and universities of North America, Europe, Japan and Australia could play an important role in funding these new structures. Indeed, this new role could give them renewed influence as poor countries strive to progress. Such renewed influence by the West could help to counter and moderate the authoritarian policies and practices of many of the new powers. This could be a useful asset for developing countries in the years ahead.

## Conclusion

The design and construction of support structures for community–university research partnerships is now an architecture well understood. It is the task of advocates for such partnerships in the Global North to create and sustain, inside and outside legislatures, the political constituency that is committed to championing these structures. Of course, this is equally true for engaged scholars and reflective practitioners in the Global South. A robust and ongoing commitment by the state is essential for these structures to achieve optimum scale and longevity and results. Partnership advocates must be creative, resilient and focused in their political efforts to this end.

They also must be of multiple generations. The building of strong, permanent research partnerships between communities and universities – indeed, the larger societal project of building a knowledge democracy – is inherently a long-term task. It requires contributions from the young, the middle aged and the elderly. It requires thoughtful leadership preparation and succession. And it requires careful, continuous sharing of the ‘corporate memory’ of what works and what doesn’t.

There is important work to do in putting in place effective support structures for community–university research partnerships. There is every reason to set about this work immediately, with energy and conviction.

# 4

## Building community-based research capacity with communities: the PRIA experience

*Mandakini Pant*

### **Introduction**

Indian society has been traditionally divided into endogamous hereditary groups (castes) ranked by ritual status. The castes in lower hierarchy were historically associated with ritually impure occupations such as killing, handling of animal cadavers or night soil. Social distance from upper castes was maintained by restrictions of contact and commensality with members of upper castes. Caste-based positioning created caste-based inequalities.

Marginalized citizens the world over are experiencing complex challenges of exclusion and alienation. Social exclusion involves systematic and pervasive socio-economic, political and cultural discriminations and injustices. Dominant power groups debase, dissociate, devalue and disparage the poor and marginalized social groups. In India, among social groups, one could mention low castes, women, racial, ethnic, linguistic and religious minorities. Social exclusion: (a) limits their access from the resources and opportunities to improve life chances; (b) denies them the right over their labour and productive resources; and (c) constrains their rights to access basic services for education, healthcare, housing, public amenities, recreation and, not least, the right to dignity. Socio-economic disadvantages are also linked with culture valuational disadvantages. That determines and influences the way resources, roles and responsibilities are allocated, values are assigned and power is mobilized. Cultural vulnerabilities further limit capacities to articulate the claims and concerns in decision making and governance in private, political and community spaces. There is a growing sense of frustration among youth, which is compounded when experiences of discrimination – because of ethnicity, caste, class, religion, gender and disability – are added. Their sense of alienation inhibits their full participation in society and consequently their access to fair and just opportunities for development. Social exclusion has, therefore, critical and wide-ranging implications on the issues related to citizenship and governance.

It is necessary that marginalized citizens be involved as agents of change rather than as recipients of assistance. They must participate in conceptualizing, planning and executing development initiatives to secure for themselves genuine citizenship and attendant benefits. That alone would improve their living conditions, promote their socio-economic, political and cultural interests, and ensure equitable apportionment of productive resources and growth opportunities for

them. One must, therefore, look towards substantive equality characterized by inclusion and equality and the absence of discrimination.

Education can make a difference to the lives of marginalized citizens. By providing opportunities to improve their capacities to exercise choice, education improves their chances and life situations. Information, enhanced capacities and consciousness raising give them strength to fight their exclusion; to enable them to articulate their needs clearly, as well as to negotiate the unequal structures of power from a position of strength (Ramchandran, cited in Pant, 2004). As marginalized citizens lack resources, skills and collective strength to break the cycle of their oppression and exploitation, civil society organizations (CSOs) as external facilitators, play a catalytic role by educating, organizing and mobilizing them purposively and consciously around shared concerns.

The genesis of education for community empowerment can be traced to the concept of popular education, often described as *education for critical consciousness*. Paulo Freire,<sup>1</sup> writing in the context of literacy, education for poor and politically disempowered people in his country, coined the term. It's different from formal education (in schools, for example) and informal education (learning by living). Popular education has a transformatory approach, which aims to mobilize and empower people, in particular those who are marginalized socially and politically, to take control of their own learning and to effect social change.

This chapter provides an account of community education methods which PRIA uses in its efforts to make development and democracy equitable and inclusive. The chapter does not claim to cover the entire gamut of educational efforts, which PRIA has facilitated over the last twenty-seven years. Instead, it uses select and representative cases to provide an overview of PRIA's community education experiences. PRIA's practices are based on the principles of participatory research and participatory learning in which the impetus for social change is premised upon and increases people's knowledge about their reality and their agency to change that reality (Tandon, 2002a, b). The Freireian method of *conscientization*, which takes people through reflection and analysis, eventually resulting in action, is central to how PRIA educates poor and marginalized groups to claim their rights and make governance accountable (Mohanty, 2008).

## The overarching contexts

### *Decentralization and education of the marginalized communities*

The empowerment of community through education and training does not occur arbitrarily. It is in the political context, which stresses certain grievances and around those, educational strategies are adopted to organize and educate the communities. The mobilization activities are understood better when seen in the broader context of political opportunities (structure). Local-level decentralization and mechanisms for political participation in public spaces of the marginalized and poor provided a new climate for citizens to interface with state.

The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments in 1992 and 1993 ensured citizen participation at local governance institutions, such as Panchayat Raj

Institutions' (PRIs) rural and urban local bodies. In addition, there have been innovative forms of spaces of public participation and deliberation, e.g., public hearings for improving community and service delivery. Civil society groups are increasingly providing a vital mobilization infrastructure to nurture and coordinate participation in local government. They are exerting pressures on the state to play a strong, responsive role within the framework of sustainable development and democratic participation.

Without strong local self-governance institutions, decentralization will not be able to deliver the desired results of economic development and social justice. The success of local self-governance institutions depends on the efficient leadership of elected representatives (ERs). PRIA's field experiences with marginalized leadership clearly indicate that ERs continue to be marginalized on the basis of social, caste and gender affiliations. Representation and leadership are core roles and responsibilities of elected members. In order to carry out these core roles and responsibilities, elected representatives need competencies such as communication, facilitation, power, decision making, policymaking, enabling, negotiating, financial management, overseeing and institution building. The need to provide training and development opportunities to ERs from marginalized communities, therefore, becomes imperative.

### **Marginalization of citizenship identities and rights**

Citizenship is a juridical and statutory status as well as a national identity relating to rights and duties. In theory all citizens have, by and large, equal rights and duties. By conferring citizenship on its populace, the state promises to treat them as equal. Recognizing that people are placed in unequal relationships, the state enacts legislation to equalize the social relationships. Through affirmative action, it tries to create conditions for excluded groups to take part in political decision making. Acknowledging that capacities and resources are unequally distributed across various sections, it also promotes equality of opportunities through special provisions regarding education and employment, so that people can compete as equals (Mohanty, 2008).

In practice, however, the scale is tilted against the poor and the marginalized. Further, these individuals and groups are extremely heterogeneous and have a diverse range of needs. Their subjective and contradictory experiences, which emanate from their positioning rooted in a given physical or geographical space, in a certain kind of community or social arrangement, determine the construction of their citizenship identities and their access to resources, opportunities and entitlements. Needless to say, when citizenship rights and entitlements are inhibited, withheld or violated, there is a heightening of pauperization and marginalization.

This is where governance comes in. Ideally, governance should be concerned with the restoration of citizenship rights equally and equitably. That would mean, in turn, guaranteeing equality of rights under the law, equality of opportunity and equality in access to public resources. Over the past several decades, the

state governments have made serious efforts to strengthen institutions of local self-governance by devolving powers and responsibilities to local governance institutions, actively promoting several innovative mechanisms, schemes and approaches to enable the marginalized sections of the society to claim their rights and entitlements to basic services and livelihood. Yet, it is also a fact that large sections of *Scheduled Castes* (SC) and *Scheduled Tribes* (ST),<sup>2</sup> Muslim and other poor households continue to remain excluded partially or fully from development and various schemes. The state governments have not been able to effectively counter many constraints – structural, institutional and human – which operate to systematically exclude them from accessing their citizenship rights. The statutory provisions and safeguards by themselves have failed to usher in the desired governance and inclusions. If citizens experience a gap between the promise made by the state and actual performance, they also learn that the underlying reasons for this gap relate to identity and the dynamics of exclusion encountered by the bearers of vulnerable identities such as women, low caste and tribal people (Mohanty and Tandon, 2006).

We are witnessing many forms of social mobilizations, struggles, movements, protests of varying intensity in different parts of the country, to combat exclusion and to bring about inclusion. CSOs have engaged themselves commendably in supporting the cause of social inclusion by creating wider awareness of the underlying issues; by creating and maintaining the democratic space for citizens to organize themselves, to educate and train them to articulate their voices; and by advocating the need for effective policy changes towards an inclusive polity.

## Leadership training programmes

### *Concept*

Leadership is a process where a person influences others to accomplish a mission, task or objective by providing directions cohesively and coherently. Leadership emphasizes intermediation capacities. Leaders are expected to play an intermediation role, bringing resources in terms of information, materials, expertise, funds, etc., from outside agencies, and ensuring effective use of internal resources (Bandyopadhyay, 2007). In addition, they have two significant sets of roles to play. A brief description follows.

### *Society building*

The most important function of a leader is to contribute towards building a society which promotes equal justice to all the citizens. Leaders play three important functions towards this end: (a) mobilizing the community members for collective actions; (b) overcoming social exclusion; (c) managing differences. The purpose of mobilization and collective action may range from self-help construction work (building a road or cleaning ponds) or to exercise rights over natural resources (protecting forests) to large-scale protest activities (protest against acquisition of agricultural lands). Leaders address the issue of social exclusion within the community by facilitating the marginalized in accessing resources, knowledge



and opportunities. One of the core functions of leaders is to manage and resolve conflicts within their community through negotiation and consensus (*ibid.*).

### *Engaging governance institutions*

Leaders engage governance institutions by: (a) amplifying the collective voice of their community, in particular, marginalized members, to gain access to and control over resources, justice and social services; and (b) engaging in negotiation to change the power relations (*ibid.*).

The CSOs, by focusing on strengthening the competencies associated with leadership roles, have played a critical role in the capacity building of leaders. They have adopted a multipronged approach for providing educational support to strengthen leadership of the marginalized. That is, a community educational programme moves beyond structured training programmes to include various other instrumentalities, such as by strengthening local resource groups, exposure visits, campaigns, networks and alliances for advocacy, and influencing public opinion, interface and issue-based meetings.

## **Methodologies of community education and training for leadership**

### *The vision*

Lofty as these ideals were, I really did not know how to proceed and what to do. But it was clear to me that I would use knowledge as vehicle for empowerment. (Rajesh Tandon)

The guiding vision of the Society for Participatory Research in Asia has been that spreading knowledge and giving access for the marginalized sections is a path to empowerment, in short, 'knowledge is power'. It stems from the fact that lack of knowledge, information, education and literacy has forced the already marginalized to remain powerlessness. A means to continue subjugation is through controlling the knowledge flow. It is this monopoly that PRIA has aspired to break for the past three decades. The work began with two enduring partnerships: International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) during the formative years in the 1980s, and the Institute of Development Research (IDR) during the 1990s.

In post-industrial society, information, knowledge and knowledge production are key sources of power, like capital. In a knowledge society, inequality results when people with access to knowledge exert *power over* those having little or no access to knowledge. This exercise of power perpetuates one group's domination over the other – dominant caste over lower castes, capitalist class over the labour class; white race over black race; and men over women. It determines who has access to information, thus giving that group the position to define what knowledge is legitimate, and to dominate its production and use.

Arguably, education is at the heart of the transformation path that PRIA envisions. While education is the means, a participatory model of governance is the end. It is essential to make our institutions and leaders accountable by putting control in the hands of citizens. Education should be inclusive and participatory.

PRIA's community education and training programme is based on the principles of collaboration and partnership with local grass-roots organizations. Recognizing that it has a distant urban base in Delhi, PRIA has played a cognitive and strategic role in the processes of collective action and has supported grass-roots activism in local organizations.

In its cognitive role, PRIA has provided the participatory research framework for education and training. It has been the main source of information around which training programmes are built. The participatory research framework has a citizenship perspective, too. The education and training of marginalized communities in leadership, for instance, emphasizes nurturing independent, rights-bearing citizens who articulate their concerns and priorities, access resources and opportunities and, with increased capacities, make strategic life choices.

### Methodologies in the leadership training programmes

The larger vision for PRIA is to propagate people-centred development, using an inclusive model, where even the most marginalized stakeholder can represent their stake and not go unheard. So, all efforts of PRIA point at one direction – *deepening participation*. Closely linked to this objective is training, which holds the promise to actualize the potential of the chosen participant group to assert their rights in the public domain – women, youth or SC. Trainers trained in participatory methodology tend to use a blend of participatory learning and action methods such as games, play and drama; audiovisual tools are incorporated into the training sessions.

The defining component of PRIA training is its emphasis on *instilling self-awareness and empathy*. In youth leadership training programmes where participants were acquainted with the concept of self and introspection, they were asked to sit in a large circle with eyes closed and meditate on their life, their achievements and failures so far. The resource person would place photographs and pictures depicting different people and situations inside the circle. The participants were then asked to open their eyes and select two photographs which best described their present as well as their future status. This exercise was a great source of interaction and sharing among the participants as they revealed their deepest feelings about their lives and how they wanted to mould it. The participants got an opportunity to share their emotions, which helped in creating greater understanding among them and also within themselves.<sup>3</sup>

Audiovisual tools, given the popularity of the medium, are also used to communicate. In the youth leadership training programme, *Chak De!*, a Hindi movie, was shown to help participants understand the concept of *team and leadership*. At the end of the movie, the participants were asked to discuss their observations. Candidates spoke about the things they had learned from the movie, such as coordination, support, discipline, control, self-confidence, clear goals, communication, trust, determination, unity, understanding, individual aspiration and the hard work among team members as main characteristics of the team. They related the above to team building from the previous day. Similarly, in the SC leadership-

training programme, to familiarize the participants with *gram sabha* (meetings), quorums, agenda decisions, documenting resolutions and proceedings, a film on *gram sabha* was shown. This was chosen from among many films made by PRIA on *panchaya* (assembly) functioning, social audit and reservation for women in local government institutions, etc. These films support the efficacy of the audio-visual media established so far.

Given the importance of communication in public life, it is a necessary component of all training, along with the special weight for a leader, of interpersonal communication. It was often through a PowerPoint presentation that communication was defined as the ability to think, act, reflect and analyse reality, and making that reality known to others. The facilitator explained the key points in the presentation with special emphasis on preparing the content of the speech, clarity of language, presentation skills (conviction and confidence while speaking), the importance of listening to the other person, how to be prepared with questions raised by the audience, and so on. Also stressed was the importance of preparation when speaking in public.

PRIA analysis of ground reality has exposed the centrality of *interpersonal communication*. Sessions on this are mandatory in all training. Those who assume the responsibility of leaders in their respective domain need to communicate with their group to represent effectively their concerns and articulate them in the right forums. The methods used were PowerPoint presentations, video feedback or lectures. Here the use of a *game* was adjudged the most powerful means to clarify the need for clear articulation of ideas.

In the Women Political Empowerment and Leadership (WPPEL) training programme (see Chapter 10 in this volume, Case Study A), for instance, Whispering Game proved to be an effective tool to demonstrate the importance of communication. To begin with, participants are divided into two groups and seated in circles. Each would whisper a sentence in the ear of the woman next. She would then whisper it to the person next to her, until it reached the ear of the last person, who would then say it loudly for all. By the end of the game, the sentence had not remained the same. Many words were either missed or misinterpreted. So, it was explained that this was the way we communicated in our everyday communication. We often think that the other person can understand what we have said without really making an effort to make them understand. On the other hand, as listeners, we often do not pay the utmost attention to what we are being told and hence do not get the whole message.

When we speak of leadership for women, the SC community or youth from tribal communities, ignorance is a fundamental obstacle. For sensitizing any group, the telling of stories has proved to be a powerful tool: it increases awareness and gets across the otherwise complicated working of social structures. In the Youth Leadership training programme, a small sketch was distributed to participants. The sketch depicted one frog hiding under the bed and another with a stick in its hand in an aggressive posture towards a knock from outside the door. The participants were asked to identify quickly who is the male and who is the female. In almost all of the workshops, the majority of the participants replied that the

attacker/ protector was the male frog and the fearful one was the female frog. The resource persons explained that this reflected our socialization process which leads us to form stereotypes of males and females. As human beings, we unconsciously try to categorize certain behaviours as specific to males, like aggressiveness, strength, etc., while other behaviours such as caring, weakness, to females. Such categorization leads to gender stereotyping and ultimately discrimination.

Another commonly used exercise is Fishbowl, used not only in classrooms but also in community trainings. This technique raises the systematic observation powers of participants and often helps in building community by focusing attention on how a group may work together more productively. As used in SC leadership building, a small group of participants (as many as half the total) form a circle. They are then asked to conduct a discussion (subject is given by trainer) while the rest watch, pose questions, take notes and give comments about the ones in the circle. The trainer sets the ground rules once the group is established and then ensures that group members adhere to discussion skills, such as taking turns, responding to a previous person's comments and asking questions to extend thinking. Later, those outside the group come to form the circle while those in the fish bowl act as observers. This sharpens their perception powers, teaches them to think and speak in a collective, and develops a feedback mechanism. The points of interest, among others, are seeing who takes the lead, how one person supports or defeats another person's argument, what is the process of group discussion. So the central focus of this exercise remains the discussion process rather than the content.

Another method with immense potential in helping the participants get over stage fright and express themselves freely is the Cultural Programme. This breaks the ice and gets them ready for future participation in the public domain. During training programmes, all candidates are asked to participate in a cultural programme organized by PRIA. Candidates come forth and give their names for different activities such as dance, song, play, anchoring, speech, magic, etc. For the Youth Leadership programme, all 500 students joined the function; they divided themselves into groups so that everyone could perform, and then listed the activities and people participating in those activities. A major difference was observed in terms of the level of participation, as, on the first two days, very few candidates put their names forward, but by the third day, many gave their names for different activities, and a good level of enthusiasm was observed.

Another commonly used tool is *role play* (a technique in psychotherapy or training), which has emerged as a powerful instrument to demonstrate the nature of the new positions participants can assume after training. The facilitators in the Youth Leadership training programme used role play in their session on adult reproductive and sexual health. This session was designed to give insight into issues relating to their reproductive and sexual health, so they could become aware of the reasons behind changes and developments that take place psychologically and physically during puberty. Participants were told about physical changes, like the onset of menstruation, and changes in physical features in girls, to the voice breaking, nocturnal emissions, etc., in boys. The participants were also asked to do

a role play where they depicted changes during adolescent years, and how youth get addicted to drugs and smoking. This exercise greatly enhanced understanding.

Reflection and the capacity to reflect are very helpful in furthering the training objectives. For this, video feedback was often used, through the use of the previous day's video. The participants are asked to reflect on what they saw and felt, then asked to list the positive and negative points in each person's communication on chart paper. They were also asked to reflect on audience interaction.

## Lessons

Recent trends in the socio-political arena in India, characterized by local-level decentralization and scope for the political participation of the marginalized poor, have provided a new climate for building and strengthening their leadership. PRIA and partnering organizations took a step forward to strengthen their leadership. Some clear lessons have emerged out of community leadership training programmes:

- Sustained or chronic deprivation of resources, capabilities and choices necessary for an adequate standard of living and enjoyment of economic, political and social rights make marginalized communities – women, youth from tribal societies and SCs – vulnerable, powerless and dependent. A social understanding of marginalization takes into account these deficits. Inclusion, therefore, implies increasing capacities and choices, and decreasing vulnerability. Marginalized communities become enabled to make strategic life choices.
- Adult education, as a tool for information dissemination, awareness raising, capacity building and translation of skills into practice, assumes significance to strengthen public leadership roles. The scope moves beyond training in specific knowledge and skills to empowerment, so that marginalized communities gain confidence, esteem and become aware of innate and acquired capacities and capabilities.
- The education and training programmes for enhancing leadership skills of marginalized communities focused on cognitive change, behavioural and attitudinal changes and change in emotions. It aimed to develop an awareness of a person's potential so that they could become confident, sensitive and informed. Practical learning activities were explored to enable the participants to see alternative ways of being to reflect on their everyday experiences and articulate their needs and priorities. The training programmes also reinforced the collective identity among the participants by building the information base and capabilities.
- Learners acquired new knowledge and skills through formal teaching sessions (lecture, presentation, film and computer-generated activities). They processed information through group discussions and case study analysis. They applied what they learned through practical exercises.

## Notes

- 1 Paulo Freire is known for his adult education work in Brazil. In his book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* he outlined the practice of popular education, arguing that oppressed people could reflect, analyse their situations and take action to change them.
- 2 Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) refer to the official list of caste and tribe schedules attached to legislations. These lists establish entitlement to benefits of legal protection, access to welfare schemes, especially for scheduled castes, of reserved seats in higher education, and in the legislature (both parliament and state assemblies) and institutions of local self-governance, of reserved jobs in government employment and special financial assistance for enterprise. These terms are also used in the Constitution and in various laws.
- 3 One girl, when asked to talk about herself in the present and then how she saw herself in five years, said that, right now she is like a flower, innocent and desirous, but after five years, she wants to become a known personality, to work for the betterment of people, especially women, who face inequality in life. Thus, she wants to work for others and also change the world with her work after five or ten years.

# 5

## Curricular and pedagogical impacts of community-based research: experiences from higher education institutions

*Felix M. Bivens*

### Introduction

Universities no longer monopolize knowledge. Once seen as society's primary institution for preserving, creating and disseminating knowledge, higher education institutions (HEIs) now find themselves in a world in which knowledge is too commercially valuable and omnipresent to be contained within academy walls. The advent of the knowledge economy has seen the proliferation of other organizations, many profit driven, which also understand their *raison d'être* as creating and disseminating new ideas and knowledge. Looking beyond its potential monetary value, postmodern understandings of knowledge equate it directly with cultural and political power (Foucault and Gordon, 1980). Such thinking has led to a (re)recognition of the diversity of epistemological perspectives which exist, of which disciplinary academic and scientific ways of knowing represent only a few in a much more vast and complex taxonomy of knowledges (de Sousa Santos, 2006). These seismic shifts in the place of knowledge in society have not eliminated the need and value of traditional academic approaches for creating and transferring information, but they have exposed the serious limitations of conventional approaches to research and teaching, particularly in regards to pressing social and environmental issues.

Moreover, while the intellectual foundations were shifting beneath HEIs, so were financial supports that have typically kept universities in business. Over the past thirty years, government spending on universities and research has been curtailed drastically. This combination of factors has forced HEIs to adopt a plethora of new structures and processes in order to survive. Of particular importance is that these factors have required HEIs to become more permeable and networked with the wider world. Seeking new forms of revenue, universities have collaborated more with private sector businesses in research and development projects. This marketization of the university has been counterpointed by a smaller, but equally significant, university engagement with people in communities, in the non-profit/voluntary sphere and in civil society more generally. Whereas marketization correlates with the increased monetary value of knowledge, engagement is typically undergirded by an aim of extending epistemologies so that knowledge from within universities can be activated and allied with various forms of knowledge outside of HEIs, for the purpose of creating positive social change, both locally

and globally. Within this particular arena, community-based research (CBR) is proving a particularly powerful process for bringing diverse forms of knowledge together to address difficult problems faced by communities and society.

The Office of Community-Based Research at the University of Victoria in Victoria, Canada, describes CBR as ‘Research that is conducted with and for, not on, members of a community ... Unlike traditional academic research, CBR is collaborative and change oriented and finds its research questions in the needs of communities, which often require information that they have neither the time nor the resources to obtain’ (Dragne, 2007, p. 16).

Strand *et al.* (2003a) point to three distinct dimensions of CBR: (1) collaboration between academics and community members; (2) legitimization of multiple modes of knowing in the creation and dissemination of the knowledge created; and (3) a normative goal of social change.

CBR can be understood as a union of two important traditions within higher education which have sought to make university resources and capacities available for community needs. The first, participatory action research (PAR), has long sought to make the research capabilities of HEIs accessible to marginalized populations and communities. PAR has an extensive history, particularly in universities in the global South. The second tradition is service-learning, a more recent, largely Northern movement which has sought to engage university students in direct action in dealing with community problems. Both of these traditions have remained minority perspectives within HEIs because they challenge conventional roles of university academics and students. For this reason, among others, such practices have had limited impact on curriculum and teaching within the higher education sector as a whole. Because researchers were rarely recognized or rewarded for their PAR with communities, this work was done as an add-on to their regular research activities. Moreover, because such work was considered of questionable academic merit by the higher education establishment, academics were hesitant to fold such endeavours back into the classroom. Similarly, while universities were willing to support service learning as an extra-curricular activity for students, many administrators questioned the educational relevance and revenue-generating potential of such activities. Considered a distraction from serious classroom-based learning, service-learning was often separate from the curriculum and rarely linked intentionally with courses.

CBR, however, makes a more explicit commitment to bring students into the process of working with communities:

In contrast to participatory research, CBR engages students alongside faculty and community members in the course of their academic work. CBR combines classroom learning and skills development with social action in ways that ultimately can empower community groups to address their own needs and shape their own futures. (*Ibid.*)

While this normative aim of embedding students in community research is an important shift in the discourse, to date very little research has been done to understand in what ways such practices of CBR influence curriculum and



teaching at institutions where community research is accepted and prevalent. Like other discourses relating to various modes of engagement by HEIs, literature on the subject of CBR falls into three categories: normative, methodological and community outcomes. Proponents of CBR are eager to explain the value and need for scaling up these activities: they write articles that describe the challenges of carrying out research in dynamic partnerships with community members and groups; and advocates often produce reports of how their work has led to qualitative and quantitative improvements for the community or groups involved in the research collaboration. All of this is important and will contribute to the mainstreaming of CBR at more universities. Nonetheless, there is also an important need to be reflexive and to explore if such CBR practices have led to changes within HEIs themselves. This chapter will seek to fill some of this void by examining the extent to which CBR programmes at four HEIs have impacted the curriculum and pedagogies of the institutions themselves.

The next section will provide a review of these four programmes, supplying some background on the CBR programmes and their evolution, and detailing some areas where the growth of these programmes has had an impact on aspects of the institution's curricula and/or pedagogy. The four programmes to be covered in detail are: the Master's in Participation (MAP) at the UK's Institute of Development Studies (IDS), and the Community University Partnership Programme at the University of Brighton (CUPP), the outreach programme at Sewanee, University of the South (US), and the *Programa de Investigación Interdisciplinario Desarrollo Humano en Chiapas* (Interdisciplinary Research Programme on Human Development in Chiapas) at the Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana (UAM), Mexico. In addition to the review of these four programmes, there will be some shorter examples of innovative work under way at several other institutions across the world. These organizations (including an NGO as well as HEIs) are partners in the Citizenship Development Research Consortium (CDRC), also based at IDS. Following the review of these programmes, some lessons will be gleaned by looking across these diverse cases and contexts. Finally, some remaining challenges will be explored as well as some potential ways forward in order to meet these difficulties.

## Lessons learned

Looking across the various programmes, institutions and contexts, some commonalities can be found. Important lessons can be discerned on at least three levels: institutionally, curricularly and pedagogically.

Institutionally, student engagement in CBR work is the culmination of many years of advance work by numerous individuals. Although the actual trajectory is of course different in every HEI, CBR within universities generally starts in a piecemeal, stochastic manner, with individuals working singly, with no institutional support and little connection to others in the institution who similarly engaged. In time, some amount of informal organization is achieved between community-based researchers, though their preference may be to work beneath the radar and not draw attention to themselves and this work. By various means,

an institutional opening eventually occurs which leads to a formal recognition of CBR work by the HEI. Such an opening may arise from the arrival of a new university head with a predilection for community engagement, it may be triggered by poor community relations that need to be repaired in a visible, tangible form by the university, or it may come from below with a groundswell of university and community members demanding more support for community-based activities. With this institutional recognition comes a degree of institutional support, often in the form of an office with one or more staff with extensive knowledge and experience of CBR or community development who serve as advocates and resource persons for academics.

Only after such offices have become established and somewhat accepted within the institutional culture do CBR processes seem to begin to feed back into the curriculum of the institution. Although individual academics may have long involved students in their community work, having the contributions of students in such research recognized and credited by the institution comes only after a formalized CBR approach is established and a good track record achieved. This is not only a matter of building advocacy networks in the university but also among community partners; it is arguable that integrating CBR practices into the curriculum actually places higher demands on community partners than on HEIs. By the time a university formally accepts service learning, action research and CBR as legitimate pedagogical approaches, course leaders have generally long since integrated such practices into their teaching, and it is simply a matter of having that extra dimension recognized on students' transcripts.

When this recognition occurs, the volume of students engaging in CBR will increase. Instead of individual students carrying out independent study projects, now entire classes of students will be seeking out organizations and projects to fulfil their required project placements. This is one reason why a stable community engagement office is usually in place before CBR moves into the curriculum, because a large number of community partners are needed to work with students on a mass scale. Lone academics are unlikely to have the sheer number of contacts to link their students, nor the time to help broker these connections, one by one. Thus, CBR offices play a vital supporting role in making connections and facilitating student-led CBR. These offices need to have access to a wide variety of networks to be able to field students regularly, and to ensure that the same community partners are not continually asked to be matched with students. As Stoecker (2008) has pointed out, CBR by students is often of sub-optimal quality, particularly at the undergraduate level and if students are working singly. As such, community groups are likely to continue fielding student researchers only if they are satisfied with the other forms of university engagement the office offers. Strong relationships must be established and maintained with community partners above and beyond these student interactions, wherein working with students is understood as more as a form of capacity development, to increase student awareness of social issues and of the work of the voluntary/community sector more generally.

Just as maintaining a good working relationship with a wide variety of community partners is an important responsibility for a CBR office, so is maintaining

relationships within the HEI itself. In order to mainstream CBR and other engagement approaches in the curriculum, a CBR office must widen its network across the university faculty and lend support to potential allies in the faculty who are considering adopting these practices in their research and teaching. However, this requires a nimble balancing of sharing resources so that the office does not appear to be too cliquish in supporting only the same academics time and time again, but yet not alienating these long-time supporters when attempting to woo new faculty members into CBR projects. Moreover, the office needs to cultivate a strong relationship with the power centre of the university.

Mott (2005) has noted the vulnerability of even well-established CBR programmes. Just as CBR advocates within HEIs need to remain attuned to opportunities within the institution, they also need to stay abreast of threats as well. However, maintaining a high level of visibility appears to reinforce the value of CBR programmes to university managers. Being a good neighbour is often a rhetorical rallying cry for university presidents, and well-documented CBR can give weight to such claims. Further, outside support generated from a strong track record with community groups can provide important leverage against internal institutional threats. Curricular CBR is also significant in such instances because it provides a mechanism through which a university can maintain high levels of connectivity across the community. Through widespread student CBR, the university is perceived as working in many locations at once, as opposed to the much fewer number of projects that CBR office workers can staff themselves or provide funding for academics at any one time. Significant as well in many cases are alumni, who have benefited from their past engagement with CBR programmes, and who can leverage their support towards maintaining and augmenting CBR programmes.

At the curricular level, perhaps the most important contribution of this chapter is simply to demonstrate through several clear case studies that CBR programmes do typically feed back into the curriculum. So much energy has been spent advocating for CBR-based projects on external outcomes from projects in and with communities that the reflexive impacts of CBR on institutions where such programmes are housed have been neglected. However, even this brief overview of several HEIs suggests that CBR programmes do eventually make substantive inroads on curriculum design. As mentioned previously, this does not seem to happen when CBR practices are informal and diffuse. Only when such practices have been recognized and given standing within the institution, by the creation of a staffed office, do such approaches begin to gain pedagogical validity. Further, the office itself serves to hasten this evolution by acting visibly as an advocate for academically integrated CBR and by providing various kinds of resources in support of academics attempting to teach through CBR activities. As such, CBR offices are essential for seeding and maintaining community engagement approaches in the curriculum.

It is important to note, however, a lag time between the institutionalization of CBR through a dedicated office and CBR's penetration of the curriculum. A curricular programme must be founded on strong internal and external networks

which require time to develop. How long it might take CBR to infiltrate the curriculum is heavily dependent on context. In an institution such as Sewanee, which had very low levels of community engagement prior to the establishment of its outreach programme, moving CBR into the curriculum took almost fifteen years. Even at the University of Brighton, which had notably high levels of CBR prior to the establishment of CUPP, the development of the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) programme took several years. Initial priorities of CUPP involved organizing allies inside the institution and in the community. On the back of these networks, a strong academic dimension has emerged and is continuing to proliferate.

The Case Studies suggest that CBR programmes can shift curricula in rather specific ways. First, teaching through CBR approaches helps to bring together theory, experience and practice, thus making learning more connected. Integrating CBR into a course helps students apply concepts they are exposed to in the classroom. Students in CPD at the University of Brighton experience working inside an organization as they try to make sense of organizational management literature. Rural development students at UAM (Chiapas) work with massively complex human rights and human development approaches by discussing with villagers what these concepts mean to them. The Participation, Power and Social Change (PPSC) team at IDS has a long history of CBR, with partners all over the developing world. However, because of the Empowering Society course, that accumulated experience is now being applied in the city of Brighton where IDS is located. Similarly at Sewanee, an institution which has long held to a traditional liberal arts approach, disciplines as conceptually oriented as anthropology and philosophy departments are finding ways to improve student learning by building relationships with local people in order to engage students with diverse and challenging perspectives on complex issues.

Further, the Sewanee examples also demonstrate how CBR approaches push curricula towards greater interdisciplinarity. It's often said that 'the world has problems but universities have departments'. CBR helps to shift the starting point for curricular learning to real-world issues which cut across entrenched disciplinary lines. Sewanee's work in Haiti has brought together faculty from biology and fine arts, wherein students who participate in the Haiti programme collaborate between courses on CBR projects that utilize knowledge and skills from biology and photography students. This interdisciplinary influence is not just apparent in the fieldwork. As the photography professor from Sewanee notes, his subject matter in the classroom has also become more diverse:

My engagement with students against this backdrop of community service, study abroad, has actually opened up many more avenues of communication with other faculty and other disciplines than ever before for me. My readings in classes are much more about other things than art itself ... Rarely do I assign readings that are studies about other artists. More frequently it's things like an essay on war – I mean right here [on my desk] a random sampling of what we're looking at – 'Access and consent in public photography', 'Seeing and believing', a whole essay about the nature of politics and documentary photography and the reporting of truth, Fyodor

Dostoyevsky's *Notes from the Underground*, and an essay we just finished reading about war, human rights and photography. There are massive and really exciting cross-overs happening with other disciplines and approaches. (Interview, 2009)

Courses such as MAP and the MA in Rural Development are taught collaboratively by teams of academics, all of whom have different disciplinary training and diverse cultural and regional experience. Not only is there an epistemological melding across disciplines in these courses, there is also movement to include perspectives previously excluded from academic discourse. In PRIA's MA and in UAM's MA in Rural Development, practitioners are given a podium in the classroom as adjunct faculty to speak from their hands-on experience in the field. Their experiential knowing is acknowledged to be as valid as academic knowing. The case is similar with the CPD module at Brighton where the majority of the course conveners are experienced professionals from the voluntary sector rather than career academics. Moreover, the courses described in this chapter universally recognize the experience of students as a core form of knowledge which must enter the mix as well.

Finally, CBR approaches tend to make the curriculum more emergent and adaptive. Allowing real-world experiences and processes to enter the learning space greatly reduces the predictability of a course. Community partners may shift the focus of a project to a more pressing issue. Complications may arise which requires different kinds of information and methods. The course conveners must deftly cover core concepts while also helping students address unexpected situations. Moreover, emergence in the classroom is not simply an instrumental response for better problem solving. CBR approaches, rooted in participatory methods, are increasingly moving towards a participatory paradigm which focuses on co-construction and co-creation in all activities. Thus, deep CBR approaches also strive towards participatory curriculum development. This is most clearly expressed in the IDS' MAP programme where time is spent each week determining the future direction of the course, with some parts of the course completely dependent upon students' preference rather than determined in advance by the lecturer. This was also seen in many of the CDRC courses. When teachers empower students to lead entire class meetings, the course would move in unanticipated directions. Such participatory course development requires time – time to deliberate, and time to build a circle of trust in which students are comfortable expressing their goals and feelings, and additional time for preparation on the part of the course leader who must anticipate and prepare for the various directions in which a course might flow.

This takes the discussion to the third level in which the influence of CBR approaches is apparent – the pedagogical. In many ways, once such approaches are integrated into a course, the discussion basically shifts from pedagogical concepts to andragogical ones – adult learning concepts. Engaged teaching does not see students as receivers and consumers of information but as active producers and co-creators of knowledge collaborating with the course facilitator and others outside of the classroom. Thus, students shift from objects of teaching to subjects of learning. This involves a shift in power relations which can be facili-

tated by creating spaces for participatory curriculum development and the kind of emergence discussed in the preceding paragraph. The professor moves away from the marketized logic of delivering a predetermined bundle of information/content. Instead, the aim is to collaborate iteratively with students, to bring them appropriate information which helps to problematize and illuminate the challenges emerging from the action learning and processes occurring outside the classroom. As such, the course leader is not simply problem solving but opening the possibility of multiple responses and ways forward so that students' CBR work is also adaptive and responsive to ongoing developments, rather than a linear, rote methodology and structure. Shifting classroom power relations is also about creating a more democratic space in the classroom. There are multiple aspirations in such a shift: instrumental – bending the class towards greater relevance and immediacy for the students; normative – being congruent with the participatory axiology inherent in CBR; capacity development – helping students to experience and construct inclusive, multi-stakeholder discussions which give voice to all at the table and strive towards consensual resolutions of disagreements. On one hand, this is about modelling these behaviours for students as course leaders, and on the other, about providing them room to facilitate such spaces themselves. There is anticipation of a knock-on effect, that students will pick up these practices and utilize them in their own CBR. Thus the course leader models good facilitation and provides spaces for students to facilitate in the classroom as purview to students then facilitating such inclusive processes in the field – and, it is hoped, even further in their careers, subsequently.

CBR-infused teaching is andragogical because it recognizes values and incorporates the lived experience of the student. As such, students are not empty pails to be filled; they are fires to be stoked. The question is how to meet students where they are and build upon the knowledge they bring. The examples in this chapter suggest one of the best methods for incorporating this embodied knowledge is through reflection and reflective practice. This means a structured, intentional effort, not periodically asking for students' opinions. Indeed, students are so used to one-way transactions of knowledge in most formal education settings that they are reluctant to put their experience forward, considering it an inferior form of knowledge. However, personal experience is the lens through which students will interpret all new information in the course and in the CBR process. Structured reflection helps students to form their own motivations, expectations, biases and assumptions. Rather than filling pages with quotes and citations from literature, students write out their own responses and reactions to concepts and events.

The reflective inherently links to the reflexive. Through reflective journal recording and other methods, students create a personal history of their own changing perspectives and mindsets. It helps them trace changes in their own thinking over time. Reflexive practice in conjunction with CBR also reminds students that social change is partially a personal process and that creating change in the world may require critiquing and changing oneself. Through reflective processes, learners examine their own power and their positionality within hierarchies of organization and culture. Reflexive thinking encourages students to

conceptualize that positionality as malleable, as something that can be changed through new behaviours, ways of being, relating and facilitating. Ultimately, students become more self-aware and cognizant of how they engage with others, personally and professionally.

## Challenges

Although there are many institutional challenges involved in introducing CBR elements into the curriculum, additional issues present themselves in attempting to work with students on CBR projects. Obviously, managing students engaging in one or more outside projects requires additional time and energy from course conveners. Again, one of the values of a CBR office is being able to support, administratively and in other ways, faculty who are attempting to work such processes into their courses. However, even when there is good support for this work, various challenges persist. In reviewing the courses and programmes cited in this chapter, several reoccurring issues are found. Some are practical while others are more complex.

On the practical side, one of the difficulties faced in MAP and with the PRIA diploma is staying in good contact with students. MAP functions well while students are on the IDS campus. However, while students are in fieldwork, contact with supervisors can often be quite intermittent. IDS researchers stay incredibly busy and then the MAP students themselves face the double duty of completing complex PAR projects in the middle of their regular workaday duties. As such, both students and advisers can often become so busy that months may go by without regular contact. Requiring students to submit regular progress reports has proved to be helpful, as is the mid-placement seminar which brings all of the students back to IDS for two weeks. Still, some students have expressed frustration at a feeling of disconnection during this period, not only from conveners and supervisors but from fellow students. Although students are quite energetic in building community while they are on campus, the realities of fieldwork do not leave much time for peer support. Social networking sites have allowed MAP students to facilitate some dialogue, but not consistently.

Similarly, the PRIA diploma, which was entirely distance-learning based, had difficulty maintaining appropriate levels of communication. Some students would disappear from online discussions for weeks at a time. Sometimes, towards the other extreme, virtual student discussions would move so quickly that course facilitators, who might have time to contribute once a day or every other day, would find that the discussions might have digressed. Allowing for a mixture of emergence and control was found to be more difficult in e-discussions than in actual face-to-face dialogues. CUPP's CPD module seemed to have the most success in this area and students felt they able to easily reach their conveners throughout their term of fieldwork. On the whole, however, the CPD placement period of three months is far less than the year of fieldwork involved in IDS's MAP, UAM's MA in Human Development and PRIA's MA in Participatory Development. Creating a good infrastructure for communication and peer support is vital

to programmes involving long, site-based CBR projects.

Another more difficult issue is student resistance to new and unfamiliar pedagogical approaches. Examples of student resistance were found in most CDRC courses where lecturers attempted to create more participatory and democratic teaching spaces. Similarly, some MAP students have difficulty with the reflective practice element of the programme. They are very reluctant to connect the personal and the professional, even in a small group setting. Further, students who have adjusted to a passive, consumeristic approach to education expect to receive information they have paid for and feel cheated by emergent, participatory approaches that may or may not cover a predetermined body of information. Much effort should go into explaining the logic of such pedagogic approaches, making links to the communal epistemological paradigm upon which PAR and CBR are founded. Nonetheless, students can misinterpret such teaching styles as unpreparedness on the part of a professor who does not arrive with lectures notes or a PowerPoint presentation. One approach to combat this perception is to begin a course with a more structured curriculum, and then open up the flow of the course more as time moves along, more of a relationship has been forged and a sense of energy can be detected in certain topic areas. Beginning a term with completely open discussions of what a course's content might be can leave the students feeling off kilter if they are unfamiliar with such an approach. Striking the right balance is more complicated when students are more advanced, however. Many MAP students anticipate a completely emergent process and can be frustrated when too much structure is generated by institutional requirements, such as required attendance, mandated by the directorate of the institution, and not by MAP's course conveners.

Another way to gradually introduce participatory methods into the classroom is to begin with intensive reflective practice exercises. This encourages students to express their course expectations and to articulate their natural perspectives on issues to be explored in the class. Often, even in many of the CDRC courses discussed in this chapter, lecturers front-load their courses with conceptual material and then spend the rest of term debating the implications of these ideas. While this is an essential component of the learning processes, it can 'denaturalize' the students' own tacit perspectives on these issues. Because students have not had the opportunity to intentionally articulate what their own experiences have taught them to believe about certain concepts such as democracy and citizenship, they are immediately saturated with concepts from the literature. Because these views are assumed to be more valid than a student's naive opinion and because students have not formed their own perspectives clearly, their room for manoeuvre and discussion becomes largely confined by the ideas in reading lists. By beginning with more reflective and exploratory work, students can become more aware of their own views and attempt to link those perspectives with certain experiences and influences in their lives – or indeed discover the absence of any experiences to support those views. Having vocalized such a baseline perspective, students then are more empowered to use literature presented in the course to interrogate their own beliefs. The reflective element then leads to a level of reflexivity.



Moreover, professors can use the reflective writing to gauge where a class is starting from. The course readings and overall direction can be adapted to begin with ideas that are comfortable to students because they harmonize with their own experiences. Then, there can be a more gradual exploration of concepts which students may find challenging. Similarly, students can be individually assigned readings which may support or challenge their first reflections. As the course continues, ongoing reflective exercises help the students keep track of how their ideas are evolving as they engage with new ideas. Through such a reflective scaffolding, some of the emergent aspects of participatory curriculum design become more embedded and do not depend only on classroom discussions. Through gathering reflective information, lecturers are able to sense energy and momentum in the group and to anticipate where they are heading next.

Another important challenge is striking the right balance between the needs of students and the needs of community partners. Bringing CBR practices into the curriculum reintroduces this tension at a new level. Potentially, the power differential in terms of social positionality may be somewhat less for a student and an outside participant than for a professional academic and a CBR participant; nonetheless, it remains an important topic for students and partners to reflect on.

Certainly, reflective practice offers a good method for helping students become more self-aware, but as facilitators of such courses and projects, there are additional issues to be considered. Whereas academics taking part in CBR efforts may have a fairly fluid time-frame that can allow the project to develop within the community and move forward at its own pace and in an emergent direction, students are on a much more regimented timescale. Their time for engagement is strictly bounded and will come to an end, likely in advance of the full completion of the project so far as community participants are concerned. So it is important to manage expectations on both sides of the equation – students and community partners. Both need to know the limitations of what is likely to be achieved. Students need to be assured that assessment is not based on the outcome or the completion of a project. Equally, community partners need to be realistic in the scope of the projects where students are the primary researchers. Course facilitators can add incentive for community participation by providing students across multiple terms/semesters to carry out segmented CBR projects over longer time-frames for community groups. Perhaps, in some instances, student projects can serve as preliminary data for creating more robust projects that may involve academics and not simply students.

IDS's PPSC team faced this tension in MAP as well as in its Empowering Society course. When the MAP course came into being, the energy was focused on participatory methods and PAR, as those are the strengths of that team for which they have an international reputation. Nonetheless, it was clear in practice that students attempting to facilitate large-scale action research projects, particularly within their own workplaces, could not move such projects to any level of resolution in a year. To force such projects along would inevitably contradict the nature of the work. Thus there is tension between students' needs and goals and those of the partners in the project, just as there is when academics engage in CBR. This

tension resulted partially in the increased importance of reflective practice in the MAP programme. The core aim of the MA has to move subtly from action inquiry to professional/personal inquiry. Students still spend much of their time building their action research skills, but within the framework of the MA itself, students are assessed more on self-discovery and personal change – impact on self, more so than impact on the community or field site. Creating change in the broader environment is still paramount, but projects initiated under MAP are expected to continue even after the course has completed, allowing them to run their course naturally. In the process, MAP students become more dynamic and self-aware as social change participants.

Even in the one-term (ten-week) Empowering Society course this tension developed. As discussed previously, the module turns around a CBR project locally in the Brighton community. Initially, the course conveners had labelled this project as ‘action enquiry’ in the syllabus. However, as the course went on, students themselves expressed unease with that term, with the connotations and expectations it created. They felt that within a limited ten-week time-frame they could not complete a genuine PAR project. Thus they asked to amend the terminology to simply ‘case study’. This change has not prevented student teams from achieving noteworthy results in their projects in Brighton, but their expectations and their partners’ expectations are managed proactively and made more realistic (Pettit, 2009).

### Ways forward

Bringing CBR approaches into the curriculum is not a simple or straightforward matter. Many of the tensions and ambiguities between academics and community partners in relation to CBR are recreated at the student/community partner level. Moreover, teaching and learning about these practices in a way which builds student capacity for CBR is also immensely challenging and requires pedagogical experimentation, commitment and energy, more so than teaching from a static syllabus. Because participatory, engaged approaches to teaching and learning are difficult to institutionalize and to implement, they remain minority approaches. Certainly, mandating CBR approaches would be a mistake as well. Many academics and students have neither the temperament nor the inclination to carry out cooperative inquiries with community partners; forcing such individuals into CBR projects would exacerbate relations between HEIs and communities. Nonetheless, more academics and students who could contribute significantly to the field of CBR have yet to be exposed to the ideas and practices that compose this paradigm. While many CBR practitioners have worked in the margins of the university feeling that their work is not academic enough, this mindset only inhibits the advance of these approaches throughout institutions and the higher education sector. If the aim is to expand the use of PAR and CBR, then such work must be made visible. Significantly, there are now more academic journals with an explicit focus on community engagement. Such journals allow for the production of peer-reviewed articles which help meet the publishing quotas

required of academics, while simultaneously creating publicity and advocacy for CBR processes more broadly. Academics who can succeed according to standard occupational metrics but also exceed this mould by becoming important contributors to local community life are likely to inspire curious academics who have not yet attempted CBR. CBR practitioners must aim to be institutional change participants as well as social change participants, acting as role models to draw other colleagues into the work as well.

Often, however, it is non-institutional participants which can exert more force on HEIs than those working from the inside. Vocal community partners can be powerful advocates for CBR, exerting pressure on HEIs through news and social media to maintain and support university engagement within the community on important, pressing issues. Similarly, building CBR into the curriculum helps to generate new recruits from among students and subsequently from alumni. At institutions such as Sewanee, which has a long history of engaging students in community work, alumni – former participants of outreach programmes – have played a key role in the expanding scope of engaged approaches to learning and research. They have acted as financial donors, they have been elected to the university's Board of Trustees and they have returned to the university as faculty where they teach in a manner which reflects their commitment to CBR approaches: principles they were often first exposed to through the outreach programme. Increased surveying of current students indicates that outreach programmes and CBR courses are considered by many students to be among their most valuable and transformative undergraduate experiences. Thus, current and former students have played a pivotal role in pushing the university systemically towards greater levels of engagement, particularly at the curricular level.

As such it is crucial that those already working with CBR, at the course level and with individual students, intentionally document and assess their work. Concrete data which indicate heightened student retention, improved learning outcomes and higher levels of student satisfaction will resonate strongly with university managers. Many studies already indicate that engaged approaches to teaching and learning can bring these results, but internal institutional data speak even more loudly. Persistent use of reflective practice with CBR courses is quite effective at generating qualitative data of this sort.

While such snapshot data of student outcomes within a course is important, one of the most important ways forward for CBR involves greater effort towards conducting longitudinal studies. This of course means following students across their whole careers as undergraduate or master's students, but probably more important and more rarely done is finding out what happens to the students once they have completed their programmes. What are their subsequent educational choices? What are their career choices? Even more explicitly, what levels of public and civic engagement do they maintain? How do they engage with institutions where they are employed? Are they active institutional change participants? Are they active community change participants?

All of these questions help to clarify to what extent engaged educational practices encourage students to become active citizens and social change partici-

pants in their lives after university. That is the underlying aim of programmes such as MAP and CPD, but thus far no follow-up data have been collected that indicate the long-term influence of these programmes on students. Undertaking more longitudinal research in this vein helps to improve the quality of these programmes, provides more concrete and convincing evidence of the value of these approaches and illuminates somewhat the complex links between individual change and wider, systemic social change.

## Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to capture briefly the current state of CBR as an approach for teaching and learning in higher education. It has defined broadly what is meant by CBR and then subsequently reviewed four case studies, four HEIs in which CBR approaches have been integrated into particular degree programmes and courses. This has not been an exhaustive review of such programmes. Instead, effort was given to describing the institutional genealogies of these programmes and to detailing the actual structures, methods and pedagogies used in these particular courses. Nor should these examples necessarily be considered ‘best practices’ or ‘state of the art’ so far as CBR teaching and learning are concerned; rather, these are programmes with which the author is intimately familiar. That said, most of these programmes have received national and international attention from other HEIs interested in building and improving their own CBR programmes. Perhaps the utility of this chapter, however, is in placing these cases side by side, along with several other examples, so that some commonalities in approach and experience could be found – and indeed some widespread challenges as well. Some particular suggestions have been made in terms of institutional advocacy and classroom pedagogies, as well as some potential ways forward for the field of curricular CBR more generally. Ultimately, it is left to readers themselves to glean some useful insights from these cases which may help them to advance their curricular CBR work in their particular institutional context.

# 6

## Embedding community–university partnerships: science shops and policy development

*Eileen Martin, Emma McKenna, Henk Mulder and Norbert Steinhaus*

Science shops originated in the Netherlands in the 1970s as part of the wider democratization-of-science movement. The gap between civil society and traditional knowledge providers was recognized by Dutch students, who established relationships with civil society organizations (CSOs) to bring their research needs into universities where they could be addressed by students as part of their academic course of study. The basic model of opening up knowledge resources within universities to the wider society has been adapted and used in countries across the world to help ensure that community-based organizations have access to knowledge within universities which they can then use to effect change in their local communities. Partnerships both within and across nation states have been vital to the spread of the model and its continuing success. One major challenge, however, as with many community–university partnership projects, has been sustainability, particularly in situations where resources are limited. From the outset, therefore, the wider science shop movement has recognized the importance of policy development and has had a focus on ensuring that science shops are embedded both within individual universities and within public policy more generally at regional, national and international levels.

As science shops spread across Europe and beyond, there is a growing acceptance that they can be an efficient and effective mechanism by which HEIs address a range of strategic priorities such as research, teaching and reputational enhancement.<sup>1</sup> This chapter will consider the role of science shops in helping to develop policy to support community engagement within universities, both at the European level and at the country level. It will also discuss lessons learned by science shops in embedding community–university partnerships in policy, with a view to enhancing their sustainability.

A science shop provides independent, participatory research support in response to concerns experienced by civil society (Living Knowledge Network, 2012). In practical terms, most science shops work with CSOs to help them develop their information and problem-solving needs into research projects which can then be carried out by university students as part of their academic curriculum – meaning CSOs do not pay to access this resource. However, there are variations on this model – some non-university-based science shops carry out their own research in response to requests from citizen groups. And in some countries where the

CSO sector is less well developed, science shops work with schools or with local government to meet community needs.

Science shops have been most successful in the Netherlands where they are an integral part of many Dutch universities and a more specialist system has been established. For example, the University of Groningen has five different science shops covering each of their major faculties (University of Groningen, 2011). The model began to spread from the Netherlands fairly rapidly after its initial development.

Leydesdorff and Ward (2009) characterize four waves in the development of science shops. The first wave reached across the Netherlands and originated within academia itself. The second in the 1980s originated within civil society in countries such as Germany as part of a wider institutionalization of extra-parliamentary opposition. The third wave focused on the need to build social capital; the concept was taken up by social scientists in countries such as the UK and the USA. The fourth saw the spread of the movement into Eastern European countries and South Africa. Since then there has been a further wave of interest from Asian countries. Science shops have been established: thirteen new science shops in China and emerging science shops in Malaysia and South Korea. While the models used vary enormously according to the prevailing structures within the society, the core values of democratizing knowledge and opening up knowledge resources to wider civil society remain at the heart of the science shop concept.

However, the importance of individual science shops in creating the energy for this wave of development has not necessarily been acknowledged. The initial Dutch science shops could see the importance of becoming embedded in public policy and worked to influence the Ministry of Research in the Netherlands, who recognized the value of science shops as a means to reach out to communities around scientific issues, and sought to support the concept. Simultaneously, Dutch science shops were also reaching out internationally. For example, a Dutch academic brought the concept to Northern Ireland in the late 1980s and made a successful application for funding under the Nuffield Foundation's Public Understanding of Science stream to establish a science shop, now one of the longest-running outside of the Netherlands. Between 1998 and 2005, Dutch science shops utilized key policy drivers, around renewal of higher education and capacity building on environmental issues, to make the case to the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs to fund a network of science shops focused on environmental issues in Romania. The resulting InterMEDIU centres at universities were seen as important steps in the renewal of higher education, and instrumental in capacity building to tackle environmental issues with domestic resources. As science shops gained momentum through international networking and national-level lobbying, the movement also sought to bring the concept to the European Commission (EC) where policymakers within the Research Directorate made conceptual links with the *citizen science* and *science in society* agendas. A fruitful two-way relationship was gradually established which will be explored in more detail in this chapter.

However, while the model has spread across the world and there are science shops or science shop-type structures on every continent, as with other community–university partnership projects, sustainability has remained a key challenge.

Leydesdorff's use of wave imagery is apposite since the tide can also go out as well as come in and some science-shop-type initiatives have failed to flourish (Mulder *et al.*, 2001). This may increasingly be the case in the current global economic crisis where the roles of both CSOs and universities are being redefined. The need for science shops is greater than ever, both in terms of servicing the needs of the CSO sector struggling with a reduction in resource allocation, and in terms of demonstrating the value of universities at a time where evidencing return on public sector investment is vital. However, the fact that science shops are bridging mechanisms can make them more vulnerable to changing societal mores since they can be viewed as not fully embedded in either sector.

These issues are currently being addressed by the Living Knowledge Network as part of the EC-funded PERARES – Public Engagement with Research and Research Engagement with Society project.<sup>2</sup> This project developed from science shop practice and is focused on helping CSOs influence research at a more strategic level within research institutes (including universities) and within public policy. One element of this work is focused on how science shops themselves have linked into and shaped public policy both within their own university context and within public policy more widely. This chapter draws on the report produced from this work (Martin *et al.* 2011).

### Science shops and the European Commission

The European Union is not just about institution building and bringing Member States closer together, it is also about bringing Europe closer to its citizens. Consequently, its research programmes are keen to promote partnerships and knowledge for living. (Gerold, 2001, p. 3)

From the beginning, Dutch science shop participants who believed in the value of the work, to both CSOs and universities, wanted to share the development of this new practice. Initially, they established a formal network within the Netherlands. As the model spread internationally, the value of sharing support and experiences across different countries in service of this shared goal became clear. From the outset, science shop practitioners recognized the potential links between their work, which aimed to democratize science with the wider European Commission Science and Society agenda. Dutch science shops in particular took every chance to lobby public policymakers at national and international levels. Early stage discussions provided the foundation for a successful EC-funded project known as SCIPAS (Study and Conference on Improving Public Access to Science through Science Shops). A project officer at the Commission who had read about science shops contacted Dutch staff to make an application and strongly encouraged and helped to guide the process (Sclove, 1995). This project was funded under the Fifth Framework Programme of the European Community for Research, Technological Development (RTD) and Demonstration Activities (1998–2002). Nine countries took part in this project and it provided the foundation for the idea of the Living Knowledge International Science Shop Network.

SCIPAS sought not only to create a suite of resources to support science shops,

but also explicitly established an international contact point which provided information on relevant policy developments, both to participants in the project and to the wider science shop community (Steinhaus, 2003). Science shops involved in the SCIPAS project used it to reach out internationally and to promote the model in different countries, both responding to and stimulating interest and helping to build a groundswell of support among CSO partners, universities and public policymakers. The role of the EC in promoting science shops was used as leverage to support people interested in developing the concept in many countries across the world. This burgeoning international interest also demonstrated to the EC the value of their investment. The development of a website and newsletter as part of the project was also very useful in enabling people in different parts of the world to see how the concept might apply in their particular region. Another major output from SCIPAS was a conference in 2001 which offered an opportunity for existing science shops to come together, for the first time, with policymakers and discuss current practice and future priorities.

This project addressed the need identified in SCIPAS for a more formal international science shop network to support access to knowledge for disadvantaged communities, and focused on how to build and maintain a science shop network through the exchange of information and research cooperation.

The INTERACTS project (Improving Interaction between Non-Governmental Organizations – NGOs, Universities, and Science Shops: Experiences and Expectations) was a pioneer cross-national study which aimed to identify necessary changes in structures and routines in the RTD system for improving the future interaction between NGOs, researchers and intermediaries such as science shops. It was funded by the European Commission/DG12 under the Fifth RTD Framework Programme. INTERACTS contributed to the strengthening of the interaction between research institutions and society and provided more in-depth understanding of processes and effects of knowledge production.

This project indicated a growing demand for tools and support for starting science shop activities in many regions of Europe. The next step for the Living Knowledge Network was to seek funding to offer direct support to some new and emerging science shops, and to develop online resources which would be of use to people across the world trying to bring CSO demands on to university research agendas. The TRAMS project (Training and Mentoring of Science Shops) aimed to fulfil this need by supporting the ongoing professional development of existing science shops and encouraging emerging science shops through training and mentoring support. Previous EC-funded projects had enabled participants to do this in an informal way but it was clear that a more formalized structure for supporting and mentoring new science shops was needed. The TRAMS project not only helped established science shops to develop their practice further, and supported new and emerging science shops, it also supported the development of a database which brought together a range of existing training resources. It was funded within the Sixth Framework Programme of the EC. It resulted in science shops being established in France, Spain and Turkey and strengthened emerging networks in Belgium and Romania.



In November 2004, the EC invited participants for a workshop on science shops – Thinking the Future and Twinning Old/ New Shops. The debate focused on the role of universities, partnerships with CSOs and the promotion of new science shops in Europe. Ongoing and new projects were presented and a possible partnership with FP6 projects (networks of excellence and integrated projects) was also discussed (European Commission, 2005). Dutch science shops were able to point to the successful growth of the model elsewhere, particularly in Canada where the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) was funding Community–University Research Alliances (CURAs), which drew heavily on science shop experiences.<sup>3</sup> The outcome of this lobbying was that, in November 2005, the EC published a science shop call for proposals as part of the Science and Society Program. This was an important achievement for the Living Knowledge Network as it made science shops more visible and was a clear acknowledgement of the value of their work. The general objective of the call was to contribute to the universities' aim of sharing knowledge with society – in particular in the context of regional and local development – by supporting the development and strengthening of science shops (and similar organizations) based in, or cooperating with universities. The call aimed to support science shops in addressing the specific needs identified by local civil society, while at the same time optimizing the use of existing research results and expertise.

Emphasizing the local dimension of the research while simultaneously fostering international cooperation with organizations dealing with the same kind of local research questions (such as, for example, the issue of local air quality) were the key elements of this EC call. The call was widely publicized by the network and a total of twenty-seven eligible applications were received, indicating the strength and diversity of the science shop movement, with four projects eventually being funded. These dealt with health effects of noise from wind turbines; cycling and air pollution; optimizing public transport for the elderly; and mental health care for immigrant communities. Even where these applications were unsuccessful, productive networks were established, and ideas for interesting research proposals were worked up which has contributed to the development of science-shop-type structures.

This success of this call led to the establishment of a general funding mechanism that can be used in any DG Research call, 'research for the benefit of specific groups/CSOs' (European Commission, 2012). This funding mechanism already existed for small and medium enterprises. By attaching this funding mechanism to calls for proposals in all fields, CSOs and research institutes are able to submit joint proposals, although this mechanism has been little used to date.

A Science in Society consultation seminar was held in January 2006 in order to give relevant stakeholders the opportunity to express their opinion on the Science in Society programme, published by the EC in September 2005. Representations made by Living Knowledge Network members helped to ensure that framework programmes and work plans had enough scope to enable science shops to apply for funding. Living Knowledge Network was also invited to advise the EC's Forum on University based Research which in 2006 advised universities to 'promote the

creation and the advancement of science shops at Universities' (Living Knowledge Network, 2005).

It was also the explicit aim of the Science in Society Call of 2008 to have public engagement activities that would make a difference to research strategies. The EC-funded science shop project PERARES began in 2010 and has supported the production of the policy report from which much of this chapter has been drawn. It also offers cross-national demonstration projects examining domestic violence in pregnancy across England, Belgium and Norway, and examining human rights issues among Roma and Travellers across Ireland, Spain and Hungary. These projects involve CSO organizations in carrying out research which is of direct relevance to their own work in supporting vulnerable people across Europe. The fact that the Living Knowledge Network has grown to be able to submit and obtain a grant of €2.7 million shows how policy development and capacity building of those active in the Science in Society field go hand in hand.<sup>4</sup>

Negotiations on the PERARES project also made it clear that the EC sees science shops as a way to implement policy targets for more equitable access to science and technology, and increasing response from science and technology to civil society, both of which are needed to achieve the ideal of the knowledge society, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion. The Ljubljana process in Slovenia calls for improved governance of the European Research Area (ERA) which should involve universities and research organizations, and civil society. A genuine engagement can make civil society a partner in identifying and responding to the *grand challenges* of our time to which European research should respond, according to the EC's Lund Declaration.

Science shops have therefore had a high degree of success in working with the EC. Commission support has allowed networking and capacity building to respond to policy opportunities, thus creating synergy between policy and implementation. The fact that the EC's Science and Society Action Plan of 2001 mentions that 'the networking of science shops in the regions of the Union and the candidate countries will be encouraged' (European Commission, 2002, p. 15) was a direct consequence of the SCIPAS project. The establishing of a Science and Society Directorate at the EC's DG Research in 2000 has helped to provide continuity to policy development; the concept of public understanding has moved beyond unidirectional science communication towards two-way public engagement. This shift clearly favours the interactive, upstream engagement performed by science shops.

In some cases, the outcomes of lobbying by Living Knowledge members are clear – for example, the specific science shop call which led to several projects which directly benefited CSOs. In the Netherlands, science shops are invited to comment on draft Science in Society work plans and have some success in making representations. In others, as with all policy development work, it is less clear to what degree particular interventions are responsible for positive outcomes. Continued funding of successful science shop projects indicates a level of both successful policy intervention and successful international networking.

## Science shops in national and institutional policy

Attempts have been made by science shops in different countries to either capitalize on current public and institutional policy where it exists or to create a policy context where it does not exist. EC support has also enabled some science shops to make stronger arguments for support at national and local levels. This section will focus on science shops within the UK and Ireland which have been less well covered in previous reports and where there have been recent significant policy gains.

### *United Kingdom*

Over the last fifteen years, active citizenship has become a key policy driver within the UK. Under the 1997–2010 Labour government, there was a focus on third-sector organizations and on volunteering, which left space for citizen engagement initiatives. Elements of this have been rebranded in policy terms as ‘Big Society’ by the current coalition government. In terms of higher education, there have been attempts to open universities up to the needs of society, resulting in the development of a funding stream in 2001 known as Higher Education Innovation Funding (HEIF). This funding stream sought to develop capacity in universities to engage outside the academy, with a goal of making economic and social impacts in society. While the focus for such policy and funding has been overwhelmingly in the direction of economic development, community engagement practitioners within universities, including science shops, have argued that the needs of civil society must also be reflected. This has helped to support some small-scale knowledge exchange initiatives; for example, the Department for Employment and Learning Northern Ireland has funded science shops in Northern Ireland through this stream since 2004 (Martin *et al.*, 2011).

As part of this policy of opening up universities to the public, UK government has also been encouraging UK research funders towards public engagement. When the Research Councils United Kingdom (RCUK) and Wellcome Trust opened a funding call for Beacons for Public Engagement, and a National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement (NCCPE) in 2007, community engagement practitioners worked to ensure that initiatives focused on community engagement also found a place alongside more traditional public engagement activities such as public lectures and partnerships with museums and broadcasters. The NCCPE has a goal of ‘support[ing] universities to increase the quantity and quality of their public engagement activity’ (NCCPE, 2012). Initiatives such as the Concordat on Public Engagement<sup>5</sup> and NCCPE Manifesto on Public Engagement<sup>6</sup> create spaces where community engagement can find a home, although a lot of public engagement activity still falls in the area of ‘inspiring interest’ rather than direct engagement with civil society. The NCCPE has been successful in linking public engagement to the traditional university priorities of teaching and research. More recently, in discussions on the future direction of academic research in the UK, the NCCPE’s lobbying contributed directly to the inclusion of impact and environment as elements of the proposed Research Excellence Framework (REF), the

main government mechanism for funding academic research in UK universities. So, while academic excellence is still at the heart of research, the funding stream now acknowledges the importance of research that reaches out beyond the HEI. And at least one UK-based science shop is hoping to use REF to gain visibility and profile within their HEIs (Martin *et al.*, 2011).

Several UK science shops have also recognized the importance of having community engagement written into policy within their own universities. In some cases this was relatively easy to achieve, where a science shop was established in an HEI which already had engagement strongly written in at strategic level. Within this context, a science shop offered an additional means by which to carry out one of the core missions of HEIs. In a few cases, community service work was also written into the promotions criteria of HEIs so that academics who support students working on science shop projects can have this recognized as contributing to a core mission.

In other cases, there were no policies or strategies in place that directly supported community engagement; science shop practitioners worked to develop this agenda within universities. For example, one science shop used the appointment of a senior staff member with responsibility for the area of outreach and worked with him to develop an outreach strategy to the community. They also used this to write community engagement via student projects into the education strategy and to ensure there were small references to community-engaged research in the research policy. This ensured that engagement with the community was viewed as part of the university's core work.

However, some science shops have not prioritized policy development to the same degree. One science shop, established in 2006 under a strategic development fund, was very successful in establishing links with NGOs and in lobbying policymakers, who extended this regional funding for a second round. However, this successful lobbying work was not replicated within the HEIs involved and the lack of embedding within the universities contributed significantly to the demise of the project, since the value of the work was not clear to senior managers who made budget allocations. While some attempts were made latterly to address this, it was not enough to make a case for continuing funding, particularly in a time of economic cutbacks across the public sector in the UK.

### *Ireland*

One UK science shop was instrumental in bringing the concept to HEIs in the Republic of Ireland, both through direct contact and through involvement in a master's programme in science communication. There are currently four science-shop-type organizations in the Republic of Ireland at different stages of development. In the Irish example, difficult circumstances have helped to provide the catalyst for positive change. In spite of financial pressures in Irish Higher Education, the Higher Education Authority (HEA) policy of supporting strategic innovation enabled three years' funding for two full-time staff for one HEI-based Knowledge Exchange programme, incorporating both community-based learning and research. The HEA has used the current economic situation to re-evaluate

the key purposes of higher education. The National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030, which emerged from this process, emphasizes the significance of HEIs engaging with society in several sections and has been instrumental in supporting the development of science-shop-type programmes. The strategy notes: 'Greater engagement and partnership between higher education institutions and community and voluntary groups offers significant potential to progress equality and community development and to further social innovation' (Hunt, 2011, p. 76). Partnerships with community groups 'can contribute to the creation of an academic community engagement model that builds academic community partnerships to create long-term cultural and social change' (*ibid.*, p. 77).

In addition, the National Access Strategy in Ireland, with its focus on widening participation in Higher Education, has helped focus on the benefits of building bridges between disadvantaged communities and higher education. Regarding curriculum development, the National Strategy for Higher Education in Ireland Report states that 'Engagement with the wider community must become more firmly embedded in the mission of higher education institutions', and this could be achieved by recognizing the 'civic engagement of their students through programme accreditation', and by putting in place 'structures and procedures that welcome and encourage the involvement of the wider community in a range of activities' (*ibid.*, p. 23). Irish science shops are already using this policy paper to make arguments to support science shop work both within their own universities and in public policy (Martin *et al.*, 2011).

In addition to its focus on community engagement, the National Strategy for Higher Education in Ireland has identified the need for students 'to spend some time in a work or service situation, and formally acknowledge such work through accreditation or inclusion in the student's Diploma Supplement' (Hunt, 2011, p. 19). Such a policy supports the development of new courses or curricula redesign to include community-based learning and research activities. But there is also no mention of community-engaged research or CBR in the National Strategy, despite there being a whole chapter on research. 'However, the experience of Irish science shops has been that, while there may have been policy gains at the national level, very little policy exists at the level of individual HEIs that explicitly supports or even names science shops; it is more that we they have been using the policy goals in these documents to match the science shop process and rationale' (*ibid.*, p. 20).

### **Embedding science shops in policy – lessons learned**

The experience of science shops has been that contributing to the development of policy at all levels – from institutional to national and international – is helpful to embedding their work, especially in terms of fostering a culture supportive of community university alliances. The work of individual Living Knowledge Network representatives in raising the profile of science shops with key policy-makers at the EC, particularly in the Research directorate, has led to a number of projects being initiated, including the current PERARES project. This networking, lobbying and linking to other core agendas has brought science shops to a point

where there is a broad awareness of the concept and practice of science-shop-type activities in higher education across the world and, in some countries, there is a real momentum behind the movement to make universities more accessible to community interests: ‘EC-funded projects such as PERARES are also useful in examining opportunities for development and lobbying and in encouraging networking. Often it only takes one contact to make a difference’ (*ibid.*, p. 22).

For most science shops, lobbying is fundamental to survival. However, not all understood lobbying in the same way. For some, lobbying was a formal activity undertaken largely by making policy representations, for example, to the EC during a formal consultation. For others, lobbying was an ongoing exercise, involving both formal and less formal routes. One community engagement manager commented, ‘we don’t really lobby, but we do go to places where we know people with influence will be and we make presentations and talk to them afterwards’ (*ibid.*, p. 21). In discussions, it was clear that both types of lobbying have a role to play in successful policy development.

It should also be noted that many science shops did not engage in lobbying activities. As one commented, ‘It is not easy to play chess simultaneously on different boards. Many science shops are understaffed and ... do not know how to give more priority to their strategic development within international, national, regional or university policies’ (*ibid.*).

Finding the right supporter to champion science shops both within government and within the HEI also emerged as important in embedding science shops. In some cases, this might not be the person with direct responsibility for this area of work but rather someone with either a personal or a research interest in it. Often they are at a senior level within the organization; however, some people also have influence beyond their job title – for example, those who write policy drafts. Consequently, it is also important to ensure that the good work done by science shops is clearly communicated, both within and outside the university at different levels. Successful science shops pointed to the importance of making sure that their work is visible, both within the HEI and externally (*ibid.*). This in turn may impact both institutional and regional support for science shops. It is also important to build a skills base in the network of people who are able to effectively market the work they do at a range of different levels.

The process of writing into sub-policies is often easier if it is written in at the highest level within the HEI – for example, in the mission statement, operational plan or corporate plan. However, the distinctive thing about science shops is that they meet the needs of HEIs, curriculum development, student skills, and employability, research impact, science communication, and societal needs in a cost-effective way. This reinforces the importance for science shops of building links both formally and informally across institutions and reflects the different agendas which science shops can respond to within HEI. The location of a science shop within the institution is not critical; the degree of connectivity is.

It was clear from the research that one individual can have a significant effect on policy within both their own HEI and at a broader level in their region or country. Policies do not exist in isolation but can be influenced and developed by

individuals. This can happen on a formal basis via submitting responses to consultations. However, it can also happen informally and it is important to ensure that science shop agendas are represented in as many different areas as possible. Indeed, Living Knowledge Network as a network has some notable successes with building relationships with influential individuals. This also works both ways – science shops are often small and one person can have a lot of influence for good or bad.

The results of informal lobbying are not easily identified and may not take effect immediately. It can be difficult to identify whether or where influence has been felt. However, those science shops fully embedded in policy tended to undertake informal lobbying on a regular basis, which would suggest this is an effective tactic. It is also the case that such informal lobbying can help to ensure that, when outside threats do present themselves, there is a strong defensive position in place.

In some countries such as the Netherlands and Ireland, lobbying has been very effective and has led to a strong policy outcomes. But for some institutions, this is not necessarily seen as a successful outcome – in some institutions the requirement to establish a science shop is itself seen as an impediment. Generally speaking though, it would seem that commitment from HEIs is necessary as well as a broader government agenda; imposed policy without prior discussion and agreement may cause as many problems as it solves.

## Conclusions

Embedding community university engagement is a key challenge for many community engagement practitioners and this chapter has sought to give some examples of where science shops have been active in both influencing and utilizing policy to enable communities to access the knowledge resources of universities.

While there is an international drive towards opening up universities to the needs of outside society, and the science shop movement continues to grow and develop both within Europe and across the world, in the current climate of economic uncertainty it is more important than ever that science shops and community university partnerships be firmly embedded within a policy context. As drastic cuts to HEI budgets are implemented in many countries, activities regarded as *add-on* are being reduced or removed and only core activities remain. In some cases this has already affected science shops and consequently has blocked a key route where communities can access the knowledge resources of universities. Linking to appropriate international agendas, such as those developed by the European Union, and using these agendas to help develop a critical mass, has been crucial to the success of the science shop movement across Europe and in influencing national policies both within the EU and further afield.

The contribution science shops can make to core HEI agendas in both research and education is apparent; indeed, the prevailing view is that, in order for science shops to maintain their position in HEIs they must ensure that these links are made clear to the institutions, both internally and externally. Embedding science shops within HEI policies and within HEI curricula can only help to strengthen

their sustainability. However, science shops can also help HEIs make the argument for their relevance in times of austerity since they help demonstrate the value of universities to society more broadly, rather than primarily commercial and industrial interests. In many cases, science shops are fully embedded in both public policy and in institutional policy. However, policy gains need to be monitored and evaluated, and policy influence needs to be constantly refreshed. In some cases, while policy battles have been won at a national level, this gain has not been reflected at an operational level and is therefore unlikely to have any real impact.

Policies are created when individuals understand the vision for an activity or area of work and can see the links with other key priorities. Policy change is therefore something that everyone can contribute to. Lobbying at all levels is a critical part of this process as strategic thinkers and influencers need to understand the vision for science shops and community university engagement more broadly. In order to ensure sustainability, science shops need to understand what the policy drivers are across a range of areas and this can be both time-consuming and challenging. While it is indeed difficult to play chess on several boards at once, it is important for both science shops and community–university partnerships to be aware that it may be vital to the future of their work.

## Notes

- 1 For more information on how science shops operate, see Mulder and DeBok (2006).
- 2 This chapter draws heavily on work carried out as part of the Public Engagement with Research and Research Engagement with Society – PERARES – project which received funding from the European Community’s Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007–2013, under grant agreement no. 244264). This project aims to strengthen the interaction in formulating research agendas between researchers and CSOs and citizens in Europe: made up of twenty-six partners from seventeen countries. Partners include science shops, social organizations, HEIs; a research funder participated in the first phase. The partners actively involve researchers and CSOs, and help both CSOs and the general public in dialogues to articulate research questions. These will then be put on the research agendas of the partnering research bodies such as HEIs and science shops.
- 3 Currently, a number of French regional councils apply the same funding scheme, as does the Romanian National Partnerships Program.
- 4 Previous projects had budgets from €200,000 to €450,000.
- 5 [www.publicengagement.ac.uk/why-does-it-matter/concordat](http://www.publicengagement.ac.uk/why-does-it-matter/concordat) (accessed 12/01/2012).
- 6 [www.publicengagement.ac.uk/why-does-it-matter/manifesto](http://www.publicengagement.ac.uk/why-does-it-matter/manifesto) (accessed 12/01/2012).



# 7

## Evaluating the partnership research process

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*Translation by Elizabeth Carlyse*

As part of the project Strengthening Knowledge Strategies for Poverty Alleviation and Sustainable Development: A Global Study on Community–University Partnerships, the team at l'Université du Québec à Montréal (UQAM, [www.aruc-es.uqam.ca](http://www.aruc-es.uqam.ca)) was given the task of developing an evaluation process for research partnerships. First, a definition of partnership research was developed. Second, the concept of evaluation is discussed and an attempt made to differentiate the partnership process from the process of social change in which research partnerships usually take place. Finally, a partnership research evaluation model, grounded in participating practitioners' point of view, is proposed.

### The project

This project has five main goals:

- 1 to provide examples of partnerships between community organizations and universities;
- 2 to identify institutional arrangements between universities and community organizations that facilitate productive partnerships;
- 3 to make policy recommendations to national and international organizations, with the aim of providing better support for research partnerships;
- 4 to make suggestions to UNESCO and other international agencies, with a view to stimulating participation in research partnerships; and
- 5 UQAM's participation.

The UQAM team, led by Jean-Marc Fontan, was given the task of identifying indicators of success in research partnerships. While collaborative research partnerships have been in place for several years in universities in Canada and around the world, little has been written on evaluating this research model.

First, this chapter seeks to define partnership research. Second, we focus on evaluation of the partnership research process, an undertaking distinguished from analysis of the larger process in which partnership research takes place. Finally, a partnership research evaluation model, based on the partnership research model developed by the Alliance de recherche universités–communautés en économie sociale (ARUC-ÉS, or CURA on the social economy) and the Réseau québécois

de recherche partenariale en économie sociale (RQRP-ÉS), was proposed (two projects that received funding from SSHRC from 2005 to 2010).

### A definition

Generally, when one speaks of partnership research, one is referring to research undertaken jointly by researchers and practitioners. To fully understand the concept of partnership research, one must go beyond the simplistic notion implied and describe the research more concretely. There is no consensus around the term *partnership research*. Depending on researchers or disciplines, it may also be called *action research* (*recherche-action*), *collaborative research* (*recherche collaborative*), or *participatory research* (*recherche participative*). Some call it *interventionist research* (*recherche-intervention*), *collaborative learning* (*apprentissage collaboratif*), or *training research* (*recherche-formation*) (Couture *et al.*, 2007).

All terms embody the dynamism of this movement that seeks to 'link theory and practice, to take into account the voice of practitioners or local players in the generation of a certain knowledge of their practice' (*ibid.*). The same dynamic language appears in English; one speaks of 'community-based research, 'community-based participatory research', and 'community-university partnerships'. Putting differences aside, all of these forms of research seek to break the traditional research mould, where participants are merely research subjects. These community-oriented research methods also subscribe to and participate in change in practices and social change.

Throughout this chapter, for the terms ARUC-ÉS and RQRP-ÉS *partnership research* will be used.

### Research initiated by practitioners

In partnership research, research questions come from the field. Practitioners are at the heart of defining these questions, as opposed to traditional university research, where hypotheses are generated by scholarly study. As the website of the Office of Community-Based Research, University of Victoria ([www.communitybasedresearch.ca/Page/View/CBR\\_definition.html](http://www.communitybasedresearch.ca/Page/View/CBR_definition.html)) emphasizes, a research partnership 'begins with a research topic of practical relevance to the community (as opposed to individual scholars) and is carried out in community settings'.

Research partnerships are embedded in the questions that arise in the field, and necessarily focus on questions arising from the application of knowledge. Thus, the practitioners participate in the formulation of research objectives. Partnership research implies the 'the co-construction by a researcher and a practitioner of a research goal'<sup>1</sup> (Desgagné, 1997). It is not simply a matter, therefore, of problematizing issues that arise in the field, but of building, together, a research question.

## Co-construction of knowledge

Practitioners not only define research goals, they also play an active role in the process of generating knowledge. In one sense, they also become knowledge producers. As Desgagné notes, ‘these practitioners become, at some point or other in the research process, “co-creators” of the knowledge sought vis-à-vis the research goals’ (*ibid.*, pp. 372–3).

This participation in the process of knowledge creation is therefore a fundamental characteristic of partnership research: ‘participation in the products and process of research by people who experience the issue being studied is considered fundamental to CBPR’ (Viswanathan *et al.*, 2004). Partnership research is identified by research conducted *with* the partners or the communities, rather than *about* the partners or the communities.

Here, it is important to distinguish partnership from collaboration. Collaboration limits the role of participants to ‘facilitating the collection of data, the recruitment of subjects, access to archives, access to statistics’ (Simard, 2001, free translation from French), and aims to create the conditions required by the researcher in a given milieu. In contrast, partnership implies greater involvement of practitioners in the entire research process. This process includes identifying target populations, involvement in the creation of tools for gathering data and participation in the analysis of the findings and the drafting of any reports.

## Mobilisation of knowledge

Partnership research also differs from traditional research when it comes to disseminating findings. In traditional research, the dissemination of research findings is sometimes limited to academic journals, while, in partnership research, practitioners play a key role in the communication of research results to peers. For this reason, they participate in the development of communication tools, the identification of target audiences and even the dissemination itself (PowerPoint presentations, colloquia, seminars). In a partnership research, the different organizations that participate are expected to assimilate research findings so that this knowledge can be used to influence, modify or even overhaul practices.

Partnership research differs at every stage from traditional research, whether at the point of defining the object of study, in the research process, or in the application of knowledge by the participating organizations.

## The challenge of evaluating research partnership

### *Evaluation*

To tackle the question of evaluation is to venture onto a path littered with obstacles. The evaluation process exposes questions of methodology (how to evaluate); political problems (by whom and for whom); and ethical problems (whose values underlie the act of evaluating). Over the years, the methods and objectives specific to evaluations have evolved: ‘over the past two centuries, evaluation, in education

and other domains, has undergone a profound transformation: as a result of public scrutiny, evaluation now constitutes an autonomous discipline with precise rules and methods' (Fontan and Lachance, 2005, p. 4).

In their book *Fourth Generation Evaluation*, Guba and Lincoln (1989) propose dividing the evolution of evaluation into four generations, with each generation characterized by a distinct concern or perspective. According to Fontan and Lachance (2005, p. 4), a fifth generation is 'based on the recognition of its *raison d'être* and on the support given to it by the community'. For this chapter's purposes, these interesting debates will be set aside, and we will return to the basic principles that will guide the present discussion.

To evaluate is to pass judgement, with reference to a model or an objective that serves as the basis for the evaluation. 'This judgement allows for the measurement of a gap, whether or not it exists, between a given, very real situation, and the expected or desired situation' (Fontan, 2001, p. 12, free translation from French). As far as we are concerned, it is a matter of passing judgement on the research partnership process and its results. To evaluate, 'data collection must be methodical and comparisons must have a referent' (Centraide du Grand Montréal, 2004). Based on the research partnership model developed at ARUC-ÉS and RQRP-ÉS (2007b), a questionnaire that allows for the collation of information on the research process and results is posited.

The research framework proposed here does not call for external evaluators, but rather rests in the hands of the partners in the partnership research. It is an 'analytical evaluation [framework] ... more useful for controlling and improving its own work' (Hiernaux, 2001, p. 84), and 'should allow for the transfer what is known about one experience to another experience or to actions in the same domain' (p. 84).

Before getting to the heart of the proposal, it is important to distinguish the partnership research evaluation process from the process of change in which it is embedded.

### *Partnership research is part of a broader process*

As has been emphasized above, partnership research is part of a broader process that, ultimately, seeks to make change: changes in practice, political change (advocacy), or social change (improvement of health, living conditions, etc.). The expectation for change far surpasses the research objectives specific to the research partnership, and involves different participants and actions that differ from the basic research process. Some of these include community facilitation, training, citizen action and the formation of coalitions with others in the community who are not involved in the research.

Figure 7.1 illustrates the integration of partnership research into a process of change.

In Figure 7.1, the large circle represents the change desired by the organization or the community, and the small circles represent the different actions that could lead to this transformation. Of note, partnership research is only one of the elements needed to achieve the desired change. To evaluate the desired change

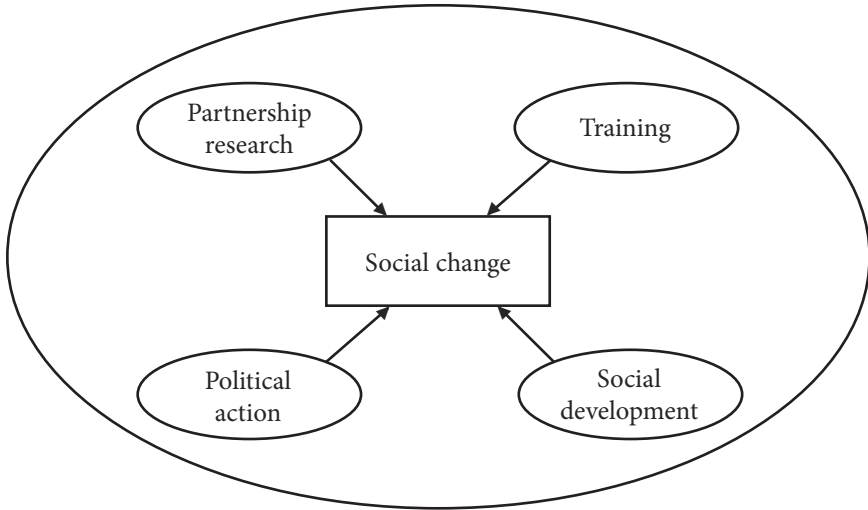


Figure 7.1 Integration of partnership research into a process of change

becomes a much more involved process, one in which it is important to determine the particular contribution made by the research project.

### Two examples

Example 1: in a study of laws governing property assessments for recreational organizations, research was conducted to examine the assessment tables for different municipalities, with the goal of identifying any errors and inconsistencies in the application of laws. The participating organization's goal was to propose changes to relevant legislation to ensure equitable application in all jurisdictions.

It is clear that even if the research is undertaken in partnership and the results show mistakes in the application of the law, the goal of legislative change requires more resources than just research results (political pressure, meetings with elected officials, participation in coalitions). To evaluate the partnership research on whether or not the laws are changed would be to base this evaluation on research elements over which it has little or no control. Here, the research project is only one of several elements that support the process of change.

Example 2: as part of a campaign to fight marginalization and poverty in one area of a municipality, a study was undertaken with residents to identify their perception of the problems in the area, to understand their expectations for changes to be made in the social fabric and urban geography of their community. The goal for the organization participating in the research is, ultimately, to put in place a citizens' committee that could take the concerns of the residents and implement practical solutions to the problems identified in the survey.

Once again, it is clear that the research is taking place within a wider sphere. The research project is just one of the elements that will inform the work of campaign organizers. Ultimately, solutions to the problems experienced by the residents of

the area will require actions that go beyond the results of the partnership research.

When one speaks of evaluating partnership research, it seems essential to distinguish this evaluation from the evaluation of the broader process of which the research partnership is a part. Without exception, partnership research provides only a snapshot of a much bigger and more complex process. To confuse these two evaluations is to not do justice to the process specific to the partnership research. In a sense, this would give the partnership research impossible powers and goals. It also ignores the fact that it 'must be possible to attribute [change] to action; in other words, [change] occurs because of [the action]' (Centraide du Grand Montréal, 2004). Thus change, in particular, social change, requires many and complex actions. This explains why evaluating social change is so difficult.

For this reason, it is important to differentiate the evaluation of the partnership process from the evaluation of the goal for change that is the overarching motivation for the partnership research. In the following section, a procedure for evaluating partnership research is proposed.

### **Evaluation of the partnership process**

To evaluate partnership research, one must get to the very heart of the research process in order to understand the different moments and actions that result in its successful completion. A paper entitled 'La recherche partenariale: Le modèle de l'ARUC-ÉS et du RQRP-ÉS' (ARUC-ÉS and RQRP-ÉS, 2007b) provides inspiration. The part of this evaluation model that addresses the impact of the research on the practitioner or organization participating in the research is employed here. A parallel process could also be put in place to evaluate the impact on researchers, students or the university as a whole.

#### *Research phases*

As noted earlier, partnership research is defined by three essential steps or phases: the co-definition of research goals; the co-implementation of the research project; and the mobilization of the resulting knowledge. Each of these phases must be deconstructed, to determine the actions required for the project to be successful.

#### *Co-definition of the research project*

Deconstruction involves posing a series of questions for each phase. The answers to these questions allow for the formulation of an opinion as to whether the partnership process has been a success or failure.

The first question goes back to the start: who initiated the project? Was it the practitioners or researchers who made the initial request? Next, it can be asked: how will this project contribute to the work of practitioners? Does this project aim to support a process of awareness raising, training, social change or change in practices? Will this project allow the participating organization to better understand the socio-political landscape? All these questions aim to anchor the project in the needs in the field. Usually, if the project is well grounded in the field, the spin-offs can be anticipated from the very beginning.

Once the beginning phase is complete, it is time to think about project oversight. Will a working group comprised of researchers and practitioners be established in order to ensure the project is carried out? Has this working group been involved in defining the project and establishing the research plan? How will decisions on managing financial and other resources be made?

The definition phase, including the establishment of a research team, is crucial. It is at this moment that a climate of trust is established between the partners. This phase paves the way for the smooth implementation of the project. The initial entente provides the foundation on which the partners can lean if tensions arise in the course of the project.

### *Co-implementation of research*

Once again, a series of questions allows for a more concrete assessment of the participation of practitioners in the implementation of the research project. Did the practitioners take part in the determination and implementation of the research tools (questionnaires, identification of the target audience, surveys)? Did they take part in analyzing the findings, drafting research reports and drafting the final report? Questions could also be asked about the number of working group meetings and whether the participating organizations integrated the researchers and students into the research process.

### *Mobilisation of knowledge*

The mobilisation of knowledge can be examined on two levels. The first is concerned with diffusion of research results and the second, the transfer of knowledge, speaks to the transformation of new knowledge into practice.

As with the other phases, it is a matter of determining the effective participation of practitioners in knowledge mobilisation. Did the practitioners participate in the implementation of the communication tools and the identification of target audiences? Did they take part in the development of strategies for disseminating information? Did they collaborate in the communications work? Did the participating organization contribute logistically, financially or in other ways?

### *The results*

Research partnerships are not just about process – each research project has its own objectives: profiling an issue; a study of a certain population; or a balance sheet. In fact, there are as many research topics as there are specific objectives in each research project. These results must not be left out of the evaluation, as they form the basis of the partners' requirements, and they will play a role in the broader process of change of which research partnerships are part.

Research results can be seen as internal to the research, or external, linked to the social change in which they are embedded. Internally, has the research met the expectations established at the outset? Have the deliverables materialized (book, manual, summary, synthesis, etc.)? Was the partnership process satisfactory in terms of relationships?

Table 7.1 Evaluation of partnership research

**Co-definition phase**

<i>Activities</i>	Yes	No
Participation of practitioners in defining the project		
Participation in establishing project goals		
Participation in drafting a research method		
Identification of potential practical applications		
Establishing a working group		
Participation in financial management		

**Research co-implementation phase**

<i>Activities</i>	Yes	No
Participation in defining the research tools (questionnaire, audience)		
Analysis of results		
Draft report-writing		
Final report-writing		
Researchers integrated into the organization		
Regular meetings of the working group		

**Knowledge mobilisation phase**

<i>Activities</i>	Yes	No
Participation in developing communications strategy		
Participation in developing communication tools		
Identification of target audiences		
Participation in dissemination activities		
Logistical support from organization		
Regular meetings of the working group		

**Research***Meets expectations*

	Yes	No
Produces deliverables		
Satisfied with the research partnership process		
Results are useful		
Results are being used		
Has a positive effect on the area targeted for change		



Externally, there is the question of whether the research is useful. Were the participants able to use the results? And, finally, did the results make a significant contribution to change?

This series of questions regarding the different phases of research partnerships and their results is synthesized in a table that can also be used to evaluate these partnerships.

**Proposed evaluation model**

Based on the questions raised above, we propose a tool for evaluating the true participation of practitioners in the partnership research process (Table 7.1 and Figure 7.2). It is in a *yes/no* format, in order for the questionnaire to be easy to complete. Note that this questionnaire is designed to evaluate both the participation of practitioners and whether the expected results in the process of change have been achieved.

Accounting for the number of ‘yes’ answers for each part of the evaluation, we can distribute them in a space delineated by the three conditions required in a research partnership, as well as its results. We call this the *partnership research space*.

By counting the ‘yes’ responses for each of the four dimensions along the four directions created by the two axes, we can evaluate how any given research project corresponds to the research partnership model. That is, we can determine where a project falls in the research partnership space by responding to the three conditions and by the presence of positive results for practitioners. In this way, we can identify the most successful research projects and those that require improvement.

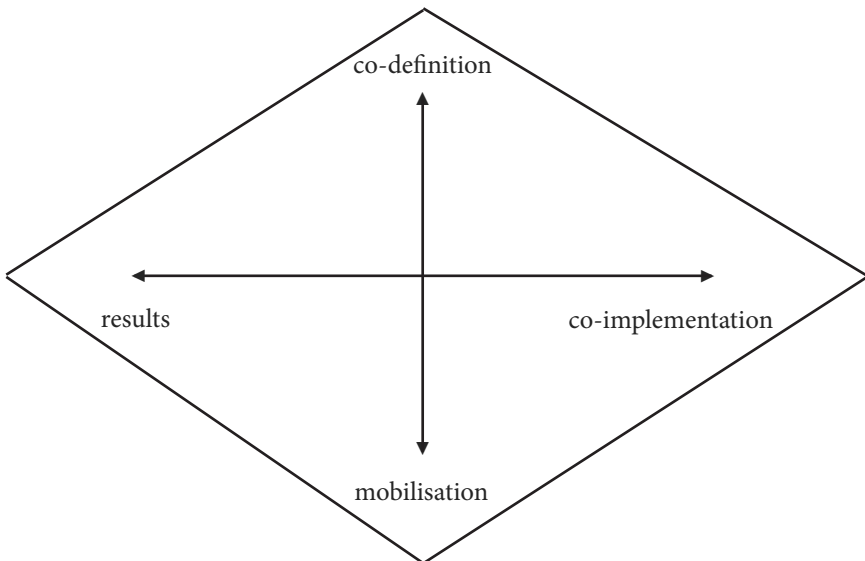


Figure 7.2 Partnership research process

Using Table 7.2, which shows the results for three research projects, we can map out the place occupied by each of them in the partnership research space.

Analysing Figure 7.3, we can see that research Project A is very successful in terms of co-definition, and that it also surpasses the other two projects when it comes to co-implementation. It received the same score in the area of mobilisation as research Project B, and it has the strongest results. For each research project, we can see the strong points and the areas for improvement. Clearly, as illustrated in Figure 7.3, research Project C is a difficult fit for the partnership research model.

Table 7.2 Results from research projects

Phases	Research Project A	Research Project B	Research Project C
co-definition	6	4	3
co-implementation	5	4	4
mobilisation	5	5	3
results	4	3	2

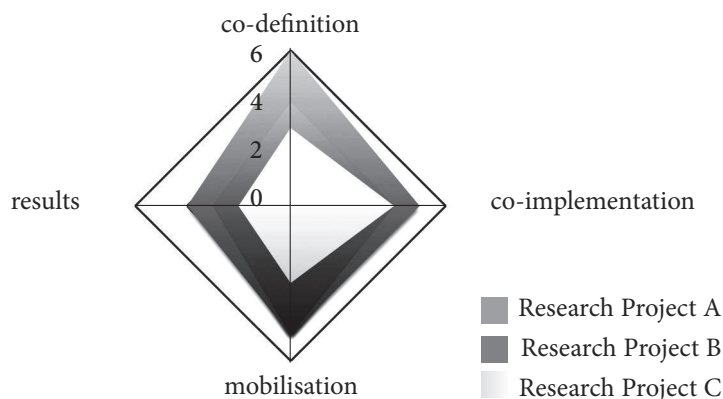


Figure 7.3 Three projects

This proposed tool for partnership research can be improved and detail can be added. In this way, a version could be developed to include the academic aspects of the project, thus allowing for, among other things, an evaluation of the impact of the research on students' learning, of publication in scientific journals, and of its contributions to the university community. Our model focuses, above all else, on the main steps in a partnership research from the point of view of practitioners.

## Conclusion

The partnership research movement is gaining strength in the Americas and elsewhere. As part of the Strengthening Knowledge Strategies for Poverty Alleviation and Sustainable Development: A Global Study on Community–University Partnerships project, it seemed important to submit for review and critique a model by which to evaluate research partnerships, from the point of view of the practitioners. It seemed important to differentiate the evaluation of the work from the process of social change in which research partnerships find themselves. Primarily, the model is targeted at the participants in partnership research, to give them tools with which to reflect on their partnership research experience and identify areas for improvement.

## Note

- 1 Note that Desgagné here uses the term *collaborative research* for what we call partnership research.

# 8

## Measuring the impact of community–university research partnerships: a global perspective

*Nirmala Lall*

Knowledge, intention, action and impact are intricately linked in a dynamic relationship. Community–university research partnerships are action oriented – exchanging and co-constructing a unique type of knowledge to tackle complex interrelated social, environmental and economic issues. There is evidence that community–university research partnerships serve an important function as they engage in creating greater participation, opportunities, access and impact among those most vulnerable in communities across the world. In these times of global economic uncertainty, families are increasingly challenged by social, environmental and economic realities, such as widening wage disparity, unemployment and poverty. Concurrently, community–university research partners and projects are becoming more vulnerable to shifts in funding affecting the creation of new partnerships, the sustainability of existing partnerships and the structures that support them. Community–university research partners are responding by continuing to work towards social change, exploring creative ways of working together across sectors and borderlines, and developing intentional processes to demonstrate their value and impact in universities, communities and society.

Using the lens of global perspectives, this chapter explores the form, function and impact of community–university research partnerships by examining participatory approaches to research and impacts that serve to foster, facilitate and strengthen the unique relationship and democratic knowledge exchange process between partners, participants and across the sectors they represent. Drawing from examples of hybrid approaches to assessment and evaluation of community–university research partnerships, this chapter argues that measuring impact is informed by partners and participants becoming intentional about the kind of changes, influence and impact they are creating in the partnership, in their local communities and beyond.

### **Community–university partnership in research: a global scan**

One step in beginning to understand the types, roles, interconnectivity and impact of community–university research partnerships is to investigate their form and function in local, regional, national and global contexts. The task of

mapping community–university research partnerships networks and structures began through the work of the Global Alliance on Community Engaged Research (GACER) and continues to be a work in progress (<http://mapping.uvic.ca/GACER>). Names, faces and places represent a growing number of community–university research networks. Now, a new online interactive map widens access and participation as it is accessible and user-friendly for anyone looking for research centres, universities, NGOs, civil society organizations and people engaged in community–university research partnerships. Local, regional, national and international community–university research partnership structures, networked together, offer greater opportunities to draw on global perspectives and act in global arenas.

To date, four broad categories of community–university partnerships in research have been identified (Hall, Tremblay and Downing, 2009), as set out in the following paragraphs.

Type I involves individual faculty engaging in transactional and community-based research partnerships with community created without a systematic institutional support. For example, there are HEIs in which there are no organizational structures such as a centre, office or institute for community-based research or community–university research partnerships to systematically support faculty, community members, groups and organizations in research partnerships. The lack of such a systematic support structure does not preclude the fact that individual faculty and departments engage in research partnerships with communities. These partnerships may be scattered across the institution, and those involved may become isolated in their efforts. In such cases, informal supportive groups may be organized, which can lead to the creation of a formal structure.

Type II describes centres or institutes with particular focuses that support community-based research partnerships with communities of similar interests: for example, Réseau de Recherche Participative en Afrique au Sud du Sahara – African Participatory Research Network (REPAS), based in Senegal; Bolivia Centro Boliviano de Estudios Multidisciplinarios – Bolivian Centre for Multidisciplinary Studies (CEBEM); Bonn Science Shop in Germany; Centre for Community-Based Research (CCBR) in Canada; and Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA), based in Delhi. These are generally independent, non-profit organizations that act upon the power of knowledge, using participatory approaches to mobilize and collaborate with community members, marginalized groups, community organizations, government ministries, social and health services and educational institutions, with the aim of achieving positive social change.

Type III identifies systematic organizational structures functioning in a university whose remit is to engage university and community partners in research for mutual benefit. The following are a few examples among a growing number of systematic organizational structures that operate in HEIs: the Office of Community-Based Research (OCBR) at the University of Victoria, Canada; the Community–University Partnership Programme (CUPP) at the University of Brighton; Science Shop InterMEDIU at the Technical University of Iasi, Romania; and a jointly managed institute hosted by Bukidnon State University with Tanggol Kalikasan, an NGO, in the Philippines.

Type IV involves multiple HEIs and community partnerships engaging in ongoing research and strengthening teaching and research at regional, national or international levels. Examples include: the Global Alliance on Community Engaged Research (GACER); the Living Knowledge Network; the research consortium of the Alliance de recherche universités–communautés en économie sociale/Community–University Research Alliance in Social Economy (ARUC-ÉS); and the Réseau québécois de recherche partenariale en économie sociale – Quebec Network of Research Partnerships in Social Economy (RQRP-ÉS).

An example of research and collaboration in this category is the global participatory research project that contributed to this publication. Funded in Canada by the Social Science and Humanity Research Council (SSHRC) and the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), the research project focused on strengthening community–university research partnerships for sustainable development and involves multiple HEIs and community partnerships engaged in research and strengthening teaching and research. Core research partners were all members of GACER; they included the Society for Participatory Research in Asia; the Living Knowledge Network; the Sub-Saharan Africa Participatory Research Network; Community–University Partnership Programme at the University of Brighton; University of Victoria; University of Quebec in Montreal; and Carleton University in Ottawa.

Through the global participatory research project, stories have emerged about the collaborative, complementary and challenging nature of partnerships that extend across these four broad categories. Such partnerships are relational in nature, using participatory action research approaches to facilitate and foster the co-construction and co-creation of new knowledge together in order to tackle specific complex and interrelated social, economic and environmental issues. Such collaborations have made a positive impact on the lives and livelihood of people and their environment by drawing on multiple types of knowledge, experiences and expertise across sectors, cultures and regions, while working through the details and overcoming the challenges of initiating and engaging as partners and allies in participatory projects and programmes. It is the work of building a networked knowledge democracy at every level of society and the economy, from the local to the global, to make lives better, protect the earth and foster peace.

### **Impact of participatory approaches to research**

Participatory research approaches such as community-based research value and validate diverse forms of knowledge and wisdom from people, groups and organizations in communities traditionally marginalized in the research process. Therefore, the aim of a community–university research partnership is to create an equitable partnership between those whose knowledge has exerted power in our societies, such as HEIs and policymakers (government), and those whose knowledge and wisdom is powerful but with greater challenges being heard, and so have not been able to engage fully in the process of social change and transformation in their own communities and societies.

*São Paulo, Brazil*

The Participatory Sustainable Waste Management project provides an understanding of the power, value and impact of using participatory approaches to create sustainable social and economic change ameliorating lives and livelihoods of local and international communities. This project has contributed significantly to informing and expanding theory, creating and reforming inclusive public policies on integrated waste management and promoting environmental sustainability. Emerging from developed and established collaborative research and community relationships, the project focuses on local participatory waste management as an opportunity to improve the social, economic lives of informal recyclers, known in Brazil as *catadores*. The central participants, the recyclers, are a stigmatized, marginalized, exploited, socially and economically excluded people.

The Participatory Sustainable Waste Management, funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), is a partnership project between the University of Victoria (Canada) and the University of São Paulo (Brazil) along with the Forum Recicla São Paulo (Brazil), Rede Mulher de Educação (Brazil), a number of recycling cooperatives, NGOs, local governments and the Universitário Fundação Santo André (Brazil).

Participatory and action-oriented methodologies were chosen because of the collaborative, inclusive and equitable methods that could be employed. According to Gutberlet *et al.*

Participatory approaches to development promote social justice and produce empowering outcomes, such as increased community capacities and broader stakeholder participation in decision-making. These approaches provide a platform to reduce and circumvent power relations typical of development research, and provide a voice for marginalised populations by facilitating their involvement in programs. Through this process of power redistribution, opportunities emerge to build participants' capacity to transform their lives. Participatory approaches provide a means to facilitate empowerment and collective action, which can result in significant development outcomes including improved quality of life, the protection of resources, reduced social and economic exclusion, and enhanced equality. (2008, p. 6)

A combination of participatory approaches referred to as *mixed methods* have been used strategically and effectively to combine the strengths of capacity building and knowledge mobilization in this policy-relevant project. Interviews, focus groups, surveys, photovoice, participatory video, community mapping and participatory observation (researchers participate in the work processes of the recyclers) were among the mixed-methods approach used to engage recyclers as co-researchers and participants. Capacity building focused on financial and organizational management, information technology, collective commercialization, microcredit and co-op administration. Collective decision making, sharing and applying participants' knowledge, learning by doing, consistently honest and transparent communication are all cited as contributing factors marking the impact of widely applied results and improvement of recyclers' lives beyond project funding. This project contributed to theorizing the social and solidarity economies in areas of research that remain relatively under-theorized; critical

discourse on collective commercialization and microcredit; the expansion of the body of theory about community-based research and empowerment concepts; and the body of knowledge and practice of sustainable production and consumption. In addition, partners and project participants engaged in policy discussions and supported the participation of recyclers in policy discussion by providing valuable evidence-based research. The Waste Management project demonstrates the realities and possibilities for widening democratic participation and spaces across local, regional and national borders. It has developed into a global reference for knowledge generation and mobilization on inclusive waste management.

The type of knowledge generated, mobilized and co-produced in community–university research partnerships through participatory approaches is unique. The type or mode of knowledge mobilized, constructed and produced by community–university partners and participants is distinctly different from the type of knowledge they produce as separate entities.

Hart, Maddison and Wolff (2007) have classified this distinction by creating a new mode of knowledge, adding to the four existing modes of knowledge already classified by Gibbons *et al.* (1994) and Scott *et al.* (2004).

Mode 1 knowledge (Gibbons *et al.*, 1994) is identified as being exclusive to the knowledge generated in universities. It is disciplinary, expert-led, hierarchical, peer-reviewed and offers legitimacy and prestige. Mode 2 knowledge (*ibid.*) ‘has not traditionally been valued by academics and by institutions of higher education’ (Hart, Maddison and Wolff, 2007, p. 5). It is applied, problem-centred, transdisciplinary, heterogeneous and network-embedded knowledge. Mode 3 knowledge (Scott *et al.*, 2004) is dispositional and transdisciplinary knowledge, having its context in structured university work, specifically at the postgraduate level. Mode 4 knowledge (*ibid.*) has more of a conceptual nature with the purpose of being political and change oriented.

Mode 5 knowledge combines and adds to these four modes in classifying the knowledge created by community–university research partnerships as peer-reviewed, applied, heterogeneous, problem-centred, transdisciplinary, change-oriented and co-produced by the university and community (Hart, Maddison and Wolff, 2007). The classification of community–university research partnership knowledge as a separate mode of knowledge recognizes and validates the unique knowledge created through participatory approaches, which have at their core the exchange and co-production of knowledge with the aim of creating change for the betterment of communities, universities and society as a whole.

### *Quebec, Canada*

Co-constructing knowledge in partnership can take many different forms. In one community–university research partnership – Chantier de l’Économie Sociale Trust (Fiducie du Chantier de l’économie sociale) – academic, professional and practitioner expertise were partnered to create a research locus for research projects or self-directed training opportunities. Throughout the project, research was conducted collaboratively by both researchers and practitioners to mobilize and co-construct knowledge. According to Denis Bussi eres, author of the case study:



This method, termed the co-construction of knowledge, differs greatly from traditional knowledge transfer methods by supporting the involvement of partners' academic and community settings throughout the research. Ultimately, the research project becomes a common project shared by both the researchers and the practitioners. This method greatly facilitates knowledge mobilization by practitioners because, throughout the process, they can immediately use the results of the research. This research partnership model was employed because it allows for an adequate response to practical problems or questions. It enables research focused on the key issues for the practitioners and allows for the integration of the expertise of both university researchers and practitioners. (Bussi eres *et al.*, 2008, p. 5)

Practitioners and researchers engaged in a process of knowledge exchange to assess existing knowledge of specific problems and issues. Researchers who found the process challenging and/or who could not align their own research interests with the project either committed to it or quit the project. A strong core of partners with shared interests established a research locus. This research locus is an example of an effective democratic approach to mobilizing, generating and strategizing knowledge from multiple sectors in society towards a goal that is mutually beneficial and for partners. The aim was to develop a new financial tool to fill a gap in financial services, which would then be available to Quebec's social economy enterprises. Through this partnership, a new financing tool was created for supporting community economic development initiatives. The Fiducie du Chantier de l' conomie Sociale Trust created a 'patient' capital loan with zero payments for fifteen years. Other success factors reported by Bussi eres (see Chapter 23 in this volume) included: research topics were closely linked to questions in the field; supportive leadership by both the university and practitioner coordinators, practitioner members involved in the project were linked to active well-established organizations; researchers listened to practitioners and were able to develop questions and concerns into research projects; conditions for organizations to convert research results into development tools were created. Fiducie holds approximately \$52.8 million in funds, \$10 million of which was generated from provincial and federal government.

A democratic partnership process is related to the successful application of participatory methodologies that positions the voices, experience and expertise of both community and university partners and participants. Through participatory approaches, community–university research partnerships serve to facilitate multiple knowledge types and strategies in the co-construction of a unique type of knowledge useful in many different sectors of society – creating policy changes, improving socio-economic conditions and working towards societal transformation. From social enterprises in S o Paulo to Quebec, local impact begins with a participatory approach working from a core principle of local responsibility while engaging, negotiating and advocating across multiple knowledges, sectors and levels of government.

## Measuring impact

Questions related to change and impact such as, 'How will we know our work makes a difference?' (Gelmon, 2000), commonly arise in community–university research partnerships. The lens of impact assessment can be applied across all stages of partnership requiring a combination of measurement activities to meet the 'ongoing challenge to find innovative solutions to the complexities of evaluating and demonstrating the impact of this kind of work [community–university research partnerships]' (Hart and Wolff, 2006, p. 196). Partnership stages as identified by Cargo and Mercer (2008) are engagement, formalization, mobilization and maintenance. It is important to stress that, although this may appear to be a linear process, it is not. Partnerships grow and develop at different paces and need time, especially at the engagement, formalization and mobilization stages to develop relations of trust and respect, to determine shared purpose, protocols, agreements and to work through challenges at all stages, such as: communication, time, funding, negotiating power imbalances, cross-cultural and organizational differences, capacity building and the need for reward systems recognizing non-conventional research being conducted by both university and community researchers (Cargo and Mercer, 2008). Of equal importance and relevance in partnership work is the question: 'Who is not being impacted and why not?' Investigating answers to such questions lead to the use and/or modification of existing strategies and tools or to designing and developing new tools.

A working definition of impact assessment that emerged through consultation and case studies is offered by Roche (1999) as: 'the systematic analysis of the lasting or significant changes – positive or negative, intended or not – in people's lives brought about by a given action or series of actions' (p. 20).

Impact assessment is by no means a new phenomenon; it is often done intuitively in our daily lives. The difference between what we do to assess impact in our daily lives and formal impact assessment is the process of developing a structure, a systematic or complex process, involving indicators, outcomes and timelines, which can be used to map uncharted territory using a pathway of change (Connell and Kubisch, 1998; Hart, Northmore and Gerhardt, 2008; Roche, 1999). Weiss (1995) defines a theory of change as describing how and why an initiative works in the context of theory-guided programme evaluation. Developing a pathway of change is one aspect of applying a theory of change approach that identifies changes (outcomes) planned by a programme, a particular initiative or an intervention. It is important to define the 'level at which change is desired and include stakeholders in the collaboration who are able to effect change at that level' (Todd, Ebata and Hughes, 1998, p. 238). Community–university research partners at the University of Brighton's CUPP apply a theory of change to identify a pathway of change, which includes indicators to measure success leading to particular outcomes (Hart, Northmore and Gerhardt, 2008). There is value in incorporating a theory of change approach to evaluate partnership processes and their impact (Anderson, 2005) because it aids in understanding whether community–university partnerships achieve their desired outcomes, how they achieve

those outcomes and how university participation adds value to the process (Hart, Maddison and Wolff, 2007).

Critical to this discussion is the recognition and understanding that assessing short- and long-term impacts is a complex and multi-tiered challenge, requiring a combination of measurement tools, which must be deconstructed into manageable portions that ultimately converge to construct a web of measurement activities involving university and community researchers and practitioners. Challenges include dealing with indistinct concepts such as outcomes, effects and impact, as they tend to overlap. Many factors contribute to how impact is assessed and whether impact is determined as valuable (good return for investment, contributes to the public good) positive, negative, detrimental or beneficial. The significance of the impact being assessed depends on whose views and voices are represented, who benefits and for what purpose. For example, certain communities' voices, often under-represented, can unintentionally be sidelined while various agendas of other stakeholders are being met. Mapping and revising a pathway of change to reflect meaningful indicators and outcomes for the community, university and their respective stakeholders, while careful use of measurement activities to assess who benefits and where value is being added, can strengthen partnerships working towards change.

In these times of economic restraint and cutbacks at all levels of government, funding agencies and in universities, demonstration of impact, value addition and making measurement statements are becoming increasingly vital to sustaining the work that has already begun through community–university research partnerships and the structures that support and strengthen them in higher education and civil society. Case studies in the global participatory project demonstrate that coordination of qualitative and quantitative measurement activities contributes to greater likelihood of sustainability of these partnerships. The following examples demonstrate that the process of measuring impact is informed by how partners and participants directly and indirectly involved in community–university research partnerships are committed about the kind of changes, influence and impact their partnership creates – locally and beyond.

### **Demonstrating impact in a community–university research partnership**

*Communities of Practice* (CoP) refer to 'groups of people informally bound together by shared expertise and passion for a joint enterprise' (Wenger and Snyder, 2000, p. 139). CUPP is the first known structure to modify and apply the 'communities of practice conceptual framework' to community–university research partnerships to improve community, university and practitioners' capacity to: share their expertise, accumulate a body of common knowledge, discuss practices and approaches; and innovate and new knowledge. Bouncing Back is a CUPP partnership project that aims to address the complexities of disadvantaged children and families through resilience therapy (RT). RT 'focuses on "scaffolding" resilience for these children through the imaginative and creative therapeutic work of resilient promoters such as mental health practitioners, social workers, teachers

and parents ... applying RT involves a relentless search for resilient actions that improve the outcomes in situations of high disadvantage' (Hart and Aumann, 2007, p. 171). In the context of the Bouncing Back project, the CoP approach built on 'knowledge exchange and understanding of the research underpinning resilience to continually facilitate refinement of Resilience Therapy in theory and in practice and builds on what is found to be effective' (see the Bouncing Back case study in this volume, Chapter 21). The CoP approach contributed to the effectiveness of this partnership by developing unique perspectives and knowledge in the areas of interest of parents, practitioners and academics, establishing personal relationships, from which the partners derived value.

The REAP matrix was piloted by university and community partners involved in the RT community of practice. REAP is a self-assessment and measurement tool designed to capture *reciprocity* (reciprocal benefit and value for partners), *externalities* (outputs and outcomes), *access* and *partnership* (Pearce, Pearson and Cameron, 2007). For example, to achieve reciprocity, partners describe and then reflect on their respective contributions (input) and the anticipated generated value for partners. In the case of the RT CoP, capturing externalities identified how concrete achievements (outputs) benefit families and/or organizations involved in the project, as well as outcomes that outline the potential and actual achievements and impacts of the CoP for families and organizations in several areas. Designed to be used at the beginning of a project while intentions are being clarified, and at the end of the project, providing a measure of achievement against a baseline, the matrix was designed as a 'cost effective tool for ongoing monitoring and evaluation as well as qualitative measurement which would generate analytical units for understanding the potential contribution of community engagement' (Pearce, Pearson and Cameron, 2009: 35).



# **PART II**

## Case studies



# 9

## Student community engagement for employability and entrepreneurship in Senegal

*Lamine Kane, Aliou Guissé and Latyr Diouf*

### History

After connecting online, Lamine Kane of the sub-Saharan Africa Participatory Action Research Network (REPAS) and Juliet Millican from the University of Brighton used a travel grant from the British Council to meet for exploratory discussions in Dakar with members of REPAS, the Department of Applied Economics (ENEA) at Cheikh Diop University (UCAD), and nearby local communities. These discussions led to the joint preparation of a full project proposal, which was funded by a partnership grant from the British Council.

### Context

Senegal is a former French colony and Dakar was the base from which France conceived and implemented its ‘assimilation policy’, which aimed to make Senegalese citizens French and to integrate them into the French culture and nation. To this end, education was assigned the role of familiarizing students in the colonies with the European order – economic, social and moral – as a first step towards integration. African students read European textbooks and wrote essays on winter, studied central heating and learned how cherries were harvested! Today, more than forty years after independence, the Senegalese education system remains both alien and aloof from social reality. Recently, Mor Talla Kane, head of the National Employers Executive Board, declared that 90 per cent of curriculum content in higher education has no connection whatsoever to the job market.

Senegal’s economy faces many challenges, such as: deterioration of commodity prices in the world markets and its side effects on the local economy; dry, arid land and low rainfall in a country in which agriculture employs 70 per cent of the population and accounts for two-thirds of export revenues; and rapid population growth. The legacy of the failed structural adjustment programmes of the 1980s imposed by the International Monetary Fund and World Bank is evident in contemporary Senegal’s high public debt and chronic economic problems, particularly high unemployment. Despite all this, however, the country of Teranga is a stable nation with a well-known tradition of commitment to both democracy and human rights in Africa.



## The project

It was against this backdrop that the partners launched their new project. The initiative aimed to pilot a new six-month postgraduate course for students from Cheikh Anta Diop University and ENEA leading to a Certificate in Community Engagement for Employability and Entrepreneurship. Part of the course involved a period of practice in a village setting, where students worked on an entrepreneurial project. Their initial training was supported by four one-week, university-based modules on: entrepreneurship and social enterprise (particularly in a village setting) and employment-ready skills; sustainable development and environmental protection, community-based research; and CV/résumé writing and interview skills. The project ran for eighteen months between 2009 and 2011.

From the outset of the programme, the objectives were twofold: (1) to create sustainable partnerships between the communities and the university in a country where this rarely happened, to enable the two entities to learn from and influence each other; and (2) to influence university curriculum in such a way that it would accept alternative pedagogies and opportunities for using experiential, applied and community-based learning and review its policies of teaching, learning and grading systems (e. g., the introduction of credits for student placements in the community). These objectives did not change as the project progressed. However, the principals noted that some academics proved to be change resistant – hesitant in accepting and using alternative pedagogies and changing their grading systems.

## Organization/structure

The main organizational structure for the project was the Steering Committee (SC). The SC was composed of the Project Coordinator (Lamine Kane); Prof. Aliou Guissé and Prof. Babacar Diop, both UCAD Representatives (Prof. Guissé was also a Sectoral Coordinator of Niakhene village activities); Dr Latyr Diouf, ENEA Representative and Sectoral Coordinator of Yeba village activities; Mika Lom, REPAS Representative; and Sectoral Representatives from the Mboro and Pikine communities.

In terms of programming sites, the project worked in four villages. Each site regularly hosted students sent to work with communities on development projects. The division of labour in each community was not predetermined. Instead, the project depended on local group dynamics to define the project and participants' responsibilities. In Mboro, for example, where local citizens were very experienced in credit and savings schemes, students played, at the beginning at least, a very limited role. In other cases, such as that of the Niakehene community, students and citizens worked hand in hand in the village garden project, both teaching and learning from one another.

## Stages

With regard to the stages of the project, the first stage entailed the design and launch of the course. The course was opened to graduates of Cheikh Diop University who were unable to find work after graduation; twenty students were recruited. The second stage involved training the students in the four university-based modules, enabling the students to get to know each other. The third stage focused on facilitating student internships and experiences in the villages. A fourth stage involved the organizing of a regional conference on student–community engagement and its role in increasing employability. Held in early 2011 and involving academics, practitioners and international partners working in sub-Saharan Africa, this conference also sought to influence both undergraduate and postgraduate approaches to teaching and learning.

## Methods

The core element of the programme's approach was the student internship component. For their internships, students were expected to immerse themselves in a village setting and work closely with the community to assess local needs and design and implement participatory local projects. For example, students at Yeba designed an anti-erosion village project, while those at Pikine and Moboro set up revolving credit schemes with local women's associations, supporting them with adult literacy programmes. At Niakhene, students worked on a women's gardens project that was also supported by adult literacy programmes.

At the beginning of the course, the project made agreements with the communities that the communities would: accommodate the students during their stay in the village; work closely with the students to learn but also to teach on the basis of their own experience and social praxis; and, together with the students, assess their own needs, evaluate the cost of those needs and present findings to the project for funding local initiatives. Agreements were also made by the project with students, who agreed to: spend two sessions of three weeks each in a village setting and work with the community on project activities; accept living in rural settings and conditions; receive a symbolic stipend to cover their upkeep; and care for their own food and upkeep.

## Challenges

In practice, however, some of these agreements were not respected. For instance, a dispute arose in Mboro, where a group of six students developed serious problems with the local community. At that site, the students worked on income-generating activities, and credit and savings, with a well-established local development association. The association was to receive money from the project each month and distribute it as loans to local individuals running micro-businesses, who, in turn, were obligated to repay a portion of their loans at the end of the month. Literacy programmes also supported this effort.

However, two problems arose at this site. First, during their stay, the students hid their stipends, wanting to be housed and fed by the community for free. In the middle of a recession, community households expected and needed contributions from the students, which were not forthcoming. The students were labelled parasites and cheaters by the villagers, who decided not to cooperate with the students during their second placement stay. The second problem was that the members of the local development association proved to be more experienced than the students in the field of microcredit. The students felt inferior in comparison to these association members. In response to these two problems, SC members visited Mboro and held discussions with all parties. SC members suggested to the students that they use their own money for food, lodging and other needs while at their field site, and that the students work with weaker members of the development association who could use student assistance in their micro-business activities.

The project faced another, more fundamental issue when the students in the course went on strike, demanding an increase in their living stipend. Strikes are common, and disruptive, in the Senegalese education system. Explaining to the students that the project overall had a limited budget, the Steering Committee tried to resolve this dispute, but found that its own committee members were divided on the issue. The students maintained their demands. In the end, the SC agreed to a substantial increase in the stipend. This decision created serious problems for the management of the project.

## Outcomes

Many diverse outcomes were generated by the project. From the community standpoint, villagers gained extensive literacy skills, notably basic numeracy skills among women in Pikine and Niakhene, which raised both their confidence and their commercial effectiveness. The communities also gained knowledge of how to dig furrows and sow seeds more effectively for garden vegetables for both household consumption and sale. From the student standpoint, they learned to use participatory rapid appraisal methods, to plough and plant seeds, and to fight back soil erosion. In Yeba, for example, the students worked with villagers to construct dikes and dug pits to retain the water and filter it out, making Yeba less vulnerable to torrential rains and flooding from the surrounding hills.

## Impacts

With regard to the *theory* of higher education, community–university partnership is a new concept in Senegal – a country where academics traditionally have had little or no contact with the grass roots. In the early 1980s, an education reform commission of the then-socialist national government proposed linking education more closely to the social environment surrounding it. But these recommendations were not acted upon when the structural adjustment programme, with its severe cuts to health and education, came into force. Nonetheless, while the great

majority of academic institutions still remain aloof and distant from social reality and praxis, the new university–community experiment reported on here has prompted many academics to learn more about alternative approaches to teaching and learning. In terms of policy, alternative approaches are also gaining ground in Senegal every day. The last two vice chancellors at Cheikh Anta Diop University have been very progressive on these questions. But the institutions – the university and the ministry – are proving to be quite resistant to change.

In the communities, it is known that more than 800 individuals were directly impacted by the project across the four project sites; in the long term, it is expected that the project's impacts will reach some 11,000 residents. Yet some results are already evident on the ground. In Yebe town, for example, the lives of local people are more secure as a result of better erosion control, and, as one villager put it, the town has now come back to life. Moreover, some nearby villages can replicate the Yebe methods to reduce the threats to their people. For their part, the villagers in Niakhene report that the community garden has changed their food habits – they now eat more vegetables, in addition to their traditional cereals, and thus gain more diet-enriching vitamins – and there is greater food security in the village. Local project members were given the opportunity of purchasing the vegetables produced by the garden at lower cost; the rest of the produce is sold daily at local and distant markets. In turn, this revenue will be redistributed back into the community by its general assembly.

### Success factors

Six main factors account for the success of this project. First, there was a democratic spirit among steering committee members; discussions were free and open and decisions were made by consensus. Second, all stakeholders were deeply committed to the well-being of the project, notwithstanding the fact that some, such as the students, also defended their personal interests. Third, the university opened its doors to community representatives whenever there were workshops, seminars or meetings; consequently, rural and illiterate men and women are now comfortable using the university campus and exchange freely and openly with academics. Fourth, university academics interacted with communities in rural settings, living in rural conditions, and eating and sleeping in the same facilities as rural citizens. Fifth, the project used a range of communication challenge to promote attitudinal change among all stakeholders, including radio broadcasts and newspaper articles. Finally, the active involvement of local leaders – notably politicians and religious leaders at public meetings – was mobilized to positively influence the community to participate in the project and to view community–university partnerships in a positive light.

### Lessons

Two overarching lessons can be drawn from this project:

- 1 Every human being is knowledgeable. For example, faculty and students learned from villagers how to use plants to cure illness and disease, drawing on centuries-old traditional knowledge.
- 2 Knowledge implies social change over the decades, small farmers in Senegal have learned about the importance of crop diversification and of getting fair prices for their labour and produce. This project generated for them new knowledge and new changes that improved their livelihoods.

### **Recommendations**

Five recommendations arise from the experience of the case reviewed here, as follows:

- 1 Policymakers should promote alternative approaches in teaching and learning, particularly in francophone universities.
- 2 Universities should promote awareness among academics of the value of experiential and practical work in their teaching and learning activities.
- 3 Governments and universities should facilitate the creation of local networks involving universities, employers, community groups (both NGOs and community-based organizations) and community members, in order to encourage and assist universities in reviewing their policies of teaching, learning and grading.
- 4 Funding agencies should support the strengthening of local and international networks and opportunities to share the value of participatory action research and community–university partnerships across sub-Saharan Africa.
- 5 Funding agencies should promote national and regional awareness of the value of student–community engagement programmes for employability, and its contribution to the global understanding of the potential of partnerships between universities and local communities.

# 10

## PRIA educates the community

*Mandakini Pant*

### A. Women Political Empowerment and Leadership (WPEL)

Gender is a salient factor in participation and representation in democratic decentralized governance. The Constitutional Amendment Acts (CAAs) enabled 33 per cent representation of women in *panchayats* and municipalities. While Article 243G and 243W of the Constitution empowered the state legislatures to endow *panchayats*/municipalities with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as institutions of self-government, the provision of reservation (Article 243D and 243T) gave an opportunity to them to hold formal positions of power and, in turn, to participate in the decision-making process. The political restructuring and affirmative action aimed to build a critical mass of women's leadership in decision making, which in turn would make a meaningful difference to the outcomes of governance.

The needs of women leaders (elected representatives) are different from elected male representatives. Women leaders are by and large first-generation leaders. Their capability building is, therefore, crucial. In keeping with the mandate of the Constitution, i.e., securing women's participation in local governance institutions, more attention must be paid to the training of women leaders. Women need to be politically enlightened not only about their rights and duties, but also about the nature of constitution, concept and relevance of local body administration and government policies and schemes.

Training should enable them to become agents of their own development. This implies that training interventions, in addition to imparting requisite functional skills, must also empower them to function in public space with determination. Institutionalized gender-based inequalities and pressures disempower them. Training interventions, besides orienting them to governance procedures and programmes and imparting requisite functional skills, should also underscore the importance of gender sensitization. A gender transformative capacity-building approach would contribute towards building gender-sensitive institutions where both women- and men-elected representatives, despite their different needs, priorities and aspirations, contribute to development processes.

Training for building capacities of women leaders has a *deficit* perspective. Elected representatives lack the skills to govern; they need training. The underlying

assumption is that once people acquire the skills, they will automatically use those skills. The training interventions with mere emphasis on orientation to procedures and programmes and imparting requisite functional skills are unlikely to qualitatively change the participation of women leaders. The gender component in training is missing. The emphasis has mostly been on giving training in technicalities of governance. Training has not addressed issues of unequal gendered power relations that generally constrain women's political participation. Training focuses on professional development, emphasizing skill development, but avoids behaviour, attitudes and personal empowerment issues. The change agents are actually not motivated to change the status quo (Farrell and Pant, 2009).

### *The programme*

PRIA initiated a project in 2008 on WPEL to address the gaps in the education and training of women leaders for political roles in institutions of local self-governance, at both urban and rural levels. It was premised on following three fundamental principles: (a) equality between women and men; (b) the right to full development of potentials; and (c) the right to self-representation and self-determination. The project assumed that women leaders are an effective interface for poor women to constructively deal with the panchayats and municipalities. They can provide a basis for collective action on gender needs in panchayats and municipalities and lobby for inclusion of women's interests in local bodies. While WERs (women elected representatives) share a political mandate of leadership as people's representatives, non-WERs from informal associations, self-help groups (SHGs) and community-based organizations (CBOs) assume de facto leadership roles. The poor women in villages and urban slums find them more articulate, and trust they would speak on their behalf in the meetings at public forums. Women leaders from both categories, when organized, can contribute to greater agency of women in articulating and claiming rights. Organized as a women's network, they can provide a basis for collective action around both community and gender issues, and provide a basis for a wider level of advocacy and lobbying in defence of women's interests, in local bodies.

Political empowerment was seen as providing women leaders with the capabilities to articulate their needs and priorities clearly as well as to negotiate from a position of strength, and participate effectively in the working of panchayats and municipalities (*ibid.*).

Women leaders in the WPEL project included current WERs, ex-WERs, non-WERs, who could be citizen leaders; members of CBOs such as women collectives, self-help groups (SHGs), etc. The project was implemented in Jehanabad district in the state of Bihar; Mahendragarh, Sonapat, Fatehabad and Sirsa districts in Haryana; Jaipur and Jhunjhunu districts in Rajasthan; and Ahmedabad and Sabarkantha districts in Gujarat. Women leaders in these states are severely constrained by the lack of access to critical resources such as information, education, skills, along with the denial of opportunities and choices, due to gendered roles and responsibilities.

The criteria for the identification of potential women leaders from elected representatives and women collectives (SHGs) and citizen leaders were set as below:

- proactiveness in taking up community issues;
- working with community groups/larger political groups;
- willingness to contest elections;
- ability to articulate.
- Training and education for political empowerment and leadership was a three-step process.
- Local-level half- or one-day workshops in districts for initial orientation on the roles and responsibilities of women leaders in the governance and identification and selection of women leaders for advanced levels of education for political empowerment at the state level.
- Three days' state-level residential workshop for potential leaders identified at the local-level one-day workshop. The state-level workshop aimed to provide capacity-building initiatives on the issues identified through a training needs assessment. The workshop also aimed to identify and select leaders for further advanced levels of education for political empowerment of women leaders at the national level.
- Five days' national-level workshop (National School) for political empowerment.

It was envisaged that a core group of potential leaders of approximately 100 would emerge from this school.

Education and training for political leadership had multipronged objectives were:

*General*

- to enhance leadership skills and self-confidence levels;
- to provide women leaders a platform to share experiences;
- to enable them to voice their concerns and contest as elected leaders.

*Specific*

- to build perspectives;
- to mobilize women leaders to network on a common issue, interest or concern, and articulating their common concerns and priorities in meetings to influence district level planning and implementation;
- to demystify the social construction of gender to initiate the processes of change by enabling women leaders to make informed choices and exercise power;
- to build agency of women leaders.

*Content*

- Perspective building on governance, gender and leadership and their inter-relationships, gender, gender discrimination, sexual harassment; violence against women, sanitation.



- Knowledge building on the Constitution of India, decentralized governance, state provisions.
- Skill building in networking, interfacing, communication – public speaking, campaigning and advocacy, computer training, constituency building, team building.
- Agency building to participate and articulate their concerns and priorities.

### *Training methodology*

The facilitators were well rooted in the issues relating to women leadership. By skilfully using participatory learning methods, they facilitated the learner group to understand their roles as leaders. Training methodology was a mix of participatory learning and action methods as follows:

- lectures;
- PowerPoint presentations;
- games;
- group discussions;
- case study analyses;
- films;
- interface with media, government officials, Chief Minister of Delhi, Ms. Sheila Dixit.

## **B. Strengthening Scheduled Caste leadership in Panchayati Raj institutions (PRIs)**

The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act (CAA) in 1992 provided a constitutional mandate to panchayats. The act particularly sought to correct the prolonged marginalization of poor, marginalized and under-represented people such as women, Scheduled Tribes (STs) and Scheduled Castes (SCs). The mandatory provisions of: (a) reservation of seats; and (b) the obligatory *gram sabha* meetings gave SCs in villages an opportunity to participate in political decision making.

SCs are now occupying leadership positions in local bodies. However, their leadership has yet to achieve significantly social acceptance, as envisaged in the spirit of the Constitution. The studies on SC leadership have revealed that SCs, as elected representatives, have not been able to articulate group-specific interests or to exercise their own judgements in decision making. They did not take part in deliberations or contribute to major decisions. A number of SC representatives were stoically dependent on the elite of the village and remained answerable to the elite. Being undereducated and inexperienced, they were often not allowed to carry out their mandate. Their efficacy was always under scrutiny; their views were not considered significant and they were not included in meetings (Tandon, 2008).

Caste-based identities and practices still continue to exclude them from exercising leadership roles. Socio-economic vulnerabilities limit their capacities to articulate and to act upon their claims and concerns. The gap between the

formal recognition of the right to participate and its actualization still remains large even after fifteen years of constitutional mandate.

### *The programme*

The programme Strengthening Scheduled Caste Leadership in Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) aims to strengthen SC leadership by providing them opportunities for systematic learning; facilitating such learning; and supporting capacity enhancement on an ongoing basis. The proposed programme envisaged that SC leaders would strategically use information and knowledge, act upon their concerns, organize and make demands upon panchayats (assemblies at local level) to change and/or influence policies and practices that affect their lives.

Education and training for political leadership had multipronged objectives as below.

#### *General*

- to motivate the communities for active participation in PRIs;
- to build capacities to express clearly one's viewpoint;
- to strengthen reservations of SCs in Panchayati Raj by making them aware of their potential and power.

#### *Specific*

- perspective building to develop a shared understanding of the key concepts of decentralized governance and leadership;
- knowledge building to understand the roles, responsibilities, powers and functions of political leadership;
- skill building to plan, and communicate with different interest groups, interfacing and mobilization skills;
- agency building to participate in and articulate their concerns and priorities.

#### *Content*

- Issues of governance, democratic decentralized governance including salient features of 73rd amendment; provisions related to panchayat meetings, ward meetings in state-specific acts, provisions related to gram sabha, panchayat budget and finance, social justice and economic empowerment in state-specific acts; committees in panchayats.
- Processes in gram sabha and panchayat such as quorum/agenda decisions, resolution and proceeding writing, convening ward/gram sabha meeting; conducting panchayat meetings and standing committee meetings, bottom-up decentralized planning (micro planning/ward-level planning) and preparing panchayat budget.
- Roles and responsibility in the exercise of power to participate and articulate effectively their concerns and priorities in the meetings of gram sabha and panchayats.

*Training methodology*

The facilitators were well rooted in the issues relating to SC leadership. By using participatory learning methods, they facilitated the learner group to understand their roles as people's representatives. Training methodology was a mix of participatory learning and action methods such as:

- large group and small group discussion and sharing of experiences;
- lectures;
- role plays.

**C. Prem Chadha Memorial Youth Leadership Programme**

The youth have abundant potential to develop a democratic and prosperous world. Yet youth today feel deprived of a sense of belonging to society. This is a symptom of under-engagement. A sense of exclusion often forces young people into a state of marginality where they become mere bystanders in the world of work and decision making. Their participation can gain momentum and revitalize the society when their potential is harnessed through meaningful education and training (Foster and Naidoo, 2001).

*The programme*

The Prem Chadha Memorial Youth Leadership Programme was initiated by PRIA in memory of the late Mr Prem Chadha, a founder of PRIA. He was the Chair of PRIA's Governing Board for ten years. The first camp of the Prem Chadha Memorial Youth Leadership Programme was conducted in Gram Vikas campus (Berhampur), Orissa, in December 2009. A total of 82 students – 35 girls and 47 boys, from Jharkhand (25), Chattisgarh (24) and Orissa (33) participated in this first five-day residential training programme.

Education and training for youth leadership had multipronged objectives as below.

*General*

- to enable youth from marginalized regions, communities and social groups to acquire, enhance and nurture their leadership capabilities;
- to nurture and strengthen the capacities and skills of participants to help them to emerge as self-confident and proficient individuals who can take life in their stride.

*Specific*

- building perspectives on self-identity and collectivity;
- building competencies such as computer literacy, personal grooming, communication for confidence building;
- building knowledge on reproductive and sexual health, information and communication technologies, career options.

### *Content*

- Perspective building on self-identity and collectivity: *self-awareness and empathy, understanding self* – as a social construct and using this understanding to empower oneself. It helps to identify strengths and understand better how to deal with the various inequalities and challenges they encounter. And *team building and leadership* – learners learn to deal with not just their own power but also with the power they have in large numbers.
- Skill building on life skills, effective communication and interpersonal skills, creative and critical thinking skills, personal grooming, computer fundamentals (Microsoft Windows, Microsoft Word, Microsoft Excel, World Wide Web).
- Knowledge building on adolescent reproductive and sexual health; information and communication technology – computers, radio, mobiles, TV and cellular technology; and career options.

### *Training methodology*

Resource persons from different organizations like Patang, Odisha Voluntary Health Association (OVHA), Inter Finite Technologies and Time extended their expertise in conducting various sessions. By skilfully using participatory learning methods they facilitated the learner group to understand their potentials. Training methodology was a mix of participatory learning and action methods such as:

- lectures;
- activities;
- games;
- group discussions;
- role-play;
- films;
- practice sessions.

# 11

## Mobilizing and strengthening knowledge for sustainable development in India

*Mandakini Pant*

University–community partnerships are based on the understanding that: (a) academics/researchers, practitioners (CSOs) and community members share a commonality of purpose for effecting sustainable development by producing knowledge to be used for the practical purpose of policy change and developmental interventions, contributing to theoretical elaboration and empowering communities through knowledge dissemination; and (b) they can be complementary to each other in achieving these goals. Each partner *equitably* contributes their expertise and shares responsibility and ownership to enhance understanding, integrate the knowledge gained, with action to improve the well-being of community members and foster sustainable development.

### **Building linkages between research and community development**

#### *Context*

This study was a collaboration between Mountain Development Research Centre (MDRC) of Hemwati Nandan Bahuguna Garhwal University (HNBGU), Srinagar, Uttarakhand; Himalayan Action Research Centre (HARC); and Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA).

HNBGU was established in 1973, and upgraded as a central university in 2009. It has two teaching campuses, at Pauri and Tehri Garhwal. It is a residential-cum-affiliating institution of higher learning with more than 180 affiliated colleges covering seven districts of the region. It is considered to be among the top ten large universities in India.

#### *Objectives*

There was a felt need to bring to the table the problems specific to the Himalayan region. The objective was to use the university as a platform to raise these issues. The MDRC was established in 2005 within the university with these objectives:

- relating university research to respective state government departments;
- making students aware of rural development issues;
- training anthropology students on micro planning in collaboration with HARC.

PRIA's academic linkage programme aimed to involve HEIs in community-based research relevant to developmental goals and contributing towards public good. To this purpose it worked to create a common platform where research activities contributed towards community service, and created a linkage between the community and policymakers. This facilitated the collaboration between MDRC, PRIA and HARC.

Assistance from CSOs (PRIA and HARC) was primarily at the take-off stage in liaising with government departments and conducting orientations of university students, scholars and faculty on governance issues and participatory research. PRIA's expertise in the participatory research tool was extended to the university. HARC, having worked in the community for years, envisioned a new direction for the university, i.e., to contribute to community development.

With time, MDRC's domain of work has expanded and new methods were adopted to make its work more effective. MDRC now also works directly on community issues and is trying to ensure that existing rights are given to the people.

### Activities

MDRC used the following approaches in its work:

- trainings and workshops;
- sharing information with government – postgraduate students were encouraged to undertake research projects on community development. When a research project was completed, it was shared with the community *gram pradhan* (village head) and governmental department heads. This ensured that local administration remained informed and took an active interest in initiating and completing relevant local developmental activities;
- public hearings – MDRC organized an interface between affected people and government. It negotiated and pushed government departments to answer people's queries. This was done in multiple rounds;
- linkage between academic research and community needs – a needs-based approach was followed to decide M.Phil. and Ph.D. research topics for university students, through the involvement of MDRC. Small organizations which work in the community were invited to the university to share their experiences and learning in the classrooms. This sensitized students and created a knowledge pool.

### Challenges

The biggest challenge was financial. Given that small university projects receive limited sums for each project from the UGC, these projects were left to operate on their own.

The second challenge was political. With Garhwal University becoming a central university in 2009, the funding and permission for expansion of staff at MDRC had been put on hold, as the university was in a process of transition.

*Outcomes*

- PRIA provided its expertise in participatory knowledge methods to the university – this was extremely important as this tool was employed to involve the community in knowledge generation, and efforts were made to unearth already existing traditional wisdom. Through this method, individuals who possess or have developed traditional methods to preserve nature and community have also come forward.
- The sound commitment of the university committee and each of its members – these people reflect a genuine concern for the people and the regions' socio-economic issues.
- Media provided good coverage to MDRC programmes.
- Goodwill that MDRC had earned for its honest and sustained efforts in furthering development of the region and people.
- Professional work culture of the two partner NGOs and their academic mindset which helped them to understand the nature of the centre's work.

**B Rural library services, Rural Extension Centre, Sriniketan***Context*

For Rabindranath Tagore, education was an essential component in human life. He also understood the importance of retention of acquired knowledge and literacy. As rural areas in India lacked basic amenities, Tagore developed and initiated the concept of mobile library services for rural communities with the inception of the Sriniketan Experiment in 1922.

*Objectives*

Tagore envisioned Sriniketan as a centre for rural reconstruction where integrated rural welfare programmes would be undertaken for solutions to problems in agriculture, industry, health, education and recreation, with a focus on reconstruction of the socio-economic life of villages, worked out by villagers themselves. His idea was to develop human resources, make use of available resources and develop sustainable rural organizations on cooperative principles.

*Activities*

Rural reconstruction programmes in Sriniketan were primarily organized and coordinated by the Rural Extension Centre (REC). REC is not an academic unit. Its programmes included:

- developing and strengthening Village Development Societies (VDS);
- extension education through adult and continuing education and community learning centres (CLC);
- youth welfare work;
- health extension;
- women's development through women's groups;
- rural and mobile library services;
- cultural programmes in villages.

This case study focused on the Rural Library Services intervention of REC. The objective of a rural circulating library was to *retain* acquired literacy skills after education. Tagore realized that children fell back into illiteracy after a short school education, because they had no access to books. The early initiatives did not have a specific blueprint or plan of action. Experience was gained through repeated experimenting with the methods and modes of community interaction. In 1975, with a matching recurring grant from the Raja Ram Mohan Roy Library Foundation (RRRLF) under the Ministry of Culture, government of India, library services became more structured and formalized. With grant-in-aid under the non-matching scheme of financial assistance to public library services, women, children, neo-literate, senior citizen and computer corners have also been established.

REC operated thirty-four rural libraries; books were contributed jointly by Vishva-Bharati Library Service and RRRLF. Village communities also mobilize books. These libraries were conceived not just for lending books and periodicals; they were also designed to address the needs for information, literacy, awareness and recreation of village communities.

The rural library was a participatory programme. Volunteers from the community functioned as librarians and assistant librarians. They received an honorarium of Rs.100 per month. REC organized a monthly seminar for the librarians, as a platform for discussion of problems and prospects about the functioning of libraries. Most of the librarians and assistant librarians were young. Participation of women, however, was small.

### *Outcomes*

The programme aimed to achieve the following outcomes:

- development of knowledge power through dissemination of information;
- promotion and retention of acquired literacy skills;
- development of reading habits among rural people;
- enrichment of indigenous culture and tradition;
- sharing ideas and views with others on a common platform ;
- development of logical thinking and attitude of the villagers.

### *Nature of partnerships*

Sriniketan's strategy for its rural reconstruction interventions had been to work with Village Development Societies (VDS). A VDS is a registered community-based youth organization. The executive members of VDS comprised cultivators, students and schoolteachers. Again, though, participation of women was limited.

VDS were selected based on the credibility of the organization in the area and its experience and commitment towards rural welfare. After identification of prospective VDS, REC empowered them as vehicles of rural development by investing in streamlining organizational structure and functioning. It organized a number of formal training programmes to organize the VDS and finally affiliate them with REC's programmes. After affiliation, a VDS became the focal point of all interventions of REC in the village and for feedback to REC. The objective was



to make REC programmes truly people-oriented and participatory.

VDS had funds to sustain themselves. Most VDS have developed a variety of indigenous resource mobilization strategies, such as guarding crops and ponds, share-grazing of cattle and processing of yields from agricultural land. Village members contributed voluntarily. They were also linked to other NGOs.

The VDS implemented all REC programmes, including the rural library services programme. VDS supported the envisioned roles and functions of rural libraries by:

- publishing an annual magazine, *Shristi*, comprising collected writings from readers;
- organizing demonstrations of the wall magazines of rural libraries on Library Day;
- organizing workshops for volunteers and meetings in villages with the readers to share and discuss issues, and collect requests for books.

A combination of methods was adopted for wider outreach, such as grass-roots-level seminars; performing arts (folk and cultural programmes) by the readers; dialogue with schoolteachers, parents and readers; wall magazines and newsletters.

### *Impact*

By providing universal access to library resources, services, materials and programmes, rural libraries inform, enrich, educate and empower a diverse community. Adult learners particularly benefited immensely from this programme.

The libraries have been extremely helpful for both school and college students, as they need not buy books. They also used computers in the library.

As information centres, rural libraries give villagers updated information. And seminars, workshops and cultural events provide villagers with a forum to communicate and interact in the pursuit of knowledge and ideas.

### *Contributing factors for success*

- Tagore's vision has been the driving force;
- partnership and collaboration – the community–university partnership was built on community assets and supported creative solutions to local challenges. REC and VDS worked collaboratively to foster cross-sector partnerships to influence resources and build capacity in the target community.

### **Emerging lessons from the case studies**

Community–university partnerships can serve as an entry point where local community-based organizations, village communities and public (government) agencies work together in the area of community development and educational enrichment. The cases of MDRC and REC's rural library services clearly show that partnership with community members and CSOs has a unique potential for valuing indigenous knowledge, action research participation and knowledge production around citizens' concerns.

The MDRC case in particular reveals the ways new knowledge, concepts, insights and practical innovations in knowledge building can foster social transformation. Universities can nurture active citizenship by addressing an array of critical challenges confronting marginalized communities, contributing to their social and economic well-being. Students become sensitized to the challenges of social justice and a deepening of democracy in the context in which they live. Through their research, they learn to respect people's knowledge, otherwise not valued.

The case of rural library services highlights the ways adult, continuing education and extension centres within universities can transform the university system into an active instrument for social change. Information, knowledge and corresponding knowledge productions are the key resources of power in much the same way as is capital.

### Challenges to community–university partnerships

- Building a consortium/network between community, practitioners, academia, policy institutions, government departments, NGOs and corporate sectors for the use of the knowledge generated. An international network would be particularly valuable where there is experimentation on CBR in universities throughout the world.
- Using systematic documentation and synthesis of the lessons from the partnership for promotion of appropriate public policies and programmes.
- Fostering a culture of knowledge sharing among community members. Local knowledge is a vital resource for cultural promotion, learning and literacy.
- The community–university initiatives in rural libraries have used a traditional approach to library management, which does not necessarily reflect the needs of all members of the community.
- Innovative courses and curricula to respond to and stimulate students to accept responsibility for and to meet societal challenges.
- Theoretically valid generation of knowledge by universities through research and services.
- Multidisciplinary support from the university from the vantage point of community.
- Funding of community–university partnerships to reinforce existing programmes for community empowerment and to support efforts to become more multidimensional.
- Creating a critical mass of library and information workers with skills and commitment to offer innovative services to poor and marginalized communities and to create strong literate environments.
- Role of libraries as information centres must include clear strategies to deliver information in appropriate formats, languages and subject matter.
- Need for mixed-and-matched-ICT (information and communication technology) and other communication technologies to achieve the best results for different contexts.

## 12

# Enhancing local policymakers' capacity in environmental governance in the Philippines

*Joy Molina Mirasol, Felix S. Mirasol, Jr., Estela C. Itaas and Benjamin Maputi*

### Context

The forest land in the province of Bukidnon, Philippines, is continuously declining in terms of its economic and environmental capacity. Forest destruction by timber poachers and conversion of forest land for agriculture are rising to an alarming level, leaving the remaining forest cover significantly below the desired 45 percent cover to sustain its services. Such decline and destruction are largely attributed to the inadequate and poorly implemented environmental laws and policies that sometimes lead to the rapid exploitation of timber from old growth forests, at prices far below real market. Thus, Acosta (2001, 2003) called on the government and challenged the academy and other agencies to be more aggressive about measuring the efficacy of government programmes and policies on a range of environmental concerns.

Collaborative efforts among the academy, NGOs and local government units (LGUs) have to be pursued to achieve good environmental management in local governance, economic growth and to prevent further damage to environment and natural resources. In 2006, Bukidnon State College, now Bukidnon State University (BSU), responded to the challenge by signing a memorandum of agreement with *Tanggol Kalikasan* (TK), an NGO, to assist local policymakers and upland volunteers in increasing their capacity to sustainably manage natural resources within their territories.

In line with this plan, BSU Institute of Environmental Governance (IEG) was established to carry out programmes aimed at providing the needed capacity for local executives and local policymakers to better perform their mandate as provided under the Local Government Code. The Code, among others, provides for the devolution of national government powers to LGUs. Among the devolved functions, previously under the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR), are pollution control and solid waste management, management of communal forest resources, integrated social forestry, control over small-scale mining and related functions for the protection of the environment. Fisheries management and regulatory functions in municipal waters have likewise been devolved to local governments.

Local policymakers are specifically tasked with implementing policies relative

to the above-cited functions. Indeed, the passage of the Local Government Code and other relevant environmental legislation increased the powers and responsibilities of local governments in the management of natural resources, and further broadening their role of environmental governance. However, the fact that powers and functions have been devolved does not mean actual transfer of capacity of accountabilities and responsibilities. There is still a need for implementers to be aware of the environmental issues and concerns, and identify their order of priority. It is on this premise that IEG was instituted.

The IEG offered a series of trainings with municipalities along the buffer zone of protected areas in Bukidnon Province, to equip local policymakers with basic environmental knowledge as they are the prime movers in environmental management.

To carry out the training, the partners pooled their resources. The university is responsible for the venue, facilities and other logistics; LGUs are responsible for providing meals. Tanggol Kalikasan provides an honorarium for resource persons while the DENR provides technical expertise and assists BSU in monitoring training results.

### **Organizational/structure**

BSU hosts the Institute in partnership with TK and other local partners. IEG is jointly managed by BSU and TK under the Extension Director who serves as coordinator, assisted by the University Research and Development unit and a faculty member. The Institute is directly under the Office of the President and coordinates with partners from the LGUs and national government agencies such as the DENR and the National Commission on Indigenous Peoples (NCIP).

The project had a duration of two years, 2006 to 2008. The university-based researchers and TK constructed the Training Needs Assessment (TNA) instrument. This was further validated and translated by BSU into local dialect with assistance from the local community. The training was based on the results of the TNA. Training modules were collectively developed by the university, TK, DENR and the community. Resource persons with local expertise came from partner organizations.

Key stakeholders' involvement in the project and their roles:

- LGU: source of data on local environment-related concerns, financial support and participant transport.
- DENR: source of data on environment-related concerns, resource persons and technical expertise.
- Tanggol Kalikasan: human resources for environmental lawyers and financial support.
- Bukidnon State University: overall coordination of partners, facilitation of TNA, preparation of training design, management of training, facilitators, resource persons and monitoring and evaluation of the plan of action.

The objectives were:

- to conduct training needs assessment on environmental governance in Bukidnon province to find out the needs of the local policymakers in relation to local environmental governance;
- to design trainings and develop modules for local policymakers;
- to analyse issues and concerns confronting local policymakers in environmental governance;
- to generate and formulate relevant policy recommendations;
- to facilitate enactment of policies in response to the recommendations.

Changes occurred based on the trainings results, particularly on the need for a refresher course for DENR site enforcers on basic environmental law enforcement and the implementation of the participants' action plan. Likewise, additional topics were included, particularly those with local applications, such as the Mt. Kitanglad Act of 2000, and climate change.

### Activities

- Training needs assessment (TNA), conceptualization of the training design including selection of trainers, module formulation and implementation of training, with emphasis on coordination with partners, particularly from the LGUs, and monitoring and evaluation.
- Conducted the TNA. This aimed to assess the needs of every *barangay*, including those volunteers for the protected areas. The *barangay* is a smallest political unit or a village, led and governed by *barangay* officials – a *barangay* captain (*Punong Barangay*) and seven *Barangay Kagawads* (councillors). The local policymakers who serve as respondents in this project were *barangay* officials which include the *barangay* captain and the *kagawad* who chairs the environment committee.
- Identified trainers: trainers who are experts in the environmental governance and sustainable farming systems, including government agencies, the NCIP, academe, model farmers and environmental lawyers were invited to train the local policymakers.
- Implemented the training: two trainings were conducted in eight municipalities and one city.
- Monitoring and evaluation. Feedback was gathered during and after training sessions. Evaluation was done immediately after the training. After six months, the local policymakers, who were the primary participants, were monitored and evaluated. Evaluation was based on the action plans prepared during the training.

It was hoped that the project would increase the capacity of the local policymakers to implement their mandate with respect to environmental governance. Likewise, it is hoped that the project will contribute to the capacity to establish linkages with partners to assist them in the implementation of their action plan,

and to influence other policymakers in the area of environmental consciousness. Knowledge gain can be translated in the formulation of the local environmental plan, leading towards improved local environmental governance for the benefit of community.

To attain effective and functional undertakings, project implementers first identified key environmental issues, concerns and priorities of local policymakers in relation to natural resources management. This was carried out through a TNA in the different provincial municipalities surrounding the protected areas of Mts. Kitanglad and Kalatungan. TNA results served as the basis for the proposed training design and modules. The TNA and other data collections were undertaken during the Protected Area Management Board (PAMB) meetings since most local policymakers are board members.

The training programme used the Integrated Ecosystem Approach (IEA) which takes into account common resource bases such as rivers, bays, gulfs, watersheds, declared protected areas. Priority was given to participants from the buffer zone of the protected areas as most of these resources require a more intense resource management due to pressures from issues and problems confronting the park. The Institute also endeavoured to design the training programme towards specific and measurable impacts on the common resource.

The training was conducted in a participative and collaborative manner. Focus group discussions and interviews with the local policymakers were undertaken. The same methods were also used with the DENR provincial, city and municipal officials to validate the issues raised by local policymakers in the needs assessment, during, and after the training.

The Integrated Ecosystem Approach outlined twelve complementary and inter-linked principles (UNEP, 2003). These principles stress that working together with partners plays a vital role in project success. The second and twelfth principles (UNEP, 2004), in particular, provide that management should be decentralized to the lowest appropriate level and that this approach should involve all relevant sectors of society, and scientific discipline. Further, it was recognized by project partners that no single institution has all expertise and resources to respond to the challenge of good environmental governance and that resource pooling is the best option. Institutional commitment through a memorandum of agreement is considered an important instrument in this approach.

As post-training evaluations among partners were conducted which recognized our best practices and documented the lessons learned, the approach was modified to fit the needs of local policymakers.

## Outcomes

The initial outcomes of the project include: (1) identification of environmental issues and concerns at the local level in relation to the provision of the Local Government Code and other relevant legislation; (2) formulation of the training design based on their needs; (3) development of training modules; (4) preparation of action plans; and (5) action plan implementation as presented below.

*Identification of issues and concerns*

Mt. Kitanglad Range Natural Park was declared a protected area by Congress pursuant to the National Integrated Protected Area System Law (Mirasol and Itaas, 2008, 2010; Mirasol and Saway, 2005). Several environmental and operational issues were identified as confronting the protected area management of these areas. The issues were identified by local policymakers involved in the decision-making process and the management of the park (barangay captains, chairs of the committee on environment and the Kitanglad Guard Volunteers (KGV). In this chapter, they are called *local policymakers* (LPMs). Some identified the following issues:

- lack of funding to sustain efforts toward the conservation of biodiversity, environmental education for the preservation of endangered species in the Protected Area, and insufficient financial assistance to sustain the operation of the Mt. Kitanglad Guard Volunteers;
- peace and order condition of the area hindering volunteer patrol work;
- climate change and carbon sequestration issues created increased demands and pressure on volunteers for more forest preservation initiatives and endeavours;
- sales of land in the buffer zone of Mt. Kitanglad and the adjoining Mt. Kalatungan still exist despite their proclamation as protected areas, contributing to forest denudation and unregulated collection of park species;
- poor implementation of watershed management plan. Most of the barangays are still in the process of formulating their respective watershed development plans;
- limited understanding of watershed management issues and the unpredictability of many natural and human-induced events, including land use change and development trends that contribute to the uncertainty of management decisions and research development outcomes;
- forest encroachment and expansion of intensive agriculture and unsustainable farming practices are only few examples of the many complex issues confronting the uplands. (Garrity *et al.*, 2002).

There is a need for more cooperation among various sectors of society in ecological solid waste management as this project has a limited programme for information dissemination and environmental education.

A training design was formulated based on the result of the training needs assessment. The design effectively considered the selection of participants and gave emphasis to local officials and volunteers actually engaged in environmental governance. Instruction was conducted in the local dialect (*bisaya*) to ensure deeper understanding and open communication among the participants.

The methodology was participative and collaborative in nature, ensuring active participation throughout the whole training. The TNA and other data collection was undertaken during Protected Area Management Board (PAMB) meetings since most of these local policymakers are members of the PAMB and Association of Barangay Council (ABC), as in the case of the Poblacion Barangay Chairs. Focus

group discussion interviews with local policymakers and others were undertaken.

Topics discussed included: (1) Local Environmental Situations; (2) Basic Ecological Concepts; (3) Community-Based Forest Management Framework and RA 7586, the National Integrated Protected Area System (NIPAS) Act; (4) RA 9003, the Ecological Solid Waste Management Act; (5) Watershed Management; (6) Agroforestry; (7) RA 8978, the Mt. Kitanglad Act 2000; (8) Concepts and Principles of Sustainable Development; (9) Sustainable Agriculture and Organic Farming; (10) Indigenous Peoples Rights Act (IPRA); (11) Relevant Environmental Policies; and (12) Basic Enforcement Skills.

These topics were discussed using varied techniques including workshops, demonstrations and lectures to ensure that participants were fully engaged in the various activities. Enough time was given for an open forum for the local policymakers to clarify grey areas regarding the topics and to share their ideas. After a series of interactions, evidence shows that local policymakers have exerted efforts, given priority to environmental governance and taken action by projects including tree planting, nursery, rainforest reforestation and watershed protection in their barangays.

The development of training modules followed three stages. First – the pre-developmental stage was concerned with planning, identifying the scope, purpose and objectives, determining time allotment and developing the Task Analysis Table. The identification of topics was grouped – learning *about* the environment, learning *in* the environment and learning *for* the environment. Secondly, the developmental stage focused on writing on the topics identified in the TNA. Lastly, the post-developmental stage focused on the validation and revision of the modules. In this stage, the evaluation of the modules was done by a panel of experts and the test group composed of LPM from Malaybalay City. The modules were then revised based on the results of the validation. These were written in English, and were eventually translated into the commonly used local dialect.

### *Action plans*

After a series of presentations, the capacity development training culminated in a consolidated action planning workshop (Mirasol & Itaas, 2010), resulting in the following programmes and activities: Community-Based Forest Management (CBFM); Protected Area; Watershed; Ecological Solid Waste Management; Forest Protection Works; and Capacity Development.

In the area of community-based forest management (CBFM), a re-orientation was needed for the members of the association, an activity that would assist them in the formulation and packaging of livelihood projects. Bamboo and abaca planting in the protected area were included in the activities along the buffer zone of Mt. Kitanglad Range Natural Park and even in the watershed areas. Information campaigns and protection of endangered species were also suggested as major activities. Plans on an information drive and establishment of the Material Recovery Facility and station buying centres were included in the Ecological Solid Waste Management programme. For protection works, the LPMs have included an information campaign, the establishment of fire lines and firebreaks and patrolling of the Kitanglad Guard Volunteers.



Last but not the least is capacity development. They have included eco training as part of the activity so that members in the community not able to attend the training may also learn about basic environmental principles and laws, and other topics discussed during training.

After the training, focus group interviews and discussions were conducted to monitor the follow through on the plans of action. Outcomes were as follows:

- Thirty barangays created barangay solid waste management committees and passed ordinance on Environmental Solid Waste Management;
- Formulation and implementation of five barangay ordinances and four resolutions on forest protection and management;
- Barangay ordinance – ‘No contour farming, no assistance’ – was passed and implemented in four barangays.
- Conducted eco training for other LPM not able to participate in training;
- Twenty-eight local policymakers within the Mt. Kitanglad Range Natural Park organized a meeting with the Protected Area Superintendent to discuss their powers and functions as Protected Area Management Board members;
- They strengthened the operation of their forest protection volunteers by way of the deputation order issued by DENR;
- Solicited twenty-eight cellular phones from SMART Communications for barangay volunteers;
- After reports from the barangay volunteers 1,460 bd. ft. of lumber was confiscated for violation of forestry rules and regulation;
- Council of Elders (Indigenous Peoples);
- Enforcement of tribal justice system with emphasis on the environmental principles;
- Strengthened operations of tribal guards within its territory.

### *City government*

- The City Government of Malaybalay assigned summer job students to work in the barangay nursery. Based on a report submitted to the City Planning Office, some 18,000 seedlings were raised;
- Conducted participatory multi-sectoral watershed characterization study within the four barangays.

It was noted that LPM capacity building resulted not only in aggressive enforcement of environmental laws but also in implementation of various programmes to carry out their mandate as members of the LGU.

There is increased awareness and skills of LPMs which can be converted into action through ordinances and programmes by incorporating environmental activities in their annual investment plans. There will be a proactive policy formulation to address the issues and concerns identified during the trainings.

LPMs became very interested in sustainable upland farming systems to increase their long-term production as a sustenance source. These include agro-forestry development, contour farming, livestock production and traditional pest

management. The purchase of quality planting materials has now been included in the barangay plan for the establishment of demonstration farms and for distribution. Likewise, consciousness of biodiversity values has been seen through the ban of air guns to catch and/or kill wildlife species. The LPMs and local community were accordingly now practicing waste segregation in their respective households.

Soil and water conservation measures increased production, improving economic conditions of the upland communities. This is coupled with crop diversification and sustainable upland agriculture principles. Politically, greater participation in planning was seen, and inclusion of environmental activities in annual investment plans. Other impacts include biodiversity, culture and the overall governance of the ecosystem.

## Challenges

- 1 The project entails a significant amount of time in terms of coordination with LGUs. For example, local chief executives often personally interact with LGUs to ensure participation and financial assistance. This was addressed by establishing contact persons at the office of the chief executive to ensure that an appointment is set before the actual visit. Likewise, proactive planning has to be made for proper scheduling of transportation.
- 2 Ensuring focus during training on the part of the participants can be challenging as many of them have other businesses and/or other duties that compete for their time. Though it entails higher resources, the training was conducted in areas far from their respective stations (i.e., BSU campus).
- 3 After the project, duration funds coming from TK became very limited. To address this concern, the project coordinator made representation with the university president and the local chief executive regarding training co-financing. Now the LGU covers participants' transportation and food requirements, while the university handles supplies and remuneration of resource persons/ facilitators.
- 4 Availability of partners during joint activities as most hold key positions with their respective institutions: The schedule is agreed to in advance; however, if availability is still an issue it is the partners' responsibility to assign another representative, or send materials for training presentations.
- 5 Upgrading of information to make training module relevant and responsive to the current issues: To generate relevant information needed to update the modules, the university included the concerns for the environment in one of its research programmes. Likewise, the monitoring report submitted by the participants was collected and collated in the project coordinator's office.
- 6 Duplication of activities by the Department of Interior and Local Government: The project endeavoured to include them as part of participants' training.
- 7 Change of administration of the LPMs every four years: The training not only includes the barangay chairs but also potential successor of the barangay chair. This is, however, based on the personal assessment of the chief executive.

## Success factors

- The training is needs driven and considers the mandate of the Local Government Code and the Ecological Solid Waste Management Act for LGUs to act as the lead implementing units. The issue of climate change has created pressure on the LPMs and local farmers; this was also discussed during the training.
- The unconditional support from the university president, and the mindset of the Bukidnon political leaders who are advocating a total log ban and expressing their opposition to the passage of logs from neighbouring provinces and cities, and the financial support from the LGU local chief executives.
- Presence of partners, e.g., DENR, who can respond quickly to local environmental issues confronting LPMs, and the environmental lawyers from TK who can respond with legal impediments as perceived by law enforcement participants.
- Partner institution included project activities in their annual key result area targets.
- Effective networking and linkages with other agencies.
- Protected areas volunteers are already engaged in environmental law enforcement, hence its built-in interest in basic environmental law.
- Action plans developed during the training have been incorporated into the LGU investment plan.
- Memorandum of Agreement clearly defined roles of stakeholders and partners.

## Lessons learned

Throughout the course of this project the partners learned that environmental management can be implemented successfully by bringing the decision-making process from the central government to the key local officials.

Decentralization should also recognize the significant participation of the stakeholders, such as NGOs, local communities and tribal communities.

The academy has a significant role in advancing environmental management in collaboration with partners and stakeholders.

Proper collaboration with LGUs resulted in resource generation for project undertakings.

## Recommendations

- There is a need to conduct environmental management and governance training with the newly elected local policymakers. This effort shall be spear-headed in partnership with the LGUs and the academy.
- Refresher training for law enforcers in the barangay/tribal territory level is needed.

- Ensure sustained environmental training by including proposed activities in the annual investment plan of the concerned LGUs.
- A reward system to recognize the LGUs with best records in environmental governance is necessary.
- Build up local pool of environmental advocates and trainers to reach out to more areas and LGUs and encourage multi-sectoral participation, particularly from indigenous peoples and women.
- The academy should include environmental programme and advocacy as one of its top priorities, through its research and extension units.

# 13

## Interdisciplinary research programme in Chiapas

*Felix M. Bivens*

### Context

The Interdisciplinary Programme on Human Development was launched in 1995. Members of the Autonomous University of Mexico (UAM) Rural Development Programme had been working in the area for some years before that; however, the rise of the Zapatista movement in 1994 caused these academics to refocus their work under a human development approach 'oriented towards guaranteed human rights to the whole population' (Cortez Ruiz, 2003, p. 47). The work of the Human Development programme is structured along four axes:

- health, nutrition and quality of life;
- technology, production and environment;
- cultural processes of learning and human rights;
- social strategies, public policies and power relations.

Academically, the Human Development group works with a variety of students from undergraduate, postgraduate and professional programmes. Mexican law mandates that all university students engage in 'social service'. This translates into six-month to one-year placements where students are expected to use their academic knowledge and professional skills for the common good. Many students at all levels are drawn to Chiapas because of the notoriety of the Zapatista movement. The Human Development programme provides them with an infrastructure for their social service placements; approximately 100 students per year contribute. Moreover, the programme has developed its own degree programmes. Some of these are academic degrees and others are diploma programmes designed for local development practitioners and other indigenous community leaders. This fits in with another overall goal of the programme, which is to 'create a space where people from local organizations can express their priorities and reflect upon what they are doing, what they want to do and what kind of collaborations would be desirable' (*ibid.*, p. 48). Although the programme works to bring outside resources, knowledge and expertise into the region, these resources are directed by locally determined goals. Indeed, one of the challenges cited by academics is getting university students to recognize that the local populations have their own priorities and capabilities and that students' social service and/or research should be in alignment with these endogenous priorities.

## Activities

The primary academic course facilitated by the Human Development programme is the two-year MA in rural development. This course is aimed at mid-career professionals who already have substantial training and work experience in a particular discipline or profession. Rather than furthering skills within a particular occupational field, the course works to provide student participants 'with a firm intellectual and practical grounding on how to use grassroots, "bottom-up" community development approaches to make greater gains on the issues in which they are addressing' (Mott, 2005, p. 33) already.

The programme begins with an intensive three-month classroom experience where students read and study various facets of Mexico's rural life. They engage in discussions with academics from relevant fields such as economists and agronomists. The experience of the participants is also highly valued; much opportunity is provided for reflection and for small group work in which students bring their experiences and diverse disciplinary perspectives into the classroom to augment the academic perspectives. MA students also receive participatory action research (PAR) training and learn to incorporate participatory methods into their work generally.

As the students complete this intensive period, they choose a practicum project as the primary focus of their programme's work and research. This initial phase is the most extended period on campus and in class that MA students experience. The remainder of the programme is slanted towards fieldwork. Cyclically throughout the fieldwork, students spend four weeks in the field with their projects and one week back in class. Class time is a combination of reflecting on the ongoing field experience and progressing through a sequential set of academic modules which continue to expand the participants' practical, conceptual and methodological knowledge about rural development. However, the programme emphasizes that social change is not the product of technical knowledge or good methods; rather it is about shifting power relations and bringing communities into greater participation in political and policy debates where the *radical needs* of these communities can be expressed, heard and addressed systemically. As such, the course also focuses on concepts of power, power analysis, citizenship, social mobilization and collective action.

Students who stay in the programme for one year receive a diploma in rural development. Those who stay on for two years and complete a substantial report and analysis of their field project are awarded the MA degree. Some students are awarded funding to continue their research even further so that they may complete a doctorate with the Human Development programme.

# 14

## Cooperation in Jesús de Machaca in Bolivia

*José Blanes Jiménez and Edgar Antonio Pabón*

### Context

Through its European Union-funded project, Intercultural Conflicts, a democratic and participative regional response from Bolivia, Ecuador and Peru, the Centro Boliviano de Estudios Multidisciplinarios (CEBEM) established a cooperation programme with other institutions in Ecuador and Peru oriented towards strengthening the capacities of indigenous peoples and their leaders in the management of their territories. The programme takes place in the particular context of increasing indigenous movements in the region and in the critical moments following the public murder and burning of two mayors of Aymaran regions.

Under the coordination of CEBEM, support for municipal management of indigenous communities formed in the previous year was chosen as a key project objective in Bolivia. CEBEM signed a cooperation agreement with the Municipality of Jesús de Machaca to develop a research project, together with the indigenous authorities, to strengthen institutions and spread their experiences. This included building a website, conducting studies of the economy, strengthening the work of community roundtables in the developing operating plans and the systematization of their first experiences as a municipality. The project not only supported this particular experience of the Indigenous Municipality Jesús de Machaca, but sought to disseminate that experience and share the lessons learned with other municipalities in the area, in the Andean region, with the academic world and international cooperation, as well as with the national and regional public sector.

The general objective of the project was to build capacity for territorial management on the part of the authorities and their organizations. The project sought to consolidate democratic governance, strengthen interculturality and the protection of rights of the indigenous peoples, as a mechanism for the prevention and resolution of conflicts that affect indigenous populations in Bolivia, Ecuador and Peru.

As secondary objectives, the project sought to:

- implement tools to assist municipal and Aboriginal territorial management including geographic information systems (GISs), a study of municipal GDP, and a system of community roundtables for the elaboration of the annual operational plan (POA);

- produce a book on the municipality, featuring writing by the people themselves and community leaders on their territories, culture and organization, the constitution of the municipality and its first administration, studies on natural resources and the impact of climate change on their economies.
- develop local and regional actions for research, the generation of public policy proposals to promote interculturality, the training of community leaders, authorities and functionaries, the exchange of experiences to strengthen the bonds between the organizations of the three countries and the creation of an Andean observatory.

Strengthening the municipal capacity for territorial management in cultural, economic, social, administrative and political terms is an important challenge in Bolivia. This is in line with political changes in the country that began with the 1994 Popular Participation Law, a law that created the rural municipalities. In the years 2003–07, a period of political changes tended to more strongly incorporate indigenous peoples in the new political constitution of the state. This culminated in the approval of the new Political Constitution in January 2009. This document established a system of autonomy for indigenous communities, which is understood by the government to be an alternative form of management of the territory, instead of the municipality.

In December 2009 the municipality approved a referendum to constitute itself in an Aboriginal Indigenous Peasant Autonomy. Many issues were important in resolving the challenges of indigenous territorial management within the framework of state reform and market development, including:

- social management of the territory in accordance with ancestral traditions;
- strengthening indigenous authorities for indigenous municipal management;
- strengthening local economic participants to improve economic integration in local and regional markets.

In the context of the aforementioned changes, the issue of greatest relevance registered in the last years in Bolivia and in the countries of the Andean region was that of interculturality and its relation to territorial management.

### Organization/structure

This project was approved by the indigenous peoples, peasants and Aboriginals of three countries: Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia. Within this framework, each country had to choose a place of implementation and establish a three-year work strategy.

CEBEM had previously developed studies on citizen participation for the purpose of social and institutional reforms in Jesús de Machaca. Working from a foundation of mutual trust, CEBEM and the highest local authority (*cabildo*) discussed the main challenges to carrying out municipal management and, at the same time, maintaining social management and Aboriginal policies. Working groups of national and regional government functionaries and authorities, NGOs and international cooperation experts were organized. As a result of these



workshops, an action plan was developed and revised each year between 2006 and 2008.

The objectives of the plan and its advances were disseminated, discussed and contrasted with the experiences of leaders of the other countries in workshops that took place in Bolivia, Peru and Ecuador over the years 2006–09.

The project consisted of a coordinating committee made up of technicians from the three countries. At the Bolivian level, CEBEM formed a team of local experts, with people from the municipality, for the development and implementation of the activities. Permanent coordination between the technical committee, the municipality and the cabildos was established. To this end, periodic meetings were arranged for consultation and information. CEBEM provided technical support and training, while the municipality and the cabildo implemented community roundtables, gathered information, put up the webpage and designed a book. Staff of other NGOs working in the municipality were trained to collaborate in these activities.

The support of other NGOs in the municipality was relied upon for several other special actions, along with the authorities and technicians of the municipality. Participants were identified for fieldwork in the 120 communities and a person was delegated to represent the cabildo in planning, decision making and organization of fieldwork. This person liaised with the community radio broadcasts and acted as a Spanish–Aymara interpreter. For its part, CEBEM dedicated three full-time researchers to the project: a coordinator, an expert in local development, an expert in education and training and an information technology staff person. Experts in the design and implementation of training courses, educators and communications specialists and designers were also hired temporarily for three research projects.

It was important that the work continue once the project finished. To this end, all the partners became strategic partners in the work process, which allowed for other opportunities and assets derived from their capacities, experiences and abilities. Of particular emphasis was the establishment and deepening of connections with other NGOs on the application and exercise of rights related to territorial management. Among the principal partners were: Centro de Comunicación y Desarrollo Andino (CENDA), Investigación Social y Asesoramiento Legal Potosí (ISALP), Capitanía del Alto y Bajo Izoceño (CABI), la Fundación Machaca, ONG, Comunidad Andina Suma Satawi (CASSA), Veterinarios Sin Fronteras, and Servicios Múltiples de Tecnologías Agropecuarias (SEMTA).

## Activities

Over three years (2006–09), six months were used to facilitate the objectives and action plan approved by the communities, two years for implementation, and another six months for the presentation of results and the publication and their systematization.

Although the EU project has ended, a series of activities continue in the shape of collaboration between CEBEM and the municipality with the aim of identifying

steps for collaboration, investments, webpage development and intercultural dialogues through the Intercultural Relations Platform, in which other institutions of the region and from the North could participate.

The key moments of the project were the following:

- discussion of objectives, planning the activities and the timeline for their approval by the *cabildo*;
- education and training in the communities and for authorities on issues of indigenous norms, on public municipal administration and business management. This was an important step in the elaboration and start-up of the roundtables for the development and approval of the operational plan of the municipality. This was the first intercultural encounters among the three countries;
- the third step was finalizing the education and training with other municipalities, systematizing what was learned, the writing of a book on the municipality and disseminating the experience in the Andean region through virtual courses.

## Outcomes

Participatory budgets were approved and a methodology for public engagement and consultation was established. The municipality has systems for the management of community roundtables for the municipal development of the social and economic sectors. More than 300 community members and their authorities have participated in the process of identification of local development priorities, the selection of priority projects agreed upon among the 120 communities; this is an exercise in the distribution of resources by consensus. Three operational plans were approved and disseminated in all of the participating 120 communities and 5,000 leaflets with information on the agreed-upon projects, their financing and the legal and municipal documents for their implementation were distributed.

The exercise was repeated after three years and has left a precedent for the following administrations.

### *Training materials*

More than 10,000 copies of printed training materials were distributed in communities. Over 2,000 community members were trained in issues of municipal management, business management, environment and natural resources. One thousand women were trained in their functions for gender parity leadership as is the norm in indigenous territory. Each male authority has a female counterpart, generally his wife, who accompanies him in an equal manner in the process of decision making.

### *Radio programmes*

Ten radio programmes that can be rebroadcast in Aymara on issues related to municipal management, business management, caring for the environment, ecologically sound production and the importance of women's participation in

communal, municipal and economic management, especially in the sectors of education and health have been produced.

#### *Geographical information system*

A GIS that references the socio-demographic data to the geography of the communities and maps for each of the populated centres has been developed. The system can be expanded to include educational and health establishments, aquatic resources, roads and other public works. It is a valuable system as a baseline for planning as a visual tool for decision making in communities.

#### *Webpage*

The webpage is driven and maintained by community members and has documentary information on their territory, history, culture, social and economic conditions and municipal management. Its main sections are history, the cabildo, the municipal council, religion, economics, tourism, infrastructure and projects.

The webpage of Jesús de Machaca is the window to the intercultural dialogue between this town and others in Bolivia, the region and outside Latin America ([http://machaca.cebem.org/index\\_esp.php](http://machaca.cebem.org/index_esp.php)).

#### *Book: Aboriginal Indigenous Aymara Municipality Jesús de Machaca*

This book, widely distributed among the 120 communities, is serving as a baseline for development planning and evaluation. The book brings together the experience of the municipality about its own form of government and the search for recognition of its autonomy based upon local practices and customs without being tied to political parties. The book is not an academic publication but instead is written by the people of Machaca itself, rigorously looking to establish the base for an inclusive and just indigenous autonomy.

This book contributed a space of dialogue and exchange, where people present their culture, not to impose it, but instead to share it, and create a framework of interculturality with other peoples and ethnic groups in Bolivia. The book also includes a participatory economic study, undertaken in collaboration with the people of the community. It also includes a study on natural resources and a description of the flora and fauna. Finally, a study on climate change in peasant communities is included (see: [http://machaca.cebem.org/index\\_esp.php](http://machaca.cebem.org/index_esp.php)).

#### *Virtual classroom and professional upgrading*

Three online courses of professional upgrading, each one lasting six weeks, have been given twice to a total of 300 regional students. Several issues have arisen from the research under way, such as indigenous norms and positive law, indigenous territorialities and the participation of indigenous women in municipal governments. These courses have established a space for discussion and diffusion of indigenous values and customs in dialogue, not only with other experts and politicians of the region but also among cultures within and outside the country. As a continuation of this experience a fourth course on the topic of the Andean Amazonian worldview has been developed.

# 15

## Cooperation in small forest producers in Bolivia

*Jorge Téllez Carrasco and José Blanes Jiménez*

### Context

In the Chiquitania region of Bolivia, precious woods are products of high value that can be acquired from communities through local intermediaries at very low prices. Timber buyers acquire timber from people and communities through a system of loans and exchanges that often disadvantage small producers. Generally, timber leaves the area unprocessed. Small producers in the region requested support, through their municipal governments, from the Spanish Cooperation Agency to break into the added value of wood products. In 2003, the governments of Bolivia and Spain agreed to undertake a forestry development project in the Chiquitania region. Given that similar initiatives had not delivered the expected results, a pilot project and preliminary documentation was undertaken. Methodological advice and support came from the University of Cordoba in Spain and Centro Boliviano de Estudios Multidisciplinarios (CEBEM) in Bolivia. Later, with guidance from CEBEM and the Bolivian component of the International Social Analysis Systems (SAS2), Carleton University (Ottawa) and the International Development Research Centre of Canada (IDRC) got involved.

Despite the decentralization of forest management that started in Bolivia in the 1990s, forest participants failed to properly consolidate their attributions, while many of the communities and other social groups who had been excluded in previous forest regimes gained access to forest transition and profitable logging. Among the reasons for this were the heavy reliance on international funding, lack of technical capacity, limited access to information, poor road infrastructure and difficulties in accessing credit. As a result, intermediaries, rather than small producers themselves, were the principal beneficiaries of international support. Therefore, the question arose as to how to ensure that international cooperation/support was helpful in generating higher and more sustainable incomes for families from the most disadvantaged social groups.

From the research standpoint, the project was conceived as a base community forest management assessment in the Chiquitania which would inform the next design phase. With this in mind, the project considered four main issues:

- whether or not the forest community had productive potential (e.g., ecological, silvicultural and forest management);

- whether the Forestry Law could be a framework for sustainable community management;
- whether the application of the Forestry Law was consistent with its original spirit; and
- did the logic and behaviour of local participants encourage community forestry development, and, if so, was there a market for forest products?

### Organization/structure

The Chiquitania Forestry development project was undertaken within the VII Joint Hispano-Bolivian Cooperation Commission (2003). In Bolivia, the Forestry Law *gives* municipalities responsibility for promoting local forestry development activities. Since the appropriation process takes place at this level so that they can be sustainable, it was agreed that field activities be conducted through their forestry units, involving various municipalities. Institutional coordination was undertaken by the Natural Resources Directorate of the Prefecture of the Department of Santa Cruz. At a national level, activities were coordinated by the Vice-Ministry of Biodiversity, Forest Resources and Environment. The project established a management unit in the area to manage the project and coordinate technical assistance. Thus, collaborative research coordination for social action was established in this unit.

The project involved a wide range of participants. To facilitate the adoption of a research–action approach, project coordination was undertaken by a CEBEM researcher. This facilitated the establishment of strategies for monitoring social interaction, support and methodological design. It also ensured that new project participants received training. Processes of collaborative research–action were directed not only at researchers and consultants, but also at municipal technicians, mayors and community leaders.

The project also drew on the everyday knowledge of the local project participants. Further, key players helped to advance the project. External assistance was sought for knowledge regarding forestry, business, law and development cooperation.

The main source of funding was from Spanish Cooperation. It helped cover technical assistance in the formulation and development stage of the project. The Prefecture of Santa Cruz and the municipalities of Velasco Province also made contributions to the project. Finally, CEBEM, Cordoba University and Carleton University financed part of the systematization stage.

### Activities

The development of experimental logic was based on three distinct stages: description of the formulation process; establishment of the social basis for the facilitation of processes; and their successive implementation. Participation in these stages was made through consultancies.

During the first phase, occurring in mid-2004, actions were formulated that served as a basis for the research approach and funding. Beyond agreeing to a

collaboratively formulated development action, progress in improving living standards of the target population was barely perceptible. At the end of 2004, the project received further technical assistance. On this occasion, research work was combined with the coordinating role of the project. While some intermediate results were achieved during this phase, these results have not provided sufficient certainty about how to get participants and their communities to respond, compared with the processes considered most critical for the success of the project.

This situation changed in early 2006 when the project began to operate as a business and activities became less experimental, causing take-off of the processes. In the third phase of the project, there is a turning point coinciding with the achievement of the first one, generating striking results regarding the interests of beneficiaries. This gave the project the necessary impetus to carry out its social strategy.

At this point, monitoring of the project was left aside to start systematizing a model that was already paying off and that allowed for testing the validity of a doctoral thesis. This systematic work was interrupted only by a final consultation by the middle of that year, which accompanied the elaboration of municipal forest development plans. This occasion allowed updating the achievements for the last time.

## Outcomes

The initial outcome was a list of recommendations from the evaluation of community forest management practices in the Chiquitania. This result has evolved into a methodological accompaniment to the process of building and strengthening a group of wood producers and processors in Velasco province. This group has managed timber processing and marketing of timber products on better terms than previous ones. At present there are drying and milling centres in three Velasco municipalities, managed as commercial enterprises involving project beneficiaries.

The case study validates the fact that dialogue between knowledge systems and the interests involved in community forestry process allows the outcome path to become gradually more advanced and impressive. This project has been able to introduce a working methodology for the field of international cooperation that can address forest development in complex social contexts with greater potential for success. In turn, these new methodological developments have helped to overcome the lack of corporate knowledge that exists around community forestry.

In addition, this project has provided insight into how the international understanding of forestry development is very weak regarding its recognition of social complexities and interactions in and between the communities involved. This is important because it has been proved that some of the decisions that affect small-scale wood production in the Velasco province do not concern communities living in the forest, but rather other factors such as consumers, intermediate channels or international solidarity.

Municipal forestry policies in the Velasco province had major shortcomings. Despite the importance of the exploitation of forests to these municipalities, and the potential for economic development, attention is focused on other sectors such as health or livestock. This implied a lower allocation of funds to this sector. Effective support to municipal forestry units, and strengthening of producer organization plans for the forestry sector were formalized, complementing public development policies and thereby improving the final appropriation by the participants in the forestry regime. This step facilitated the adoption of much more comprehensive and developed actions by the sector, allowing for the generation of models for permanent forest production areas of the country.

This project has benefited many with fragile household economies, allowing them to significantly improve their incomes sustainably. With the success of such initiatives, important opportunities will open up to address poverty in other rural areas.

The generated model has opened up significant opportunities for business collaboration between Bolivia and other wood-consuming countries. Small farmers who have participated in the initiative can now interact on an equal footing with companies that dominate distribution channels. In return, companies in the consumer countries enjoy a product that is more consistent and conforms to the requirements of a market increasingly focused on relationships with the consumer. Additionally, links were established between universities in Bolivia and Spain to develop joint research and development. All of this has contributed to real cooperation between states, improving the competitiveness of countries consuming tropical timber, and contributing to improved living conditions in those forests.

In addition, promoting a sustainable timber harvesting has contributed to better preservation of forest ecosystems in Chiquitania, since profitability enables it to face the advance of the agricultural frontier from the city of Santa Cruz and neighbouring Brazil.

# 16

## Evaluation of quality of drinking water in Romania (science shops)

*Norbert Steinhaus*

### Context

In Romania, most environmental problems, including deterioration of water source quality, have their origin in intensive industrialization and development of agriculture. Until 1990, there were no environmental protection policies/legislation/treatment facilities or accompanying measures in place. Until this case study, there were only a few studies on drinking water quality in the area. Those that existed were limited to questions of to what extent treatment in the treatment plants removed undesirable pollutants (especially those that might affect human health), or if the population was satisfied by the quality and quantity of water supplied.

Iasi underwent a rapid industrialization and population growth (from 180,000 inhabitants in 1980 to 349,000 in 2001). The demands for drinking and industrial water were filled through additional sources or sometimes by using a combination of water supplied by two or even three treated sources. Before 1990, it was quite frequent for some neighbourhoods to have interruptions to drinking water for eight hours a day.

Prior to the beginning of this project, no correlations had been made between the quality of water sources, the water treatment at the Water Works Company and the opinions and expectations of the residents. The research was designed for:

- subject status (age, occupation, income and family composition);
- drinking water quality (temperature, colour, taste, smell, solid impurities, turbidity, hardness). The questions related to quality were expressed as general particularities and not in scientific terms (persons were asked if they considered the water clear enough, although the associated indicator was turbidity);
- drinking water quantity (flow, pressure, continuous supply);
- use of alternatives (drinking water from other sources, mineral water, soft drinks, filter units at the tap); and
- other problems observed.

This project also focused on the evaluation of physical and chemical indicators, since they correlate with quality problems suggested by residents and are relevant for the calculation of efficiencies achieved at different stages of water treatment. As



far as chemical indicators are concerned, a distinction was made between general characteristics and those that give information on priority pollutants and are of more concern for human health (toxic, carcinogenic or mutagenic properties).

The project lasted six months (June–November 1999). As this project was conducted through a Romanian science shop, all costs were supported from the MATRA Social Transformation Programme of the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which provided seed funding to the science shops.

### Organization/structure

A questionnaire was conceived for this study, and discussed with specialists in techniques of social inquiries from Alexandru Ioan Cuza and Gheorghe Asachi Technical universities in Iasi. Over 2,500 questionnaires were processed for the first part of the report regarding consultation with citizens. Face-to face interviews were used. For data collection and analysis, the following aspects were considered:

- Three sources of drinking water from different treatment plants were selected (two surface water sources and one underground source). The level of treatment per source is correlated with the influent water quality (less treatment for the underground source).
- A number of neighbourhoods accessing drinking water from the same treatment plant (source) were selected, to facilitate comparisons under similar conditions. There are neighbourhoods in Iasi supplied with drinking water from two treatment plants – mixtures.
- Objectivity of the interviewers (students) was assured by a brief training on inquiry techniques. Students had a specialization in environmental engineering, with basic knowledge of water quality indicators.
- Any other suggestions or problems that appeared with drinking water quality and quantity, as specified by the subjects, were registered separately in the same questionnaire, as observations.
- Several quality indicators were selected from the following groups of priority pollutants:
  - volatile organic compounds generated in drinking water as secondary products, with disinfection by chlorine;
  - non-volatile organic compounds;
  - inorganic substances.

Water samples were taken from different points in the treatment process: raw water (inlet of the treatment plant); water from the reservoirs (after chlorination); or from the consumer (tap water), and these micro-pollutants were verified in a specialized laboratory in the Netherlands.

The results of these questionnaires, together with the analysis of quality indicators (physical and chemical) of treated water, served as a base for discussion of treatment technologies currently applied by the Water Works Company.

All of the data were computer processed using Excel, and presented graphically for each source. In all cases, the problems suggested by the participants in terms of

both quality and quantity permitted a comparison of the sources. Students under the supervision of science shop coordinators contributed to the collection of raw data, analysis and interpretation.

Internal communication was maintained by regular meetings, phone, email and fax. Meetings were held with students, science shop staff, NGO representatives, Dutch participants in the MATRA project and Water Works Company staff.

The 1999 study was the pilot project of the newly founded science shop Inter-MEDIU (at the Technical University of Iasi) and is considered an illustration of the science shop approach for the study of a problem of interest to the whole community. No modification was necessary.

### Activities

Quality indicators for toxic micro-pollutants were verified for the surface water sources. A correlation between the technical conditions and the degree of treatment was realized, and recommendations for improving the existent situation were given. A public debate on drinking water quality was organized, and representatives of the community (NGOs, neighbourhood associations), university staff and students, research institutes, governmental organizations (Environmental Protection Agency, City Hall representatives), Water Works Company and the media were invited.

The main results of the project referred to drinking water quality from different sources, as seen by the population and as demonstrated by available records or supplementary analysis. As somewhat expected, the interviewees considered the quality of drinking water supplied from the groundwater source, mainly seen as an alternative source for those living in other neighbourhoods, as *good* or *very good*.

Evaluation of quality indicators available at the Water Works Company or further verified by analysis proved that treatment achieved for surface water sources should be improved, either by increasing the removal efficiencies of each treatment step, or by upgrading the whole treatment plant. Several supplementary treatment steps or even alternatives to conventional processes have been proposed.

Recommendations included the necessity of a feasibility study, a cost analysis for treatment alternatives, and surveys of proposed modernization alternatives that will include public consultation. The report concretized all the findings and recommendations of the project. One hundred copies were published and distributed to governmental organizations, NGOs and to university students and staff.

The project received good media coverage, and for the students of the Environmental Engineering Department, it represented a very good opportunity to apply their knowledge related to treatment technologies; and an opportunity to learn more about the techniques of social inquiry, project management and computer applications.

Communication with the media was not always open and good. The media had access to the report, and representatives of all newspapers and local TV stations were invited to the public debate. The first project report in a local newspaper was not objective: it focused on the more sensational aspects of the report, with a

view to boosting circulation figures, including the toxicity of water, which created some problems for participants involved in the project. At the public debate, the representative of the Water Works Company acknowledged they were aware that problems existed and they would make efforts to attract funds to improve drinking water quality.

The public debate was a good opportunity to mediate things; other articles and media coverage benefited from objective presentations. The project had an immediate and long-term use, internally and externally, and the project findings were made available for free. The department of Environmental Engineering and the Faculty of Industrial Chemistry appreciated the students' involvement in this science shop project. They agreed the continuation of their cooperation with science shop may contribute to a diploma or M.Sc. thesis. NGOs used the information both for NGO members and local community information. The Water Works Company used the report as evidence of the necessity of improving the quality of drinking water and modernizing the water treatment facilities, and to argue for these improvements in local development strategies.

The science shop used the report to promote science shop activities as an example of student participation, and also to raise public awareness about the quality of drinking water in Iasi. Subsequent proposals, in which the science shop was asked to participate, had water quality as a common theme. The project served as a basis for scientific publications and raised further technical questions. The project supervisor used the project information in a course, Water Treatment Technologies, for fourth-year students in Environmental Engineering.

Students participating in the project considered that there were many positive aspects to participation. In particular, they:

- used techniques of social inquiry and were able to get in contact with the community;
- had the opportunity to apply their knowledge (environmental engineering, drinking water technology) to a practical 'real' case;
- learned new skills in research methodology and the presentation of results and applied this to other scientific work;
- learned more about project and task management;
- improved computer and group communication skills;
- continued to cooperate with the science shop on other projects, including an international student project;
- considered the project a good starting point for future careers, including it in CVs/résumés.

The publication of a report without an ISBN was not considered a problem at that time, but resulted in use of the report without citation.

The project presented detailed information and rigorous methodology, with data that could be followed by the general public. For students, the main advantages were the opportunities for knowledge enhancement and improvement of communication and participative skills; the chance to work in larger groups of students was also appreciated. Students could now see aspects in practice they

knew only in theory. Other aspects were the problem-based learning approach and cooperation in a less formal way, nevertheless going deeper into technical subjects.

For NGO representatives, the major benefit was the heightened level of awareness in the local community and among members of governmental organizations.

For the science shop staff, the project presented interest from the scientific and teaching point of view, and also innovative approach and linkages to societal issues.

Other positive aspects of the project included the organization and discussion of a public debate, and the involvement of students in a project for not only their technical background, but also their knowledge related to social inquiry techniques – part of the curricula, but not often applied. As the public debate was organized at the Faculty of Industrial Chemistry, with participation from other students and staff, this facilitated contact between specialists and NGO groups and represented good publicity for the faculty and the science shop.

The project resulted in additional collaborations between the NGO, other NGOs and government organizations. The science shop has not been involved in these but has continued to maintain contact with the NGO, sending them information about debates and calls for proposals.

Most interviewees considered the project a real success and not in need of improvement. However, providing information earlier to the media about project developments would have been helpful.

According to Carmen Teodosiu, of TU Iasi, InterMEDIU/science shop:

There were other Science Shop project proposals or further research on the topics (public involvement or drinking water treatment together with my diploma students). Other requests from NGOs to contribute to project proposals with subjects related to water pollution and awareness programs were received. The NGO that requested support for project proposal preparation, received funding to proceed with a survey and educational campaigns concerning the risk of nitrates and nitrites in the ground waters of Suceava plains, and the collaboration will continue in the period of project realization. (personal communication)

## Outcomes

The science shop's neutral position between the public, local administration and university is considered useful for communities since it provides access to scientific research, information and education. The use of systematic methods, adequate presentation of results and the accessibility of project publications, as well as the affordability of science shop projects (until now, with no financial obligations for the NGOs), represent the possibility of connecting universities and communities through intermediaries such as science shops.

The science shop activities can bring specific contributions to the modernization of curricula and research at universities, i.e., through the use of flexible modules of learning/project-based learning, postgraduate courses, inclusion of science shop projects in regular teaching activity, multidisciplinary research (use of techniques of social inquiry or environmental and health assessments) and formulation of new project proposals.

Important elements to the development of science shops activities in Romanian universities are:

- Official acknowledgement at the university/Ministry of Education level for these activities, the allocation of credit points for students, and staff time for supervision. For instance, the introduction of a course in project management and the facilitation of project work through the science shop or NGOs structures would allow students to gain more experience with practical projects and increase employment opportunities after graduation.
- Given the extent to which the opening of new perspectives and collaborative research with societal groups are priorities for universities, the support of science shop activities should be facilitated at least at the level of operational costs and adequate administrative rules.
- The development of other programmes through science shops (educational, postgraduate, professional training) can contribute to the broadening of the university focus and also provide supplementary funding.
- The visibility of science shop activities at the local level and the facilitation of international cooperation contribute indirectly to the image of faculties/universities and thus needs adequate support from the university structures to improve outreach towards society organizations and the network of Romanian universities.

Science shop collaboration has particular features and advantages. The science shop is seen as a real, independent organization situated in a neutral position between the public, local administration and university, with the potential to benefit all participants. The advantages to cooperation with science shops are usually related to the experience, contacts, flexibility and communication of this approach, i.e., it can easily establish links with different departments. For example, the students received advice from specialists from the Department of Social Sciences at Alexandru Ioan Cuza and Gheorghe Asachi Technical universities in the development of the questionnaire.

For students, too, this type of connection presents an important opportunity. As one student said:

For me, as a student, it is important to have somebody from outside to help me get more information about aspects that we don't usually study in the faculty (project proposals, project management, presentations). I had the opportunity to learn more about this while working in the Science Shop. I think these organisations are more open to cooperation. (student respondent)

The experience of participants is also a very important factor to the success of a science shop project. In some cases this could be a challenge; however, in this project, all parties had sufficient knowledge and experience to ensure success.

In summary, this research model is successful because it presents a neutral view on the problem while offering a more flexible approach and the opportunity for many different groups to work together. Lastly, the enthusiasm that students brought to this project was key to its success.

# 17

## Pollution levels in local lakes in Denmark

*Norbert Steinhaus*

### Context

The Danish Society for the Conservation of Nature (DN) of Frederikssund is a local committee of a national NGO working towards protecting nature and the environment. DN Frederikssund addresses local issues regarding the protection of nature and the environment to achieve local sustainable development. It initiates local campaigns, participates in political hearings and comments on the municipality's environmental strategies and plans.

In the mid-1990s, DN Frederikssund became aware of science shops through correspondence from the science shops at Roskilde University Centre (RUC). DN Frederikssund saw this as an opportunity to engage in research about the pollution levels in village ponds in Frederikssund municipality.

Village ponds were polluted but DN Frederikssund lacked the scientific evidence to compel municipal authorities to take action. The organization did not have the capacity to do the research themselves so they requested help through the science shop at RUC. Specifically, they requested assistance from interested students to investigate the health of six village ponds and to make recommendations for improvement based on the results.

The practice of conducting research in partnership between local science shops and NGOs is a well-established tradition throughout much of Europe. According to the Living Knowledge Network:

Science Shops are ... small entities that carry out scientific research in a wide range of disciplines – usually free of charge and – on behalf of citizens and local civil society. The fact that Science Shops respond to civil society's needs for expertise and knowledge is a key element that distinguish them from other knowledge transfer mechanisms. Science Shops are often, but not always, linked to universities, where students conduct the research as part of their curriculum. (n.d.)

In February 2001, four students responded to the proposal; the project went until June 2001. For those students, the project satisfied two aims. First and foremost, it fulfilled an academic requirement that they complete a group project that included some experimental work. Second, it allowed them to conduct research that would be beneficial to a partner outside the university. The students were responsible for finding an academic supervisor to oversee the project for

scientific rigour. A challenge for students engaged in research through a science shop is that often the client does not have an academic background, causing the students to spend a lot of time communicating their results for understanding and implementation.

The students' supervisor was initially sceptical because there was not a good working relationship between the Institute and the science shop, and because the supervisor felt the project 'lacked scientific interest'. However, he accepted the supervisory role because the students were motivated and engaged, and also he could see a future recruitment possibility.

The only expense to DN Frederikssund was transportation to RUC: the students paid both equipment and transportation expenses. Usually there is no budget for this kind of work, but the science shop does some cross-financing with money received for lectures and teaching. Total expenses were around 2,000 Danish kroner (approximately \$180 CDN).

The project was facilitated by the RUC science shop, acting as an intermediary between the interested students and DN Frederikssund. The students and DN Frederikssund each approached the science shop directly. After the initial introduction, students worked directly with DN Frederikssund to develop the research questions.

This was the first time the parties had worked together. The science shop played a facilitative role between the students and the NGO. The students and the NGO met only twice – once to first establish contact, and on a second occasion to present the results and written report to the NGO. The students conducted the research with supervision from an academic supervisor at RUC. The supervisor did not meet with DN Frederikssund until the conclusion of the project.

An advantage by having projects done through the science shops was that the NGO does not have to take care of administration; this is the task of the science shop.

### **Organization/structure**

During the first meeting between the partners, it was agreed what the research questions should be:

- Is it possible, through biomanipulation, to reach a sustainable situation of the water being clear in an eutrophic lake?
- Is it possible to reach a sustainable situation of clear water in Lille Rørbæk village pond through biomanipulation?

DN Frederikssund's original request included research on six village ponds but, during the first meeting between the students, the organization and the science shop, the students indicated they wanted to concentrate on only one village pond. Besides wanting to help the organization, it was very important for the students to obtain academic qualifications through the project. They felt that investigating more than one village pond would not give them the opportunity to conduct a sufficient level of the pond.

## Activities

The students reviewed relevant literature and scientific studies. They started a measuring programme on the pond. In addition, interviews were conducted with representatives from the NGO, the municipality and local residents. The NGO representative shared information with the students about the pond based on local stories and observation. The local residents also contributed to the project by sharing information about water levels or how the municipality's sewer system drained the village pond because of leakage. In turn, the students communicated project information to the local residents, leading some residents to offer boats and other services.

The research itself was not based on a participatory approach. Once the research questions were agreed upon, the students did testing and analysis without further formal involvement of the NGO. The students kept the NGO informed through email. The organization was satisfied with this level of involvement because they did not have the same expertise as students. Further, the students felt that if there had been more cooperation it could have had a negative effect on the learning process they were experiencing.

The way the students and DN Frederikssund chose to cooperate could be seen as a 'consultancy' agreement, in that the NGO had a problem for which they needed scientific documentation, and the students needed to do experiment-based research also beneficial for a user. Beyond this, ongoing cooperation and discussion were not prioritized by either. Further, this allayed the concerns of the students' supervisor, who requested that DN Frederikssund did not have influence on how the investigation was designed or carried out. The way this project was carried out indicates that ongoing dialogue and continued active involvement of the partner organizations throughout the research period are not preconditions for successful cooperation. Further decisions about what to include in the study were largely based on time and budgetary restrictions.

Originally, the students felt that DN Frederikssund did not know how much time and resources were required to document all the elements requested. But, the two groups reached an agreement on this, after which the students felt DN Frederikssund participated to the degree expected.

## Outcomes

The research highlighted the pollution level in a village pond and how to rehabilitate it. The report did not assign responsibility for these efforts as the students deliberately chose not to report on this. They were only interested in the lake's biological processes and so left discussion of what should be done – by whom, the costs and timelines – to DN Frederikssund.

The NGO was able to use the results to pressure the municipality of Frederikssund on the issue of the lakes' health. This project was based on a direct need for documentation of a problem experienced by DN Frederikssund. The project has contributed to knowledge about an important local issue.



This project has not resulted in any new policies as the municipality has not acted on the project's findings. However, this may be because of a limited effort to utilize the findings by the NGO. The report has been passed on to a biologist in the municipality, but to DN Frederikssund's knowledge, this person has no plans for rehabilitating the village ponds in the near future.

DN Frederikssund was very satisfied with the report because it felt the report was written in a way that enabled residents to understand the conclusions and recommendations, not just people with an academic background. DN Frederikssund has since defined more project requests for the science shops at RUC and the University of Copenhagen (KU).

The students are not aware how the DN Frederikssund has used the report's results; after they presented the report, they had no further contact with the organization. The students have not used the results from the project for other work. However, they have used methods they learned. Further, the supervisor has hired one of the students as an assistant and recruited two students to do their master's theses.

Copies of the report were also sent to local newspapers. During the research period, the organization also sent out press releases, explaining why they had required help from scientists.

Few projects brought to the science shop are science based. Thus, there are fewer opportunities for students in such programmes to engage in this type of research. Often, too, the scientific level of the projects requested through the science shop does not provide an opportunity for development of new scientific knowledge as they are based on practical problems. Those interviewed further argued that the projects, provided through the science shop at RUC, while aimed at students in the natural sciences, are more suited for engineering students because of the focus on solutions to practical problems. In this case, by instructing the students only to investigate one of six village ponds DN Frederikssund chose, the supervisor sought to improve the scientific interest in the project. As a result, the students gained more in-depth knowledge about the biological processes and the sampling and analysis methods needed for this kind of investigation.

But the RUC science shop does not aim to establish new research or teaching areas within the university. Participation in development of new research areas has never been a strategy for this science shop, and this may be one of the reasons why institutes, such as the Natural Science Institute, feel the science shop projects at RUC lack scientific content.

The students experienced pressure from their supervisor to not become 'a tool in a political play' as this had been seen in earlier projects. It was felt that, in some cases, insufficient research had been used in a political debate. To address this, the students explained to the NGO that they did not want to participate in the political debate or use the study to discuss who should be responsible for the quality of the water in the ponds, and why. They limited their undertaking to a scientific investigation of the conditions in the pond and recommendations on rehabilitation. DN Frederikssund accepted these requirements because their

main objective was access to a scientific report addressing and clarifying the pollution level, which they could then bring forward to the municipality.

Despite the focus on producing scientific evidence in this case, one NGO representative noted that the style of communicating results from the university to civil society clients could be challenging. Students have to present the results in a certain way to comply with university rules; this style of presentation is often not appropriate for the needs of civil society clients.

Research completed through university structures are perceived by clients as impartial and can be used in a political debate to create legitimacy. Cooperation with intermediaries, such as science shops, further contributes to enhancement of knowledge within the civil society organizations and can help to develop new perspectives around specific issues.

When clients approach the science shops, they are asked to outline their request, specifying the problem and why there is a need for research in this area. Science shops play an important role in helping civil society clients formulate suitable research questions based on their organization's needs. In this case study, the client was able to formulate these on their own. However, as discussed previously, the research questions may need to be altered slightly in discussion with student researchers.

Sound scientific evidence was the most important desired outcome of the project. Accordingly, communication with, and active participation of, the NGO were not seen as important to this project. The students, however, quickly learned to cooperate with responsibilities and tasks, and were able to create a network, and gained the support of the local people. Participation in this project also gave students the opportunity to learn new research skills.

According to Helge B. Christensen, of DN Frederikssund, 'Access to research and knowledge through co-operation with the Science Shops are strengthening civil society organizations' ability to address local problems because a neutral investigation often is more powerful than an investigation performed by the individual organizations.' The perceived impartiality of research conducted through university structures via the science shop is seen as success. The NGO felt empowered through increased legitimacy in political debate, and felt the arguments were stronger than if they had produced the results themselves.

Both students and NGO representatives noted that communication of the results of the research is something that students need to think about throughout the research. DN Frederikssund wanted a scientific report to hand over to the municipality. So, in this case, it was important that the results were communicated scientifically.

DN Frederikssund took two actions with the research: it handed the report to the municipality, and it involved local newspapers in the hope of starting a debate about the future of the pond and the responsibilities of the municipality. Despite the documentation of the pond's pollution levels and the debate in local newspapers, the municipality has not initiated a dialogue with the NGO nor taken steps towards the pond's rehabilitation. Beyond providing the municipality with copies of the report, the NGO have not taken action to pressure the municipality.

Nor has it used the articles in newspapers as a way of starting a debate with the general public.

The DN Frederikssund case shows that knowledge does not necessarily lead to influence. Influence is shaped by the support and participant constellations created around a topic. In this case, this did not happen with the local environmental administration. Even though Denmark has a tradition of strong environmental movements that feel empowered to challenge political structures and may use scientific evidence to do so, the country is not always successful in persuading participation.

The NGO chose not (directly or indirectly) to use the public arena as a forum for discussion, which indicates that, for this organization, cooperation with the responsible authorities is seen as the right way to reach its objectives, rather than pressuring through public debate.

This case shows that engagement of clients, the academic requirements on institutions and the frequency in shifts of NGO members all influence the process of knowledge production and can affect whether or not research leads to mutual knowledge production, or only to the enhancement of students' knowledge. Projects, facilitated through an intermediary such as the science shop, and based on cooperation with participants drawn from civil society, were seen as an interesting challenge that encouraged the development of students' communication and cooperation skills. It is also important to balance the needs of the clients while ensuring the project is sufficiently scientifically challenging. The draw of being able to participate in research with a practical use, and not simply 'a desktop study', was seen as important by both students and civil society clients.

The science shop concept, as an organization that acts as an intermediary between students and civil society organizations, is important to the development and capacity of civil society organizations. It is also important for researchers because, through interaction with civil society organizations, new research questions are developed and new perspectives explored.

- The relationship between university researchers and civil society organizations could be strengthened with more opportunities for direct interaction by, for example, setting up thematic networks or counselling committees made up of representatives from university institutes and civil society organizations.
- The relationship with students could be strengthened by involving the students' organizations, and/or students who already have performed projects through the science shops.
- University institutes should be involved in the process of defining requests from clients to the science shops. This would help to ensure an appropriate level of scientific challenge.
- Science shops need to be more visible both within and outside the university.
- Knowledge produced at universities often is not understandable to those outside the academy. Closer cooperation between university researchers, civil society organizations or private companies helps researchers to keep their 'feet on the ground', learn to speak an understandable language and

produce knowledge that is applicable. Training for researchers and hands-on experience supports this process of mutual learning. This training (e.g., communication) can be done before or even during the study/research. This can help to address the alienation that is felt towards the type of knowledge produced at universities.

# 18

## Community–University Partnership Programme (CUPP), University of Brighton

*Felix M. Bivens*

### Context

In 2003, the University of Brighton (UoB) received a grant from the American-based Atlantic Philanthropies Foundation to create an institutional infrastructure for supporting CBR in Brighton and the surrounding counties of East and West Sussex. UoB is an amalgam of several professional colleges that have long served the Sussex region. Because of its history in training nurses, teachers, electricians and other occupations, UoB has had a strong tradition of connection with the local community; much of the research carried out by academics has often been of an applied nature. However, because national rankings and government-allotted funding mechanisms in England have not privileged CBR in the past, academics with an interest and history in community research were increasingly encouraged to pursue this kind of work in their own time and to concentrate more on seeking large funding grants connected to national-level research projects. UoB's then-Vice Chancellor Sir David Watson felt strongly that universities should play an active role in local communities. Watson's remarks during a television interview drew the attention of Atlantic Philanthropies which approached UoB with an offer of several rounds of centralized funding to allow UoB to support and institutionalize its diffuse CBR efforts. Out of this grant the CUPP programme was born.

### Organization/structure

CUPP describes itself as having three interrelated aims:

- To ensure that the university's resources (intellectual and physical) are available to, informed by and used by its local and sub-regional communities.
- To enhance the community's and university's capacity for engagement for mutual benefit.
- To ensure that CUPP's resources are prioritized towards addressing inequalities within our local communities. (Church and Hart, 2009, p. 9)

CUPP's role was to act as a nexus between academics and community groups, promoting CBR on both sides of the town–gown line. Atlantic Philanthropies' money provided salaries to a new set of university employees whose purpose was to promote and support academics and community groups in developing,

carrying out and assessing a wide variety of research projects. Many of the CUPP staff came from voluntary sector backgrounds rather than from university roles, which helped them to liaise between the two different cultures, establishing trusted, longstanding relationships with community partners. The money also provided seed grants to support CBR projects. Part of this funding bought out academics' time so they could concentrate on CUPP projects as a fiscally legitimate focus of their work.

### Activities

Although initial projects were based on existing relationships, CUPP took lessons from the science shop model and soon created a helpdesk for fielding community inquiries. As the helpdesk became more established, CUPP devised a more structured mechanism for processing incoming requests. It created a forum called the Senior Researchers' Group (SRG) in which community inquiries were discussed by a group of senior professors from across the whole university. Thus, instead of all requests being assigned to a limited pool of academics, the SRG provided the community access to a much broader range of academics, increasing the odds that community groups would be linked with an appropriate academic. Once the SRG referred the request to a particular researcher, the academic would meet with the organization or community group to flesh out the exact nature and direction of the CBR project. If the match between the academic and the request seemed workable, a research team would be formed, including community members and students. The subsequent work would be supported by members of the CUPP staff, who also oversee administrative elements and conduct evaluations of the engagement process.

CUPP has proven to be a tremendously successful model. Since its inception, CUPP has responded to more than eight hundred community inquiries – three hundred of which were referred on to individual academics by the SGR for one-on-one support – and produced more than seventy major research reports based on community–university research partnerships. (University of Brighton, 2007, p. 5)

It has involved more than 100 academics in CBR projects. Further, it has been successful financially in leveraging several large multimillion pound grants allowing CUPP to work on much larger-scale projects and add additional staff. CUPP has also become a leader in CBR in the UK, winning several national-level awards which have boosted not only CUPP's reputation, but that of UoB as a whole. Although Atlantic Philanthropies support expired in 2007, the university made the decision subsequently to underwrite the programme from its own institutional funds. CUPP now operates on an annual budget of £550,000, which includes support for a staff of seven, in addition to a variety of academic advisors who co-manage the programme and liaise with the various university departments. In 2009, CUPP established a second helpdesk at a UoB satellite campus in Hastings, one of the UK's poorest and most deprived communities. Moreover, community engagement has been prioritized as one of UoB's primary institutional aims in the university's most recent corporate plan.

## Outcomes

Like the MA in participation (MAP), the curricular impacts of CUPP were not immediate. If not for the committed efforts of its staff, CUPP might not have had any impact on teaching at UoB, since neither the university's management nor Atlantic Philanthropies had planned for incorporating students or teaching modules into the programme. Several years prior to the beginning of CUPP, UoB had received a government grant to create a student volunteer office and the expectation was that this programme and CUPP would operate independently of each other, that there would be opportunities for student service activities in the community but not necessarily for academically credited service learning. The institution's evolution on this subject is found in a comment by one of the Pro-Vice Chancellors who worked closely with CUPP since its formation:

In some ways, initially we'd slightly headed off the service-learning proposition, partly because that wasn't how the thing originally presented itself to us ... In fact, I was one of the people who was least interested in that. I can see the value of it a lot more now and I think we developed it at stage when we were ready for it. The work that Juliet [Millican] has done and the module are now a very strong part of the linkage between the teaching aspects of the institution and the social engagement aspects, and that is a very powerful linkage on both sides – and another way in which [CUPP] has gotten more embedded and bound in. (interview, 2009, pp. 4–5)

The Pro-Vice Chancellor's references an academic module revamped by CUPP staff member Juliet Millican. The year-long course, Community and Personal Development module (CPD), is intended for undergraduate students in their second year. According to the *CPD Handbook*, course aims include:

- To provide a practical experience to help students to prepare for work placement or subsequent employment and to determine the areas and contacts on which they might focus.
- To practise the skills employers might expect in graduates within an organizational setting.
- To gain a deeper understanding of organizations, of how they work, and of where a student might best fit within them.
- To build up effective communication and interpersonal skills, including giving presentations and working as part of a team.
- To gain experience of dealing professionally with difficult interpersonal situations and to explore a range of options for coping with these.
- To develop an increased awareness of a student's personal skills and the importance of continuous learning and reflection.
- To extend a student's awareness of the broader social and structural issues within the society in which they live. (Millican, 2008, p. 3)

Interestingly, CPD follows a 'sandwich-course' structure paralleling that of MAP. The module runs October to December. Students participate in six weeks of class meetings discussing issues of civil society, participation, active citizenship,

the history of the UK's voluntary sector and organizational dynamics. The classes are designed to be highly interactive and allow for students to contribute significantly to class discussions. During this term, students also set up an internship and research project with a non-profit organization in Brighton.

More than simply a placement, the aim is for students to carry out a specific project for a group or to complete a piece of consultancy research for the host organization. Course facilitators arrange 'matching events' which bring representatives from local volunteer and community organizations to the UoB campus to meet CPD students and expedite the process of linking students with a host organization. At the end of term, students submit a learning plan explaining the organization they will be working with and the nature of their research. January to March – there are only two class meetings – students put their energy to field projects. As in MAP, a reflective approach is encouraged. Students are required to keep a journal in which they detail their work experience and reflect on their changing perceptions of the organization and themselves. They are asked to assess the management style of the organization and the resulting work environment for staff and for users of the various programmes and services. CPD students are expected to log fifty hours of work with their host organization.

The April to June term parallels the first term, with six class meetings where students come together to discuss their field experiences with course facilitators. Students are exposed to more concepts for understanding organizations and more literature and theory on civil society and citizen participation. They do reflective writing about their experiences to share with tutors and classmates. This prepares students for their final assessments, a written analysis of the host organization and a written assessment of their experience, noting specifically the professional and interpersonal skills they developed. The course concludes with students presenting to their peers.

CPD has been a significant force in helping to bridge the gap between student volunteerism and CBR. Undergraduate students volunteer, with a clear project in mind through discussions with their host organization. Moreover, CPD has also provided a mechanism for students to receive academic credit for their work in the community. The scale of the CPD module is also significant. Several different schools within the university have bought into the CPD model and have made it a requirement for their undergraduates. As such, the annual intake for the module is more than 250 students, broken into seven or eight different sections of approximately thirty students, each with a different tutor working with the group across the academic year. This represents a significant growth in the CPD programme; when CUPP inherited the module, it had an annual enrolment of approximately five students! The current need for so many course tutors has actually precipitated an important pedagogical impact as well in that many of the CPD tutors are also CUPP staff members. This is significant because CUPP staff come from community and voluntary sector backgrounds. As such, CPD has created an important opening for allowing different kinds of individuals into the classroom. Indeed, many in the CUPP staff bring ten to fifteen years of voluntary sector work with them, particularly relevant and helpful to students.



Although CPD has been very successful, it has struggled to keep pace with the volume of students taking the course, and with their disciplinary diversity. Students in one section of CPD may come from fields as diverse as education, criminology and psychology. This can sometime make finding common ground for discussion for undergraduate students difficult, particularly when discussing the specific operations and logics of their respective host organizations. For this reason, CPD is likely to be reorganized so that multiple, specialized CPD modules can be created and embedded within each discipline: students from the same field can take the course together and have more synergy in discussions and in locating relevant host organizations and research projects.

Although CPD is the most sizable contribution to UoB's curriculum generated by CUPP's work, it is not the only one. CUPP has also been responsible for designing two other modules, including Understanding Participation in the School of Education, and Partnerships and Participation with Marginalized Groups in the School of Nursing and Midwifery. More recently, CUPP's Millican helped to introduce a new undergraduate politics module which feeds into the CPD programme. Another important outgrowth of CUPP's CBR is the Inclusive Arts MA programme, in 2008. One of CUPP's earliest pilot projects enabled UoB students from the School of Art and Architecture to work with adult artists who were developmentally challenged. The project was spearheaded by local artist and activist Alice Fox who had originally organized these artists into a group called Rocket Artists. The initial collaboration was very successful and resulted in a show for artists and UoB students at the Tate Modern gallery in London. They remained eager to continue working together. Based on her work with CUPP, Fox was hired by the School of Art and Architecture faculty to teach several classes that allowed these artistic collaborations to develop further. In time, Fox expanded her vision and aspired to create a full MA programme in Inclusive Arts which would help train students to create their own arts programmes for people with severe learning difficulties and other developmental challenges. As with CPD, Inclusive Arts has enabled individuals with non-traditional backgrounds to come into the teaching faculty.

CUPP has also enabled hundreds of students at undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate levels to take part in CBR projects. Many of these opportunities have come about in the process of carrying out inquires submitted to the helpdesk. In other cases, faculty members have been able to solicit funding to carry out community research with an entire class of students. CUPP is also becoming an important resource for doctoral students – from UoB as well as other universities in the UK – researching various aspects of CBR.

# 19

## MA in Participation, power and social change at University of Sussex

*Felix M. Bivens*

### Context

The MA in Participation (MAP) had its first intake of students in 2004. MAP is the product of several years of planning and more years of previous work by the Participation, Power and Social Change (PPSC) team at Institute of Development Studies (IDS), University of Sussex. The roots of PPSC connect to the highly influential work of Robert Chambers in the field of participatory development. In the 1990s, his books, including *Whose Reality Counts? Putting the First Last* (1997), helped to precipitate a sea change in international development thinking towards participatory, 'bottom up' development practices driven by local community planning and the daily realities of the poor.

IDS itself has been a training hub for development specialists for decades. Affiliated with the University of Sussex in Brighton, IDS is able to award MA and D.Phil. degrees in the field of development studies. Many of the students who came to IDS for their graduate training were drawn by Chambers's reputation and this discourse on participatory development. However, PPSC had no teaching programme. As more students sought out PPSC team members for advice and independent research supervision, the idea developed to create an MA programme which focused specifically on participatory development. Another frequent complaint among students at IDS was that their own experience as development practitioners was not recognized or utilized in MA programmes. As many IDS students were from developing countries and/or had multiple years of professional experience in NGOs or government ministries, they were frustrated that there was little opportunity to share, reflect and make sense of their own experiences. This also struck a chord with PPSC members whose work was premised on recognizing and elevating contextualized, experiential knowledge as equally valid to elite knowledge from universities and other institutions. Thus, the proposed PPSC MA programme was understood to be a space not only for sharing the research of the participation team but for allowing students to share, explore and deepen their own understandings as practitioners within their unique contexts.

According to Peter Taylor, the first convener of MAP:

This Master's degree aims to provide structured educational opportunities to deepen knowledge and practice of participatory approaches for engaging people in decision-

making and active citizenship in a range of diverse contexts; foster innovations in the theory, practice and methodologies of participation, development and social change through participatory research, critical reflection and analysis; and contribute to the development, dissemination and institutionalization of high-quality participatory practices and processes globally through the work of students, alumni and a variety of partnerships with individuals and institutions worldwide. It is grounded in a process of critical reflection on experience and combines residential intensive-study periods with a longer period of action research in a work-based placement. (2008, p. 366)

The course turns on the concept of praxis. The basic premise is that experienced practitioners and activists come to IDS for one residential term (ten weeks), on a short leave of absence from work organizations. In this time they explore their own experiences in relation to a broad body of literature and concepts related to participation. Students also devise a PAR plan to be carried out back in their home contexts that would allow them to explore actively these new ideas and methods. At the end of the term, students return to their organizations and carry out their action research projects for one year in the field, coming back together once during that period to share and reflect. After that year, the programme reconvenes at IDS for a final term of reflection and for writing analysis papers which allow MAP students to synthesis theory and experience across the full eighteen months of the programme.

Because of the emphasis on allowing students to remain grounded in their work contexts, MAP diverges from other IDS MA programmes which run for one calendar year, with students residential for most of that period. Thus, development practitioners heavily engaged in their work and careers were often deterred from pursuing an MA at IDS because it required leaves of absence from their jobs. As a result, such MA programmes often draw younger development workers with sometimes only a few years of relevant experience. MAP raised the bar by setting a prerequisite of five years of development work experience as well as requiring a predetermined professional or community context in which the fieldwork portion of the course would be carried out. As such, the programme was able to attract students with extensive development backgrounds. This helped to ensure the dialogical nature of the course, so that learning would be happening in multiple directions, from student to student, from student to teacher, and not simply from teacher to student. Although IDS was somewhat resistant to this structure initially, PPSC team members found a great deal of support and energy within the University of Sussex.

The curriculum for the first term of MAP has two courses, Foundations of Participation, and Ideas in Development. The Ideas in Development is an IDS-wide seminar series, compulsory for all students. It draws upon academics from across different IDS areas of research at IDS; students are exposed to diverse perspectives and current research on many different topics within the development field. Foundations of Participation, on the other hand, is designed for and open only to MAP students. It is basically two courses in one, divided into two distinct streams: (1) Action Research and Reflective Practice; and (2) Power, Participation

and Social Change. The second stream is more traditionally academic. It covers the epistemological and methodological issues at the core of the participatory development paradigm. This part aims to provide a grounding in concepts and theories for understanding and shaping social change and to influence development policy and practice. We introduce theory as a lens to illuminate pathways for action, and explore concepts and processes with case studies developed by the participants, drawing on their own experience.

The course is team taught across the whole of the PPSC team so that each week MAP students engage with a different research Fellow. Fellows share their experiences and current research, looking for resonance with the experiences of the MAP students.

The Action Research/ Reflective Practice stream is less conventional in its structure and is key to what makes MAP an innovative programme, curricularly and pedagogically. Originally, the stream had a strict focus on action research and in helping students conceptualize their fieldwork projects. Over time, however, it has evolved into two distinct components as the reflective practice element of MAP has become more pronounced. In fact, the action research and reflective practice components occur as two different class meetings each week, each stream with its own facilitator who works intensively with the students throughout the whole of the MA programme. The weekly action research meeting functions like a 'homeroom' for MAP students. It is facilitated by the course convener and is the primary space for determining the direction of the course from week to week. Each meeting usually begins with a feedback session, where participants reflect and discuss what they have benefited from and learned in terms of lectures and workshops. They assess the quality and relevance of assigned readings and discuss points they feel need further clarification.

From this, the discussion moves to where the group feels they want the course to take them next. In this respect, the course attempts to adhere to a process of participatory curriculum development. Against a backdrop of developing their PAR projects and of writing a concept paper that lays out the historical background of the context and the proposed methodological structure of their research, MAP students are constantly perceiving gaps in their knowledge and discovering new concepts and methods to explore further. The group cooperatively sets the agenda for their next meeting. They may agree to bring in a speaker with a specific expertise, or to hold a methods bazaar where they share participatory methods they have had experienced, or they may decide to give presentations about their tentative PAR projects, for feedback. Once a plan has been set for the next class meeting, the group will carry out the particular set of activities laid out the previous week. Thus, the content of these class meetings is emergent and co-produced by the cohort. Although a great deal of energy is devoted in this space to what they will do in the course, students also become acutely aware of how things are done. There is an intensive focus on process. In the original concept note for the MAP programme, PPSC members wrote, 'The process is the content'. They see how they work with each other as a measure of how they are progressing as facilitators of multi-stakeholder participatory processes.

While the action research meeting functions loosely to help students to move forward with their academic and research assignments, the reflective practice element of the course is largely delinked from the academic push of the programme. Rather than a focus on doing, here the focus is on being. The aim of the inquiry is not the work but the individual, not the professional, but the personal. There are still assigned readings and assignments, but the thrust is quite different. The aim is for students to become more self-aware and analytical of themselves as development practitioners.

Throughout the stream, students will learn and practice methods of reflective practice, both for personal inquiry within action research processes, and for methods for developing reflexivity within one's ongoing work with organizations, communities and other actors. There will be an emphasis on techniques of creative and reflective writing, journalling and auto-ethnography that students can use to understand and position themselves within their research and practice, and to develop and express their findings. We will explore issues of identity, values, knowledge and belief systems, and the way these influence behaviour and interventions, and shape the researcher's action, interpretations and data analysis (Institute of Development Studies, 2008).

This course element is focused on students' experiences and in helping them to make sense of where they have been as a means to seeing where they want to go. Although all programme aspects feed heavily on participants' professional experiences, reflective practice encourages students to look into their own lives and histories to uncover motivations, biases and tacit assumptions that shape and potentially inhabit their thinking. As a result, much of the work in the class is done through journalling and creating narratives. Deepening reflexivity, the students hold a mirror up to themselves as change agents to consider if making change is sometimes contingent on changing themselves first.

The work in these sessions is often collective as well as individual. Students share their creative work and frequently they engage in active techniques for exploring complex issues. If discussing ideas of embodied power, students may act out situations using 'theatre of the oppressed' methods to help them experience and imagine different ways of relating and working with others. Although bringing MAP students' experiential knowledge into the learning process was always an aim of MAP, the reflective practice stream of the programme has become more prominent over time, starting as a workshop in the later part of the first cohort, but received so enthusiastically it became a stream running throughout the whole programme.

At the close of the first term of MAP, participants submit two written papers: an analytical paper looking at the question they will address in their fieldwork from a theoretical and conceptual perspective, asking them to interrogate their professional experience with their newly acquired academic perspectives as lenses. Students also submit a learning process and plan which lays out the strategy for their year-long PAR project. Around this time, MAP participants choose an IDS Fellow who will supervise their field research and subsequent dissertation. Although students generally choose PPSC Fellows, they can choose any Fellow in IDS willing to support them over the next fifteen months of the programme.

For the next six months, students work independently in their home contexts and organizations. They dialogue periodically with their research supervisors and the course convener and submit quarterly reports about their research progress. In June, they reassemble at IDS for a mid-placement seminar to report on their work and spend time engaged in further desktop research. Each student leads a seminar about their work and receives feedback from fellow students, supervisors and other PPSC researchers. Much of the focus of class meetings outside of student seminars is around the challenges and complexities of facilitating PAR processes. Because of the emergent, collective nature of PAR, MAP students often find themselves diverging from their learning plans and following the energy of the situation in new directions. Much of the discussion is around how students can reconnoitre these new situations.

Students then head back to the field for another six months. This middle portion of the programme is assessed by a reflective essay in which students chronicle the personal experience of their research and inquire into their own transformation. This is submitted upon their return to IDS for the final term, along with a portfolio which can contain diverse artefacts – photographs, maps, poems, etc. – which augment the student's personal written reflective.

The final term of MAP concentrates on synthesis. Students continue to meet weekly with the course convener, developing the content and aims of these meetings in a participatory style as before, meeting at times with their reflective practice facilitator. They take one regular academic course from the IDS catalogue, but the majority of the term is spent in independent study as the participants prepare a 10,000-word dissertation which links their PAR fieldwork with the course's conceptual elements. Given the nature of PAR, the research projects are understood to be 'works-in-progress' that will continue to evolve after students have completed their studies with MAP.

### **Curricular and pedagogical impacts of MAP**

Initially, MAP was slow to have a direct impact on the development of curriculum at IDS. There were two primary reasons for this. First, lecturers rarely sit in another teacher's class. Although the MAP programme was pushing boundaries at IDS with new participatory pedagogies, few outside of the PPSC team had enough contact with the programme to see what was happening in the classroom. Further, the original timing of the MA in Participation course was out of sync with other IDS teaching programmes. Rather than beginning in October, as it does now, the first two iterations of MAP began in the summer when other MA programmes were on break. While this gave MAP students more access to resources like seminar rooms, it meant they had no opportunity to engage with other MAs, partake of seminars and lectures from other research areas, or take part in the social life of IDS. Once MAP was rescheduled to fall in rhythm with the rest of IDS's teaching calendar, it immediately began to attract the attention of other MA students because MAP students were now in class with these students. Recalled former MAP convener Peter Taylor:

I remember last year in the Ideas in Development sessions when each group of students did a short feedback in the Ideas lecture – the participation students at the time did the most innovative and dramatic presentation and it ‘knocked everybody for six’ including the lecturer. And it’s those moments when other students and staff have been exposed to MAP students that they really realize that there is actually something quite unusual and different here which – when people experience it in some way for themselves – it gets them to reflect a little bit on their own teaching. (2008, p. 12)

It was through such in-class interactions that students and lecturers outside of MAP began to see the distinct approach at work. There was particularly strong student interest in the reflective practice dimension of MAP. Sensing this energy, PPSC Fellow Jethro Pettit introduced a stand-alone reflective practice course open to all IDS participants. In its first offering, it became the second-most subscribed-to course in the Institute. Students were hungry for the opportunity to make sense of their own experiences as practitioners and to not just take on new ideas and information. The course quickly created ripples more widely across the Institute. Non-MAP students who had taken the reflective practice offering approached their course conveners about utilizing reflective concepts and methods in final dissertations. Some conveners agreed and were quite pleased with the quality of those dissertations. The following academic year, the convener of the MA in poverty and vulnerability decided to add a reflective practice stream to that programme. He explained his motivations as such, in an interview (2009):

I didn’t know exactly what I was getting. Wasn’t clear. It was only at the end of term that I got some sense. I was understanding it as something that would contribute to the learning experience of students – and it for sure has done that. I’m just amazed at how well received it’s been ... A programme in which the agenda is to be determined through classroom processes, which Sarah [MAP’s reflective practice facilitator] is extremely good at. So there’s a joined-up collective process by which learning needs are prioritized. For example, in the second term they just started with meetings and the agenda emerged from that ... Having this alternative understanding of what the learning experience is about can only do us good. And if, at the same time, it’s directly contributing to each individual student’s learning experience – seems like a winner all around.

The following academic year, the MA in gender and development added sessions in reflective practice. Three of IDS’s eight MA programmes now included an embedded reflective practice stream, as well as the stand-alone reflective practice course open to all students, including D.Phil. students.

Working with MAP and the reflective practice course also encouraged PPSC fellows to develop a new course for all students. The revamped Empowering Society course is a compact mixture of several pedagogical elements field tested in MAP. It is facilitated with a participatory, dialogical pedagogy in which the direction of the class meetings is determined by class members. Moreover, the course offers students the opportunity to engage in CBR. The course turns around a PAR project in the local Brighton community. Students from the module divide into small teams and take on a variety of CBR inquiries around the city. Such

projects have included working with immigrant taxi drivers, revitalizing a local shopkeepers' association and organizing a campaign to stop a large grocery chain from opening on a high street populated with mom-and-pop grocers. Although the time-frame for the projects was quite limited – only ten weeks – students were successful in drawing attention to their issues through newspaper articles and BBC radio. This experience cemented the Empowering Society course as an opportunity for IDS students to engage with local issues and build relationships in the community. Moreover, it was the first course at IDS in which students received academic credit for CBR projects.



## 20

# Cheers!? A project on alcohol and older people in Brighton

*Juliet Millican and Angie Hart*

### **Context**

The project originated from a partnership between Age Concern Brighton, Hove and Portslade; Brighton and Hove Drug and Alcohol Action Team; and Brighton and Hove City Council – Social Care, facilitated by CUPP at the University of Brighton. The concern was an increase in the number of older people using their services who may have problems with alcohol. Partners were aware of a lack of local evidence and also a lack of services specifically for older people with alcohol problems. They commissioned the university to conduct a scoping study, with further funding from the Brighton and Sussex Community Knowledge Exchange (BSCKE). The University of Brighton partners were Professor Marian Barnes and Dr Lizzie Ward of the Social Science and Policy Research Centre, while the civil society partner was Dr Beatrice Gahagan, Age Concern – Brighton, Hove and Portslade.

The project had three main aims:

- To develop the knowledge base within two geographical areas of the city on the use of alcohol by older people, the problems and concerns they have and where they might seek to access services.
- To increase awareness among services providers and others of the role of alcohol in older people's lives and the nature and extent of any problems they have.
- To provide a mechanism for the agencies involved in the steering group to apply the research results and work jointly on developing awareness and thinking on services throughout the life of the project.

### **Organization/structure**

The main partners in this project were supported by a steering group made up of service managers from the Brighton and Hove City Council Adult Social Care, Drug and Alcohol Action Team and Sheltered Housing Team; and colleagues from the Primary Care Trust who work in Health Promotion and the Healthy Cities programme. Quarterly steering group meetings were held with the funder (BSCKE). The core workers on the project also supported a reference group of older volunteers who provided input into the project.

## Activities

The project ran from September 2007 to August 2008. The first phase, September to January, was focused on setting up the project: seeking ethics approval; setting up the 'guidance group' (who provided guidance and support throughout the life of the project); and recruiting and training older researchers – four in total, they participated as part of the research team providing input into research design and carrying out interviews. The second phase involved conducting the research, and gathering and analysing the data. This occurred throughout the life of the project, but most intensely between January and July 2008. The third phase, over the summer of 2008, involved drafting the final report, agreeing on and conducting dissemination activities.

There is a need first and foremost to seek the views of older people on their use of alcohol and what part it plays in their life, both for social and 'medicinal' reasons. Asking people to talk about their use of alcohol can be seen as intrusive. Further, there are both generational and cultural issues to be taken into account in designing any methodology for research on this topic. Researchers need to be aware of how to engage a vulnerable client base in a way that does not make them feel stigmatized. And ethical issues need to be well thought out in order to protect and support the older people who take part.

In designing the methodology for this project we made some deliberate choices informed by what we learned through the scoping study. First, we chose to employ the word *use* rather than *misuse* or *abuse* of alcohol. In designing the methodology what we sought to explore was older people's use of alcohol in the broadest sense. We also sought to explore what older people think about their use of alcohol. Do they see it as a problem? If they do, where and with whom do they (or would they) engage about it, and what services or support would they like to see in the future?

Second, we wanted to work with older people in a participatory way, both in design and execution of the project. To support this, we set up a reference group of older people with whom we developed issues to explore and questions to use in the research. We recruited participants to the reference group through a number of means: through Age Concern, through the current older peoples' networks in Brighton and Hove and through other networks of older people and carers associated with the university. We also recruited and trained two older peer group researchers to be actively involved in the research. This served to develop research skills within older volunteers at Age Concern, and was based on our thought that it might be easier for interviewees to talk with people from their own peer group. These individuals were sought from within the older volunteer base currently working with Age Concern and other agencies involved in the steering group.

Individual interviews were undertaken with twenty participants. In developing the content of those interviews and as part of raising more general awareness of the issue we also ran three focus groups with nineteen people. We advertised the focus groups through the older people's forums and networks within the city and through agencies involved in the steering group. A snowballing technique was planned through the focus groups and other networks to attract older people to

take part in interviews. In addition, we specifically approached some of the agencies on the steering group to assist with appropriately accessing and supporting users of their services to take part in interviews. We aimed to access the views of those at all parts of the spectrum of alcohol use if at all possible, from those who drink socially to those for whom it is an acknowledged problem.

## Outcomes

In the early stages of the project we held four training sessions with the co-researchers and afterwards produced a co-researcher training manual. This covered different aspects of the research process and brought together our combined ideas from discussions we had during the four sessions. The manual acted as a reference guide for the co-researchers during the interview stage and has also been made available to other researchers and projects that plan to use a similar participatory approach.

We produced a report – *Cheers!?* – which has been distributed widely through the steering group members' networks in the areas of health, housing, drug and alcohol services, organizations working with older people, and faculty-wide teaching and research staff. The report and a four-page findings summary have also been made available on the university's website. The report was also forwarded to Age Concern England who requested more copies for a high level meeting with Department of Health (DoH) officials in December. The steering group planned a launch event in May/June 2009, aimed at bringing together commissioners, practitioners, service users and older people who have been involved in the research.

In addition, the university researcher and two of the co-researchers attended the INVOLVE national conference (hosted by the National Institute for Health Research) and presented the project as a poster. This was a good opportunity to publicize the project and also to meet and network with others actively involved in research. This also created opportunity for the co-researchers to reflect on their involvement and connect it to participatory research practice more broadly. They came away with a strong sense of what we had achieved.

Conference papers were accepted for the CUPP conference, and the Health and Social Policy Research Centre's Critical Perspectives on User Involvement conference. These presentations were made jointly, by the community supervisor and university researcher. Planning is under way for the submission of the findings to academic journals. These will also be co-authored by the university supervisor, the community supervisor and the university researcher.

The project has fed into university teaching. The community supervisor and university researcher have delivered three lectures to students in masters' courses in community psychology and social work, and to an undergraduate community psychology course. Steering group members reflected that involvement in the project had positive benefits for the usefulness of the findings in their own areas of work. They valued the model and good practice of involving older people in carrying out the research, and of creating opportunities to develop their relationships with each other.

From the perspective of the Brighton and Hove Drug and Alcohol Action Team (DAAT), the project offered potential for thinking about work with the voluntary sector, and recognition that they would not have been able to complete this type of project on their own. They recognized the benefits of the partnership approach to this project: acknowledging the importance of input from Age Concern, and the academic credibility gained through university involvement. Another benefit for DAAT has been the opportunity to work with other partners, and new work has resulted. DAAT and Social Care are developing work around the Health Trainers programme, making links to housing, and advancing an agenda not normally possible within the DAAT structure.

From the Sheltered Housing perspective, the project offered opportunity for front-line staff to engage with the research and increase awareness of the issues and their impact on older people. They will be able to feed the research into other national and local sheltered housing networks in the statutory and private sector, and so view their partnership role as extending beyond the project.

From the perspective of the Brighton and Hove Primary Care Trust (PCT), the project fit well with other work currently happening locally within the Healthy Cities/Healthy Ageing Partnership, and will be disseminated through the European network of Health Cities. There is potential here for developing links with potential partners in Europe who are working on a Europe-wide strategy on alcohol. The project has highlighted the importance of having research not just focused on medical models, and illustrates the social nature of the issue. It is hoped that the research will have a 'creative impact' on commissioning strategies. The findings will feed into health promotion work in the city.

## Policy changes

While problematic alcohol use among younger people has received a lot of media and government attention, older people's alcohol use is a neglected area of policy and research. In this context, our project has generated interest among practitioners and policymakers. A key aspect of the project was the successful partnership formed between government, civil society and university partners. The final report, *Cheers!?* (2008), was widely disseminated through the partnership to policymakers and practitioners in the areas of health, housing, drug and alcohol services; organizations working with older people; and faculty wide to teaching and research staff. Age Concern England raised the research with senior DoH officials in December 2008.

Beyond the immediate findings, the project made an impact on those involved. It challenged assumptions about what older people are able to achieve. It enabled the co-researchers to develop research skills that will be a future resource for community research. In fact, most are now involved in a new research project on older people's well-being. The project created new ways of bringing different people together to work on the issue and there has been a considerable knowledge exchange between and within those working different sectors – voluntary, statutory and university.

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More, the Cheers! project has resulted in further collaboration between Age Concern Brighton, Hove and Portslade, and the University of Brighton, who are now working together on an 'innovative research project' about older people and well-being. According to Age Concern, 'the research partnership builds on our previous joint work ... to develop the model of undertaking research with multiple stakeholders and enhance Age Concern's pro-active role in building the evidence base of local older people's needs' (2010).

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# The Bouncing Back project: health and social welfare of disadvantaged families in Brighton and Hastings

*Kim Aumann and Angie Hart*

### Context

Resilience is the ability to do well despite adversity and to achieve good outcomes against the odds; however, there are important gaps in our knowledge as to how to build resilience practically. The project leader, Angie Hart, has a longstanding interest in building resilience that spans her research and practice development career in community health issues with roots in her personal history as a mother of three children with complex needs. Angie is also the former Academic Director of the Community–University Partnership Programme at the University of Brighton. This partnership has been led by Angie Hart and Kim Aumann, from the AMAZE Research and Training Centre which provides support to parents with special needs children. It is a partnership that began in 2003 and has continued through various stages over the years.

Resilience therapy (RT) is a complex practice-based intervention. The partnership which works through a ‘communities of practice’ (CoP) model focuses on improving health and well-being by building resilience with disadvantaged children, young people and their families, through RT. They build on what is known from the research on resilience and practitioner experience to assist children, young people and families living with ‘constellated disadvantage’.

The project aim has been to directly influence the day to day work of front-line practitioners and parents so that they experience increased confidence and competence in their work and parenting. With a subtle shift in emphasis as outlined in the next section, the objectives have remained the same (i.e., to weave RT into daily practice in order to inform the further development of RT) over the life of the project. Objectives have included the following: local organizations taking part will commit to RT principles and learning will be firmly embedded in their practice; organizations will have trained RT staff and have developed learning resources and monitoring and evaluation systems that they will continue to access and use in their settings; university staff and students will be directly involved in improving service delivery to disadvantaged children and increasing the skills of newly graduating professionals, not just to researching the effects of interventions; RT will be better embedded in local university and school curricula, as involved practitioners and parents will contribute to the educational programme for future

children's services practitioners to teach at local universities; the third sector and the university will have been involved in the facilitation of learning across other voluntary and statutory organizations, as well as across university school curricula. Involving parents as practitioners in the CoP will help refine RT so that it is readily useable and accessible to others, including parents and young people themselves. It has become clear that the co-production of knowledge between academics, service users and providers is the best means to build the knowledge base and practice of RT. There was a shift towards deconstructing therapeutic assumptions, the evolving approach being a radical and pioneering co-production initiative that works alongside some of the most disadvantaged, fully including them in the approach's development and challenging conventional ways of working. In this sense, 'therapy' can be misleading, and some collaborators prefer to use the term 'resilient practice'.

### **Organization/structure**

The original community of practice in Brighton began with twenty-three members – academics, practitioners from the voluntary and statutory sectors and parents. The CoP included a subgroup involved in planning training and evaluation activities. Subsequent development has resulted in a second CoP in Hastings (eighteen members). Interlinking with the activities and information interfaces of Cupp at the University of Brighton facilitates communication between the dispersed membership and includes a Resilient Therapy Research Group. This research group provides a dissemination channel for seminars to provide a forum for critique and analysis of RT work.

The CoP model brings together people who are eager to improve the health and well-being of children, young people and families experiencing tough times. It is coordinated and facilitated by a small development team of community members and academics remunerated for their time. Their role is to coordinate meetings, assist the CoP to critique and develop RT further, facilitate working together productively and to manage the knowledge created. To support parent involvement, a system is in place for parent participants to claim hourly fees, travel and childcare costs. Parents also have access to additional support from a local parent charity. Practitioner and academic members of the CoPs contribute within their working hours, although some academics have required additional funding. CoP members are keen to explore how the resilience research base and RT can link with their existing work and experiment with different ways of applying RT in their homes and work settings, and they give their time voluntarily.

### **Activities**

Activities include monthly CoP meetings, biannual research seminars, one-to-one mentoring, delivery of a learning programme which included information sessions, workshops and all day training events. The hope is that, over time, participants will accumulate knowledge and become bound by the value they find in

learning together; develop a unique perspective on their topic, as well as a body of common knowledge, practices and approaches (e.g., tools, standards, manuals, materials); develop personal relationships and established ways of interacting with each other.

CoP meetings are arranged by mutually agreement, around four a year, at which other related events can be planned. Events have included an RT master class in Brighton with over 100 members of the public, and several training workshops across Sussex. Events are run interactively, and include a detailed evaluation questionnaire at the end of the session, from which the programme and structure of future events can be developed further.

This approach builds on knowledge exchange and an understanding of the research underpinning resilience to continually facilitate refinement of RT, in theory and in practice, and builds on what's found to be effective.

### Outcomes

Some of the initial outcomes being realised include: creation of an interdisciplinary and interagency group of individuals and organizations willing to collaborate for mutual benefit and the transfer of knowledge between sectors; a functional virtual learning cycle between research, education and practice has been fostered; seminars, workshops and training modules have been prepared for use in workplace settings; practitioners, academics and parents are weaving RT into their daily practice; parents are involved as respected practitioners; RT learning resources such as exercises, games and music are being developed; learning across voluntary and statutory groups and within higher education is being promoted; community members are involved in university education programmes for children's service practitioners, and community members have increased and sustained access to the university's intellectual and material resources.

It is worth reiterating the importance of finding ways to demonstrate the impact of such work at the community level, so that this might translate into a demonstration of improvement in health, well-being, ability to cope, etc. Given how labour intensive and methodologically challenging such a demonstration is, it is vital, alongside any intervention, presentation or formally organized gathering, to collect data, such as, numbers attending, evaluation questionnaires, social networking commentaries and debates. It is also important to remain responsive to feedback. It is increasingly evident that funding follows the ability to show impact and results, which puts added value on building such work around methodologies that facilitate the collection, analysis and dissemination of impact and benefit.

There have also been significant contributions to theoretical understandings of resilience practice through deconstruction and co-construction of ways of doing and understanding this work with young people and their families. Community partners and university-based partners have made significant contributions to conferences, journal articles, books and policy fora. In terms of summing up, Aumann and Hart note that:



## CASE STUDIES

There have been policy changes at the university level in the form of increasing recognition of (through impact assessment), and support for, community–university partnerships. At the local level RT has been accepted into the mental health and child development training programmes. At a national level, the value of a co-construction of RT theory and practice has been accepted. We have built current projects. We have expanded our knowledge base and built our capacity to strong and friendly links with the university that will last far beyond the length of support parents, despite the peculiar mismatch of expertise that exists between us. The absence of bureaucratic and administrative hurdles has enabled growth ... We have explored new ways of thinking about supporting children and families and applied this to our practice, which would not have happened otherwise. Our organisation has changed so that research and evidenced-based work are now routine. And we have been enthused and rejuvenated by the experience. (in Hart, Maddison and Wolff )

## The outreach programme at Sewanee, University of the South, USA

*Felix M. Bivens*

### Context

The Outreach and Community Service programme at the University of the South in Sewanee, Tennessee, was created in 1989. It was part of a wave of many such programmes started by US universities and colleges in the late 1980s and early 1990s, bolstered by Boyer's Scholarship Reconsidered report for the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1990). The University of the South, more commonly referred to as Sewanee, is a small (1,500 students), private liberal-arts college owned by the twenty-six southern dioceses of the Episcopal Church. It is situated in a remote mountainous location called the Cumberland Plateau, long economically depressed due to its isolation and now-shuttered coal-mining industry. The university has frequently been perceived by local communities as an island of wealth among general hardship and the town-gown relationship has been historically strained. The programme was created in an attempt to improve ties to the community. Further, proponents of the programme also saw it as a structural mechanism for encouraging the institution's generally privileged and affluent students to be more engaged with serious real-world problems.

At the outset, the programme was envisioned simply as a mechanism for students to carry out community service projects. There were no ties to the academic dimension of the university and thus no potential for credited service learning. Nor was there any significant CBR being conducted by the university at the time, particularly as the school was teaching intensive rather than research focused and it prided itself on traditional curriculum and pedagogy. This particular institutional environment forced the outreach programme to function at the margins of the university for many years, although those within the programme saw the potential and need for bringing outreach into closer proximity with academic functions. Over a period of approximately fifteen years, however, outreach was able to shift its positionality within the institution. High levels of student demand, consistent programmatic leadership and changing demographics within the faculty and the university management eventually enabled the outreach programme to make inroads with faculty, which subsequently spawned innovative teaching and research collaborations.

## Organization/structure

During its first fifteen years of activity, the outreach programme's fell into two primary categories. First, the primary thrust of the programme's local engagement was housing issues. Substandard housing conditions were visible on and around the campus. The outreach office led renovation projects on deteriorated homes and subsequently switched to building entire houses. Second, the office also coordinated a substantial set of international projects. These consisted of alternative spring break (ASB) trips which enabled Sewanee students to travel to several developing countries to take part in two-week service projects. Although the ASB programmes were not connected to the curriculum in any way, the outreach staff often solicited members of the faculty to help co-facilitate these trips. After having been exposed to outreach methods through these ASB experiences, several faculty members began to explore the possibility of piggybacking new academic courses onto existing outreach trips and using the ASBs as infrastructure for field study projects. Similarly, other faculty were becoming more interested in finding ways to engage with poverty and other issues evident in communities near the university. However, these faculty members had minimal connections in the communities outside of the university and had to turn to the outreach staff in order to gain access to – and credibility with – local groups and individuals. Thus the social capital and networks that outreach staff had developed in its first years of work proved invaluable in fostering the creation of new teaching and research endeavours when Sewanee's faculty were finally in a position to institutionally take such ideas forward.

## Activities

Since 2003, the outreach programme has been pivotal in enabling a series of new courses which include action learning and CBR, as follows:

### *Summer-in-South-Asia programme*

This is a combination of economics courses which focus on the microfinance institutions of the Grameen Bank and the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) and include a field study period with rural communities in Bangladesh. A member of the Sewanee economics faculty had close ties with Grameen Bank founder Muhammad Yunus and thus was an early proponent of this model. Working along with the outreach director to gain access to local community organizations, they attempted to develop a Grameen replication in one of the poorest plateau communities in the late 1990s. Although the project failed to get off the ground, a strong relationship was forged. Several years later, the economics professor wanted to create the university's first service learning course, one that would include fieldwork with microfinance institutions in Bangladesh. The outreach office was able to bring this idea to fruition by supporting the endeavour financially and also by seconding a member of the outreach staff to work with the professor, helping coordinate and co-facilitate the course on the ground in

Bangladesh. The programme has now run for several years consecutively.

*Documentary photography*

In 2005, the outreach programme started a new ASB trip to Haiti. There was strong faculty interest to connect with the new programme to build an academic course around the visit to Haiti. One faculty member was a professor of Fine Arts with a specialization in photography. He had previously accompanied outreach ASB programmes and so had a strong sense of how he could work with the outreach staff to mould an academic course around spring break. He created a new course on documentary photography which would utilize the spring break visit to Haiti as the core fieldwork for the course. Pedagogically, the course was a huge shift for this particular professor. Compared to other photography courses he taught, this one become far more interdisciplinary and focused on issues of ethics and power. Rather than adhering to a paradigm of personal creativity, the course focused on the potential role of *art* to document complex problems in society and to precipitate social change through challenging perceptions and by influencing policy debates.

*Human health in the environment*

This course in the university's biology department acts as a sister course to the documentary photography class; it is also structured around the Haiti ASB programme. The course also incorporates local outreach connections, linking pairs of students with families in local communities. The students make weekly visits to community partners to learn about lifestyles and living conditions in the areas beyond the university campus. The primary objectives of the course include:

- build a relationship with, learn from and assist a community family;
- experience life with residents of our larger community and the issues they face;
- apply concepts learned in class to analyze the systemic societal factors that contribute to these local issues in a final written 'documentary'. (McGrath, 2007, p. 1)

The fieldwork in Haiti also engages students with Haitian families to look at similar issues of how the environment impacts health and lifestyles, creating a broad exposure from which students can make connections from literature and comparisons across two extremely challenging settings. The Haiti ASB programme for March 2010 still went forward even after that year's cataclysmic earthquake.

*Politics of poverty*

This course within the political science department enabled students to research the systemic causes and impacts of poverty in the communities around the university. Twenty-five percent of the course's assessment turned on a CBR project where students worked with a local agency or group to deepen their knowledge about local poverty issues and to make a contribution to the knowledgebase of

the organization by short-term research projects and assessments. The outreach office played a key role in brokering the connections between teams of students and community organizations.

#### *Medical ethics*

This course within the philosophy department draws students from a variety of disciplines, including philosophy, biology, pre-medical and anthropology, as it explores the complexities of end-of-life issues. Students engage with local community members through a series of workshops where issues such as euthanasia, brain death and right-to-die laws are discussed. Information about the views of rural communities is collected and the underlying values systems are explored. Students also assist community participants in filling out living will documents and related video statements in which participants provide guidance to their loved ones of how they would like personal, financial and legal issues to be handled. The professor who created and facilitated this course says that it only began to work well when he entered the community through the connections made by the outreach staff, which helped him to reach organizations and community groups with interests in these particular areas, many of which had little previous knowledge.

#### *Introduction to anthropology*

In a manner similar to the previous two courses, the outreach programme facilitated connections between freshman anthropology students and community members. Students were encouraged to get out into nearby mountain communities and take part in local programmes and activities. Less focused on community problems, the course emphasized the unique cultural landscape of the Cumberland Plateau and helped students to understand and appreciate the historical and geographical influences which shape life in those communities.

#### *Civil rights, music and social change*

This summer programme was spearheaded by outreach staff members wanting to create a peripatetic course which studied the American civil rights movement, with actual travel to many important sites from the history of the movement and encountering people who had taken part in the struggle directly. The three-week course took students all over Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and finally up the Mississippi River to Chicago. Academically, the course looked at the intersection of politics and culture by bringing together a professor of history and a professor of music who travelled with students and took part in place-based learning alongside their students.

#### *Community-engagement minor*

Sewanee students are in the process creating a new academic minor in community engagement. They have gained the support of the outreach staff and faculty in several departments who advised them in the design of the minor's curricula which the students submitted to the Sewanee academic dean in 2010.

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# Social financing, social economy: Chantier de l'Économie Sociale Trust, Montreal

*Jean-Marc Fontan and Denis Bussières*

### Context

For several years, managers of social economy enterprises have been expressing the need to have access to financial products other than traditional grants and loans, while at the same time asking how best to maintain their business capital over the long term. They deemed that new products which kept their social mission in mind would be needed. At the request of the Chantier de l'Économie Sociale Trust, a study on these issues was initiated by the Community–University Research Alliance (CURA) on the social economy. A working group gathered key players in the social economy sector and university researchers interested in the question of financing within this sector. The initiative began with several meetings of social economy researchers and practitioners, with the goal of developing a new funding mechanism that would more effectively support the development of social economy enterprises.

Prior to this, in 2003, a research partnership group for financing the social economy finance (known as the Chantier d'activité partenariale Financement (CAP)) was created within the social economy CURA. The group's goal was to bring together university researchers and social economy practitioners in order to undertake activities such as research, colloquia and seminars on the topic of financing the social economy. The group on social finance was added to the list of thematic research partnership streams found within CURA. Other streams included local and regional development, social and solidarity tourism, housing, social services, international relations and unions. All the thematic research partnership areas bring together practitioners and researchers interested in that particular stream. Each group is co-coordinated by a researcher and a practitioner. Practitioners typically represent a network or federation of organizations.

The CAP Financement undertook several research activities, including research to support the creation of a financial tool that would supply risk capital to social economy enterprises. This research looked at three issues:

- respond to the funding needs of social economy enterprises;
- create an intermediary between public and private investment funds and social economy enterprises;

- convince other financing bodies that this new mechanism would benefit the community and, especially, would not harm any existing organization. (Gruet, forthcoming)

Generally, social economy enterprises that want to expand, penetrate new markets or acquire real estate are faced with financial limitations. Traditional lenders – banks, credit unions, government agencies – are not responsive to the needs of social economy enterprises. Also, the terms offered by these lenders far surpass the ability of the enterprises to repay. Finding a solution to this problem would greatly facilitate the development of social economy enterprises in Quebec.

The social economy CURA was funded via a five-year research grant from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council's CURA programme. The CAP project did not require any special funding. The seminars and working group meetings were funded from the amounts allocated to the different CAPs under the social economy CURA.

### Organization/structure

CAP was coordinated by a researcher and a social economy practitioner. The members of the working group selected the research themes and questions to be addressed in seminars. Funds allocated to activities were jointly determined by group members, both researchers and practitioners. Members decided to organize meetings with key players in the world of social economy financing, in Quebec and elsewhere in Canada, as well as in the United States.

CAP Financement meetings and seminars related to the Chantier de l'Économie Sociale Trust (Fiducie du Chantier de l'économie sociale, hereafter referred to as the Fiducie) project, took place in 2003 and 2004. This was the first time these researchers and practitioners had come together to research the development of the financial sector of the social economy. Individual practitioners and researchers had worked together previously, or had participated in the same colloquia and seminars, but this was the first time they had decided to meet regularly to consider themes linked to financing the social economy.

The method consisted of assembling academic as well as professional expertise to create a research locus from which would emerge research projects or self-directed training opportunities (e.g., colloquia, seminars). The method employed revolved around the needs identified by the practitioners. Based on the identified needs, research was undertaken to assess current knowledge of a specific problem, question or issue, undertaken collaboratively by researchers and practitioners. Participation was ongoing and cut across the different stages of the research. Knowledge mobilization activities were also undertaken collaboratively.

This method, termed the *co-construction of knowledge*, differs greatly from traditional knowledge transfer methods by supporting the involvement of partners in academic and community settings throughout the research. Ultimately, the research project becomes a common project shared by both the researchers and the practitioners. This method greatly facilitates knowledge mobilization

by practitioners because, throughout the process, they can immediately use the results of the research.

Concretely, the work of the CAP Financement began in February 2003, and since its inception has included researchers from UQAM and Concordia University. Organizations interested in social economy financing also participated. These organizations included the Chantier de l'Économie Sociale Trust, the Réseau d'investissement social du Québec Fondation (RISQ), regional community economic development corporations, Filaction, the Caisse d'économie solidaire and the Réseau québécois de crédit communautaire.

To organize its work, CAP Financement established committees on specific sub-themes: financing, social accounting, pension funds. In tandem with the work of the CAP Financement, discussions took place with political participants regarding the establishment of a long-term financial tool for the social economy.

This research partnership model was employed because it allows for an adequate response to practical problems or questions. It enables research focused on the key issues for the practitioners and allows for the integration of the expertise of both university researchers and practitioners. The approach to working together remained the same throughout the project.

## Activities

Researchers and practitioners alike identified resource people to invite to meetings and seminars. Based on relationships with key players, resource people were approached by the members of the working group. The flow of activity was decided jointly by the co-coordinators. The goal was to identify a financing vehicle that would ensure the availability of *patient* capital for social economy enterprises. Patient capital refers to loans made with no repayment for fifteen years. The objectives remained the same over the life of the project.

- 2003–04: meetings were held by the CAP Financement and in other forums to brainstorm about developing a vehicle that could fill the need for long-term financing for social economy enterprises.
- 2003–04: meetings were held with representatives of the federal government to discuss public policy options for supporting the development and financing of social economy enterprises in Canada.
- 2004: a public policy statement, and an allocation of funding, supporting the social economy, was made in the context of the federal government's 2004 budget.
- 2005, April: as a result of funding made available through the federal government's social economy initiative, a Quebec-wide competition was held for the implementation and management of a patient capital fund for the social economy sector.
- 2005, summer: the Chantier de l'Économie Sociale Trust won the competition in Quebec.
- 2006, November: the Chantier de l'Économie Sociale Trust or Fiducie was established.



## Outcomes

The outcomes provided tools to the Chantier in meetings with federal government officials on the implementation of public policies to support the social economy. When the federal government launched the Quebec-wide competition for the establishment and management of a capital fund for social economy enterprises in April 2005, the Chantier, based on the deliberations and reports of the CAP Financement and on meetings with different funding partners from Quebec, was in a position to respond to the federal government's call for proposals.

Today, the Fiducie holds \$CAN52.8 million in funds, from the following sources:

- \$22.8 million from Economic Development Canada, government of Canada (EDC Canada);
- \$12 million from the Fonds de solidarité of the Federation des travailleurs et travailleuses du Québec (FTQ);
- \$8 million from the Fondation of the Confédération des syndicats nationaux (CSN);
- \$10 million from the government of Quebec.

The Fiducie provides 'patient' capital loans with zero payments for fifteen years; these loans range from \$50,000 to \$1.5 million. At 1 December 2009, an amount of \$10.2 million had been loaned to thirty-eight social economy enterprises from different regions of Quebec. These investments of the Fiducie would leverage a total \$65 million in investments and support the creation and preservation of 1,063 jobs.

In terms of theory, the project consolidated existing knowledge on social financing in Quebec. This profile of social financing identified the strengths and weaknesses of existing financial devices; the development of this expertise was crucial in the conception and development of the Fiducie.

On the political front, the possibility of the federal government's commitment to creating a fund dedicated to social economy enterprises was a Canadian first. Prior to this, little had been done at the federal public policy level to recognize the financial needs of the social economy sector. It is important to note that, in Quebec, progress was already under way, as the provincial government had developed a mechanism to support the capital risk funds of the major labour union federations. Support for the Fiducie allowed for the extension of this model.

Establishment of the Fiducie also raised questions and prompted reflection on the governance model to be used. Which governance structure could satisfy the different funders' expectations of transparency without diluting the fundamental role of the l'Économie Sociale in the establishment and development of the Fiducie? The creation of this new financing tool also had an impact on other social economy funders. Each one had to review its own position in the field of financing.

The work of CAP Financement also provided lobbying tools. The establishment of the Fiducie is one example of the success of this approach. In addition,

the various partners of the CAP Financement decided, upon conclusion of work with the CURA on the social economy in December 2009, to create an association that would unite the different organizations that finance Quebec's social economy enterprises. This association would accord a special place to university researchers, who could join as associate members. Research and review projects would now be pursued under the banner of this association, called CAP Finance, le réseau de la finance solidaire et responsable. The CAP Financement's work strengthened links between researchers and practitioners. This strengthening is evidenced by the establishment of the permanent association referred to above.

Outcomes, in terms of preservation of existing jobs and creation of new jobs, are well established. Nevertheless, the creation of the Fiducie remains a recent development, making it difficult to paint a precise picture of the economic and social impact. Politically, the Fiducie supports Quebec's social innovation system, developed around the social economy.

## Aboriginal transitions research project in British Columbia, Canada

*Sarah Cormode*

### Context

The project was initiated by the University of Victoria, Office of Community-Based Research (OCBR), the University of Victoria – Office of Indigenous Affairs (INAF) and Indigenous Adult and Higher Learning Association (IAHLA), who jointly responded to a call for proposals issued by the provincial government for research projects considering various ‘transition’ experiences of students on the journey to post-secondary education. The three partners proposed to jointly conduct comprehensive community-based research to investigate the transition of Aboriginal students from Aboriginal-controlled post-secondary education institutes to public post-secondary education institutes.

Aboriginal students face a number of barriers to attaining a post-secondary education in Canada. As Hunt-Jinnouchi *et al.* (2009) note, ‘the Learning Journey has been fraught with challenges for many Aboriginal students due to the impacts of generations attending residential school, racism, discrimination and the lack of meaningful, relevant cultural curriculum’ (p. 17). Aboriginal-controlled adult learning institutes can play an important role in beginning to redress the disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal educational achievement in particular, as high school graduation is a significant determinant of transition to future study. When Aboriginal students are supported to complete high school, the disparity between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal student graduation rates virtually disappears (Mendelson, 2006). This finding is supported by the current study (Hunt-Jinnouchi *et al.*, 2009) that notes ‘completion, or near completion of previous programmes at Aboriginal-controlled [learning] institutes, is a barometer for success’ (p. 38).

Further, Aboriginal-controlled learning institutes can assist students beyond the attainment of a high school diploma. They offer a culturally supportive environment in which the unique needs of Aboriginal learners are recognized, they help Aboriginal students prepare for the challenges of leaving their home community to pursue further education, and can help students navigate complex university systems and requirements. Despite such a vitally important role, relatively little is known about the role these institutes play in helping students successfully transition to post-secondary education.

Lastly, in the words of one project participant: ‘Our survival as distinct nations will depend on our ability to control our own educational institutions, so that they are used as a tool to strengthen identity and culture, rather than as a tool for assimilation and cultural genocide’ (*ibid.*, p. i). Aboriginal-controlled learning institutes play an important role in strengthening Aboriginal communities and culture.

The project was designed to address this gap in the existing research by asking students and administrators in Aboriginal-controlled learning institutes these basic research questions: for those that have transitioned, what helped you? For those that will transition in the future, what will help you? What role did your Aboriginal-controlled institute play in this transition? The project sought to better understand the barriers and success factors in supporting transition to post-secondary education and propose a number of recommendations to better support student transitions.

### Organization/structure

This project is governed by a steering committee of representatives from the Offices of Community-Based Research and Indigenous Affairs at the University of Victoria, as well as representatives from the Indigenous Adult and Higher Learning Association and the project manager.

A project research team, consisting of senior administrators from the University of Victoria, IAHLA representatives, a project manager, research coordinator, administrative assistant and seven research assistants has overseen the research process itself. Members of this group met throughout the project to discuss key decisions, such as: the development of research agreements; the ethics application process; development of the research design; development of the research questions; orientation of research assistants; and the developing analysis. This group was instrumental to the project and helped to keep the project rooted in community. For example, Sarah Cormode recalled that it was the suggestion of representatives from the IAHLA institutes that the project employ community-based researchers rather than UVic graduate students to complete the data collection. This was an important innovation to the project for a number of reasons – it helped to ensure the project was welcomed into the community, provided for richer data and has helped build capacity in the local communities with whom this project is working. This group also reviewed any draft findings and analysis before the project was finalized.

Lastly, local representatives in each community played an important role in ensuring that cultural and community protocols were respected, helping research assistants connect with the appropriate people and setting up interviews.

### Activities

From the beginning, conversation between project partners was identified as important to the research process. This meant agreeing on key principles, collaboratively

drafting research questions, ensuring that a research agreement was drafted in a language that made sense in community, and working collectively with the community-based researchers to analyse the data.

The project adopted a community-based participatory research framework and employed several methods, including a literature review, interviews and focus groups for data collection. This way of working together was chosen because it is reflective of the values that partners bring to the project and is also an important acknowledgment of cultural values important to project partners. In the words of Pauline Waterfall, 'this process was a respectful cultural interpretation, based on our traditional ways of doing and being – to embrace the individual and bring it back to the collective' (Hunt-Jinnouchi *et al.*, 2009, p. 70).

For example, data was analysed by the community researchers using a thematic analysis, an approach that was considered important because 'it provides for on-going analysis throughout the research process ... [and is] consistent the important concept of a holistic worldview fundamental to First Nations' (*ibid.*, p. v). This process also allows for the continual inclusion of new material as it is identified and can help ensure that the research remains responsive to community needs. Culturally relevant practice was important to the research process in other ways too. For example, of the practice of opening project meetings in prayer, Cormode says this helped to ground the group in the collective, to remind partners that this project was collectively owned by all involved.

## Outcomes

In many regards, the actual outcomes have exceeded partners' initial expectations – support for, and participation in the project was higher than originally anticipated; the quality of data collected is 'richer' than initially imagined; and the ongoing participation of all parties has helped to ensure that project outcomes are relevant and impactful.

This project has validated the role of Aboriginal-controlled learning institutes and has added to a growing body of theory that discusses Aboriginal student success. It has made an important contribution to this dialogue from the perspectives of Aboriginal people themselves, at a time when many public post-secondary institutions are struggling with questions of how to support Aboriginal student success. Fundamentally, this project encourages a shift in the ways that these issues are addressed – from a model that has traditionally seen low Aboriginal completion rates as the result of a 'deficit' on the part of Aboriginal students themselves, to a new understanding that it is post-secondary (and other mainstream) institutions that need to change to support Aboriginal student success. Projects such as these support post-secondary institutions to make these changes.

This project has also made an important contribution to the theory and practice of community-based research, generally. According to Cormode, projects such as these can 'demonstrate a respectful way of doing research in communities and for the benefit of communities' and are an important reminder that there is no 'one size fits all' approach to community-based research.

Participation in this project has had a number of direct impacts on the lives of participants. For the community researchers, participation in the project had an empowering effect. Many of the community researchers continue to be involved in dialogue around this project and several have become involved in other research projects. For Cormode, their participation in this project helped to provide a *foundation* for their continued involvement with this type of work.

Another important impact for participants occurred through the process of documenting their experiences. Participation was, for many students, an emotional process. Several noted how important it was to them to be given an opportunity to discuss the challenges and frustrations they face in returning to school, as well as to celebrate their successes. Expressing and documenting these experiences can be an important part of the healing process for Aboriginal students, many of whom have experienced the damaging effects of the residential schools system and all of whom have experienced the daily effects of colonization.

Equally important was the role that documentation played in the research with staff and administrators at the IAHLA institutes. Participation in this project helped document the importance of cultural practices in the classroom and to provide a forum for staff and administrators to share their experiences, challenges and successes.

Lastly, for public post-secondary institutions, this project has contributed to an increased understanding of 'where their students are coming from' and appropriate supports to ensure their success.

This project has many other impacts, most notably the legacy it leaves behind. While funding will run out after 2012, participation in this project has supported the development of new relationships between IAHLA members and between IAHLA institutes and public post-secondary institutions. For example, Cormode cited a recent open forum event, hosted by the project, as a place where networking and relationship building occurred. The feedback received indicates there is a real need for these types of opportunities and that there is interest among participants in continuing to forge stronger relationships.

Further, the project has potential to leave an important legacy through the pilot projects that it funded in its second year. These projects, focused on testing out several of the key project recommendations, will have an impact beyond their immediate participants and will result in the development of key resources for use by IAHLA institutes and public post-secondary institutions.

Lastly, the cultural and social impact of projects such as these cannot be overstated. These projects help broaden understanding of issues that Aboriginal students face and help to challenge stereotypes and misconceptions about these students. Culturally, this type of project supports the need for culturally appropriate practices at public post-secondary institutions, and there is some evidence to suggest that this message is being heard. Cormode cites the 2010 opening of the First Peoples' House at the University of Victoria as an example of the growing recognition of the role of culture in supporting Aboriginal student success (web. [uvic.ca/fphouse](http://uvic.ca/fphouse)). Another example of the cultural impact of this project can be found in one of the Transformative Indigenous Learning Strategies pilot projects

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partially funded through the project. This pilot gives students the opportunity to work one-on-one with a SENĆOŦEN Elder to learn the SENĆOŦEN language and receive credit towards graduation for their participation, helping to ensure the survival of the SENĆOŦEN language. There is, of course, a very long way to go.

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## Participatory sustainable waste management project in Brazil

*Crystal Tremblay and Sarah Amyot*

### Context

People who live off materials recovered from the waste stream exist in every corner of the world. However, these recyclers are among the most exploited and socially and economically excluded people. Recyclers face enormous stigmatization, discrimination and marginalization. This project was established to focus on participatory waste management as an opportunity to generate income and to improve the quality of life of informal recyclers (called *catadores* in Brazil), while promoting environmental sustainability and inclusive public policies on integrated waste management. The project recognizes the immense potential in the work of recyclers to improve environmental health, assist in the recovery of resources and, through capacity building and participatory processes, to empower recyclers to contribute to public policy, environmental and social change.

Project partners recognized that, when working individually, recyclers were forced to sell their product through middlemen who buy at very low prices and then resell to industry at a much higher rate. However, with support from the project, several groups of recyclers have established themselves as cooperatives. This has enabled them to pool their resources, avoiding middlemen, and to sell directly to industry. The results have been manifold: increasing the amount of recyclable material recovered from the waste stream; increasing wages for organized recyclers; increasing their bargaining power; and contributing to safer working conditions.

The main project objectives were:

- to structure, organize and strengthen cooperatives, associations and community groups involved in the recovery of resources from the solid waste stream, through supporting cooperatives, microcredit and the practice of solidarity economy;
- to support the inclusion of participants in the policymaking process/to affect policy change;
- to increase capacity of partner institutions to provide technical support and training to government and others in a wide range of areas, from business issues relating to recycling cooperatives to participatory methodologies. For example, the project aims to increase the capacity of the Faculty of



Education (FEU) at the University of São Paulo (USP) to implement training programmes for government agents, leaders from the informal recycling sector and the wider community;

- to improve lives, skills, knowledge of recycler participants;
- to reduce waste/support sustainable waste solutions and to improve selective waste collection techniques;
- to increase collaboration among participants, other governmental and non-governmental institutions, other Brazilian cities and, on the international level, with groups on integrated solid waste management;
- to increase the capacity of the members of the Project Management Council to participate in local and international project management leading to new partnerships, and at least two new projects proposed by the Directing Committee on the thematic topics covered by the project.

### **Organization/structure**

The project is governed by a Directing Committee made up of the original project partners (University of Victoria, University of São Paulo, Forum Recicla São Paulo, Rede Mulher de Educação) and a Project Management Council, responsible for operational and deliberative aspects (including yearly planning) of the project. The Project Management Council is made up of the members of the Directing Committee, representatives from six municipal governments and ten recycling cooperatives. This committee meets every three months. The project brings together university, community and government representatives in a participatory governance model. Supportive participatory management of the project is integral to the long-term success of the project and has helped it to be responsive to the needs and interests of the recycler groups.

The project is funded through a grant from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), through the Association of University and Colleges Collaboration (AUCC) as a Tier II project under the University Partnership Collaboration and Development programme (2004–10). The project has also been able to leverage a number of smaller grants including one from the state oil company Petrobrás to finance a number of income generation projects.

### **Activities**

The project is informed by participatory and action-oriented methodologies, employing a mixed-method approach, including interviews, surveys, focus groups, Photovoice, participatory video, community mapping and participatory observation (i.e., researchers participate in the work processes of the recyclers). Capacity building has also been an important element of the research approach. Activities take place with individual recyclers throughout the recycling associations and cooperatives. Specific activities have included participatory video workshops with recyclers; financial management workshops with cooperatives; capacity building for livelihood diversification through pilot projects, such as the collec-

tion of organic (food) waste; and information technology skills workshops to help recyclers become more autonomous in the digital world and to use computers for co-op administration and collective commercialization.

## Outcomes

The project has made material improvements in the lives of the recyclers: by helping them make infrastructure improvements and to buy new equipment for their work facilities; by improving their income levels through collective commercialization of recyclables; and by helping to strengthen their voice; and contributing to a more positive image of recyclers. Many participating recyclers have said that their participation in the project has made their lives a bit easier and increased their incomes. Many also speak about the impact of their participation on them personally, noting that the project has contributed to their empowerment and confidence. The direct impact in these areas can be difficult to measure; however, it is safe to say that the project is contributing to changing attitudes about recyclers and sustainable resource management, and, in turn, this contributes to positive environmental, economic and social impacts. As Jutta Gutberlet notes, 'Organized recycling programmes provide an opportunity to enhance public environmental awareness with the recyclers performing the role of environmental agents.'

There are a number of examples where the project has directly participated in policy discussions or has supported the participation of recyclers in policy discussions by providing valuable evidence-based research. The project is also now widely recognized and has been invited by other municipalities to advise on waste management strategies. In Ribeirão Pires, Santo André and Diadema, the project's Directing Committee and the field team arranged meetings and visits with representatives from the municipal governments. In São Paulo, the focus has been upon building relationships with some of the regional offices (*sub-prefeituras*). Seminars on participatory research methodologies were organized in partnership with municipal governments.

- In 2008 the project further enhanced a close working relationship with the complementary project (Rede ABC Gerando Renda) and the Regional Consortium of Municipalities in the ABC region of São Paulo. This relationship is key to achieve the project purpose when it comes to the implementation of participative management with the design of sustainable and equitable public policies on solid waste management.
- The project is significantly contributing to strengthening the Brazilian partner institutions and project beneficiaries, particularly professors and students from USP, members from Rede Mulher de Educação, Fórum Recicla São Paulo, and recycling cooperatives. Based on a 'learning by doing' approach, the project is helping its beneficiaries to apply organizational and management knowledge. Moreover, Brazilian and Canadian partners are systematically sharing knowledge in this and other areas, such as the organization of recyclers' groups, gender equity awareness and overall research activities related to waste management.

- The project has broad national strategic importance as it fits into the Federal Government's Accelerating Growth Program (Programa de Aceleração do Crescimento), promoted by the current Brazilian president Luis Ignacio Lula da Silva, of which the main objectives are poverty relief and generation of new jobs.
- The project participants are strongly aware of the need to formulate and enforce policies to guarantee their participation and to improve the waste management process.
- The project has partnered with the MOTHERS pilot project (<http://pswm.uvic.ca/en/initiatives/mothers.html>), building bridges between the work done with recyclers in Brazil and the recyclers in Victoria. The MOTHERS project aims to empower and improve the quality of life of *binners* in Victoria by providing four specially designed bicycles and tent-trailers that will facilitate income generation opportunities and reduce the negative stereotypes that binners face.
- The project has resulted in the development of a global waste database – data regarding all aspects of waste, such as generation, storage, recycling. Policy will be stored, analysed and disseminated. To support this outcome, the project has conducted digital inclusion workshops and training sessions to teach the recyclers computer skills.
- The project has resulted in the production and publication of a wide range of academic and popular publications, including the video *Beyond Gramacho*, which documents recyclers' struggles and the benefits of collective commercialization and co-op development.
- The project initiated a working capital fund managed by eight women in the metropolitan region of São Paulo. The fund provides small loans, allowing groups to survive until payment from industry arrives. This eliminates the need to sell to intermediaries and maintains income within the network. The initiative has also contributed to empowerment outcomes for the women involved.
- Speaking more generally about the project outcomes, the project has significantly contributed to the empowerment of the project participants who have taken on larger roles in regional and national organizations.
- The project has contributed to many positive legislative and policy changes by providing information and documentation to the recyclers' movement and by directly participating in policy discussions.
- The project has resulted in improvements in working conditions, wages and infrastructure for the recyclers.
- By working together in management committees and making collective decisions about project priorities and resources, the project has resulted in increased solidarity among participants.
- Lastly, as the global price for recyclables collapsed due to the economic crisis, the support provided by the project has enabled the participating recycling cooperatives to survive where others could not.

The project has also made a number of contributions to theorizing the social and solidarity economies, areas of research that remain relatively undertheorized, while also contributing to the critical discourse on collective commercialization and microcredit. Further, the research has helped to expand the body of theory about community-based research and empowerment concepts. Lastly, researchers involved in the project are interested in contributing to the body of knowledge and practice about sustainable production and consumption.

## Innovative teaching and learning programmes from the CDRC

*Felix M. Bivens*

### Context

The Citizenship Development Research Consortium (CDRC) is a UK Department for the International Development-funded group of university- and NGO-based researchers working together for almost a decade, examining concepts and practices of citizenship in diverse contexts across the globe. Much of the research carried out by this collective falls within the PAR and CBR traditions, involving collaborations between university academics and those active in communities and civil society organizations. The group has produced numerous publications and papers, including a seven-volume set of collected case studies. As the project moves into its final phases, participants are looking to understand how this body of learning and knowledge can be brought effectively into university curricula and into the classroom. In January 2008, the CDRC formed a teaching and learning group which has been experimenting with various ways in which citizenship can be taught within a formal university curricula and a traditional classroom setting.

One of the main lessons learned from the group is that content and process are equally important when talking about issues of citizenship and democracy. Although case studies are important for helping students understand the many different ways in which ideas of citizenship are lived out in different contexts and political environments, ultimately there should also be space to act out and experiment with democratic processes and power relations in the classroom itself.

The following examples lay out briefly how the work of the CDRC is impacting university curricula and pedagogy across a global selection of HEIs – and one NGO.

### **University of Alberta, Canada – democratic citizenship: participation, deliberation and power**

This political science course was structured with a highly participatory pedagogy. The convener used minimal lecturing, devoting most class time to discussion. The majority of the class meetings were led by the students themselves who made generative conceptual presentations, then facilitated a discussion involving participatory. As course convener David Kahane wrote in the course syllabus, ‘This is a genuine seminar, which is to say an equal conversation involving all of us.’

Kahane found his CDRC course a challenging experiment in terms of content and pedagogy. While students were genuinely interested in the case studies pulled from the CDRC work, often they did not have enough contextual knowledge to fully grasp the details of what they were studying. To address this point, Kahane envisions taking on fewer cases in future iterations and spending more time fleshing out the cultural and political environment surrounding the data in the case study. Fortunately, the CDRC has a significant online archive of supplemental materials and grey literature that contributed to the final published pieces that students could access. Pedagogically, Kahane found a fair amount of resistance and trepidation amongst the students. They were not sure what to make of the idea of a democratic classroom and were often unwilling to challenge the traditional power relationships of the classroom. He found that this process improved over the course of the semester as students grew more confident and trusting of the space and freedoms he offered.

### **University of the Western Cape, South Africa – governance, administration and ethics**

This course also drew heavily on CDRC materials. A major difference was that the course was structured as an intensive block session – forty hours of contact time in a single week. As in the previous case, the course convener met resistance in trying to engage students in a more participatory and co-constructed pedagogical approach. Given the course's particularly short time-span, there was little opportunity to build an environment of trust where students were willing to push their limits and try new things. Many of the students in the course were from disadvantaged backgrounds and had difficulty with the academic language of the CDRC case studies and were often frustrated in not seeing the relevance of the studies to their own situations. Occasionally, some participatory exercises were successful in engaging the students in genuine, passionate conversations. In one such exercise, students reconstructed the physical arrangement of the classroom – furniture and people – in order to create a more democratic and cooperative space. However, on the whole, students did not wish to diverge from the course syllabus in a significant way because all courses at UWC are externally examined; the students feared any departure from the 'expected/prescribed content irrespective of class context or decisions' (Williams, 2009, p. 8).

### **University of Toronto, Canada – citizenship, political participation and social change in the global South**

As in the previous examples, this course mainly used CDRC case studies as core literature. While these students – primarily white Canadians – sometimes had difficulty with the contextual details of the Southern-based cases, the course convener found a very practical aid to help students better engage with the research. Because members of the CDRC had formed close personal ties during their years of working together, this instructor contacted her CDRC peers whose research

she had included in the course syllabus and asked them to make short videos of themselves discussing the background, experience and impact of their case's CBR. Being able to see and hear the research of authors on screen made the cases more accessible for students. As in the University of Alberta example, the students were given responsibility for designing and facilitating many of the classroom activities. This resulted in students devising many innovative exercises which helped to deepen and 'experientialize' the theoretical and conceptual dimensions of the course. One such activity assessed the power dynamics of physical meeting spaces on campus. The student facilitator relocated the discussion multiple times during the same class meeting, from the classroom to an outdoor park area, to a student cafeteria, to a campus library and finally to the dean's conference room. Students and the convener reflected on how the environment shaped their ongoing discussion and emotional reactions (von Lieres, 2009).

**PRIA continuing education, India – online certificate in international perspectives on citizenship, democracy and accountability (MA in participatory development)**

Not all members of the CRDC are university researchers. The Indian NGO in Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA) has been one of the core institutional members of the group. PRIA has been an influential pioneer in PAR and CBR in the global South. Although PRIA frequently engages with academics and universities from across the globe, its main focus is in collaborating with community groups and civil society organizations. They aim to help organizations to develop capacity to carry out participatory research and assessments and to move generally into methods of participatory development. As PRIA grew, it developed its continuing education centre for more intensively sharing its learning and innovations in participatory methods. Most of this training had been done on-site at the PRIA campus or in regional workshops. However, as part of the CDRC Teaching and Learning initiative, PRIA set out to develop new distance education offerings through which they could involve students from all over the world. PCE has already created and facilitated a three-month online postgraduate certificate in international perspectives on citizenship, democracy and accountability. Here again the core of the course materials was drawn from the CDRC body of work. The targeted students were civil society practitioners, government staff, policy-makers and academics. In October 2008, the first iteration of the course launched with nineteen students. PRIA has designed a two-year MA in participatory development which includes a year of intensive coursework and a year of PAR fieldwork.

# **PART III**

## Concluding remarks





## Agenda for the future

*Budd L. Hall, Edward T. Jackson, Rajesh Tandon, Jean-Marc Fontan, Nirmala Lall*

As partners in the study that led to the creation of this book, we are encouraged by what we see as increased visibility for a *knowledge democracy* movement. In this volume, we have documented the emergence of new practices and new theory that highlight the relationship of knowledge and its construction to issues of local and global social justice. Community–university research partnerships can be critically important locations of transformative energy in the larger effort to understand and use knowledge and its construction and co-construction in ways that are authentically linked to the struggles of everyday people for a better world.

The global neo-liberal economic agenda that has produced a kind of market utopia has been supported by a canon of western, largely male, elite knowledge systems and practices. As the failure of the global market to close the gaps between the rich and poor or provide a platform for more democratic citizen engagement becomes clearer every day, we are thinking of ways to *decolonize knowledge*, to rupture and allow new light into the liberal knowledge canon and to give visibility and respect to the knowledge of those historically excluded. We recognize that, as knowledge is of critical importance to the continuation of dominant relations of power, challenging our understandings of the role of knowledge and its uses will be an arena of contestation. We are ready. Indeed, we are already deeply engaged in that contest. And we know that hundreds of thousands of people in literally every community of the globe have, as African-American civil rights leaders once said, their *eyes on the prize*. The prize, of course, is a more just, sustainable, joyful and loving world. Based what we have learned from on our work together in this project, we offer our thoughts on an agenda for the future.

### **Emergence of a new architecture of knowledge: beyond experiments and pilot projects**

Our study provides evidence that, at a global level, we are moving from the tradition of engaged scholarship based largely on the work of a number of committed individual scholars and their personal connections to community to a new, institutional approach. This new phase is characterized by the creation of many centres, some wholly located in communities themselves, and new structures to enable the generation, facilitation and sustainability of community university research

partnerships. And from a theoretical perspective, we see evidence of a growing critical sophistication of research methods as co-construction of knowledge has taken its place in the panoply of academic work. Continuing to give visibility to and build this new architecture of knowledge is critically important. The several case studies in our book coming out of the PRIA work in India show a degree of sophistication both in practice and in theory of how a civil society-based research and capacity-building organization has moved not only into the realm of the academic but beyond. The new architecture of knowledge that we speak of is here.

In the present formulation, institutions of higher education are expected to serve three missions: teaching, research and service. The mission of 'service' is seen independent of teaching (or education) and research (or knowledge). In operational terms, primacy is attached to teaching and research functions of HEIs; 'service' is undertaken afterwards. Many connotations of 'service' tend to assume that knowledge and expertise available to HEIs will be transferred to communities and thus help them to address their problems. No assumption is made that community engagement may, sometimes, actually contribute to improvements in HEIs, especially to their teaching and research functions. In the emerging new architecture of knowledge, we approach engagement in ways that accept the multiple sites and epistemologies of knowledge, as well as the reciprocity and mutuality in learning and education through engagement. In this sense, this book calls upon policymakers and leaders of HEIs around the world to *rethink* social responsibilities of higher education in being a part of the societal exploration for moving towards a more just, equitable and sustainable planet over the next decades.

### **The power of social media is only beginning to be understood**

Most contemporary social movements employ social media extensively to organize their members and advocate the change they want to realize. This is true locally, and it is true globally. The powerful combination of smart phones and laptops with Facebook, YouTube, LinkedIn, Twitter and other local social media powered the organizing on the streets of the Arab Spring and Occupy movement in 2011. At the same time, though, opponents of democracy and the public interest have also learned to deploy social media in order to retain power and justify their actions. As one journalist has remarked, 'Every dictator needs their own Facebook page'. So, the situation is now more complicated, but it is real and these tools are even more important to the struggle for knowledge democracy. Community–university research partnerships can experiment with new ways of using social media for the greater good, while countering the forces of violence and oppression. This will not be easy, but it is necessary.

### **A new appreciation of place**

The University of Victoria, where one of the editors is based, uses the following phrase in the context of engaged scholarship: 'Locally relevant and internationally

significant'. Our study demonstrates the benefits of HEIs' listening to those who have been excluded from the naming of the world in the very places where we are all located. The case study from the Philippines in our collection shows us how to do this work. To those leaders in higher education who are drawn to the idea of international comparisons, we say that excellence at a world level also comes from making a difference in the lives of those living in our communities. In fact, we would go further and say that failure to make a difference in the lives of those persons in the regions and communities of our HEIs constitutes dramatically negative performance, no matter how high up in the global league tables our universities might be placed. Our study shows that whether dealing with issues of climate adaptation, supporting community business, creating more affordable housing and local jobs, or ensuring better-quality local food, research partnerships between communities and the HEIs are working. Through collaborative research practices, universities are becoming ever more active partners with local governments, non-profits, businesses and service providers – all enabling significantly stronger regional development. A focus on place, therefore, provides us with a critically important lens for both analysis and action.

### **Creating a more dynamic and relevant and curriculum in higher education**

Felix Bevins's work in this book documents how the establishment of social justice research partnerships at universities in the United States and Canada has had a positive impact on the curriculum within these institutions. In India, the social work schools have turned to an NGO to provide access for their students to grass-roots co-creation of knowledge experiences. Clearly, a knowledge democracy movement must have at its heart two groups of persons: community activists and leaders (including those from the social movements), and students. Students in the universities that we have studied have been eager to make a difference in the world. In an environment filled with too much disappointment and fear, students, like all of us, are attracted to hope. The examples from the science shops in Europe, of students working on community environmental projects, and the work with older persons in Brighton, England, illustrate the benefits on making community-based research projects part of students' normal academic life. What is more, each of us with a teaching position in a university holds the power to create these kinds of decolonizing and engaged learning conditions within our courses. Indeed, in terms of changing the curriculum, we have much more power than we sometimes realize.

### **Increased recognition of regional, sectoral and national research alliances and networks**

Our study and its rich variety of case studies provide compelling evidence of the critical value of the many new kinds of local, regional, national and global networks that are emerging. The Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada created a funding programme in 1999 – the Community University

Research Alliance – which funded activists and scholars to work together on the co-creation of knowledge. The idea of research partnerships between civil society organizations can be seen in almost all of our studies. For example, the Living Knowledge Network in Europe has catalyzed effective policy influence at both local and European levels. NGO environmental networks in the Philippines demonstrate their impact, as well. And the various continental and international networks that have emerged such as the Global Alliance for Community Engaged Research, the Global University Network for Innovation, the Talloires Network, PASCAL International Observatory and more all have shown how broader and thicker linkages can accelerate the pace of change that we are seeking. Local social movements, government, community environmental, social, cultural and economic interests co-constructing knowledge, ensemble can produce tangible and important results when the common goal is making a difference in the lives of people where they live and work.

### **Partnerships are for ever!**

The evidence which our study demonstrates is that the benefits to community, to theory, to student experiences and both local and global impact accrue in direct proportion to the quality, longevity and trust developed between academic and community partners. We are not looking in the future simply for more partnership projects; instead, we are looking for a whole new architecture of knowledge – a knowledge democracy movement that recognizes new ecologies of knowledge. The sites of effort may include the Canadian social economy sector, indigenous higher education institutions, cooperatives in Bolivia, NGOs in Senegal or networks of informal sector recyclers in Brazil and Canada. What is needed for the future is a multiplicity of ongoing partnerships and alliances that the community can count on for years – in fact, for decades. In turn, such long-term collaborations offer the greatest power to transform our institutions of higher education.

### **Knowledge cultures are different in communities and the academy**

Our study and its cases also serve to underscore what may be obvious, but bears re-stating. The ‘knowledge cultures’ in community settings, community agencies, local governments and so forth are different. We need to learn from each other. Community partners need to know that university partners have a duty to share our work in the world of peer-reviewed spaces as well as with them. As academics, we need to know that the real needs of people struggling in our communities are urgent and that solution-oriented knowledge is the gold standard for community impact. Both scholars and community leaders have to learn, in an emerging world of knowledge democracy and co-creation, that excellence can be increasingly understood within the context of mutual respect.

## **Increasing recognition of partnership research as a measure of academic excellence**

For the pioneers who have been engaged from the university side for many years in participatory and community-based research, we have done this work because we feel that it can make a difference in our communities and the world. We have chosen to work in this way and in many cases have chosen the university as a base for such work. Some of us have had recognition from our universities for this work. Many of us have not. In fact, for many of us who are more senior scholars at this stage of our careers, it is only very recently that any positive attention at all has come to this kind of work. But in the interest of building a knowledge democracy movement, it is worthwhile challenging our various institutions to begin recognizing excellence in engaged scholarship as much as in other ways of doing scholarly work. Increasing efforts are under way within individual academic departments around the world, within faculties and, in some cases, across full university systems to broaden concepts of excellence in academic scholarly performance for the purposes of obtaining tenure and promotion and in the interest of annual merit reviews. While still uneven and with substantial variability among disciplines, professional schools, faculties and universities, partnership research has served to stimulate a broader conception of excellence in scholarship that shows every sign of becoming a global trend.

## **The policy change process will be long and must be deep and permanent**

Instituting pro-community policies across the entire system of a single university is a long process that must be deep and permanent. This will require focus, policy models and tools, and leadership. In fact, it will take multigenerational leadership. Moreover, the external resources and incentive structures must be changed, as well. Political parties and policymakers must be persuaded to tie public funding of universities to strong performance through research and teaching of meaningful value to the communities in which those institutions are based. Governing boards must see that it is in their interest to recruit and support chief executives of universities who are committed to ensuring and improving such performance. In short, what is required is a thoroughgoing process of policy change inside and outside individual universities and across entire national or sub-national higher education sectors. Clearly, the coalition that will drive and achieve this ambitious agenda must be creative, resilient and comprise diverse stakeholders. Planning and building such coalitions cannot start too soon.

## **A coming together of the streams of knowledge democracy**

The field of community–university research and engagement partnerships represents just one of the elements in an emerging knowledge democracy movement. A fully-fledged agenda for the future must be built at the local, national, continental and global levels in order to achieve the radical transformative potential that is

needed. This will mean that voices from the open access knowledge movement will need to be present. It will mean that those like as Boaventura de Sousa Santos and colleagues from Brazil working on the ideas of a 'University of Social Movements' should be present. So too should networks from such diverse fields as Green Map International, which links activist community mappers around the world working for radically new relations with the earth, as should the DESIS (Design for Social Innovation towards Sustainability) network which is based in design schools and universities. It means forging links with networks of indigenous village-based HEIs, like the Mpambo Afrikan Multiversity or the shack-dwellers of South Africa's University of Abahlali base Mjondolo, and many others working towards an *epistemology of the South*. It means understanding and building links with the knowledge creation and learning potential of the Arab Spring and its antecedents, and the Occupy movement in the North.

### **Will the coming multipolar world thwart or promote knowledge partnerships?**

The longer-term prospects of the world economy pose their own set of challenges to civil society and to knowledge partnerships. As the new economic powers of China, India, Brazil and other nations continue their ascendance, and as the West struggles to regain its economic equilibrium, universities and communities across the world will face new threats and new opportunities in their work together. As the world's new economic superpower, will China move globally to recolonize knowledge within its ancient, hierarchical and Confucian traditions, or will it allow or even enable countries and local cultures in its sphere of influence to produce, and sustain, their own knowledges? To what extent will the vibrant civil society sectors in India and Brazil be able to sustain and even expand political freedoms not only in their home countries but in other nations, as well? How will North America and Europe cope with austerity and high unemployment, especially among young people, as these regions seek to reinvent their economic foundations? Clearly, community–university research partnerships can play an important role in generating on-the-ground analysis of and solutions for these new conditions. However, they may also face new obstacles and complexities and will need to stay together and pool their resources even more effectively as they navigate forward.

### **Not all knowledge is power, but in *knowledge democracy* lies hope**

We recognize that not all knowledge is power. The wicked and the greedy of the world are well educated and know how to use technical and strategic knowledge to monitor the aspirations of the majority of people in their communities and in the world. But we also know that we are living in a restless, impatient, changing and an exciting time. We know that hope for new transformative energies in our world originate in many places. We celebrate the possibilities. But we also believe that we can build another world by working together as community activists and

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workers, as social movement supporters, as local government people who believe in better service to our people, as small and medium business owners and workers who value community service, and as scholars, researchers, staff, students and teachers in HEIs. Effective knowledge partnerships build better communities. A strong knowledge democracy movement can build a better world.



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