

International Perspectives on Social Policy,
Administration, and Practice

Jamie P. Halsall
Michael Snowden *Editors*

The Pedagogy of the Social Sciences Curriculum

 Springer

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Foreword

If this volume did no more than bring into view a wide range of ideas appropriate for the social science curriculum in the twenty-first century, it would have been worthwhile. And it most assuredly does this. Heutagogy (self-directed learning), learning *in* communities, learning oriented *towards* communities, solution-focused teaching, grappling with exclusion and marginalisation and the complex notion of engagement: all these and many other ideas are examined and practical examples are cited. But this volume does much more than this. In particular, as intimated by its title, it shows how *both* pedagogy and curriculum are important matters, that neither is reducible to the other and, most important of all, neither can be seriously considered without bringing the other dimension into play.

The curriculum cannot satisfactorily be pursued unless questions arise about the student and her or his learning: just *how* is it to be accomplished? And pedagogical matters cannot be adequately examined without raising matters of the curriculum: it is all very well wanting to promote student independence and even to have a broader sense of students as persons making their way in the wider society but such aims cannot be brought off in the abstract. Questions about the matters with which the student is expected to grapple—the curriculum—have also to be addressed. That this volume adroitly holds all of these dimensions together marks it out as having a distinctive and valuable contribution to the development of academic practice.

Ronald Barnett
University College London Institute of Education
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Acknowledgements

Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world.

Nelson Mandela

Both of us as editors of this book have worked in the higher education sector for a number of years. The processes of teaching and learning are at the heart of what we do in our daily lives. This edited volume derives from two workshops funded by the Higher Education Academy (HEA). ‘The Pedagogy of Community Development and Engagement’ workshops took place in February 2014 and March 2014.

There are a number of people we wish to thank. Firstly, thanks go to the HEA for helping to organise the workshops. Secondly to Jason Powell who gave us confidence and encouraged us to publish this volume. Thirdly, to Christina Tuballes and Janice Stern at Springer Publishing, who steered us in the right direction. Fourthly, to Mrs Hazel Gee and Ms Stefanie El Madawi, who agreed to proofread our work, and to members of staff at the University of Huddersfield, namely Christopher Gifford, Pete Woodcock and Andrew Mycock. Finally, as always, we would like to express our particular gratitude to our families for their support and encouragement throughout this piece of work.

Huddersfield, UK

Jamie P. Halsall
Michael Snowden

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Chapter 1

Where We Are Now

Jamie P. Halsall and Michael Snowden

The Western university is at an end. But a new university can arise. We have to put aside some familiar and even much-cherished notions of the university so that we can move on and develop a new idea of the university. There should be no difficulty about this process. But, of course, there will be. Familiar notions with which we have cloaked ourselves in living out the university are not easily abandoned. The future that beckons, however, is not just a new order. It is an order with new possibilities which may even turn out to do justice of a kind to traditional values (Barnett 2000, p. 11).

Higher education is a complex phenomenon that has caused much political discourse in contemporary society. Universities today are regulated structures that are scrutinised by the general public, institutions and politicians. The higher education sector is currently recognised as ‘global business’ (Murphy 2015). For example in the United Kingdom universities are seen as a crucial element of the ‘modern knowledge economy’ (Universities UK 2015, p. 2). Since the introduction of the research exercise quality of research has become an obsession. Moreover, it could be said that there has been an ignorance of the quality of teaching and learning in the higher education sector. This notion has caused a ‘paradox of higher education’. Ronald Barnett (2000, p. 3) a respected scholar on the theory and conceptualisation of higher education has argued that:

Higher education is facing many difficulties in the modern world. Some even believe that these difficulties constitute crisis (Scott, 1984; Reeves, 1988). I agree, but there is a particular crisis facing higher education which has been largely overlooked. It is a crisis to do with

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the way in which we understand higher education, the fundamental principles on which the idea of higher education has traditionally stood, and the way in which those are being undermined.

Universities, as global businesses, are competing for students (Lendel et al. 2009; Williams 2003). Biggs (2003, p. 1) has noted that ‘Undergraduate courses, increasingly financed by student fees tend to follow the market with international students, a particular rich source of funds’. It is common practise when a student intends to study at a university to check the place out. Students on the whole will examine the pros and cons of going to a particular university. As well universities are seen as brands in terms of reputation. Students now live in an age in which they can obtain vital statistics of universities, for example the annual National Student Survey (NSS) and the Research Excellence Framework (REF). By using this data many national newspapers (The Times, The Daily Telegraph, and The Guardian) have used these statistics to create their own ratings. Furthermore, there is now even a website ‘Rate Your Lecturer’ that is dedicated to students rating their university tutors.

Hence, at institutional level there has been a realisation that to attract the best students, universities must improve their teaching and learning. Recent research undertaken by The Higher Education Policy Institute (HEPI) and Higher Education Academy (HEA) has revealed that students value their lecturer more if they have a formal teaching qualification than being an active researcher. As the report notes:

For the first time this year, students were asked to rank in importance three key characteristics of teaching staff: whether they have received training in how to teach; whether they are active researchers; and their industry or professional expertise. The results show that the priority for most students is either training in how to teach or industry/professional expertise. Only 17 % feel that staff being active researchers is the most important characteristic (Buckley et al. 2015, p. 6).

The aim of the introductory chapter is to set the scene of this volume. This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part of this chapter critically explores the changing discipline of social sciences, within the university sector. Then the chapter moves on to discuss the teaching and learning strategies in higher education. The final section gives an overview on the chapters that will follow. Throughout this volume the case studies that are discussed are from a United Kingdom (UK) perspective.

The Social Science Discipline

The social science discipline is a prominent subject in the higher education sector. Social sciences appeal to students because the discipline allows the student to learn about everyday life in communities, families and in the work place. The discipline demonstrates how governments and institutions impact on society. Coupled with this Tonn (2003, p. 547) has noted that ‘The social world is changing rapidly, especially through the engine of globalisation. A myriad of social problems are robbing

people of their livelihoods, dignity, quality of life, and their lives'. Social science in its broadest term has been defined as:

The science of all that relates to the social condition, the relations and the institutions which are involved in man's existence and his well-being as a member of an organized community. It concerns itself more specifically with questions relating to the public health, education, labor, punishment of crime, reforming criminals, pauperism and the like. It thus deals with the effect of existing social forces and their result on the general well-being of the community, without directly discussing or expounding the theories or examining the problems of sociology, of which it may be considered a branch (Century Dictionary in Wilson 1940, p. 158).

Social scientists, such as, Karl Marx, Emile Durkheim, Michel Foucault, David Harvey, Doureen Massey, Manuel Castells, Anthony Giddens and Jürgen Habermas have had a profound influence on the subject's domain. More importantly their interests come from different discipline areas, for example, community studies, sociology, criminology, psychology, politics, and human geography and thus are interchangeable. Students who study criminology will undertake reading on human geography academics. There has been a recent trend of social science subjects becoming interdisciplinary. This interdisciplinary approach in the social sciences is whereby the subjects can be studied and researched along with other academic subjects, for instance, English, law, media studies, history and philosophy. Bainbridge (2003) has summarised the conceptual understanding of the social science discipline. Hence, Bainbridge (2003, p. 634) suggests that when analysing the social sciences there are 'two alternative conceptions of the social sciences' they are:

1. The first perspective classifies such fields as economics, political science, anthropology and sociology among the hard sciences, alongside biology, physics, chemistry and other disciplines sometimes called either life sciences or natural sciences. It assumes that natural regularities exist at the group and societal level, and that rigorous methodologies have been developed that are capable of identifying these regularities. To the extent that the social laws of nature have been identified and good data is available about the current state of the world, it should be possible to predict the near future with some degree of accuracy. If definite natural laws of large-scale social behaviour do not in fact exist, then this may be a vain and delusion-ridden effort.
2. The second perspective conceptualizes the social sciences as more-or-less radical reform movements that have cloaked themselves in methodological rigour in order to exploit the pro-science bias of the very society they seek to change. From this viewpoint, social sciences may be snared in a tragic contradiction between their aims and their means, as methodological rigour and value commitments pull them in opposite directions. Predictions will be normative, rather than descriptive, advocating the future that ought to exist rather than deducing the one that necessarily will exist (Bainbridge 2003, p. 634).

Interestingly this above examination by Bainbridge (2003, p. 634) comes to the conclusion that the present nature of 'the social sciences lies somewhere between these extremes'. More recently public and academic debate has focused on questioning the purpose of students studying social sciences at university. This has been caused by society experiencing the effects of 'Austerity'. Politicians and scholars have argued that we now live in an age of Austerity (O'Hara 2014). The age of Austerity process took off due to the global financial crisis of 2008. Castells et al. (2014, p. 1) have noted that since the global financial crisis 'we are entering a world

with very different social and economic conditions from those that characterised the rise of global, informational capitalism in the preceding three decades.’ In this period of financial crisis came an interesting debate within the higher education system. The then Labour government commissioned an independent review into the future of higher education funding and student finance in the UK. The Browne Review, which started its work in November 2009 and published its findings in October 2010, recommended fundamental reforms in the higher sector in terms of university funding, fees and student repayments of loans. Overall the Browne Review argued that the current higher education sector was unsustainable and needed radical reform. In the forward of the independent report (2010, p. 3) titled ‘Securing a Sustainable Future for Higher Education’ Lord Browne notes:

In formulating our recommendations we had to balance the level of participation, the quality of teaching and the sustainability of funding; changing one component has an impact on the others. What we recommend is a radical departure from the existing way in which HEIs are financed. Rather than the Government providing a block grant for teaching to HEIs, their finance now follows the student who has chosen and been admitted to study. Choice is in the hands of the student. HEIs can charge different and higher fees provided that they can show improvements in the student experience and demonstrate progress in providing fair access and, of course, students are prepared to entertain such charges.

The recommendations from the Browne Review have had a profound effect on the subject areas of the social sciences. At the time, the coalition government, who introduced a series of austerity measures, made some suggestions on changes on how subject areas should be funded. The Annual Grant Letter (2010, p. 6) to the chairman of the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE), Tim Melville-Ross CBE was co-written by Vince Cable (Secretary of State for Business, Innovation and Skills, 2010–2015) and David Willetts (Minister of state for Universities and Science, 2010–2014) noted:

During 2011–12 we would like you to consider what subjects, including arts, humanities and social sciences subjects, should in future be within scope. There may continue to be a need to support the additional costs of specialist provision including that delivered in small and specialist institutions, and to recognise that efficient part time provision may nevertheless have some additional costs.

From this point forward social science, as a discipline in the higher education sector has seen a significant drop in the amount of money HEFCE gives to universities. For example in 2011 the then University Students’ Union president elect, Chris Dingle of Kingston University, London, said ‘The cuts from the government are the real issue here, rather than the university cuts. We have also received cuts in the HEFCE capital grant as well as cuts to Arts and Social Sciences which hit us particularly hard’ (River Reporter 2011). The explanation from the government of these changes was that the government wanted to prioritise funding in key subject areas, such as, STEM subjects—science, technology, engineering and mathematics (Thomas 2014). Having discussed the current context of the social science discipline, the chapter now moves on to discuss the teaching and learning aspects of higher education.

Higher education makes a fundamentally important difference—to individuals, through improved life chances and opportunities; to the economy, through innovation and skills; and to society, increasing our knowledge, through research discoveries and increasing social mobility and cohesion (Universities UK 2014, p. 2).

The above quote by Universities UK sums up the current ethos of the university sector. Universities have become more competitive than ever before at a local, regional, nation and international level.

Teaching and Learning in Higher Education

Global attention of the quality of teaching has led to a number of initiatives to improve the learning experience, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2009) reports on several of these initiatives as part of a study involving 29 institutions across 20 countries. UK universities typically use the National Student Satisfaction survey and other institution-based measures of the quality of the teaching and learning experience.

Higher education institutions face ever-increasing challenges regarding their value to industry and society (Department of Business, Innovation and Skills, 2011). Ensuring that undergraduate provision is relevant and congruent with societal expectations is high on the government agenda. The past 30 years of higher education has seen dramatic changes in the pedagogical basis of university education. The growth in vocational programmes, and academic programmes, the developments in technology and communications, and work-based patterns, the notion of lifelong learning and widening access is characterised by a raft of ever-changing pedagogic strategies to support learning.

However, it is clear that our society will need different kinds of student experiences to enable its graduates to contribute to the future works world of the future. Ramsden (2008, p. 11) asserts that:

...universities must extend their students, and jointly they should be prepared to contemplate remodelling their curricula, perhaps radically, and build a more flexible workforce. Government and agencies should be ready to introduce funding models and quality systems that will realise a vision of higher education as an engaged partnership between students and providers.

Emphasising that:

We need to encourage universities and colleges to explore new models of curriculum. Government and funding bodies should incentivise and support the radical realignment of undergraduate curricula: we require curricula that are trans disciplinary, that extend students to their limits, that develops skills of inquiry and research, and that are imbued with international perspectives...Only these qualities will ensure graduates who are educated to the standard which the future economy and well-being of our nation demands. That standard must enable them to embrace complexity, climate change, different forms of citizenship, and different ways of understanding individuality and cooperation. A student experience that is fit for the future will develop their qualities of flexibility and confidence and their sense of obligation to the wider community (Ramsden 2008, p.11).

Teaching in a university is increasingly associated with professionalism, as seen by the growth in the adoption of the United Kingdom Professional standards Framework for teaching in higher education. This is now seen in many universities as the benchmark qualification, to date there are over 65,000 higher education professionals who have achieved fellow status (HEA 2015). Some universities are developing strategies to ensure that all academic staff hold at least the ‘Fellow’ standard. In 2014 the University of Huddersfield became the first UK university to achieve fellow status of its entire academic staff. In a recent interview in *Times Higher*, the former conservative minister for Universities and Science, David Willets, described teaching as ‘by far the weakest aspect of English higher education’ (Gill 2015). It is this view that may be the drive for change.

The new Minister for Universities and Science in the Department of Business, Innovation and Skills, Jo Johnson announced that there would be a new Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) for monitoring the quality of teaching in English universities, and that this would replace the Quality Assurance Agency inspection cycle. During his speech he made it clear that he had made it his personal priority to introduce the TEF, in order to re-balance university priorities; moving away from research and focussing upon teaching, enhancing the student experience, driving up teaching quality, and rewarding individuals, departments and institutions for high quality teaching. Whilst the detail of this policy initiative is somewhat scanty we expect a Green Paper to be issued in the autumn with implementation and subsequent legislation before the end of this parliament.

It is clear that teaching, and the student experience remains high on the political agenda, the Conservative government of 2015 progressed the vision of the previous coalition that placed the student at the heart of the learning process. (Department of Business Industry and Skills 2011) and clearly articulated in the Conservative Party manifesto of 2015:

We will ensure that universities deliver the best possible value for money to students: we will introduce a framework to recognise universities offering the highest teaching quality; encourage universities to offer more two-year courses; and require more data to be openly available to potential students so that they can make decisions informed by the career paths of past graduates. (Conservative Party 2015, p. 35)

Higher education has an engaged minister with clear priorities, who is committed to drive a major policy change, perhaps the most radical policy change affecting higher education in recent years. It is clear that the traditional agenda in higher education is changing dramatically; higher educational professionals need to respond proactively to this change, reflect upon current pedagogic practise and consider experimenting with creative models of teaching and learning.

Structure of the Volume

This edited volume proposes that an effective way in which to promote successful curricula in response to the changing landscape is to adopt and engage with Barnett’s (1994, 2004, 2012) notion of a tri partite model, incorporating, societal, institutional

and student's needs. In order to achieve this, a holistic approach to curricula delivery must be adopted.

This volume, presents the argument that a self-determined learning approach that involves a shift in thinking towards Heutagogy will enable the learner to develop space, promoting the learner as an 'architect' of learning. Key concepts explored include the concept of habitus, where the student is seen as an arranger and exploiter of space, the association with the notion of student as an architect of learning will be illustrated, where learning is arranged around activities rather than content, thus allowing the content to be context-specific. The interdependence of habitus, architect and heutagogical learning will be illustrated, where students will create their own pattern of ideas and experiences relevant to their own mind and promoting the 'knowing', 'being' and 'acting' of an engaging curriculum fit for purpose.

Each chapter explores a particular theme associated with developing a curriculum that was presented as a series of workshops funded by the Higher Education Academy (HEA). 'The Pedagogy of Community Development and Engagement' workshops took place in February 2014 and March 2014.

Chapter 2: Towards a Concept of Solution-Focused Teaching: Learning in Communities, About Communities—for the Benefit of Communities

The author presents an overview of solution-focused teaching, illustrating how it may be used within the curriculum to promote engagement and a self-determined approach to learning and teaching, enhancing the learning experience of all participants.

Chapter 3: Heutagogy in an Emerging Curriculum

The goal of this chapter is to highlight the potential value of Heutagogical approaches within the curriculum and to highlight possible strategies as a means of embedding this approach into practise within the social science curriculum and to stimulate debate on the merits and pitfalls of adopting such approaches.

Chapter 4: On the Edge

This chapter presents a reflection of the challenges and issues presented in a world of austerity when developing an undergraduate community development programme. To oversimplify, a course on the edge is recruiting people from

communities on the edge to work in a sector on the edge. Staff, students and the sector share the challenges of exclusion and marginalisation. Theoretical constructs about people in such liminal positions, will be applied to the particular circumstances of the course.

Chapter 5: Collaborative Working in the Statutory and Voluntary Sectors

An exploration of the crucial role the voluntary sector makes within society and in the higher education sector today. The chapter is comprised of three parts. The first part will provide a theoretical discussion on the voluntary and community sector organisations in the United Kingdom. The second part will set out the case study context. The final part will critically explore the case study of a voluntary sector organisation.

Chapter 6: Delivering a Community Development Curriculum to Students with Multiple Identities: Exploring the Issues and Identifying Challenges for Educators

This chapter, offers a reflection that draws upon the debate relating to diaspora and the notion of the ‘changing same’ explores the possibility of designing a model to develop a new curriculum drawing parallels with Appadurai’s five ‘scapes’ and ‘adjustments’ (Appadurai, 1990) reflecting students’ different ways of engaging the curriculum. The reflection took place at a time when the programme was going through a formal 5-year review and is an ongoing process that is not fully developed.

Chapter 7: Photography and Teaching in Community Development

This chapter describes an experience of using photography to teach community development with first year university students. The students were required to take photographs as part of an assignment in order to compile a community profile in which they assessed the needs and assets of a community. We wanted to use this as a basis for exploring the ways in which the term ‘community’ is used and defined, identify views, issues and assets which could be discussed and related to community development practise.

Chapter 8: A Model for Change: Sharing Ideas and Strategies

This chapter examines the context in which the pedagogy of community arises in the UK and elsewhere, briefly summarising the nature of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and then communities themselves. It becomes readily apparent that these are quite different types of entities in their objectives and structures, but it is in their interaction, no matter how complex and difficult, that change becomes possible. Examples of past good practise are provided before focusing in on Kahu's (2013) model of holistic engagement with communities by HEIs. The authors then return to good practise in the current era before concluding with some pointers for the way ahead to a meaningful and productive interrelationship between HEIs and communities.

Chapter 9: Establishing Excellence: Where Do We Go from Here?

This chapter explores the notion of excellence in higher education and offers a model to measure excellence within a curriculum. The chapter also makes a case for accreditation of vocational and professional elements within curricula.

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Chapter 2

Towards a Concept of Solution-Focused Teaching: Learning in Communities: About Communities—for the Benefit of Communities

Mark Schofield

The editors of this book hold a clear position that well-conceived curriculum design is essential if students in higher education are to be enabled to apply and integrate their knowledge for expression of their social, cultural, moral, ethical and political capital. They share a strong sense that this should be related to educational experiences which produce self-determining learners, who have the ability to work with complex situations and to navigate multiple interplays of variables. This is a central feature of their commitment to heutagogic approaches (Bhoyrub et al. 2010) and an emerging concept of ‘solution-focused teaching,’ in the first instance for community development and engagement.

In the context here, corresponding with the editors’ interests, I will allude to communities in two ways. Firstly as geographically situated groups of people (such as in a city or local town) and secondly as communities of learners, working together to make sense of complex situations in the act of problem solving for a common good. The latter may involve students working alongside people in the community in shared endeavour which is mutually beneficent, as a ‘Community of Practise’ (Lave and Wenger 1991). As such, the main focus here is on ‘situated learning’ (Lave and Wenger 1991) contextualised by communities and their unique, distinctive, settings. This includes physical placements of students in communities, but also learning activities that are consistently connected to examples of community ‘realities’ and historical precedents.

This chapter has a somewhat unusual origin. As a product of my holding similar (perhaps heutagogic) values as the editors, I was invited by them to offer a presentation and discussion session entitled ‘Solution-Focused Teaching’ at an event centred on ‘Community Development and Engagement’ at the Higher Education Academy (HEA) York, U.K., in 2014. I initially perceived this as being somewhat outside of

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my immediate field as a higher education and rogue, even though I have a longstanding interest in the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) per se (see Boyer 1990) and the theorisation of curriculum and design for learning. However, a search of the literature indicated a relative dearth of publications linked to my immediate brief for the event, with the main connections allied to 'solution-focused' being in Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT) (see Dobson 2010), notions of 'Solution-Focused Thinking' (Winbolt 2015) and Solution-Focused Therapeutic approaches (see Myers 2007). The sources are predominantly orientated toward clinical issues, with some emerging work in Solution-Focused Nursing (McAllister, et al. 2006). However, as each has a focus on learning, cognition and links with feelings and behaviours, they offer insights into the notion of being 'Solution-Focused' as a curriculum and teaching mission in broader terms. My principal aim here is promoting further discussion and reflection on potential approaches, with particular reference to social sciences (and other professional and academic disciplines which gravitate towards communities) for the purpose of stimulating further elaboration of approaches to teaching, emanating from the questions and suggestions raised in the aforementioned HEA presentation. As such, two principal thoughts emerged that prompted the essence of this writing:

- (a) the potential to further elaborate the idea of solution-focused curriculum design and implementation (including teaching and assessment) in the form of a 'mash-up' of ideas from existing theoretical positions and practises, and
- (b) a compelling notion of 'community' extended to communities of learners, who learn in communities, about communities, alongside community members and 'experts' in the field, ultimately for the benefit of communities.

I suggest, in alignment with Bhoyrub et al. (2010), that what follows below is in the spirit of realising heutagogic learning conditions for students but:

...rather than viewing heutagogy as another educational revolution, it can be viewed as an evolutionary step toward melding education and training with the life-world determinates of adult learners.

So, I pose the following questions and foci and make an initial consideration of them so that they can be picked up in the dialectic spirit and moved on by others with interest in this area of work in higher education:

1. *Learning*: What skills, knowledge values and attributes would solution-focused individuals, as a product of their learning, be able to demonstrate? What types of learning may be associated with such attributes? Which theoretical positions may assist in the conception of solution-focused teaching?
2. *Teaching*: How may we teach for such development of such attributes in authentic, meaningful, ways that will be beneficial to the learners and communities? What may 'Solution-Focused Teaching' actually look like in action?
3. *Assessment*: How may we consider assessment that complements this type of learning and teaching with links to enhanced understanding, improved practise and of benefit to communities?

And finally how these considerations can impact on:

4. *Community Engagement and Development*: How can the above be informed by the notion and principles of a 'Learning Community' (Lave and Wenger 1991) and be located in the reality of community settings both for learning to take place and also promote the spirit of 'service learning' (see Cipolle 2010) for the benefit of communities?

Establishing such a mindset for 'solution-focused' approaches allied to community engagement and development through students' curricula experiences provides a vehicle for alignment with the notion of 'supercomplexity' offered by Barnett (2011) suggesting the need for students to emerge with the fortitude to navigate an increasingly uncertain world as a legacy of their university education. He advised that the relationships between higher education, knowledge and society should and can only be considered in an integrated way. This relationship is core to thinking about curriculum approaches linked with community development here and aligns with the (Barnet and Coate 2004) notion of a tri-partite between knowledge (epistemology), actions (practises) and of being and becoming (ontological) and their interrelationships (Barnet and Coate 2004). I have used this as a strong steer to anchor thinking in respect of the learning, teaching and assessment approaches offered below.

Curriculum Design

Sound curriculum design begins with attention to the type of learning that one wishes to develop in individuals and groups of learners. It is learning and learner centred. Once this is decided and articulated the next step is to adopt, adapt or develop teaching approaches which will maximise the opportunities for those designated types of learning to be achieved. This is through the design of activities and use of strategies focused on the skills, knowledge, attitudes and values embodied in the desired learning. It follows that one should then, similarly, arrive at assessment or measurement/evaluation strategies which will enable teachers and learners to be able to judge if the learning has occurred and to what effect in terms of its impact and quality (in terms of both students' understanding, application and community benefits). This will involve grading and the construction of developmental feedback. This represents joined up thinking in curriculum design and is the essence of Biggs' notion of 'Constructive Alignment' (see Biggs and Tang 2009).

However, placing the design of assessment at the end of the process of teaching is an oversimplification given its potential as a formative development tool which can be built in, progressively during teaching, with ongoing feedback to students. This formative assessment promotes continuous development and inform intervention by the teacher whilst students are engaged in learning experiences. To this extent such formative assessment is both integrated within teaching and also contingent in that it serves to provide data about learning, acting as an ongoing reflective, diagnostic function that enables the teacher's responsive questioning, advising and other interventions that may be offered. Formative assessment, coupled with

summative ‘end-on’ assessment thus presents itself as Assessment for Learning (A4L) approach as well as assessment of learning and the feedback from teachers (and other experts such as community members and stakeholders) provides obvious developmental potential (see Schofield 2014).

I will address the four questions and foci (related to Learning; Teaching; Assessment and Community Development) in the sections below in an attempt to synthesise an initial position which may helpfully inform future debate and action. This is in attempt at producing a fresh look at the idea of a ‘pedagogy of community development and engagement’ which was core to my initial contacts with the editors of this book. It is offered as a framework for reflection and stimulus for further consideration in university social science curricula with perhaps broader potential for adoption and adaptation in other cognate areas. It is thus a tentative framework and constitutes an honest work in progress from a concerned practitioner.

Learning

The notion of ‘solution-focused’ is perhaps problematic as a term in itself and could be better framed as ‘solution oriented’ to acknowledge that problems may not always have an immediately definitive answer or indeed may have many potential solutions with multiple constraints associated with each. This isn’t meant to be pedantic, but aims to acknowledge subtly the existence of complex problems which reflect the nature and unique situatedness and sociopolitical contexts both surrounding and within communities anywhere in the world. Real problems, challenges, current and past, are posed by our natural and social environments and are great sources to stimulate critical thinking (both historically and in real-time communities). They offer great potential for consideration of interdisciplinary collaboration (See Schofield 2013a, re interdisciplinary complex problem solving and the derivation of problem scenarios from natural disasters). A challenge in any solution-focused approach is to consider the student’s point of entry and confidence levels in problem solving and to what extent they may experience dissonance when a finite ‘correct’ answer may not be immediately available to them. I suggest that this is one of the features of learning that leads to the often calm disposition of experts and their teams in complex problem solving in challenging scenarios. Experts see and also feel the stresses of problems differently to novices (Schofield 2013a, b, op cit). Thoughtful, planned preparation of students is an absolute necessity if they are to acquire the resilience that underpins confidence in working with uncertainty.

Knowledge alone is an ineffective tool if uncoupled from problem-solving experiences. I suggest that exposure of students to complex, open-ended, problem-solving activities (with a trajectory from simulations and case studies to real engagements) provides the necessary opportunities to develop internal resilience and confidence to work with uncertainty. It involves identification and appraisal of multiple potential solutions with reference to precedence in the literature or through creative, novel, plans of action which may, to a greater or lesser extent, draw upon applying and integrating existing knowledge. It may inherently necessitate students

to undertake research and enquiry in a community setting. The ability to work with and within uncertainty and change is central to Barnett's (1997) assertion about the need for graduates with such characteristics. A key part of the skills set, alongside ability to use knowledge, should be ethical awareness and cogniscence of the future ramifications of the actions of individuals and groups in society. This must be coupled with ability to understand the components of a problem, to make connections with knowledge of precedent (successful, unsuccessful and sometimes unethical) approaches (where available) and to be able to apply such to novel problem spaces that are (and may be) encountered in community settings where learning is to be situated.

Given that most community settings will involve diverse interactions, between diverse services and constituencies (e.g. medical, social, charitable etc.) a concept of solution focused teaching invites us to consider the importance of authentic learning experiences involving interdisciplinarity, team-working, communication, negotiation and other skills that support effective decision making and action.

Acquired expertise in community engagement and development is considered in this context as a function of knowledge in the discipline, of precedent and potential problems, ability to work with data and evidence and to manage a phase of informed consideration prior to selecting (tested or novel) solution paths. It is hoped, that if the learning experiences leading to such expertise are well constructed, that individuals will become better equipped to enter into society's communities to best effect, either in employment, in voluntary roles or as members exerting their own positive agency.

A further challenge that may need to be addressed through teaching is helping students to appreciate and navigate experiences they may encounter at the point of their employment, or any such similar institutionalisation into a defined role such as a volunteer or advocate, that 'politics' may prevail, precluding or derailing activity, or in a positive contrasting sense, serving to support social justice and pursuit of ethical and moral outcomes. This is allied to important consideration in the curriculum of sustainable development in terms of accountability for our actions, both individually and collectively, and of their future impact. I suggest solution-focused approaches for community development, cannot be taught as though existing in a political vacuum and without dialogues that explore and challenge this aspect of complexity.

So in summary I suggest some core attributes of this emerging position on solution-focused learners should include:

- Being resilient problem solvers with ability to work with uncertainty with a focus on finding solutions (which may be unprecedented and thus involve the confidence to be creative)
- Having knowledge and experiences which include real examples of successes and failures (informed by their engagement with the relevant literature and experts)
- Possessing skills to work in teams and settings which are diverse and often interdisciplinary
- Being morally and ethically aware with a commitment to responsibility for sustainability.

When learning is oriented ultimately to making a difference to communities and their sustainable future, with students learning about communities, in real communities for their mutual benefit, it is not surprising that many students, in the spirit of Mezirow's 'Transformational Learning' (1991) find the experience life changing. It is most often, the unique authenticity of situated community engagement through 'placements', that predisposes learning that truly lasts (Mentkowski 2000) as a desirable result of successful teaching design.

As I state earlier, solution-focused curriculum is arguably a 'mash-up' informed by a number of pre-existing theoretical and conceptual positions on learning. Both the editors and I agree on the importance of students learning in real community settings which can impact on feelings and important values of respect and other aspects of the human affective domain.

In describing teaching and assessment approaches in the next sections and in emphasising the significance of the community as a focus for learning, I have drawn particularly from the positions and useful sources in Table 2.1 which are also referenced in the chapter. They are not intended to be an exhaustive list, but an attempt to underpin the broad teaching approaches suggested in relation to the existing theoretical standpoints.

Teaching

Below is a selection of suggestions for practical teaching approaches to 'Community Development and Engagement.' These are related to the aspects of learning summarised in the previous section. Suggestions include:

Providing access to knowledge (e.g. in cognate disciplines such as built environment, public health, social science etc.) in the form of real exemplars and precedents in the form of successful and unsuccessful case studies (from teachers and community members as experts in addition to the literature) including manipulation of data and its analyses. This is to sit alongside core discipline concepts, assisting with application and integration of knowledge.

Giving opportunities to see and hear experts modelling problem solving, recounting their experiences and their reflections in and on action (Schön 1987), and on the consequences of their actions. This can be through using invited speakers in face to face real time or online, include opportunities for questions and answers and be complemented by video clips of such activities for asynchronous use. Roundtable discussions are a worthwhile tool, involving expert panel members and community representatives (such as users of social services and their carers, community housing associations, advocacy services and charities etc.).

- (a) Designing for multiple opportunities to apply and integrate knowledge into complex problems (either real or manufactured by teachers and community representatives) which are integrated into formal classroom teaching and which involve consideration of the merits of alternative solutions and their projected implications (including dilemmas, ethics and sustainability). These activities

Table 2.1 Sources and positions which are helpful in conceptualising learning in community settings

Position/sources	Contextualisation—learning teaching and assessment opportunities characterised by
Transformative Learning (Mezirow 1991)	Learners undergo experiences which impact on changes in their worldviews where they may be enlightened by new ideas or ways of thinking followed by them making life changes and decisions based upon examination of their own values and responsibilities
Experiential Learning (Kolb 1984)	Learning through experience involving reformulating understanding and approaches to future actions through reflection and dialogue
Reflective Learning (see Schön 1987; Driscoll 2007)	Learning through reflection in action (often in dialogue with others) and after action, projecting towards enhanced understanding and improved actions in the future
Affective Learning (Krathwohl et al. 1964)	Consideration and examination of one's own feelings experienced during learning activities, those of others, and how they relate to existing attitudes and values and thoughts about actions and interventions that may be taken and their long-term consequences
(a) Deep Learning (Marton and Säljö 1997) and (b) Active Learning and EXIT-M (Schofield 2013b)	(a) Deeper learning that goes beyond surface engagement with the experience and involves application and integration of knowledge, dialogue, problem solving, argument and synthesis which draw on and develop higher cognitive, critical thinking skills (b) Active learning strategies which encourage collaborating, designing and implementing solutions to problems, working in teams, presenting ideas and findings to others etc. A key focus is on strategies to support observation, engagement, reflection and dialogue
Learning and Sustainable Development (Ryan 2012)	Opportunities for consideration of the implications of actions for the future (of communities) and sustainability. This may involve sociopolitical foci, ethics and consideration of individual and collective responsibility for actions
Social Constructivism (see Fox 1997)	Learning by building upon existing knowledge and ideas/schemata as a function of social (community) interaction, dialogue and negotiation of meaning
Communities of Practise (Lave and Wenger 1991)	Working towards common ends through shared interest and endeavour (within and for communities)
Situated Learning (Lave and Wenger 1991)	Learning in real-world contexts, in the authentic (community) space
Service Learning (Cipolle 2010)	Learning which includes activity leading to positive, beneficial, contributions (to communities and their development)

can provide a useful developmental contribution to acquisition of skills, confidence and resilience essential to being effective community-based activities. This should involve contextual and data analyses and careful articulation of the problem-space, exploration and identification of potential solutions, focus on ethical and moral domains, and, as above, due consideration of potential impact and risks associated with particular solution paths and sustainability. Planning exposure to simulations and group problem solving thus acts as a deliberate,

formative, prelude to working with real, authentic, community-based situations, projects and problems. This should involve contextual and data analyses and careful articulation of the problem-space, exploration and identification of potential solutions, focus on ethical and moral domains, and, as above, due consideration of potential impact and risks associated with particular solution paths and sustainability.

- (b) Planned opportunities for direct ‘placement’ experiences the community. This is situated learning, working with and for the community and relates to operating ‘Communities of Practise’ (Lave and Wenger 1991) in terms of partnership with and service to the community. As it has to be located within authentic contexts it can be achieved through voluntary activity and other types of service learning, by working on projects commissioned to support the administration and marketing of charities, or through professional work placements in health and social care arenas for example.
- (c) Provision for periods of individual and group reflection on all of the above (usefully as part of assessment), supported and challenged by peers and experts (from within the communities being served and from academe) thus stimulating reflection, re-positioning of solutions in retrospect or affirmation of their actions. This is all part of learning together in and for the community.
- (d) Mentoring and coaching by University teachers and also by community-based professionals, leaders, stakeholders etc. as appropriate, to supply support and challenge and to provide a further source of knowledge to support development of students. This will often be in a contingent fashion as a student’s community placement develops over time.

Curriculum design and objectives for solution-focused community engagement and development may helpfully be informed further by Mezirow’s ten steps in transformative learning as below. This is based on Brock et al. (2012) who summarise the notion of transformative learning as being the ten steps predicted by Mezirow which may precipitate change in worldview. Some suggestions are added as to how these may translate into considerations for designing engaging teaching activities (once more to promote discussion) as follows:

- a disorienting dilemma (e.g. an authentic, perhaps pressing, community issue, in need of support, expertise, with a call for collaboration)
- a critical assessment of assumptions (e.g. reflection on why support is important, perhaps both in terms of actions needed and ethical commitment to beneficence)
- recognition that one’s discontent and the process of transformation are shared and that others have negotiated a similar change (e.g. recognition that the community has needs and there is shared commitment to the need for development)
- exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions (e.g. planning, negotiating, and working in concert in the community)
- self-examination with feelings of guilt or shame (e.g. examination of one’s own values and beliefs)
- provisional trying of new roles (e.g. action as practise and reflection in real-world settings of the community)

- planning of a course of action (e.g. problem solving)
- acquisition of knowledge and skills for implementing one's plans (e.g. learning through active engagement, dialogue and reflection)
- building of competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships, and a reintegration into one's life on the basis of conditions dictated by one's new perspective (acquisition of competence, resilience, understanding of roles of self and others)

The key, important consideration in designing curricular experiences, is to align theory with practise in teaching and assessment and to effectively 'keep it real.' This is not only relevant in terms of student motivation (through connecting the abstract with the often more interesting concrete aspects of practical examples and exemplification) and development of higher order critical thinking but also to soliciting buy-in and commitment to ongoing support from other professionals and community members in the broadest sense. Their focus will often be primarily on positive community developments (alongside an educational mission to which you may be asking them to subscribe) and they will need to see the benefits of student engagement.

Assessment

The section above alludes to the type of learning experiences and teaching that may be needed as antecedents to gaining the attributes of a solution-focused learner. So what may be the essence of the relationship between solution-focused learning opportunities and the role of assessment?

The practical teaching and learning approaches above must be aligned with meaningful, developmental assessment which reinforces learning through the application and integration of knowledge in authentic ways. A prime intention of the teaching and assessment should be, I suggest, to enhance students' capacity to know what to do, when, why and for them to have an informed sense of the limitations and implications that their actions (past and future) may have. This may be achieved by a strong orientation of assessment towards problem solving about community contexts, through real-world immersion in communities and assessment of activities learners undertake out in the community settings themselves. Discussion, access to experts and mentoring add to the effectiveness of the learning and make strong contributions as developmental, formative assessment experiences (York 2003). Formative assessment should include opportunities for discussion and feedback that can be supplied by community members, peers and tutors/mentors before, during and after a community engagement experience. This ultimately adds value to the capstone nature of summative assessment and ensures alignment with the learning experience in a continuum of planned development.

Below I suggest a simple frame for thinking about an assessment approach based upon a commitment to praxis, in terms of development of a sense of one's ability to

consciously commit knowledge and skills to action. This frame is ‘What? So what? Now what?’ It is a simple model of reflection (after Driscoll 2007) which I have found particularly effective with students in health, education and social sciences. I have adapted it as follows for the purpose of solution focused learning to be aligned with assessment design. The following questions serve as a scaffold (see Hogan and Pressley 1997) to focus thinking, reflection and ultimately to structure and form to reporting for assessment purposes. It is essentially a Vygotskian approach, where the scaffolding acts as both a framework to stimulate, harvest and collate students’ ideas and also as a tool to assist with writing discussion, reflection, planning and justifying future developments. I have no doubt that the questions can be adopted, adapted and further developed to this end. The core components are:

- What? (Focused on describing and focussing on developing an initial understanding of the context)
- So what? (Focused on the next stage, making sense of the context and considering potential actions and consequences)
- Now what? (Focused on planning for reasoned and justified action)

These are expanded below:

What? (Focused on describing and focussing on developing an initial understanding of the context):

What is the descriptive context of the community issue or challenge that is to be or has been addressed? What precedents exist in the literature related to the same or related contexts? What can you extract from your reading and from your previous life experiences and from teaching which helps you make sense of the challenges you are addressing and pursuing solutions for? What is your preliminary evaluation as a consequence of these considerations?

So what? (Focused on the next stage, making sense of the context and considering potential actions and consequences):

How does the above help you to analyse the issue or problem in terms of your consideration of a potential solution or solutions? Are there alternative solutions? What solution or solutions are preferable and why? Is there an evidence base? How are your selections rationalised? What are/were the strengths and weaknesses of such solutions and why? What are/were the longer term implications of the solution/s? Does the situation require a novel solution? If so, why? Finally, what is/are your preferred solution/s and why?

Now what? (Focused on planning for reasoned and justified action):

What, after your detailed summary analysis above is your suggested way or way/s forward? What is your justification? What, if any, are the unresolved issues questions and concerns or caveats arising from your analysis that may require further discussion and reflection? Why are they so? And finally, after completing your action/s in the community, what were the outcomes and how, as a result of your experiences and the considerations above, are you thinking and or practising differently? What you may do differently in the future and why?

These prompts, are intended as a starting point, to match with the teaching and link with the authentic experiences of the learners, whether such authenticity is addressed through case studies and simulations or through a situated placement in a community. They are not only offered as a tool for students to use during assessment linked to teaching but also as an initial frame of questions for use in formative teaching and mentoring activities. It is an imperfect first pitch, but I suggest it is highly applicable in supporting students in analysis of what has been and what might be in their experience of engagement in community settings. The outcomes are focused on developing the learner, but also on beneficent, real, activity orientated towards the actual community setting. It is an assessment strategy that supports learning in, about, through and for communities which is a central theme of this chapter.

Community Engagement and Development

The potential for community development and involvement of students as key agents, partners and learners is the key theme running through this chapter. It is arguably heutagogic in nature when related to solution focused learning as described. I emphasise that this is of particular significance in terms of universities' exploration of individual and collective social responsibility and future sustainability of communities. Learning in communities, about communities, through and for the benefit of communities is a compelling objective and model through which learning is helpfully conceptualised as shared endeavour where students and community members have opportunities to learn and develop alongside each other in partnership.

Conclusion

Winbolt (2015) invites us to consider a Solution Focused Thinking approach which “values simplicity in philosophy and language and aims to discover ‘what works’ in a given situation, simply and practically” and focuses on “constructing solutions rather than dwelling on problems”.

Albeit that his context is one of therapy, his position strengthens the call for application and integration of knowledge in authentic community settings and the rich, deeper learning (Marton and Säljö 1997) that goes with it. In essence, in addition to the growth of what is described as tacit knowledge (Polyani 1966), which is accumulated and applied almost unconsciously and is almost unavoidable in such immersive learning in communities, the rich experiences suggested above provide students with multiple, deliberately planned, opportunities to pursue consciousness of their competence (Dubin 1962) and development of expertise. I argue that this articulates strongly with heutagogy and with the praxis expected of experts and all those with ability to exercise social and cultural capital. Solution Focused curricula, teaching and authentic assessment, manifesting as thoughtfully designed educational experiences, can serve both students and communities to good effect.

In summary, cognate discipline learning and interdisciplinary studies (e.g. in the built environment, social sciences, public health etc.), if focused on realistic and real community challenges and activities go a long way to contributing to the objectives above. All is strengthened if students are immersed in community-based activities which provide the space for application, integration and development of their knowledge and skills base in a solution-focused way. This supports the development of critical thinking, confidence and resilience and adoption of maxims of authenticity, situatedness, learning with and in support of a community and its members at the heart of the approach. It deliberately and actively couples educational intentions with a beneficent ethic. The arguments for a well-conceived curriculum experience which involves placements and voluntary, service-learning models that include assessment modes which support community engagement and development become clearer, credible and indeed emerge as arguably axiomatic.

This chapter constitutes a first pass attempt to begin to elaborate a solution-focused curricula approach and is a first response to the editors' challenge. I propose that it aligns with their concern to have students who are supported to truly exercise their learning about community development, heutagogically, exceeding the constraints of theorisation in abstract in the classroom, and thus ultimately eliciting shared benefits for all involved.

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Chapter 3

Heutagogy in an Emerging Curriculum

Michael Snowden

This chapter originates from a presentation and discussion session entitled ‘Heutagogy and mentoring’ at an Higher Education Academy (HEA)-sponsored event exploring ‘Community Development and Engagement’ at the HEA York, UK, in March 2014 and a subsequent workshop and conference paper presented at the Multidisciplinary and Comparative Studies, University of Greenwich London, UK in September 2014. The goal of this chapter is to highlight the potential value of Heutagogy approaches within the curriculum and to highlight two possible strategies as a means of embedding this approach into practise within the social science curriculum and to stimulate debate on the merits and pitfalls of adopting such approaches.

An effective way in which to promote successful curricula is to adopt and engage with Barnett’s (1994, 2007, 2012) notion of a tri-partite model, incorporating, societal, institutional and students’ needs. In order to achieve this, a holistic, student-centered approach to curricula delivery must be adopted. However due to the frequent fragmented nature of curricula; good, effective, and pedagogical-based delivery approaches and methods are not widely shared. This paper, the authors argue that a self-determined learning approach that involves an expansion and re-interpretation of andragogical principles. A shift in thinking towards Heutagogy will enable the learner to develop space, promoting the learner as an ‘architect’ of learning.

In today’s British society, central government perceives universities as a key economic driver as the higher education sector skills graduates in a global competitive economy. Moreover, research carried out by Rossi and Rosli (2014, p. 1) argued that the main purpose of universities is to transfer ‘productive knowledge’, and ‘universities are no longer ivory towers, producing knowledge in isolation, but they are expected to engage with a multiplicity of stakeholders in order to deliver economic benefits’.

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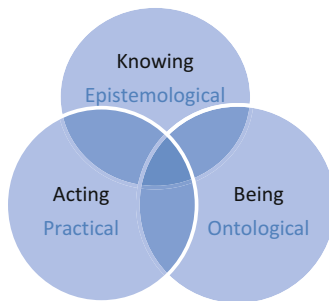
The Developing Curriculum

University education has traditionally been seen as a dyadic relationship between the lecturer and the learner, typically it is the lecturer viewed as the knowledge expert, who decides what the learner needs to know in terms of knowledge and skills, and indeed, how the knowledge and skills should be taught. Whilst there has been a somewhat quiet revolution in pedagogical methodologies and its application to learning, current practise still has connotations of a hierarchical dyadic academic relationship. However, as a result of the distinct socio and economic changes that have taken place within UK society, it is becoming increasingly imperative that curricula, as Rossi and Rosli (2014, p. 1) assert, ‘transfer “productive knowledge” ... and engage with a multiplicity of stakeholders in order to deliver economic benefits’. Furthermore as Barnett (2014) asserts, educators need ‘to give serious attention to the potential for radical *educational* innovation, concerned with students who have to make their way in a challenging world. And for that, space for imaginative educational experiment—and failure—should be opened’ (Barnett 2014, p. 9).

The world around us is in constant change, resulting in significant challenges for educators ensuring that their curricula are fit for purpose—responding to the challenge of productive knowledge. Barnett (2011, p. 6) alludes to a super complex world in which the world is changing and presents ‘proliferating and competing frameworks by which we understand the world’. What constitutes as learning, the development of knowledge and skills in one context may not be appropriate for another context. Each, individual, group and community is unique, they are different in terms of need and demand for skills and knowledge. Therefore curricula should reflect this diversity, and adopt an approach that is student-focused, avoiding a ‘broad brush’ approach to delivery that inevitably ‘pigeon holes’ students who are exposed to predictable and fixed methods and approaches to teaching.

Barnett provides some guidance for educators in this respect and introduces the notion of a tri-partite interdependent relationship between three forces that shape the curriculum: knowledge, higher education and society. Barnett (1994) suggested that there is a temptation to view the relationship between knowledge and society in a linear form i.e. knowledge—higher education—society. However, he suggests that higher education, knowledge and society do in fact: ‘stand in a set of relationships with each other. We cannot understand any one term without paying some attention to the other two’ (Barnett 1994, p. 11). Although Barnett acknowledges that they are separate forces, they cannot be treated separately, as they are interdependent. Providing a guiding basal framework for the developing curriculum, where knowledge is the product of the interaction of society and the university. However, within this framework there remains the possibility that the interdependent relationship is not explored and fulfilled to ensure the development of a needs-led curriculum, raising significant questions: What is the knowledge, skill and roles required to meet the demands of the groups or community served by the graduate; how is this to be determined and how are they to be prepared? Barnett and Coate (2005) develop the notion of the tri-partite relationship and the curriculum further, providing some guidance on how these questions can be addressed (see Fig. 3.1).

Fig. 3.1 The notion of the tri-partite relationship and the curriculum. *Source:* Adapted from: Barnett, and Coate (2005)



Source: (Adapted from: Barnett, and Coate 2005).

Whilst, there is a clear association and interdependence of society, knowledge and higher education (Barnett 1994). Barnett and Coate (2005) refine the relationship to such a level that determines what is it that a graduate needs to ‘know’ — (epistemological basis), how they need to act,—(the skills required to fulfil the role,) and what they need to ‘become’ (the ontological). Whilst these are functional domains, distinctly, the emphasis is not upon what students know, but their engagement with knowledge, that is ‘knowing’. Equally, whilst ‘acting’ the skills may seem self-evident, the ‘action domain can take on a pre-formative character’ (Barnett and Coate 2005, p. 105), especially where there has been little integration and the curriculum has been developed in a fragmented manner. The third domain, ‘being’ is, they suggest typically the most neglected and yet paradoxically the most significant of the three domains, for without it, the others cannot function. Barnett and Coate suggest that ‘being’, in this context, is related to the notion of ‘self’ and forms of knowing and acting in the world, that is who we are and how we function and is context-specific. Therefore, in order to understand and translate curricula, the student must have self-confidence, and self-efficacy; engagement with appropriate knowing and acting domains of the curricula will assist in the development of self, enabling a fully engaged student.

To develop and fully engage a student it is essential that all the ‘spaces’ in which a student learns are utilised. There are different kinds of learning spaces...all have different pedagogical emphases, however, whatever the ‘space’, it is full of messages, symbols and metaphors, and is never passive, it enables ways of seeing, and becoming, whilst excluding others and promoting bias and influence. The notion of ‘space’ has been aptly explored by authors such as Barnett, where ‘space’ is described in both physical and pedagogical terms. Physical space is that which can be seen for example within the built environment such as the lecture hall, refectory, classroom, off campus buildings and study space; the non-built, such as the Virtual Learning Environment, internal and external structures, professional/vocational structures, books, course handbooks, peers, clubs and societies etc. Learning within the pedagogical space; the epistemological space and the ontological space as Barnett (2007, p. 116) suggests ‘Pedagogical space...(my emphasis) includes not

only epistemological space (the space to think the impossible), but ontological space, in which the student can bring herself into a new state of being. The inspiring teacher, accordingly, gives the student space in which she can become more fully herself, to gain her own air, to **become**...(my emphasis) in an authentic way'. Maintaining authenticity within the curriculum however, is challenging for curriculum planners, encouraging the learner to understand self and learn from within depends upon external structures such as the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA 2015) and Internal Structures such as Professional/discipline features and values.

We can accept that learning takes place through the various systems and structures within the Higher Education environment, these determine, when, how and what is learned. These systems can either promote or inhibit the choice of what is learned and what skills are developed. However, distinctly we also learn within ourselves, within our own personal ontological space, we inhabit our own unique space. When something new is learned, our 'being', that is the notion of who we are is changed, as a new space, a new mode of being is created; and a new space of learning is entered (Barnett 2012). Consequently, in this learning new possibilities open, and the student begins to develop as an architect of learning, where learning is arranged around activities rather than content, consequently allowing the content be context-specific. The student then becomes an arranger or exploiter of spaces creating an individual pattern of learning spaces, using context related technology, community, societal, subject, modules and discipline knowledge and skills. Subsequently the learner creates their own pattern of ideas and experiences relevant to their own mind and being.

However, this approach to learning is not without challenge. There is a tendency for lecturers to inhibit the development of space, with educators determining what is to be learned, and how it is learned within a very confined and structured curriculum, the rationale offered here is that the curriculum may be based upon key subject benchmarks, QAA guidance and National Student Survey (NSS 2013) satisfaction data. Satisfaction and the fear of poor NSS returns is often the driver behind curriculum delivery. However, the driver should, be that of challenge and not mere satisfaction. This is illustrated particularly well, when reflecting upon the typical response of a lecturer to students' requests for assignment information. There is a tendency, as a result of the fear of the consequences of adverse student satisfaction for lecturers to provide an ever increasing amount of guidance for assignments such as essays, to such an extent that the lecturer is almost providing a template to structure, providing key concepts and sources, how they should be applied and how the argument should be constructed. The learner simply regurgitates the lectures interpretation, giving the lecturer what he has asked for, resulting in whole classes submitting very similar essays...and the resultant similarity in marks. The question (5) asked within the NSS 'The criteria used in marking have been clear in advance' is often interpreted by both parties as requiring a detailed step by step guide to the assignment. However, this is at 'odds' with the philosophy of this particular curriculum approach and fails to respond to Race (2005) who asserts that assessments should be challenging, authentic and foster deep learning. The desire to achieve student satisfaction impedes the development of space based upon the rationale that the curricula, or as in this case, assessment responds to the best interest of the students. So, the temptation is then to close down the space, preventing authenticity in learning and preventing the students from 'becoming'. Barnett

describes this activity as one of ‘no risk, no space’ and for learners to become authentically themselves space is needed.

Barnett suggests that there are a number of risks for adopting this approach to learning in relation to the developing curriculum these can be associated with ‘epistemological risk’—by following their interests, learning what they want to learn and creating their own curriculum, students may end up with (get rid of) what he describes as a ‘warped perspective or a skewed understanding of a field’ (Barnett 2007, p. 143). There is also a ‘practical risk’—the students may not have the practical skills to respond effectively to this learning approach, failing to develop and progress new skills. The pedagogical risk (Barnett 2007 p. 144) is concerned with developing a ‘space-for-beings where the risk is ‘ontological’ shaping the learner’s ‘being’ and subsequently their personal identity. This, Barnett suggests, is the most significant risk and is ever present in the pedagogical processes that are employed in this approach. This risk is constant, as Barnett (2007, p. 146) asserts ‘No matter how careful a teacher is, a word, a gesture, may be injurious to a student’s being. Where she is, in her intellectual position, in herself understanding, in her sense of practical capacities, in her willingness to project herself, a single careless word or gesture may dislodge her. It may even shatter her’. Thus there is a dual risk when opening up learning spaces, risk not just for the student but the educator also.

This risk is significant; however, the risks can be managed and reduced by adoption of heutagogical principles. Heutagogy provides a framework to manage the risk in adopting a curriculum approach and provides a twenty-first century approach to learning and teaching congruent with the demands of contemporary employers. The origins of Heutagogy lie in the pedagogy that lies in capability development and expands upon the notion of life-wide and lifelong learning, in presenting an approach that harnesses self-determined learning.

We live in a world that is constantly changing, advances are rapid, aided and facilitated by the use and developments in technology. Information to support the development of knowledge is readily and easily accessible, discipline based knowledge is no longer appropriate for living in today’s complex society, communities and places of work. Learning is increasingly concerned with what we do, the development of key skills and abilities appropriate for this changing, fluid and contested work place as emphasised by Barnett in the recent HEA report (2014) ‘The 21st century is calling for human beings who are themselves flexible, able to respond purposively to new situations and ideas’ (Barnett 2014, p. 9). Where those curricula which develop graduates that are ‘inflexible, unable to respond to strangeness—to the challenges and new experiences that the world presents—is short-changing its students’ (Barnett 2014, p. 62).

It is accepted that in the right environment people will learn and can be independent to some degree, adopting a humanist stance, this approach to learning is very well documented (Argyris and Schon 1974; Knowles; 1983; Carr and Kemmis 1986; Stephenson 1998). Heutagogy draws upon these key perspectives in an attempt to develop a holistic approach to learning, and developing new skills and knowledge in developing independent capability and the capacity to question self, values and assumptions. Heutagogy is prospective in approach (Blaschke 2012), in that it looks to the future in which knowing how to learn is a fundamental skill.

Heutagogy draws upon the work of Hedieger, who suggests that people make sense of the world around them and generalise from these perceptions, conceptualise and perceive invariance's. People consequently have the desire and potential to learn continuously, and in real time, by interacting with their environment they learn throughout their life span leading to the development of their own ideas rather than being force fed the knowledge of others. In this context creativity is enhanced, and individuals learn how to learn. This approach accepts that intuition is an integral part of the learning process, that learning is not learning rather it draws upon reflective and double loop learning—it includes aspects of action and reflective learning, valuing experience and interaction, drawing heavily upon community based and societal based learning. The approach responds to the challenge of enabling the development of people who can cope with a rapidly changing world. Heutagogical approaches to education place great emphasis upon holism, the worth of self, capability, community, needs of society and a focus upon learning as opposed to that of teaching.

Two such methods that are consistent with a heutagogical approach to learning are solution focussed learning and mentor assisted learning:

Solution Focussed Teaching and Learning

As illustrated earlier in this volume, solution focussed teaching and learning requires both educator and learner to practise differently and can be described as a transformative learning and teaching experience (McAllister 2003). It is a method of teaching that activates learners to become committed, engaged citizens, and to recognise that community development work requires change to take place at individual, societal and cultural levels. Solution focussed approaches to teaching and learning are concerned with constructing solutions rather than dwelling on problems, it is consequently an approach that looks forwards, towards solutions, rather than backwards, by studying problems. It is a transformative learning experience (Mezirow 2000) that builds upon those features based upon the discovery of challenging beliefs, values and solutions, introducing the learner to concepts such as social injustice, oppression, inequality, and domination. It is an approach that develops critical consciousness, collective identity, and develops solution orientated strategies for change. It develops the cognitive and affective domain of participants and conscious competence in skill development. Adopting a real world approach to teaching and learning it encourages teaching and learning that focuses upon strengths, abilities, hopes, and distinctly, encourages thinking in terms of possibilities. Solution focussed teaching and learning approaches involves three phases:

1. Joining (assessing)

The teacher acquires to know the student group through active dialogue and comprehensive assessment of need. The learner gets to know the community/group and involves comprehensive data collection.

2. Building (planning and collaboration)

The teacher in collaboration with the learner, designs and constructs learning strategies and develops solutions to issues and the development of capacity-building strategies. The learner collaborates with group members to develop solutions to issues of learning and the development of capacity building strategies.

3. Extending (adaptation and engagement)

The learner and teacher through a process of continuous dialogue and engaged learning adapt opportunities to apply newly learned knowledge, skills, and attributes within the desired community context (adapted from McAllister 2003).

Successful Solution focussed teaching strategies include authentic work based learning, mentor assisted learning, peer mentorship, case study examination, role play and rehearsal, scaffolding and the use of complex solution focussed exercises, situated context activities and solution pursuit exercises, risk taking exercises and data utilisation.

Mentoring and Heutagogy

Mentoring is an intervention that supports those individuals with less experience within any given context in their personal, social and professional development. However, this somewhat simplistic description fails to reflect the multifaceted and complex nature of the mentoring relationship. Defining mentorship is complex, due in part to the multifaceted nature of the role and the plethora of definitions that have attempted to define the role in a precise way. However, it is recognised (Fachin-Lucas 2001; Colley 2002; Clutterbuck and Lane 2004; Garvey et al. 2009) that definitions, and consequently the role of the mentor should reflect the social context of implementation, which in part explains the plethora of definitions and the complexities of attempting to provide such definitions.

Mentoring is historically associated with Homer's *Odyssey*,—where the original figure of 'Mentor' was charged with the care of Odysseus, king of Ithaca's son, Telemachus during the Trojan War around 12,000 BC. In the version by Homer, the goddess Athena assumes the form of a man to take on the role of a mentor and helps with Telemachus' education as well as the development of skills whilst his father is at war. Mentor was described as a wise, kindly elder, trusted educator and guide, who supported, protected and nurtured the young Telemachus as he went to war.

It is this notion of the mentor that underpins many popular definitions such as Kram and Isabella (1985, p. 2) who describes the mentor as 'a young adult and an older, more experienced adult that helps the younger individual learn to navigate in the adult world and the world of work. A mentor supports, guides and counsels the young adult' and by Shea (2002, p. 3) as 'a person with greater experience, expertise, and wisdom counsels, teaches guides and helps another person to develop both personally and professionally'. The mentoring process is often associated with social developments and as individuals pass through their various life transitions and stages. Learning and personal development are fundamental to the mentoring

process, and the UK apprenticeship style of learning has strong connections with mentoring (Roberts 2000). Roberts offers an all-embracing definition of mentoring that reflects this view:

...a supportive process; a supportive relationship; a helping process; a teaching learning process; a reflective process; a career development process; a formalised process and a role constructed by or for the mentor. The contingent attributes of the mentoring phenomena appear as coaching, sponsoring, role modelling, assessing and informal process Roberts (2000, p. 162).

It is not the aim of this chapter to explore in detail the plethora of definitions that attempt to define the mentor. However, it is clear when reviewing the literature that there are two commonly occurring facets: relationship and reciprocity. Mentoring will be based upon a relationship, this can be either within a dyad or between one mentor and a group of mentees, and the notion of reciprocity where an exchange element exists between the people involved in the relationship. It is a term which is used interchangeably and is not consistent across studies or within practise (Andrews and Wallis 1999; Colley 2002; Terrion et al. 2007; Andrews and Clark 2011), and compounded by the observation that the length of the relationship is not consistent—it may or may not be predetermined (Johnson-Bailey and Cervero 2004). Recently, the UK has seen Higher Education Institutions adopting a different approach to mentoring. Peer mentoring has emerged as a strategy to enhance development, retention and ease the transition of students into university. Whilst Andrews and Clark (2011) allude to the complexities of defining the peer mentor (Terrion et al. 2007) provide a useful definition of the ‘peer’ *mentor* defined as a person who provides an assistive relationship in which two individuals of similar age/or experience work together, either informally or formally, to fulfil some kind of informational and/or emotional need (Terrion et al. 2007, p. 150). This moving away from the hierarchical nature of the relationship that underpins traditional mentoring. Whilst the peer mentor still holds a higher level of experience and knowledge than the mentee, they are typically more approachable, find it easier to empathise, and have a greater ability to provide psycho social and task orientated support.

It is widely accepted that mentoring enhances the learning experience for all participants (Kram and Isabella 1985; Roberts 2000; Stringer-Cawyer et al. 2002; Andrews and Clark 2011). Existing literature (Breen et al. 2001; McLean 2004; Campbell and Campbell 2007; Flumerfeldt et al. 2007; Lennox-Terrion and Leonard 2010) suggests there is little doubt that peer mentorship will contribute positively to the undergraduate’s experience in higher education. However, there has been scant attention to the impact it has upon successful learning and academic success. Jacobi (1991), Paglis et al. (2006) and Crisp and Cruz (2009) all assert that academic success is largely assumed rather than demonstrated, that there is no conclusive evidence to suggest that mentoring adds value to student outcomes. Mentoring research, is characterised by multiple definitions, limitations in methodological approach and an absence of theory producing in lack of clarity and consistency when applying research in practise, and has certainly failed to match the growth of mentoring programmes in UK Higher Education Institutions.

None the less, mentorship can have a positive impact upon the learning experience by improving assessment performance, reducing stress and anxiety, enhancing

participation and engagement in the academic community and adding value to student outcomes. McLean (2004); Campbell and Campbell (2007), Flumerfeldt et al. (2007) and Snowden and Hardy (2012) suggest that mentorship as an 'in reach' activity will contribute to enhanced development and learning. There is a dearth of literature that investigates the effect of mentorship upon the students' acquisition of knowledge at undergraduate level. Extensive critical review of the literature (Jacobi 1991; Andrews and Clark 2011), suggest the link between mentorship and the promotion of academic success is largely assumed rather than demonstrated. Jacobi (1991) asserting that the mentoring process may be 'driven by nothing more than a sincere desire to help students succeed' and that 'mentoring remains an intriguing, but untested, strategy for enhancing undergraduate success' (Jacobi 1991, p. 528). This view is shared by Piper and Piper (2000) and by Campbell and Campbell (2007) who suggest, that much of the published research regarding mentorship is concerned with process, and how it is perceived by its participants, rather than outcomes. A longitudinal study investigating whether mentorship had an influence upon student outcomes by Paglis et al. (2006) indicated that there was no conclusive evidence to suggest that mentoring adds value to student outcomes. Although there is some evidence in their study to suggest that mentorship does have a positive influence on self-efficacy. Campbell and Campbell (2007) explored the long term academic effects of a mentoring process on courses in a large American university. At the end of the first year of study those who had been mentored had a higher 'grade point average' and had completed more units of learning than those students who did not have a mentor.

Significantly, Campbell and Campbell (2007) illustrate that if academic mentoring is successful, the mentee will be more comfortable in the education environment, have a greater motivation to succeed, and have higher aspirations than those that have not been mentored. The findings of Rodger and Tremblay's (2003) longitudinal study also support Campbell and Campbell (2007), suggesting a link between the mentor's role and engaging the mentee in learning and the academic community. Alred and Garvey (2000) and McLean (2004) assert that mentorship is beneficial to the learner's development, although they do not suggest specifically what these benefits are. However, they focus upon the benefits of the relationship between mentor and mentee. Crucially, the mentor enables the mentee to engage in the academic community quicker, and more efficiently. This process of becoming a participant in the community is viewed very much as a socio cultural process in the acquisition of new knowledge and skills. Thus, learning is equated with the process in which participation moulds knowledge and identity.

Learning is a social and situated process where the development of skill, knowledge and understanding are grounded within the institutional environment where students interact within various processes of participation and engagement. Alred and Garvey (2000) appraise the literature concerning mentoring in the context of knowledge productivity and introduce the notion of the 'learning landscape' to illustrate the shift from apprentice type instructor led learning to a much more social and holistic model of learning in which the learner is at the centre of this process. They allude to the value of mentorship within the context of higher education, and

give emphasis to placing the student at the heart of an authentic learning process. This places emphasis upon the role of engagement described by Lave and Wenger (1991) and the notion of 'situated learning'. Lave and Wenger assert that learning is socially constructed but distinctly takes place within an authentic context. As students engage in authentic discussion and activities over a period of time a community of practise is formed, where the student is fully engaged with the practise of the community.

Alred and Garvey (2000) introduce the notion of the 'learning landscape' as a scaffold to illustrate the context of knowledge productivity within a community. This scaffold represents the social and cultural influences that shape the learner, and illustrates the shift to a social and holistic model of the learning landscape that is driven by the student. There are seven key areas that are identified as part of the learning landscape by Alred and Garvey (2000) as having particular relevance to the mentoring relationship in this setting:

- The acquisition of subject matter expertise and skill directly related to the scope of target competence.
- Learning to solve problems by using domain specific expertise.
- Developing reflective and critical thinking skills conducive to locating paths leading to new knowledge and its application.
- Securing communication skills that provide access to the knowledge network of others and those that enrich the learning environment.
- Procure skills that regulate motivation and affections related to learning.
- Promote stability to enable specialisation, cohesion and integration.
- Causing creative turmoil to instigate improvement and innovation.

(Alred and Garvey 2000, p. 264).

In order for this landscape to succeed in knowledge production, the student needs to be at the centre of the learning process and engaged within the community. It is this process, Alred and Garvey (2000) suggest that learning in, and through the mentoring relationship enables the knowledge production of the student to be enhanced. It is the peer mentor that aids and facilitates this learning, the peer mentor enables the mentee to participate in academic life much earlier, choosing, and attaining the 'subject matter expertise and skill and in developing reflective and critical thinking skills conducive to new knowledge' (Alred and Garvey 2000, p. 264). The relationship between the mentor and the mentee contributes to breaking down some of the barriers that inhibit participation, thus enabling the mentee to rapidly access the support mechanisms available and engage with academic activities and securing communication skills that provide access to the knowledge of others (Alred and Garvey 2000, p. 264) in order to determine their own unique learning, and challenging the traditional role of the lecturer as the expert in knowledge.

It is when considering the notion of 'inside knowledge' that the real impact upon learning begins to materialise. Stringer-Cawyer et al. (2002, p. 225) suggest that the process of mentoring facilitates socialisation, as mentees learn and adapt to the processes, values, social knowledge available within the institution. Early access to this inside knowledge would help the student to learn more effectively and to establish a stronger sense of belonging and participation within the learning community and the development of the confidence to select learning. The peer mentor, by virtue

of their ‘inside knowledge’ is able to translate the curriculum, socially constructing and offering guidance in choosing what, and how to learn.

The basis of Lave and Wenger’s (1991) assertion concerning knowledge productivity is rooted in their observation that learning is viewed as a form of participation and that the learner should be at the centre of the learning process. The central tenet of ‘situated learning’ is that learning, and the production of knowledge, is generated by the experience. Thus learning is equated with the process by which participation moulds knowledge and identity. It is participation, facilitated by the peer mentor in this community that enables in part, the mentee to access inside knowledge. Alred and Garvey (2000, p. 265) suggest that it is this engagement with the learning process that gives impetus to the value of informal situated learning and within this context ‘a mentor encourages persistence and effort’ (Alred and Garvey 2000, p. 267). One way of doing this is by helping the mentee focus on the process of learning and on progress made rather than on their ability to do the tasks in hand, adopting Hase and Kenyon’s (2000) approach to self-determined learning.

Self-efficacy is essential for student success in this context. The belief that one can succeed is clearly linked to positive performance. Bandura and Locke (2003) emphasise the importance of self-efficacy: Self-efficacy beliefs...affect whether individuals think in self-enhancing or self-debilitating ways, how well they motivate themselves and persevere in the face of difficulties, the quality of their emotional well-being and their vulnerability to stress and depression (Bandura and Locke 2003, p. 87). Embracing a culture of success should aid students successful learning, as illustrated by Margolis (2005) who suggests that self-efficacy is essential and those students with strong self-efficacy are characterised by higher motivation, greater effort, persist longer and consequently achieve more. Roberts (2000) also suggested in relation to self-efficacy, that the mentor enabled the mentee to discover latent abilities, growth in confidence, personal growth, increased awareness, increased effectiveness, self-actualisation and resonance (Roberts 2000, p. 178). Breen et al. (2001), McLean (2004), Campbell and Campbell (2007), Flumerfeldt et al. (2007) and Lennox-Terrion and Leonard (2010). Distinctly, the mentor provides a model of positive behaviour that reflects success and experience, acting as a powerful transmitter of values and attitudes, which reinforce successful learning. Mentors contributed to the ‘self-efficacy’ by procuring skills that Alred and Garvey (2000, p. 264) suggest enhance learning and the production of knowledge.

Engagement with the process of mentoring within the context of learning enables the student to rapidly inhabit and navigate the systems and structures of HEI by providing access to the inside knowledge that the mentor has developed. Distinctly, the mentor is able to translate reality, and help the mentee inhabit their own internalised patterns of reasoning, enabling the development of a learning landscape and space to learn. The peer mentor is able to facilitate co reflection, enabling the mentee to articulate what they did, their learning and knowledge preferences and how these can be interpreted, constructed and applied within the real world. For this landscape to succeed in knowledge and skill acquisition, the learner needs to be at the centre of this process and engaged within the community. It is this process that learning in, and through the mentoring process enables the skill, knowledge and role of the

individual to be enhanced and represents the social and cultural influences that shape the learner, and illustrates the shift to a social and holistic model of learning.

This chapter presents the argument that a self-determined learning approach that involves an expansion and re-interpretation of andragogical principles—a shift in thinking towards Heutagogy will enhance the learning experience for students and student communities in response to an ever changing higher education and societal landscape. The case for the application of heutagogical principles; where the learner is able to develop space, and promoting the learner as an ‘architect’ of learning, producing dynamic curricula that are community and group focussed have been presented. Key concepts explored included the concept of habitus, where the student is seen as an arranger and exploiter of space and the association with the notion of student as an architect of learning, where learning is arranged around activities rather than content, thus allowing the content to be context-specific. The interdependence of habitus, architect and heutagogical learning is clear, where students will create their own pattern of ideas and experiences relevant to their own mind and being...promoting the ‘knowing’, ‘being’ and ‘acting’ of an engaging student centred curriculum as part of a distinct community.

Whilst we do not advocate that students are given a ‘tabula rasa’ on entry to university, as this is unlikely to provide the response society demands from its graduates in this dynamic and ever-changing world. Indeed, Canning and Callan (2010, p. 76) suggest that there are two pre-requisites for a heutagogical approach; ‘emotional literacy and emotional identity’ both of which developed in learners by effective mentorship.

We conclude by placing emphasis upon the case for heutagogical principles for promoting engagement and community learning; the importance of professional and vocational skills alongside academic skills and to emphasise the importance of committed educators who can develop a challenging pedagogical environment that embraces the epistemological, ontological and skill development required by society of the contemporary graduate. University education requires educators to be responsive to the needs of the students and its community, in an ever-increasing performance-driven and consumerist culture. Heutagogy is an approach that can be adopted to enhance the curriculum. A shift in thinking and practise towards a Heutagogy will enable the learner with the support of mentor-assisted learning and a solution-focused approach to learning and teaching to develop space—promoting the learner as an architect of learning and a cultural act that enables students to learn about the nature of understanding and their role in making knowledge, that inspires them to work for professional and social change.

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Chapter 4

On the Edge

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Community Development courses in UK Universities are on the periphery of institutions that are increasingly driven by business principles and adherent to the Higher Education ethos and market-driven funding culture of the current Conservative government. This is a reflection of the world of austerity and cuts to public service budgets outside the University within which Community Development practitioners try to generate resilience and self-reliance whilst being vulnerable themselves to closure of organisations and job losses with resultant insecurity. At the same time the profile of applicants to the Community Development course at this University has shifted and we are recruiting mostly women from working class communities local to the University, including strong representation of people who migrated to the UK as refugees and now have Indefinite Leave to remain in the UK. Market forces within and beyond the University result in vulnerability of the future of the course itself and even the staff of the course who have felt secure in their jobs for years move closer to becoming part of the insecure workforce along with the students and the staff of partner Third Sector organisations. To oversimplify, a course on the edge is recruiting people from communities on the edge to work in a sector on the edge. Staff, students and the sector share the challenges of exclusion and marginalisation. Theoretical constructs about people in such liminal positions, will be applied to the particular circumstances of the course. These include work on ‘precarity’ by Pierre Bourdieu and Guy Standing; and Robert Castel’s three zones model. This chapter is about the implications of this for a Community Development and Social Care course in relation to integrity, ethics of recruitment, curriculum design, equality of opportunity, and sustainability. This is set against the background of what Barnett (2013) refers to as ‘emergence of a tacit idea of the corporate university’ (p. 1) influenced by a powerful ideology of neo-liberalism. Community

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Development educators in UK Universities face the challenge of how to equip people to transform their world whilst being beholden to a system primarily designed to serve the current social and economic system.

Education either functions as an instrument which is used to facilitate the integration of the younger generation into the logic of the present system and bring conformity to it, or it become 'the practice of freedom', the means by which men and women deal critically and creatively in the transformation of their world. Shaull, R. foreword to *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (Freire, P 2005)

This foundational text for so many Community Development educators is as great a challenge now as it was when it was written and when Paulo Freire's original epistle of *Pedagogy of the oppressed* was published more than 40 years ago. Given that empowerment is a pillar of Community Development, when students from disadvantaged and marginalised communities are enrolled onto Community Development degree courses at UK Universities, is the purpose to facilitate integration into conformity to the current system of social policy and of University corporate strategy; or to be the means for students to learn to be critical practitioners creatively transforming their world and the world around them? Attempting to do both of these sets up a dynamic tension between the 'edge' and the power position of the 'centre'.

The following reflections are based on a year-long periodic course review process that involved consultation with managers and academic colleagues from several Higher Education providers, Employers, current and former students, placement providers. The External Examiner advised the Course Team to map the curriculum against National Occupational Standards for Community Development. He also invited course staff to present at the national seminar about developing the Community Development curriculum that led to this publication. This was a valuable opportunity to meet academic colleagues from Community Development across the UK; providing examples of good practise and useful feedback. The course in question is set in a University that prides itself on being an entrepreneurial University.

A series of four Course Review meetings have been held involving colleagues from other courses, disciplines and Faculties, local employers, and students. The curriculum was evaluated by this group in detail both by year and by theme. It was agreed that the introduction of themes linking modules between levels 1, 2 and 3 would strengthen the infrastructure of the course and help to reinforce the course identity, clarity of purpose and direction. As well as being represented at the Course Review meetings, students have been consulted through the regular student forums and an annual evaluation day for all students on the course. At this event each year, the group evaluated their experience of that level of the course. This was followed by groups for level 3 students to mentor level 2 and level 1 students.

Taking into account, the rapidly changing policy context of Community Development and Social Care nationally and internationally, this critical review focused upon evaluation of an undergraduate course within the mixed economy of welfare. Guided by the University Corporate plan for teaching and learning and

research strategy, it reviewed three areas: Mission, Curriculum and Graduate Destinations. Commencing with stakeholder evaluation of the course, it critically reviewed the current programme and proposed course development in response to challenges faced in society as a result of social, demographic and economic changes. The discussion moved to branding and promotion of the programme, suggesting that there is a mismatch between student satisfaction and recruitment. It used feedback from students and employers to make the purpose and appeal of the programme more explicit to potential applicants and their information networks. Finally, the review argued that, although the sector has been damaged by austerity measures, there is continuing demand for a graduate level Community Development and Social Care workforce. It concluded by suggesting that a move away from a generic applied social studies curriculum to a more specific programme focussed on personal and professional development for Community Development and Social Care workers is the best way forward. To implement this, a revised curriculum supported with revised Module Descriptors has been designed for approval by the University, newly informed by National Occupational Standards. However, there has been a new round of recruitment since the review and since this was disappointing there is a new discussion about whether this was a mistake. For the purpose of this chapter the debate is what counts rather than the outcome pertaining to a specific course. The issues raised are hopefully of wider interest than the particulars of the course review, so it is these central issues that will be explored here in the hope that further debate about the future of a Community Development curriculum can be maintained within the sector.

The aims of the programme remain:

1. To offer a world-class educational opportunity to a diverse group of students aiming to pursue a graduate level career in Community Development and Social Care, locally, nationally or internationally;
2. To develop the capacity of 'The Community Development and Social Care' workforce to bring about positive and lasting change in people's lives.

The objectives are:

1. To facilitate personal and professional development;
2. To engage in research-informed teaching and learning as a community of practise;
3. To equip students with knowledge, skills and understanding needed to become effective Community Development and Social Care practitioners;
4. And to enhance students' employability.

Politics and Economy of ‘Welfare’

In the last 5 years there have been significant changes in the landscape of social welfare. There have been cuts to publicly funded services, demographic changes including an ageing population and associated expansion of the need for particular kinds of social care. Different organisation types have become better known and active in meeting social needs such as social enterprises and community interest companies. Private sector companies have brought new innovative schemes to the market, offering social care for payment, including retirement villages. There have been changes to welfare law such as personalisation, benefits reforms and changes to social housing provision. These have had an impact on the lives of a variety of individuals and families including people affected by mental health problems, people with disabilities, unemployed people and people on low incomes. Community Development courses have to keep abreast of the rapid changes in their socio-economic and political environment.

Since the course review took place there has been a critical national election bringing in a Conservative government convinced it has a mandate for further cuts to public expenditure and therefore public services.

Sarah Banks (2003) describes constraints of working for a Local Authority in community development roles where there is tension between working with community members for the genuine benefit of the community and working to implement government policies and initiatives. Cuts mean losing the constraints but simultaneously the resources. She also highlights tensions for community members encouraged to contribute to design and delivery of local services as part of a so-called big society and at the same time facing cuts to public services and expectations to become part of processes of control and surveillance within disadvantaged communities. Community engagement and community cohesion are often funded side by side. Take for instance Muslim communities in urban conurbation neighbourhoods in the UK expected to volunteer and to prove their citizenship and at the same time expected to tackle extremism on the misguided assumption that they are close enough to do so.

The majority of those employed in social care are women as are the majority of unpaid carers. Older women make up the majority of social care service users, often living on low incomes after spending their working lives as carers themselves (Women’s Budget Group 2015). Local authority spending has fallen and is projected to continue to fall despite adult social care needs rising; and local authorities have reduced state-funded care through individual care packages every year since 2008–2009 (National Audit Office 2014). The students currently recruited to the course are mostly women and for men and women, social care work is the most common occupation of the students before and during university studies. This is low paid, precarious work, often on zero-hours contracts. A central motivation of students is to progress out of this sector of the labour market into well paid graduate roles with greater job security.

Carol Packham (2008) points out that whilst the promotion of citizenship and voluntary experience can increase the range of skills and knowledge of volunteers; this is primarily for their own benefit and future employability rather than part of a movement aiming at social change. The course attracts students with very different approaches to this and therefore very different degrees of understanding of community development. If they have volunteered simply to gain experience to improve their employability or even to meet the entry requirements of the university they may not have engaged in a wider movement of people trying to transform the lives of whole communities. This translates into different motivations to do the course and different relationships to marginalised communities. Some students do the course out of commitment to transformative practise; others want to use University to escape from 'the edge' and to move away from disadvantage.

To maintain integrity, the course takes account not only of relevance to students and their employability but also to the needs and dynamics of communities. Genuine engagement with communities is required to keep the course coherent and meaningful. Where partnerships are established with groups, communities and organisations this is a valuable context for student learning and an opportunity to create communities of practise and learning organisations beyond the confines of the University campus.

Higher Education Trends

The capitalist university (Slaughter and Leslie 1997) pursues primarily economic goals. Higher Education has been subjected to commodification and courses have become services to be sold in the marketplace (Shumar 1997). Entrepreneurial Universities will close courses that do not serve their financial interests (Barnett 2013) regardless of public interests, let alone the interests of marginalised powerless people in society. The capitalist view on running Universities as efficient businesses is powerful in the Higher education sector in the U.K. despite the non-profit charitable status of Universities and their laudable transformational educational mission statements. Students borrow from the student loan company to pay for their University fees and the benefit is considered to be a private and individual one and not a social good (Lawrence and Sharma 2002).

Charging higher student fees and offering loans rather than grants or bursaries to pay these is part of the process through which universities are being 'financialised'. Cowden and Singh (2013) go as far as to suggest that financial power and debt have come to structure the whole way in which universities function as institutions. This includes who is able to access Higher education and to what degree programmes are offered. Universities are in danger of losing sight of their wider role in contributing to society and deciding what courses to offer to maximise fee income rather than to meet skill shortages in the economy or to offer solutions to global and local problems. Education gets dominated by need to earn money to pay off debts (Cowden and Singh 2013). This is an underlying message in the employability agenda.

Funding also influences which research is supported by the University and the bureaucratisation of ethics approval is another hurdle. Community Development academics, if less restricted, could do more action research or campaigning work with small community organisations. Work with large charities tends to get negotiated by powerful university research centres as part of big competitive funding bids to research councils. The modularised University system can fragment teaching and learning so we have to use proactive team work and effective communication between module leaders to maintain coherence and meaningful individual and collective student journeys through the programme. Universities make money from student accommodation; our students already living locally, are not such good money spinners as some groups of overseas students or school leavers from elsewhere in the UK or European Union. Overseas fees are higher. Despite growing up abroad, the majority of current Community Development students on the course are settled in the UK and no longer count as international. Universities have numbers of expansion plans so they want courses that attract large numbers regardless of a need for graduates. This is influenced by removal of cap on student numbers & short-termism.

Community Development

Prevalence of what Banks (2003) calls Community Practise increased in the 10 years until the publication of *Managing Community Practise* it has since faced the onslaught of public sector spending cuts. The term Community Practise did not come into common use but a variety of words were prefixed with Community, such as community engagement, community needs assessment. Banks uses Community Practise to refer to work with a community focus regardless of the professional identity of the person or organisation carrying out that work. Butcher et al. (2007) coined the phrase to describe the growing number of practitioners other than community workers who were turning to a focus on community within their work such as community enterprise and community care initiatives. Banks acknowledges that the terms community development and community work have a longer history and are better known.

Since Community development is substantially based on non-profit organisations such as faith groups, community groups, community centres and action groups, so is the course. Over the years the network built up by the staff and students of the course has been primarily with small local charities and Non-Governmental Organisations. This is where work experience placements have been established and where the course is best known and understood by employers and practitioners, including alumni.

Dominance of market principles in social economy policy making creates policy pressures for organisations to compete with one another and current government emphasis on devolving responsibility for the solution of social problems to the local area level and to ordinary citizens puts pressure on small Third-sector organisations

to restructure, comply with the operating systems of more powerful partners, mimicking commercial businesses (Harris 2010). Universities are doing likewise.

The Periphery

A course like this, recruiting mostly women from disadvantaged socioeconomic groups, is in danger of colluding with the feminisation of poverty and the perpetuation of gender division of Care in society and of the history of Black women's domestic servitude in the pattern of provision of home care and residential social care.

Engels is credited with the term reserve army of labour to refer to workers in casual, insecure employment available when needed and dispensable when not required, and then Karl Marx theorised the idea further as necessary to capitalist organisation of work. The concept was adopted in the late 1970s by feminist authors claiming that specifically women are a reserve army of labour. Women workers are particularly useful to capital to be brought in and out of wage labour as the interests of capital dictate. Women are still found in occupationally segregated ghettos (Pearce 1978) within which there is demand for cheap flexible labour and during economic recession employers looking for cost savings casualise the workforce and offer zero-hour contracts. One such ghetto is Social Care. Whilst community development is a more complex picture, the recruitment pattern of the course suggests that when employability in secure jobs in the sector goes down very few applications are received from men.

A newer concept of 'the precariat' arising from Pierre Bourdieu's (2004) description of precarity is also relevant. It refers to workers who endure insecure conditions including low paid, low skilled service sector work, affected by growth of agency work, outsourcing and privatisation (Standing 2011). Demographically some groups have a relatively high probability of being in the precariat. Migrants make up a large share of the world's precariat whilst trying to improve their lives (Standing 2011). The course recruits a high proportion of its students from local communities of relatively recent migrants including people with refugee status.

Standing (2011) identifies two categories of people in the precariat: some who have no choice and are truly insecure whom he calls victims and some who do not want the alternatives such as people who have security in their social relationships such as enjoying family support and are actually secure but the flexibility of casual employment suits them when they wish to obtain money or experience or both. Some, according to Standing, enter the precariat hoping it is a stepping stone to something else.

Recruits to the course mostly fall into the first 'victims' category, with a few in the second category. All of them are hoping to use the course to improve their level of security and to move out of the precariat. It is less insecure here and now to be a University student with a loan from the student loan company than on a low paid insecure zero-hour job. Applicants to the course consistently say they want to help

people and demonstrate a generic sense of community orientation but they often lack understanding of the social economy. In many cases they do not have a clear path in mind at the start and do not identify themselves with Community Development so much as with a vague sense of wanting to 'do good'.

Being in touch with asylum seekers and refugee networks through the students' personal networks and through contact with informal support groups formed and run entirely voluntarily is not a likely source of graduate paid employment however a recent graduate from the course did become the first paid employee of just such a group. Many students remain committed to transforming the plight of people from their own disadvantaged communities and are authentically involved in community development of and by those affected. They are building power with their communities rather than seeking power over them. In other words they have solidarity with others in the precariat rather than putting their own need to escape from it first. Others regard University as their individual opportunity to improve their life and that of their immediate family by getting well paid employment and place less emphasis on collective causes. Of course this is oversimplistic; there is a complex dynamic in any society between individual and collective goals. This is a live dynamic throughout the educational process of the course. The challenge for the course is how to meet competing needs: to keep in touch with the concerns of marginalised people individually and collectively.

Robert Castel (2000) published a three-zone model regarding social integration. In the zone of isolation there is lack of social relationships and lack of productive activities. The zone of vulnerability is characterised by people being in a precarious situation with fragile support from their environment. This can be associated with the idea of the precariat. The zone of integration offers a stable work environment and solid integration into social relationships.

In the zone of isolation, the course has contact but rarely succeeds in bridging the gap between people in those circumstances and achieving a degree. Each year one or two students try to take the leap from very challenging isolated situations into the course but too often it proves to be a step too far at the time, they struggle and they usually withdraw due to the incompatibility between studying at University and simply 'getting by' personally, financially and health-wise. Students from the zone of vulnerability are the norm for the course and whilst they also struggle with family commitments, personal, financial and health issues, with support, they get through and often do well. They show remarkable resilience in overcoming the odds and succeeding in achieving good classifications of honours degrees. The course offers a way into the zone of integration from the zone of vulnerability.

Competition

Special features of this course, such as preparation of students for employment in Third-Sector and Non-Government welfare organisations and work experience through placements in partnership with local charitable organisations, have been

adopted by other courses within the University, affecting the niche market of the course and creating new competition. Professional programmes, such as Social Work and Occupational Therapy, previously tended to send students on placement to Statutory Local Authority or National Health Service placements. With the affects of austerity cuts on public services, this is no longer the case. Social Sciences courses are now enhanced in their local engagement and employability with speakers, and work experience in local charities and community contexts. Across the University Employability and Placements Units have been introduced and have started networking with Third Sector organisations for all students of the University.

The course has always attracted candidates who know they want to work with people but are still unsure which professional capacity they want to assume. This is now part of the marketing message of internal competitor courses such as Childhood and Youth Studies; and Public Health and Community Studies.

The dominance of market principles in policy making for the social economy creates pressures for organisations to compete with each other (Harris 2010). This is also true of Higher Education institutions. Student numbers are directly linked to funding and staff resources. The market economy of Higher Education has been reinforced by government funding policies.

Community Development courses compete for student recruitment with Social Policy, Health and Social Care, Housing, Applied Social Sciences; all offering third-sector placements and student trips, many also 3 or 4 years with a year abroad. There are also Health, Community and Social Care courses mapped to the QCF Level 5 Diploma in Leadership for Health and Social Care that attract applicants for Community Development courses; and Youth and Community Development courses validated by national Youth agency and professional recognition by Joint Negotiating Committee for youth work, with good placement opportunities. These courses are at once competitors and potential allies for academic and professional collaboration. Working with Children, Young People and Families courses have experienced a recent renaissance of popularity with applicants and hence Universities touting for student numbers, attracting large student numbers.

In this particular case, applicants frequently have also applied for Social Work, Occupational Therapy, Sociology or Criminology. Staff teams and employers see these courses and professional paths as distinctive but this is less clear to many prospective students.

The course is smaller than competitor courses which enables the exceptional tailored support offered to students through individual and group tutorials. The diversity of the students attracted to the course so far and their combined international and local community experiences is an exceptional learning opportunity for everyone involved.

The central message coming from student feedback for the course review is that students like the course, value the extensive opportunities for employment and further studies that it opens up to them but feel that the course identity and branding is not strong enough. Some applicants were able to seek out the opportunity to do the course by recognising the expression of Community Development values. This sets the programme apart from competitor courses that place less emphasis on values.

Others did not find it easy to identify and understand the course offer, but they are glad that they enrolled and over time they have got clearer about and more engaged with the core values and content of the course. Links between practise and theory are considered to be strong and as students improve their ability to be reflective practitioners, they become more enthusiastic about the course. In particular, students appreciate the level of support they receive for their personal and professional development. However, small courses are vulnerable within entrepreneurial Universities that attend to pursuit of narrow, primarily financial interests and are driven to compete against rivals to be regarded as having impact on particular segments of the economy (Barnett 2013). In this case Community Development does not feature in the target segments.

Marketing and Recruitment

Amongst people new to working in the social economy and the Third sector there can be confusion about what is involved and what roles can be played. There is a bewildering diversity of organisational forms, contested values and widely different philosophy and vision (Bridge et al. 2009). Potential applicants to the course faced with this complicated field are often unsure whether it is for them. The name and branding of a course for recruitment differs from the name that graduates may in the end want on their degree certificate. They go through an educational experience and therefore they change and their expectations of the course, of employment prospects and of themselves change.

Community development was chosen partly due to student proposals of a course title and largely due to availability of the work on National Occupational Standards for Community Development undertaken in the 2000s, providing helpful benchmarking for curriculum development and a shared framework with several other Higher Education courses in the UK. The standards have a set of values at their core that staff and students could readily identify with and be motivated by as a bed-rock for the course.

The ascendancy of the function of marketing in the entrepreneurial University is hard to resist. Further market intelligence is needed to enable the course to target new markets and to increase market share. Whilst such corporate, commercial language feels incompatible with the values of Community Development, some features can be embraced without loss of integrity such as networking, internationalisation and equality of opportunity. Meetings have been held with central marketing and international marketing colleagues within the University to improve the marketing strategy of the course. New marketing initiatives will be pursued and existing marketing materials will be improved and enhanced.

New marketing materials will be produced emphasising points that are of particular importance to overseas students such as placement opportunities and qualifications of teaching staff. The course had applicants from the following countries in 2013–2014: Ethiopia, Ghana, India, Kenya, Nigeria, Saudi Arabia and Tanzania.

Data from the International Office will be used to review the interest in Community Development from particular countries or regions so that agents in those areas can be briefed effectively about the course offer. University commercial interest in recruiting students who pay high fees sits uncomfortably with recruiting students from poor communities in poor countries such as Tanzania and Kenya. Nevertheless research into the status of Community Development in a range of countries would be interesting and add understanding that can be applied not only to marketing but to international perspectives in the curriculum. The educational value of international participation in the course is self-evident.

Student Employability

The Third Sector remains at the core of the programme. This is continuously changing and developing so the course has been revised to keep up with the changes in governance and funding. With changes in the job market following public sector cuts, greater emphasis will be placed on preparing students for work opportunities in social enterprises and in the private Community Engagement, Housing, Social Care and services sector.

Students are largely motivated to study at University in order to secure employment that offers a living wage, greater security and job satisfaction. In order to be in a position to support their ambitions the course offers a variety of clear career opportunities and equips students for the workforce with skills that employers need. Looking at jobs advertised in Social Care, in the Charities sector and Community Development, there are shifts that the course needs to stay ahead of, such as the expansion of the role of fundraising, ability to tender for services that are now commissioned; and entrepreneurial capacity. Sessions with the Employability and Placements Unit and the University careers service are integrated in the taught programme as are visiting speakers and opportunities to meet with employers. Individual careers and employability support is offered in tutorials and through collaboration with the masters in Careers Guidance.

According to a report by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and development (2015) overall, 58.8 % of UK graduates are in jobs deemed to be non-graduate roles with overqualification at saturation point. With the general graduate picture being like this, what are the prospects for graduates of a discipline 'on the edge'? Surprisingly in the case of this community development course, graduate destinations are significantly higher and the majority of students achieve graduate roles in relevant fields of employment or progress to relevant masters such as international development. This is largely due to enhanced skills, and confidence through personal and professional development and one-to-one support for achieving individual career goals. Placements are a contributing factor, so is the tutorial system and the way that the course embraces community development values of community empowerment, collective action and working and learning together. Creating pedagogy focussed on relationships and on personal growth, choice and endeavour helps

students over the long run to plough their own furrow. Student comments during the review emphasise process more than contents. Rather than for specific course content, the staffs are thanked for ‘giving me courage’, for ‘pushing me’, ‘challenging, guiding and advising’, ‘taking us through this journey’, and ‘supporting me to change as a person’.

The National Occupational Standards for Community Development have been mapped against the Course contents and revisions and extensions have been incorporated in the Programme Specification and Module Descriptors from 2015 onwards. The level 1 and level 2 module learning outcomes have also been mapped against Qualification and Credits (QCF) Framework level 5 for leadership and management in Social Care, to show employers that students have equivalent skills, knowledge and understanding.

According to Skills for Care 2013, almost three quarters (72 %) of jobs in adult social care were with independent sector employers. Jobs in local authorities accounted for less than 10 % of all jobs, and jobs in the NHS accounted for 5 % of the total. This is a major shift since the Course was last reviewed and requires a new emphasis to be placed on Social Enterprise, Private companies and Community Interest Companies within the curriculum. The course already has a track record of preparing people to work in the Charity and Non-Government sector. This needs to be sustained.

Skills for Care estimate the number of jobs for direct payment recipients is likely to be between 190,000 and 280,000 and therefore 12–17 % of the total number of jobs. Self employment is another avenue to encourage students to explore.

Community Development Learning includes Community Development Practitioners or Practitioners from other occupations (health, housing, environment and many others) who are interested in using a Community Development approach in order to engage with and work effectively with communities. Employers and placement providers who contributed to the course review encouraged recognition of the significance of a community development approach to social care.

Annual Quality Monitoring Report for Each Year Since the Last Approval Event

The Annual Reports of the last 5 years show a consistently high level of student satisfaction and a strong track record of graduate employment, Community Interest Company startups and progression to post-graduate education. Once students are on the course, retention and engagement are good.

The Academic and Personal Tutorials scheme of the University has been consistently exceeded within the course. This has been central to the student experience and supported both academic attainment and employability.

There have been very positive outcomes every year regarding student feedback and satisfaction with all aspects of the course particularly teaching and learning and Academic and Personal Support. These aspects of the course need to be sustained.

Curriculum

Being a course that focuses on communities and individuals who are marginalised and disadvantaged in society; recruiting students from such communities locally and facing the daily internal institutional politics of being a peripheral, at risk course; impacts on the process and content of the curriculum. Most students had a very didactic educational experience before joining the course and arrive with a lack of independent learning skills and confidence. To start with students expect lecturers to provide them with knowledge to be stored and consumed. It is challenging to find ways of engaging students in a more collaborative interactive learning process in which they take responsibility. Much consideration is given to how to enable students to distinguish between giving opinions in a polemic way and forming opinions based on learning from experience, reading, thinking and reflecting on evidence (Richards and Richards 2013). Further practical issues experienced whilst implementing a dialogic approach and trying to overcome the assumption that knowledge will be transmitted to them as paying customers and consumers are discussed in Chap. 6.

Like many Community Development courses, this one raises awareness of social issues and elicits student social concerns and interests. It introduces students to reflective practise: not new to practitioners and staff but new to them. Lecturers develop strategies with (rather than for) social care workers and community activists within and beyond the University in partnership with local voluntary and community sector organisations. Whilst there is a legitimate expectation that the course will equip students with skills to find alternative and more senior, better paid, more secure and satisfying positions; this has to be balanced with solidarity with disadvantaged communities including those that students are part of. Reflecting current economics of social welfare the course introduces fundraising, creating CICS and social enterprises. It also features learning from practise in many different international settings and takes a comparative approach to poverty, conflict and other central issues affecting the security and well-being of communities, families and individuals. The course promotes Community Development as an approach that can be implemented in a myriad of different circumstances including social care. Academic and Personal tutorials are used to Support personal and professional development and enhance students' self esteem and confidence. The curriculum makes space for Community Development to be reinvented rather than being too protectionist of old ways from particular contexts, and seeks to inspire lasting positive change for 'the precariat' internationally through building the capacity of past and current students and partner organisations.

Social Housing relates to both social care and community development. Housing and Social Care are both re-emerging as significant social issues with particular challenges to be faced in the next decades for economic, political and demographic reasons. Greater prominence has been given to social housing in the revised curriculum.

To improve the branding of the course and to make it easier to navigate for applicants, students and staff, themes have been identified to link together modules at level 1, 2 and 3. Module names have been changed for coherence and improved communication of what can be expected.

Distinguishing Features

The course emphasises the link between community development and social care: community development supports people to resource, create and sustain social care services. It is also about social change which can prevent or reduce dependence on social care services and can contribute to the well-being of groups and individuals.

It has more than 15 years track record of collaborative engagement with the voluntary, community and welfare sector; and is delivered by a dedicated team of lecturers and tutors, well-qualified and very experienced in Community Development, Social Enterprise, and Welfare Rights and Social Welfare.

It benefits from involvement of former students now in leadership and management positions in charities, local government and social enterprises throughout the UK and internationally. The process of the curriculum equips students to become professionals working with communities, citizens and activists to strengthen civil society, build resilience and contribute to sustainable development and social care.

The capacity of students to engage people in social action, 'self-help' and participation in planning services and neighbourhoods is enhanced.

The course promotes personalised, community-based support, care, and protection for people in need or at risk due to discrimination, disadvantage, violence, trauma, displacement, illness, disability, isolation or poverty. It arranges for students to engage in government pilot initiatives, enhancing their employability in new and developing areas of work and research; and is proven to enable students to take up employment opportunities within the Third Sector at local, national and international levels, in the public sector in policy, commissioning and direct practise and within the private sector to support their social responsibility requirements and provide leadership and management of social care provision. Social research underpins the curriculum of the course; informing teaching and training students to be evidence-based in their practise. Work experience placements have consistently led a significant number of students to gain employment with organisations introduced to them by the course. The programme prepares students to contribute to social enterprises, Community Interest Companies and independent providers commissioned by local authorities and Clinical Commissioning Groups.

The extent to which the course is personalised and tailored to each student's strengths and aspirations is unusual in a faculty with courses that attract higher stu-

dent numbers. A high staff student ratio is a strength but also a risk. Despite being a live, up to date and realistic degree; centred on student learning experience and particularly supportive of each individual learner and their choices (as demonstrated by high scores in the National Student Survey); the course is vulnerable to be marginalised even closed due to low student recruitment numbers in comparison with other programmes in the same faculty. The remarkably diverse student group creates a community of practise with extraordinary combined local and international experience. At the same time there are challenges in working with this diversity when debating topical social and political issues and with real differences in learners' abilities and needs.

Conclusion

To secure a future within the University, all be it at the margin, we need to excel in those areas where Community Development values are compatible with the University strategic plan such as equality of opportunities, managing diversity, internationalisation, student satisfaction, and employability.

Being on the edge presents threats and opportunities for Higher Education Community Development teams. The threats include setting people up with huge debts and poor employability prospects; and risking course closure by not playing the game of the institution. This can be mitigated by practicing the community development principles we preach. We need to bring students together to support each other and to debate the future of Community Development. Academic and personal tutorials are a means to accompany students on a learning journey towards becoming critical practitioners with an understanding of their own relationship to the precariat. Human Rights and Equalities debates brought alive by personal experiences of political situations internationally form the core of the course and give it the strength of integrity. This would be lost if the course stood closer to the seats of power. Looking forward, creative Community Development education teams can take advantage of the flexibility of not being bound by professional bodies' standards, to respond to future change quicker than if they were more institutionalised.

The opportunities of being 'on the edge' include keeping in touch with communities, being aware of the impact of social policies and other socioeconomic factors on people's lives, retaining integrity by being regarded as also marginal, and widening participation in Higher education. Practising critical community development; and adhering to values and principles by being reminded of powerlessness and rapid change daily. Partnerships with Voluntary and Community sector organisations are gateways for keeping staff and students authentically in touch with vulnerable and disadvantaged people; and listening to their concerns firsthand.

Keeping the course on the edge gives it synergy with and understanding of community development practitioners and students from local disadvantaged, marginalised communities. It keeps it authentically in touch with the local precariat of residents in socioeconomically challenged neighbourhoods, migrants including refugees, asylum

seekers and illegal residents; with parents and children enduring poverty, people with disabilities struggling to be accepted into work and institutional life, and carers. Ironically though, in order to be a stepping stone for students seeking a route out of the precariat, the course has to tread a fine line between collusion with an Institution run on capitalist lines and maintaining ethical integrity, to protect a space offering opportunity to support significant personal change and professional development. The course needs not only to avoid complete closure and exclusion from the University but also to maintain a position of being a route out of insecure low paid employment and lack of social capital for students, their dependents and for communities 'on the edge'.

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Chapter 5

Collaborative Working in the Statutory and Voluntary Sectors

Younus Khan and Jamie P. Halsall

Introduction

Voluntary organisations have been at the heart of social action in the UK throughout the country's history. Service provision, mutual aid, campaigning, and advocacy in all forms have evolved here, and people in the UK are often particularly proud of charitable and socialistic impulses that have found expression under voluntary sector auspices

(Kendall and Knapp 1996, p. 1).

As the above quote demonstrates, the voluntary sector has become a key, influential factor that plays a vital role in local communities across the United Kingdom. The voluntary sector has also been termed the 'third sector.' Past and current governments have given more responsibilities to the voluntary sector. In the British media in 1994, the then Leader of the Opposition, Tony Blair, argued that the voluntary sector is 'not an optional extra but a vital part of our economy, helping to achieve many of our key social objectives' (Prochaska 2005). Since this time, the voluntary sector has been perceived to be a lynch pin between central and local government. Many politicians and social policy makers believe that the third sector acts as a key negotiator for the local community. Over recent times, the public has mistrusted politicians and been sceptical of the government's ability to improve society. For example, a book written by Russell Brand in 2014 argued that there is

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a ‘total mistrust of politicians’ (Vincent 2014). Hence, it is this premise that sets out the purpose of this chapter. The aim of this chapter is to explore the contribution that the voluntary sector makes within society, but more importantly how the voluntary sector plays a crucial role in the higher education sector today. The chapter is comprised of three parts. The first part will provide a theoretical discussion on the voluntary and community sector organisations in the United Kingdom. The second part will set out the case study context. The final part will critically explore the case study of Pukar, a voluntary sector organisation. In this chapter, the authors argue that the voluntary sector plays a crucial role in society and that in a voluntary organisation there are a number of multiple users that utilise this service.

The Voluntary and Community Sector Organisations

The voluntary sector has been defined in various ways. Different terms have been used to describe these types of organisations; these terms range from the voluntary sector, the third sector, and community sector organisations. Moreover Bridge et al. (2009, p. 49) have noted other ‘labels’ namely: ‘non-profit sector,’ the ‘social economy’, and the ‘social enterprise sector.’ As with any definition, it is difficult to pin down a precise meaning of the concept of the voluntary sector. When examining work from Kendall (2003), he has provided several definitions of what is meant by the term the voluntary sector. Overall, Kendall (2003, p. 6) in the broadest sense has defined the voluntary sectors as ‘organisations which are formal, non-profit distributing, constitutionally independent of the state, self-governing and benefiting from voluntarism.’ Interestingly, Bridge et al. (2009, p. 49) have noted that the third sector has two ‘components’ which are (1) ‘Exclusive’ and; (2) ‘Inclusive.’ They perceive the ‘Exclusive’ approach as being:

...more narrow and focused. It seeks to delineate a set of organisations which share certain characteristics, even if those characteristics are quite widely held, and to exclude others which do not. What is included in such a definition is likely to be relatively homogeneous. Definitions of the social economy, of social enterprise or other components of the third sector are generally of this sort.

Hence, Bridge et al. (2009, p. 49) view the ‘Inclusive’ style as being:

...broader and more embracing. It seeks to include, rather than to exclude, and to integrate, rather than to separate. What it includes may therefore be quite heterogeneous. Definitions of the third sector itself generally fall into this category.

According to Kendall and Knapp (1996, p. 13), when examining debates on the voluntary sector emerging themes become apparent, firstly the association between the voluntary sector and the state; secondly, the relationship with central/local government and the voluntary sector with the ‘structure of society.’ Moreover, Milbourne and Cushman (2013, p. 487) have identified that ‘a growing literature has considered the effects of changes in public services on third sector agencies, highlighting the growing emphasis on competition and regulatory and performance frameworks

in this mixed welfare economy.’ The motivations of these debates have come under unprecedented scrutiny due to the positive embrace of New Labour (1997–2010) and the Conservative/Liberal Democrat coalition government. Previous and current governments have given more responsibilities to the voluntary sector. As Powell (2012, p. 3) has noted ‘today a strong cross-party political consensus exists to support the role of the voluntary sector in the delivery of many aspects of public welfare.’ In political ideological terms, Powell (2012, p. 3) goes on to argue that ‘this contrasts markedly from the post war era dependency on strong local state involvement in public services that eventually came under critique’ from different ends of the political spectrum. In some ways, this new approach to the importance of the sector can be identified with the ‘third way.’ Giddens (1998, p. 26) has observed that the third way ‘refers to a framework of thinking and policy-making that seeks to adapt social democracy to a world which has changed fundamentally over the past two or three decades.’ Furthermore, Anthony Giddens identifies the third way as integration of ‘both old-style social democracy and neoliberalism’ (Giddens 1998, p. 26). The reason for the acceptance of the third way has been motivated by benefits of the voluntary sector to central government. The past Labour government saw this to be the case. As Hutton and Bevan (2003, p. 26) noted at the time, when the Labour party were in government:

The current government recognises the potential benefits of increased contestability in the delivery of public services. Short- and medium-term concerns about public services failing to deliver in many areas, principally in health, education, and local government, have resulted in the Government taking a pragmatic approach on ‘what works.’ There is no ideological objection either to using the private sector in public service delivery, or to introducing greater competition between public sector and third sector providers.

Hence, as this quote demonstrates, central government appreciates the importance of public services being run and managed at a local level (Jones and Liddle 2011). The fundamental reason why there is an appreciation for public services having a more localised agenda is that people who live and work in the area have a deep understanding of the geographical area.

Since the election of 2010, there has been a change of emphasis on the voluntary sector. This modification by the coalition government was in response to tackling the significant levels of public debt. In May 2010, the coalition introduced the concept of the ‘Big Society.’ The original idea of the big society came from the Conservatives when they were in opposition (2005–2010). According to Westwood (2011, p. 691), the attraction of the big society for the Conservative party is comparable with social capital as it ‘describes the social networks, trust and connections within communities that ultimately help to improve social, physical and economic conditions as well as the lives and life chances of those where it exists.’ In some ways, there is an assumption of the introduction of the big society as a decentralisation process from central government to local government. Chapman et al. (2010, p. 614) stated that the ‘Prime Minister David Cameron claimed that by reducing the size of government, the “big society” will emerge. The government positions the third sector as a key component of the big society but it is not yet clear how much government will invest in its wellbeing, or rely on corporate or private philanthropy

to sustain it.’ They go on to express that ‘the idea of a big society appears to assume, implicitly, that partnership is of central importance in strengthening civil society’ (Chapman et al. 2010, p. 614). This emergence of the big society has provided a political discourse in the public domain (Halsall et al. 2014, 2015; Smith and Jones 2015; Byrne et al. 2014; Edwards 2012; Scott 2010). Overall, the concept of the big society is seen by the coalition as a tool that works in hand in hand with local government. Szreter and Ishkanian (2012, p. 10) have defined the concept of the ‘big society as being all about empowering individuals, communities and organisations, promoting greater responsibilities, and access to information.’ In one sense, the big society could be seen here as a concept that is building on the product of community and neighbourhood-based services. This is comparable to ideas from Pierson (2008, pp. 9–10) who argues that community-based services have been ‘developed in response to service fragmentation and gaps created by decades of practice based on the birds-eye view.’ Having discussed the theoretical and policy framework of the third sector that currently exist in the UK, the chapter now moves on to discuss the case study of Pukar.

Case Study: Pukar

Pukar disability resource centre’s main aim is to work with disabled people, their carers, and families to maintain their independence, and to make accessible a centre in Preston city centre, where disabled adults, carers, and diverse communities wanting to improve skills can access information, resources, education, and training from trained staff tutors and volunteers.

Pukar provides a range of support, advice, and information that is sensitive to culture, faith, and language as well as offering educational, social, and leisure activities. Currently, Pukar is a user-led organisation that has been described as a community asset by several organisations including the University of Central Lancashire as it has an impact on the local community.

Pukar means ‘voice’ in Hindi. The charity was initiated by the late Poppy Tanna who became disabled as a result of a car accident. Poppy retrained as a teacher after a period of isolation where she faced a lot of discrimination. This experience is common for many people from minority ethnic communities (Trotter 2012). Pukar was set up soon after the 1995 Disability Discrimination Act. The act was seen by many campaigners as instrumental in making changes for disabled people. From the outset, collaborative working with organisations was a key aspect of Pukar.

Local compact agreements came into force after the 1997 General Election the Labour government came into power and the Best Value meant that local government had a responsibility to consult local stakeholders, consequently local strategic partnerships were formed. Organisations such as Pukar were consulted by stakeholders to ensure that they met their disability responsibilities and also were seen to meet local government initiatives on consulting with local stakeholders. The 2000 Race Relations Amendment Act placed a duty to provide equality of

opportunity and promote race equality. Two of the local colleges, through their community learning initiatives, engaged with Pukar to support students at the centre with a range of courses including IT and English language training as well as some non-accredited courses. This was successful as many BME students engaged with Pukar. Many of these were carers, some were disabled people; however, the courses were open to all BME communities; this in turn provided mainstream learning that was also seen as good practice, for example, the courses were not just run for disabled people. The key services are for disabled people from Pukar including outreach and case work.

A number of key success factors have contributed to both the success and survival of the organisation. These include the focus on person-centred work and a holistic approach to service provision. This has involved joined-up work with several organisations including those organisations that work with older people. In its annual report, Pukar lists over 20 organisations with which referrals and partnership work has been undertaken. As Pukar's ethos of work is person-centred and the charity works with individuals and families to identify solutions with people, partnership and collaborative work is vital. Statutory voluntary, community, and faith sector collaboration with Pukar is essential to the delivery of front-line services. Pukar staff, volunteers, and board members have worked tirelessly over several years to build trust and equal relationship among providers. Pukar has demonstrated frontline delivery of its services; this in turn has seen the recognition of the value of the work with vulnerable communities by financially stronger partners. The challenge for Pukar has been to sustain collaborative working with partners. It is now in a position that partners will refer, invite for consultation, and recognise the contribution of the work to end users; even the drive from policy and legislation is diminished.

Collaborative Working

Voluntary sector management and community development has been at the centre of the ethos of the organisation. This has required particular broad skills and experience. One stark contrast between the statutory and the larger voluntary sector compared to smaller voluntary sector is the clarity of role and the multitude of tasks required by voluntary sector staff. Within a smaller charitable sector, with less than ten staff, the tasks can be varied including management that requires several skills sets. Thus, management of Pukar deals with varied tasks, including governance, management, marketing finance, working direct with service users, case work management, networking with external organisations, campaigning, volunteer and student placement management, and ascertaining funding to mention a few roles. It has been pertinent for a positive approach to be applied to the role, to use existing skills, and be in a position to learn new skills while carrying out the role. Aspects of the role required include management, operational, project management, and campaigning. The array of skills sets are also, in some cases, expected from all

Pukar's Collaborative Work with Carers

"I'm absolutely proud of the work Pukar are doing! Without these organisations a lot of BME community members would be lost. Keep up the good work. Good luck for the future."

"Pukar is and has always been a top class community resource and I am proud to know them."

Fig. 5.1 Quotes from organisations that work with Pukar

"Organisations like Pukar take time to listen to the issues. Pukar staff explain it back slowly to us elderly people in a way we can understand."

"Taking time to listen is what Pukar does no one has time now not even their own family."

"Having bilingual staff in the office has been useful."

"Would be lost without Pukar."

"Thank you very much to everyone at Pukar for supporting me."

Fig. 5.2 Quotes from service users at Pukar

staff. This in turn requires a specific mindset and ability, oftentimes without central support. Although the workload is varied, feedback from staff and volunteers suggests new skills are achieved that are transferable, and particularly for volunteers, many have gained employment after volunteering at Pukar. One of the advantages for volunteer students connected to organisations such as Pukar is that they can learn a variety of transferable skills. Many volunteers have gained employment as a result for working directly at Pukar. These include employment as basic skills tutors, IT tutors, administration posts, and working directly with people. There does, however, remain a skills gap and pro bono support for Pukar. Over 57 % of charities, according to a survey for small charities, faced similar issues with lack of skills to fill vacancies and also attract pro bono support (Third Sector 2013).

One of the key features of Pukar is the communication link or bridge that it provides between service providers and service users (see Figs. 5.1 and 5.2). One of the projects that Pukar identified while working with disabled people was the importance of working with carers to provide a holistic service. The key aims of the work with carers is identifying and supporting carers from diverse communities. The organisation identifies on average six new carers per month as well as supporting existing carers. Many of the carers would not access direct support from statutory services or services that do not provide language or cultural support services. The role of Pukar has been to facilitate support for carers by linking carers with service providers; this example of partnership working has benefited carers by providing them with opportunity for breaks by encouraging carers to learn at the centre and

Case Study 1

Mrs A was a carer for her husband; she could not speak or read English. The husband passed away recently. Pukar staff completed an online application form for burial services as she could not afford the funeral cost, which was £2000. As a result of Pukar's involvement she received £2000 towards funeral costs. Pukar staff attended on home visits, Pukar also applied online for 12 months instalments for bereavement allowance. Pukar changed council tax notice to her name from her late husband's. Pukar notified pension credit and all relevant departments of the death; therefore she was able to maintain her well being.

Fig. 5.3 Example of service user at Pukar

Case Study 2

Mrs K is an elderly lady who lives with her husband, who is visually impaired. Mrs K has also been having trouble with her vision; she could not read or speak English. After several eye tests she was accompanied to her EV training organised by Pukar so she could use her sight in the most effective way. Mrs K's family members were too busy to take her so Pukar took her. She had the opportunity to look at different aids to help her stay safe and independent in her house. The training was useful; this helped with Mrs B's well being. Pukar is in regular contact with Mrs B and the family. Advocacy work was also undertaken to support her.

Fig. 5.4 Example of service user at Pukar

provide regular leisure and recreational opportunities including trips. Several organisations are contacted on behalf of carers to provide surgeries, workshops, assessments, and support with funding. From regular feedback ascertained from carers, anecdotal evidence has suggested that many of the carers, particularly those whose first language is not English, would be unable to engage with service providers if Pukar was not facilitating the support. For Pukar, building trust and collaborative working has been vital to ensure that carers can be provided with quick and easy access to support and services (see Figs. 5.3 and 5.4).

Capacity Building in Pukar

The Labour government championed partnership working after 1997. These were loose arrangements facilitated by local councils to ensure organisations were working together to enable service provision. Preston City council supported smaller organisations to build their capacity, to ensure frontline organisations were able to deliver quality services. Council officers were tasked to support frontline organisations to 'professionalise their services'. Although Pukar, as with many smaller organisations, had been providing services for several years, the added support from the council led to working to ensure that key policies and procedures were

implemented. A quality assurance charter called PQASSO basic level was developed with Pukar, which ensured that a range of quality assurance systems were embedded into the charity. These measures were crucial to ensure that the charity developed to professionalise services further as well as to be recognised by several organisations as a serious player in the voluntary sector. Funders required that the charity had the appropriate policies and procedures and mechanisms to manage projects, money, and also to demonstrate involvement of board members and service users in shaping services. One of the outcomes after establishing PQASSO was that several partnership links were developed including Lancashire Constabulary, University of Central Lancashire, and Local Colleges, who were able to recognise the scope for their students engaging with the voluntary sector. Placements enabled students to learn about the work of the organisation, culture, and disability which thus led to building their skills. At Pukar, efforts are made to ensure that students can learn skills that are transferable; this was confirmed by the students while on placement and also when their placement finished.

Pukar has, over several years, invested time and resources in ensuring that the organisation is in a capable position to meet the multiple needs of people accessing the organisation. Reductions in funding remains a key challenge for Pukar; the organisation continuously seeks opportunities for partnership working and this has been identified as a key strategic priority both for sustainability and service provision. The Pukar business plan has collaborative working threaded throughout the plan. The role of the manager has included the importance of partnership working, networking, and has required the role to have skills that enable collaborative working. Networking is regularly encouraged by the board of trustees to ensure that the focus of service providers and commissioners, and potential partners, remains interested and view Pukar as being active. They regularly involve themselves in attending meetings, functions, and events to support the organisation. Much collaborative work starts from initial discussions with people at events; this can lead to specific collaborative working.

Examples of successful collaborative working have been demonstrated in all of the projects carried out by Pukar. Since the organisation came into existence in 1998, the key to successful service delivery has been working together with community and statutory organisations. A recent project resulted in over 80 people identified and supported by Pukar. The project drew support from Job Centre Plus, employers, recruitment agencies, and disability organisations and involvement of the Lancashire adult further education college. Following intensive support for mainly vulnerable adults, including those with disabilities and with low incomes, 12 people gained employment; many were supported with gaining further skills through volunteering and further education. Several other organisations were contacted to support service users including children's centres, women's support organisations, and Preston City Council services to mention a few. This highlights the continued importance of consultation and collaboration that is threaded through the projects at Pukar. As with many smaller voluntary sector organisations, dealing with and sending referrals is vital if organisations are to remain person-centred. In an evaluation report for a 3-year European-funded project, Fry (2013) highlighted the importance of close cooperation between by several organisations that enabled over

82% of participants, mainly new arrivals from ethnic minority communities, to gain nationally recognised qualifications. Trotter (2012) makes recommendations that authorities work with local community groups, disabled people's organisations, and religious centres to develop coherent and targeted information campaigns in order to build awareness of disability services and improve attitudes towards disabled people. It also further recommends that authorities re-organise contracts for service commissioning to better facilitate collaboration between small and large organisations, which should allow more consistent, wide-ranging care that meets both personal and community needs.

It is evident that more financial support is required to back up policy recommendations to support local joint initiatives that involve local grass roots organisations supporting local communities. Pukar is part of several networks that experience similar concerns of lack of support from strategic authorities.

Future and Collaborative Working

Small charities are the lifeblood of social action in Britain—but the financial climate has made life very difficult for many of them. Christian Guy, a director at the Centre for Social Justice.

Reductions in spending and shrinking Public sector, including Lancashire County Council, have created increased demand for the support of Pukar and other voluntary sector organisations. It has been stated that Pukar can provide service provision at a fraction of the cost and in many cases better quality outcomes for end users. There has been an increase in supporting infrastructure organisations that support voluntary sector organisations; unfortunately for organisations such as Pukar, this has been driven not by the voluntary sector as recommended by the Baring Foundation in 2014 that highlight a number of issues from the voluntary sector, including the loss of independence from campaigning to delivering services. The way forward, the panel suggests, is for the voluntary sector to cooperate for common aims particularly to ascertain funding.

The general policies aim to further strengthen the role of smaller voluntary sector organisations to ensure that they are able to meet the demands of the population, particularly vulnerable adults. Voluntary sector organisations, including Pukar, will need to continue to aim for sustainability, through capacity and skills development of staff and volunteers to meet demands from the community.

Pukar has been encouraged to join several consortiums to bid for funding from consortiums that apply for bigger pots of funding. There have been policies from Preston City Council and also from Lancashire County Council (2015) to support those organisations that work in partnership and consortiums. This brings specific challenges for the organisation; although informal collaborative working has been part of Pukar for many years, recent collaborative working has demanded more formalised partnership arrangements with other voluntary sector organisations. These include service level agreements, how funding will be distributed, legal clauses and overall managing funding, project management, and reporting struc-

tures. Pukar has faced challenges with agreeing specific terms and conditions with other voluntary sector partners, who were in competition for funding and now are required to work formally together as partners and consortiums, otherwise there is risk of not receiving future funding. The voluntary sector has witnessed organisations close that have been established for decades.

Perspectives from Student on Placement

In the following discussion, perspectives from a recent student placement at Pukar are expressed.

Question: What do you get as a student from Pukar?

Answer:

“As a student a placement at Pukar is a unique and challenging experience. Working in the voluntary community faith sector opens up for many new opportunities for learning and working within challenging situations in the social care sector with individuals who are from diverse backgrounds. The centre is at the heart of the city centre easily accessible to a multitude of individuals with a range of needs. The drop in nature of the centre allows for hands on experience and the inevitability of a new case every day. By having this drop in service allows students to communicate with service users allowing interpersonal skills to be developed and with this comes an understanding of diverse and community needs. Learning to communicate with diverse individuals who often do not share the same language as you can be a really challenging and eye opening situation, having difficulties communicating yourself lets you see things from a service users perspective and highlights how important centres like this are for ethnically diverse areas such as Preston.”

Question: The role of Pukar or such organisations of improving the quality of life of people?

Answer:

“Pukar plays a massive role within many individuals’ lives, whether they come to the centre for help, to socialise or learn Pukar is integral for its service users’ wellbeing and independence. Pukar and other organisations in the voluntary community sector are pivotal to providing that one to one support that statutory organisations are usually unable to deliver. Due to the multi-skilled staff Pukar is able to cater to many language needs and act as an advocate on behalf of those with limited English. This has a huge impact on service users’ lives who struggle daily with communication and face barriers from other organisations that do not have interpreting or translation resources readily available. Pukar being a non-statutory service means it can be flexible with its work with clients, not having to stick to rigid timeframes and targets like other organisations. In a recent survey at Pukar nearly all the service users questioned said they relied on Pukar as it had a friendly, safe atmosphere but wished the service had more staff which unfortunately is a downfall in this current political and economic state as funding in the voluntary sector is

limited and working within budgets means the need can outsource the organisation.”

Question: How policy changes affect service users and Pukar’s role?

Answer:

“Policy and legislation is forever changing and shaping organisations and the services they are required to provide. As an organisation it is crucial to respond to the needs of society and the individuals as well as the expectations of the dominant political ideology (The College of Social Work 2015). With the implementation of recent legislation, such as the care act, which makes changes to old policy and brings many new rights and powers to the service user and those they care for, will affect many of the individuals who access Pukar services. This places a responsibility on Pukar to ensure that their service users are aware of the changes and the benefits that come with this new legislation are articulated to service users. Pukar has a powerful position within the community, with well-respected staff and a large service user body, as a voice to provide current information on legislative information and to uphold the rights of their users.”

Issues in Collaborative and Partnership

Many successes have been gained as a result of collaborative working; these include referrals, policy, and campaigning work. An example is frontline working in collaboration with health and social care, statutory, voluntary, and community organisations. Several issues including the power dynamics are played out as smaller community organisations have to work tirelessly to have the doors open and a place at the table. These power dynamics also exist within the voluntary sector. The Centre for Social Justice in 2014 highlights the pertinent role of smaller grass roots voluntary groups, particularly to support vulnerable people.

The impact on Pukar has been to balance allocation of resources to meeting the needs of service users which has been intensive. Lack of collaborative working with larger organisations meeting similar outcomes for end users needs to improve to ease the pressure on Pukar; this is particularly prominent where larger voluntary sector organisations lack the expertise of language and specialism.

Other issues with collaborative working have included using Pukar for a range of issues that are not commissioned including using the organisation as unpaid interpreters, referring to the organisation service users without any follow-up support, and having unrealistic expectations of Pukar from statutory and larger voluntary sector. While Pukar is a grass roots local charity, according to feedback for every one pound in funding the view was the organisation provided three pounds worth of service from anecdotal feedback. Collaborative and partnership is central to the future work of Pukar; indeed, the very survival of the organisation is at stake if it fails to grasp working with statutory, voluntary, and community sector.

Conclusion

This chapter has explored the relationship between a voluntary sector organisation, namely Pukar, and how it plays key role in the higher education setting. The first part of the chapter critically evaluated the theoretical debates of the voluntary sector, in terms of how services are integrated at a local level. It was discovered that it was difficult to have a clear definition of the voluntary sector. The reasoning for this is voluntary sector is changing consistently to meet central and local government needs. Since the New Labour government came to power, the voluntary sector has become a key feature in contributing to public services. This development of the voluntary sector has created new emphasis on regulation and competition within the sector. Today, there has been another new emphasis from a social and political context, the 'Big Society.' When the Big Society idea was launched by the coalition government (2010–2015), the concept was perceived as empowering communities to make their areas better places to live. However, it could be argued that the Big Society has lost its way due to a lack of understanding and application. As Lister (2015, p. 364) has noted:

Big Society suffers from a seemingly contradictory view of what motivates citizens. In some parts, it seeks moral, civic exhortations, yet in other places; the profit motor is seen to be the way to engage wider, non-state, activity and engagement. The Big Society urges people not to look to the state for all the answers, whilst in other places citizens are paternally 'nudged' in the 'right' direction, by a beneficent state.

The chapter then moved onto examine the case study of Pukar. As it was found, Pukar has undertaken tremendous work for the local community over a long period of time. Since Pukar's existence, the organisation has had collaborative relationship between central and local government and the education sector. Furthermore, Pukar has played a crucial role for university students who are on work placements. This chapter has revealed that the voluntary sector acts as a linchpin for students to learn in the subject area and in employability.

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Chapter 6

Delivering a Community Development Curriculum to Students with Multiple Identities: Exploring the Issues and Identifying Challenges for Educators

Dexter du Boulay

Introduction

As a lecturer on a community development degree programme delivered against a backdrop of a system increasingly segmented by the twin barrels of ‘commodification’ and ‘regulation’ (Burawoy 2011), an evolving competency-based curriculum (Barnett 1994) where the students see themselves increasingly as a customer who is to be served education there is an interest in how to deliver a curriculum that responds to the multiple identities people bring to the educational environment. Students are not just customers, ‘multicultural’ or ‘transcultural’ (Mishra 2006), their identities are much more complex. By drawing upon the debate relating to diaspora and the notion of the ‘changing same’ it is possible to design a model to develop a new curriculum drawing parallels with Appadurai’s five ‘scapes’ and ‘adjustments’ (Appadurai 1990) reflecting students’ different ways of engaging the curriculum. The reflection took place at a time when the programme was going through a formal 5-year review and is an ongoing process that is not fully developed. The experiences and the model is drawn from one programme; the relevance would be for anyone involved in designing and delivering a community development-based curriculum to students with diverse backgrounds and differing expectations of the education process where the focus is on more than just measuring competency.

The team’s concern in designing a new curriculum for the community development degree programme was how to meet the requirements of the institution for a clear coherent programme with a set number of discrete modules containing clear learning outcomes, based on Bloom’s taxonomy, and a valid mix of assessments

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whilst providing space for students to engage their hearts and minds (Costello and Haggart 2008). Reflecting on our current programme we were very aware of the diversity we faced in the lecture room in terms of how people labelled themselves and the way the labels changed depending on the contexts being explored. We found that the simple categorisation used for identifying the identity or needs of students was superficial: they brought a very fluid set of identities reflecting Gilroy's notion of changed diaspora (Gilroy 1993), living out Hall's concept of 'cultural translation' (Hall 1992). From a cultural perspective students were not just first, second or third generation British who had cultural and ethnic links to other parts of the world. We had students who identified as being British as well as holding other nationalities and identities that were very strongly located in other countries and framing their cultural perspectives and world view.

Incorporating an international context to the programme is an expressed requirement of the institution to broaden student's horizons. Our experience was the internationalisation of the programme that was very evident in the student body in front of us. The challenge became how to bring out these experiences in a safe, constructive manner whereby the students' lived experiences could be brought into the open and utilised in a way that was not condescending, patronising or treated in a stereotypical representative manner? How to give a voice to students to engage with each other, air their views and opinions in an educational setting through discussion and dialogue where they were more used to a didactic approach? How to frame the programme and modules in a way where community development, as advocated and practiced in the UK, was dealt with as a separate entity to international approaches: where students could be local and international.

Referring back to the debate on diaspora and cultural translation we have developed a framework placing community development values at the centre surrounded by five core themes: individual, group, society, organisation and international. Each theme enables discrete modules to be developed whilst keeping an engagement with community development values and principles centrally located. Modules, learning outcomes and assessments can be developed covering key aspects of community development whilst meeting institutional regulatory requirements. The changing same becomes a motif for this approach. Students are treated as being free to move across and within their different identities providing the freedom to draw on their own lived experiences, values, and critically engage rather than be passive recipients of information. This approach has offered insights into interactions between students with each other, the programme and the wider institution.

One of the categories used by institutions is that of 'Home' and 'International' student: primarily for purposes of fee payment. From this simple regulatory identifier, a number of processes emanate relating to the expected type of student at university including: 'school-leaver', 'mature', 'disabled' and 'international'. These labels provide a simplistic set of identities to students studying in what is generally regarded as a 'multicultural' educational environment. Individuals bring with them a more complex range of identities than is recognised in the labelling provided by the institution. Expectations of the programme become culturally loaded: what does

a ‘good degree’ mean in different cultural contexts: how can a programme respond to these potentially differing and sometimes unspoken expectations? Over the 10 years (2005–2015), the number of international students has remained constant each academic year (1 or 2 per year in an average intake of 30 students), yet the national and cultural identity of students has become more global.

This demographic change is very visible, on one level, in the lecture room in terms of ethnicity, age, and gender balance of each year group. The collective and individual identity of the student body has changed; a change that has had a direct impact on the design and delivery of the degree programme. There are expectations reflecting the increasing commodification of education, there are different expectations for the lecturer–student relationship based on past educational socialisation, and there are changed expectations of international student–student interactions. As an African-Caribbean male born in the UK, I have consciously reflected on my own identity as a lecturer and how that has changed in relation to the students, programme and institution over time: the changing same remains ever-present.

The Context: Community Development Degree Programme and Student Body

An undergraduate programme delivered at a post-1992 University (Institutions that were given University status through the Further and Higher Education Act of 1992) based in a post-industrial town in the Midlands of England provides the source of the data. There are two distinct application processes: one for Home/European Union, the other for international applicants. Fees for Home students are significantly less than those for International students. Once accepted all new students complete a common enrolment form. Information from this form provides the core data on students to the course team.

In the academic year 2013–2014 there were a total of 86 students enrolled: 3 part-time the rest full-time across the 3-year groups. Of these 73 were female; 3 officially identified as international (Angola, Kenya and South Africa), 1 as a European Union student (Bulgaria), with 69 being Home students. Being a Home student means they are UK citizens. Within the category of ‘Home’ student, 47 identified themselves as being of African heritage in terms of one or other of the following: country of birth, their primary education experience, main experience of socialisation (as a proportion of their age), and work experience being within a country on the African continent. Seventeen languages were identified as the first language of students across the 3-year groups. A significant number of the Home students identified English as their second or third language. In some cases this meant students translated materials into their first language (e.g. French, Portuguese, Dutch, Shona), to gain a better comprehension and then translated back into English. All International students regarded English as their second language although in two cases their formative education was in English.

The university provides a range of cultural and practical support to international students, as part of their acclimatisation to the institution and life in the UK generally. This includes cultural trips, access to support networks of other students from their particular country, support on pre-arrival, all aspects of studying, immigration, visa and post-study support. This is part of and in addition to the general support offered to all students at the university.

The Course team has worked in Higher Education, in England for over 10 years respectively, cover all the mandatory modules with designated sessions within modules delivered via visiting lecturers. Of the core staff one is female, White (English and European background, born in the UK) and at the time of writing in the 50–54 age range and is the Course Director; the other is male, Black (African-Caribbean, born in the UK) and at the time of writing, in the 50–54 age range and is the Admissions Tutor. The titles of Course Director and Admissions Tutor are largely administrative functions related to the course. The student age range across the 3 years covers 19–63, with 30–35 as an average age range. Some students have a first degree from non-UK institutions, others come through the traditional school to university route, some are returning to education having taken Access to Higher Education courses. Approximately 70% of the students commute to University from their main accommodation with a significant number of these having caring responsibilities within their family network.

There are a variety of reasons why people are attending University; the majority see the degree as leading to a career. For a small number it is about being at university and proving they can engage with higher education. Some have been recommended by family members and people in their community who they respect. In any 1 year, a number are known to each other before coming to university through family, friendship, community, religious and cultural networks/associations. Under the label of student, a multiplicity of individual and collective identities exists.

Diaspora

Diaspora as a concept will be explored with short examples of how the theory is played out in practice within the programme. The issues and challenges this posed will be brought together under three themes: the institution, programme and student body.

The use of the terms diaspora and translation can prove useful in helping to explore the multiplicity of identities students bring into the lecture room. It provides a way of analysing how their expectations of how the programme will be taught, the nature of their engagement with the course team, other students and the University as an institution are culturally translated: as something that is fluid and not fixed. Discussion within the diaspora arena has moved the concept of personal and collective identity as a fixed point, as implied by multiculturalism, to something that is much more fluid: Transnationalism, as ‘Something situational, strategic, and thus dynamic’ (Giordano 2010: 19), implying that the individuals can choose and adapt

their circumstances to their own particular context. The role of wider societal forces in shaping this choice and influencing a person's individual choice can sometimes go unrecognised.

The university's label of home, EU or international student is an example of societal forces shaping a person's individual choice. The difference in fees is a significant factor for some students. Some arrive as refugees and wait till they have received the right to remain in UK before pursuing their education. In this case it is possible to have students sharing the same cultural practices with very different national identities. Having this different nationality did not stop the students talking to each other in their first language and discussing common cultural practices. In terms of expectations of the programme one student clearly saw their time in the UK as a transition period where they expected to return home to start their career; the other student saw them self as having the option to pursue a career in the UK or possibly on the international stage. For many other students they presumed both were international students as they sat together and frequently conversed in Swahili. As individuals students exercised this fluidity but tended to adopt fixed point identities when engaging with each other.

"'Identity'...has provided a means to understand the interplay between subjective experiences of the world and the cultural and historical settings in which those fragile, meaningful subjectivities are formed" (Gilroy 2004: 98). Gilroy refers to identity as more than 'branding' and as being 'bounded and particular' where individual and collective identity is constantly negotiated, as something to be possessed and displayed rather than a process. People become the "bearers of difference" (Gilroy 2004: 103).

As lecturers and students, there was a clear power dynamic present as well as status issues for some students. Two particular students were getting married in the summer holidays: one made it very clear that having their lecturers attending would be very well received by the respective families with the other declaring there is no way they would have their lecturers attending such a personal event. This extended to forms of address used by students with the mainly UK students, socialised in the English school and college system, feeling comfortable using lecturer's first names and students from more formal systems using official titles like Dr, Sir/Madam. The cultural codes and boundaries people had outside of the educational institution shaped their actions within the institution. Some participants adapt and change to what they regard as the new norm; others found it difficult to alter what they perceived as engrained behaviour linked to their cultural identity. This extended to who some students would feel comfortable challenging. Some of the older male students found it difficult to accept younger females in leadership roles due to both their gender and age; some younger students felt uncomfortable challenging older students in the room as they would not do this at home. University was sometimes referred to as a different place to their normal environment where certain things would be tolerated as part of the price to achieving their goal.

Factors causing the students to choose the university and the course were discussed as a way of exploring being branded a student and what may bind people together who were perceived as different. Some would find commonality in certain aspects of their identity they presumed not to exist. An example of this was two

students of very different backgrounds in terms of age and culture bonding with each other though the fact was that they both provided care for a close relative with disabilities and had to address negative cultural stereotyping from within their respective communities.

How individuals make sense of the labels and apply to their own situations reflects Hall's notion of translation (Hall 1992). The word itself does not provide meaning it is the response to the words where the meaning is derived from. Migrant is a word that can be legally defined, what it means to the individual is the sense they give it based on a number of individual and collective factors: the translation. Translation is making sense of meaning, not in a tangible objective manner but through representation and relationships between concepts, signs and cultural know-how (Hall et al. 2013). Cultural know-how provides the language to 'reference the world' (Hall et al. 2013: 8). The movement from one culture to another requires *translation* as a way of retaining connections with their past and responding to the current situation (Cressey 2012: 132). Translation occurs individually and collectively with each informing the other as cultural know-how and a web of interactions that mould 'the changing same'.

A number of students chose to conduct their placements at a local refugee and migrant centre talking of the shared experiences they could bring as well as language and cultural skills to engage and empower service users discussing how they could use the values and tools of community development to facilitate this. In a number of the tutorials with students on these types of placements many did not acknowledge they were once refugees or migrants themselves. These students were very conscious of how wider society interpreted key words like migrant, refugee as largely negative.

Mishra (2006) contends that debates on diaspora often fail to really engage in how factors such as economics, class, gender and race, for example, interact and influence actions and cannot be subsumed under the term 'diaspora'. Individuals are not simply transcultural (i.e. British Pakistani), operating between two fixed points (host country (Britain) and homeland (Pakistan)). Mishra refers to the work of Appadurai and the notion of disjoints to suggest a framework to explore how five distinct factors exist and influence each other and are in turn influenced not in terms of balance and contradiction but as adjustments to each other. Appadurai's five segments (Appadurai 1990) are: Ethnoscapes, Technoscapes, Financescapes, Mediascapes and Ideational. Applying to a university context Ethnoscapes identify hypermobile people with the ability and capacity to travel evidenced by international and European students travelling to the UK and UK students going on exchange visits. Technoscape allows the transborder movement of material and intellectual technologies, reflected by University's ability to share information and resources across international boundaries. Financescape allows for the movement of money across nation-state boundaries, evidenced by methods of electronic payments from outside the UK and students being able to work in the UK and 'send money home'. Mediascapes, the production and dissemination of information as evidenced by the use of multiple news and media sources, live debates between

student bodies in different parts of the world in real-time and ideational referring to how politics is organised, the use of Course Representatives and the National Union of Students to give students a voice at the local, institutional, national and international level. Appadurai's disjoint provides a framework that takes account of economic, political and social factors at macro- and microlevels building on the limitations of cultural diaspora and translation.

An example Appadurai's model in practice is in discussing volunteering. Getting students to translate the word volunteer into their first language makes use of their ethnoscape. Initially everyone could relate to the word volunteer in English, in first languages it was possible to explore cultural meanings as to why the word did not exist and what it meant in reality in different cultural frames. In some cases the English word was inserted as there was not a literal translation, some placed the word as part of collective rather than individual actions; others limited it to actions within a wider network of extended family and close friends and their relatives. Once captured this led to a discussion relating to cultural values and expectations of how people engaged with each other under the term 'volunteer' Participants could not fall back on pejorative terms and generalisations but had to give precise examples from their own experiences. This led to very focused discussions of very specific organisations/agencies operating in a range of different countries using YouTube and weblinks to share information (Techno and mediascape). Students then discussed the relative merits of volunteering as a concept and practice in the UK and other countries broadening the debate to who volunteers where, why and how and links to international aid and development (Ideational). In some cases volunteering was seen as something Europeans would do: OK to do this in UK but in their own country 'why to do something for free when you see others being paid for it?' Within UK some students had the time and space to engage with volunteering opportunities as it was good for the CV or to get experience, for others it was seen as a pre-requisite to get on some degree programmes; for others volunteering was not possible due to other commitments or simply not having the means to access opportunities.

Appadurai's model demonstrates how each 'scape' is both independent of and influenced the other 'scape'. By consciously utilising this approach the student could be used as expert-other at times and detached critic at others by having them 'adjust' their identities and draw on different facets. These 'adjustments' took place on a regular basis. On one accession a Polish visiting lecturer was welcomed by Tanzanian student who spoke fluent polish on account of living in the country for almost 2 years; a student of Somali descent explained the Dutch social housing system based on contact with family members working in it. Awareness of the potential of fluid identities of how people may *translate* real-world situations raises issues linked to the design of modules and lectures to encourage participants to draw on similarities and differences without being stereotyped and patronised, making the global local and assisting students to be more self-aware of theirs' and others' identities as not fixed and bounded.

Issues

Students having fluid identities adjusting to the environments they find themselves juxtaposed with having fixed views of others' identities that can provide a series of challenging issues for a lecturer to deal with. They can also prove a rich seam of experiences, opinions and beliefs that can make for a positive learning experience. Some of these will be explored in relation to the student's engagement with the institution, the course programme and with each other.

Institutional Issues and Challenges

Institutions, in having policies, procedures and practice guidelines, create very fixed identities and subsets of identities. A student being identified as Home/EU or International provides a very clear geographical sense of identity. The Use of Equality Data to identify protected characteristics (Age, Disability, Gender reassignment, Marriage/civil partnership status, pregnancy and maternity, Race—including ethnic or national origins, colour or nationality, Religion or belief—this includes lack of belief, Sex and Sexual orientation) (Equality 2010) places people in very discrete identity groups with support offered on the basis of the characteristics a person is recorded as having.

A Course Director (Nominated Head of the Course Team) is treated as the head of the community, the person to go to for all the answers and issue resolution. When organisational systems and procedures dictate certain actions there is an expectation the Course Director can support or override these. That they may be powerless is regarded by some students as not possible from their main cultural frame of reference. The notion of fluid identities becomes difficult for institutions to deal with: policies and procedures would reflect how typically people would be expected to act and seek to accommodate difference within defined characteristics e.g. extensions to exam times due to having particular types of disability.

A number of rules in place in the institution apply specifically to home students and can be amended to meet needs of international students. The deferral process is one example of this. If a student wants to have a short deferral of an assignment (Up to 3 weeks) due to a death in the family then they would be expected to provide some official evidence of the death, usually a Death Certificate. For international students a different process is enacted allowing them more time to provide information. In some cases where a student is registered as home student but has to travel abroad to deal with a death of a close relative the institutional process has proved difficult to administer. The home student may present as an international student in as much as they have to travel at a moment's notice, be away for longer than 3 weeks and may not be able to easily access the documentation required as evidence, or is in a format not recognised by the institution. Upon return the student can then translate the response of the institution as discriminatory towards them personally as they are aware of others being treated differently.

On a broader note, Universities are actively involved in seeking volunteer experience for their students as part of the ‘added value’ of being at university and as a way of improving their stock of transferable skills. From a number of voluntary sector agencies students are seen as a valuable resource both as practitioners in training, who can help to deliver services, and as researchers. The pressure placed on universities to have employability strategies as an integral part of teaching and learning (BIS (Department for Business and Innovation and Skills) 2010), and employability league tables for universities (The Complete University Guide 2015; The Guardian 2014; The Times Good University Guide 2015) mean courses have to find some avenue for their students to gain practical experience. The wealth and diversity of opportunities provided by the voluntary and community sector has not been lost on both parties. The focus is often on the students gaining practical experience and the agency getting something done they might otherwise not be able to do. Within this context we encourage the students to be consciously aware of their multiple identities and to utilise these when approaching agencies for volunteer opportunities and work experience. Part of this identity is the developing one as a community development practitioner, a bearer of difference, rather than just presenting as a student a form of branding.

Interactions between the institution and the student often occur on the basis of someone having a fixed identity. The increased commodification and competency approach of education reinforces this single identity approach. This places constraints on how programmes are delivered and also creates areas of opportunity especially when applying the ‘changing same’ to delivering the programme itself.

Programme Issues

Some students can flip between being very formal and informal citing cultural codes as a rational explanation of this. University procedures and bureaucracy have been personalised in terms of students being able to go direct to course tutors on all issues and discuss them on a semi-formal level despite other support mechanisms being in place, or rules dictating certain actions have to be followed. The Programme is referenced by students using the names of the two main lecturers, not the official title, an example of personalising formal processes and structures. This personalisation has increased the more the institution moves to online processes to conduct parts of its business activities. Students can access lectures, submit assignments, have them marked and returned, apply for deferrals and appeal decisions all online. Despite these attempts at smoothing the process and procedures for the students many still want to come and engage on a face-to-face level.

The degree programme has a total of 18 modules across three academic years. Each module has its own assessment at the end of the taught sessions. The Community Development National Occupational Standards and Values are used to shape the structure of the modules with the five key values running through all the modules as a continual theme. The five values are: Equality and anti-discrimination;

Social Justice; Collective Action Community Empowerment@ and Working and Learning Together. At least one of these five values can be found in the learning outcomes for each of the 15 Core modules constituting the degree programme. The students have one free choice module from a suite offered from across the university. Keeping a value base at the heart and the forefront of the programme provides the opportunity to make connections between collective, individual and professional identities rather than treat each one as an isolated area of exploration.

Students engage with practice experience in their second and third years. As part of their critical reflection they specifically have to relate the community development values to their personal and professional practice. Feedback from some of the placement agencies highlight the differences students engaging with community development bring in terms of acknowledging and managing tensions between personal, cultural and professional values. There was an ability to relate to the values on an academic and professional level where students could critically reflect on these and draw on evidence based practice and theory to debate implementing the values in real situations. Whether they really believed or engaged in the activity as a heart and mind approach was an issue explored with students. When discussing empowerment it was clear the translation some students used was a very directive approach: telling a person how they should be empowered through certain actions. When being challenged on this aspect of critical reflection a student might draw on another aspect of their identity to defend what might appear to be a contradictory statement i.e. 'that's what they expect in my country'. By referring back to translation and how we reference the world students are encouraged to share cultural perspectives and how these influence what they do and what they say.

Caring can be culturally translated and adjusted affecting how the student behaves in a given context and environment. Having students discuss different approaches to caring and how they have provided and responded to care in different contexts moves to the type of praxis as advocated by Freire (1996). Some students challenged the whole premise of care for the elderly and especially the growth of the Elderly Care Home sector in UK. The existence of care homes was seen from one perspective as an example of the growth of individualism and breakdown of the family structure and the role elders command in that structure. Students discussed a variety of caring situations including family, neighbours, groups they were involved in: expectations around care and how their age, gender, cultural or religious outlook shaped this. Some students openly discussed being in the UK working and studying with the income from work being 'sent back home' to pay for the support of family elders who they were responsible for. They operated in one system to gain income to prevent others from being moved in to that type of system. Collective, individual and professional attitudes to practice become very fluid concepts with overlapping boundaries: where does one start and the other end?

The programme is constructed in a way to keep this debate alive and relevant to the students and lecturers. By having the values run through the programme connections are made across and between modules and the different levels of teaching. Accepting that students come with differing values and beliefs informing their

behaviour that might be accepted or challenged by others is a very real issue. 'Same but different' is a real issue: not everyone wants to be treated the same; not all like their differences being highlighted.

Student Issues

Social and cultural networks existing outside of the university, beyond friendship, influence how students engage within the lecture room where individual accountability is given over to the collective with the statement 'Somebody said'. Where students may belong to the same cultural and/or religious groupings people defer to the person with the most status whether they were right or wrong. This is the unknown identity of 'Somebody said'. In other cases people might share the same national identity but come from very different cultural traditions within the country. In these cases this might cause people not to speak openly or directly challenge a point put across by another person. Though outside the remit of lecturing, it became necessary to get to understand how these outside influences impacted on activities. Part of university life involves debating and learning from your peers: working and learning together is a community development value. How outside factors influence the learning students get from each other should be considered and the impact on the validation they give each other. Increasingly students are working and/or have caring responsibilities limiting the time available to engage in activities outside formal lectures and timetabled activities despite being on a full-time programme. Not every social and cultural situation can be recognised nor can stereotypes be used to locate students under simplistic codes such as: gender, age, nationality, religion, sexual orientation, ethnicity, disability or marital status. All these codes help to make up their whole identity on an individual and collective level. In certain circumstances, students share the same identity and group together on this basis: Zimbabwean students sit together and talk in Shona. In other cases the same students occupy very differing spaces: Zanu-PF supporters sit apart from MDC-T supporters.

When individuals become excluded from the collective on the basis of their presumed identity it is necessary to make an intervention and explore the reasons. An activity all students engage with is a discussion of faith and its relationship to the community development values. Students are asked to place themselves in their respective faith and non-faith-based groups. If they are on their own, by virtue of being the only one of their particular grouping that is acceptable. Once the task is complete there is a discussion on how the groups identified and formed themselves. One Muslim faith group missed out two members as they presumed them not to be members due to their dress code, national and ethnic identity. Those in one group are UK-born second generation Asian Muslims who cover their heads. Those not recognised are both of African descent, do not cover their heads. In this and similar cases, time was made within sessions to explore why this took place with the perceptions and behaviours processed as part of the learning experience.

The examples highlight how, in a lecture room simple labels mask a number of fluid and changing identities under the broad label of student; a culturally coded statement. Students lived experiences shape their university expectations and experiences, how they relate to each other inside and outside the university: they may share common experiences and words but have very different cultural understanding of these terms. Conflict and tensions that exist elsewhere may influence and be brought in to the lecture room. These differences can be a challenge to be used constructively to encourage others to see things from another perspective, or not to engage.

Curriculum Challenge

A number of challenges become apparent in developing a new curriculum in a changing environment. These challenges operate on multiple levels from the societal to the individual. In coming to develop a new curriculum the concepts of diaspora and translation form a useful platform for analysis of the challenges. The binary labels of university, lecturer, student and community are limiting in helping to understand the motivations, expectations and requirements of the variety of stakeholders. Delivering a modular, assessment-driven ‘sat-nav’ approach to education (Cowden and Singh 2013), keeping within the regulatory requirements of the institution whilst encouraging students to find their own voice is a challenge. The programme is not designed to produce a particular perspective, students are to be encouraged to critically reflect and draw on their own experiences and perspectives; encouraged to be open to other viewpoints and ways of doing things. Community development does not invoke a one-size-fits-all approach; the programme seeks to encourage students to critically engage with communities in an open way with integrity. A challenge for the teaching team is how do we model an open approach based on integrity within the programme? How do we encourage and validate multiple viewpoints when participants may be looking for the one right answer to complete their assignment and get a good grade? How do we encourage students to develop critical thinking when their model of education, is of not challenging the word of the lecturer and having clear definitive answers to all questions? A skills-based approach might deliver a competency-based curriculum (Barnett 1994) a value-based approach requires greater critical analysis and awareness of context to be applied.

Delivering a community development programme with a core value base when other courses are competing for the space of ‘community’ as a value added part of their programme, as transferable skills or enhancing employability for their students is also a challenge. Are we being purists when others are being practical? Recognising community development core values are culturally specific to the UK context that raises the challenge of how to make these relevant in an international? Cultural Diaspora and the fluidity of the process where individuals may experience the same issues but respond differently assists in developing an approach where people are

Fig. 6.1 Community development curriculum model



recognised as individual and part of a communal that is not fixed. Students and lecturers are ‘same but different’ this is the space where adjustments can and should take place.

The model proposed (see Fig. 6.1) attempts to respond to these challenges. The community development curriculum, based on the community development values, is placed at the core. The sectors: individual, international, group, society and organisational are connected to each other and orbit the values and principles.

The Community Development Curriculum values and principles are placed at the centre: they are not fixed concepts but accepted as culturally loaded providing a reference point influencing and being influenced by the surrounding spheres: representing the ‘changing same’. Community Development Values are translated by the cultural codes the lecturers and students bring based on their experiences, own values, practice, evidence and research. Each surrounding sphere provides a framework to engage with community development theory, practice and skills.

1. Individual: Community Development involves one-to-one activities. Self-awareness and awareness of others form part of this. Engagement with psychological concepts is necessary as is an understanding of how individual values and practices influence the codes used to represent reality and behaviour. Translating common words into first language, discussing meanings and actions from their cultural standpoints is an example of this. How we see and relate to others is influenced by the differing cultural codes we bring to a situation and is not as objective and rational as we might like to think they are.
2. Groups: awareness of group work theory and Group working skills are an essential part of the community development practice. Groups exist within

communities so we cannot assume that cultural or ethnic identity, or other categorisations (e.g. disability, gender, sexual orientation) are fixed markers: how students translate these are both individual and collective. Fluid group activities can be used to challenge individual and group comfort zones and perceptions of sameness and difference. Words used by people provide a window into how they translate their collective identity. By creating the environment for students to review, and analysing their own intergroup relations is both a challenging and required process. Being open, honest, caring and supportive are not just terms to be explored they become real in how they are communicated, enacted and received.

3. Organisation: Using the university as a live organisation can be a starting point to review the formal and informal ways people negotiate organisations and why. It can act as a catalyst for critical thinking and what influences individual action and reaction, providing a rich ground for exploring organisational dynamics and the role and engagement of the student. The economic and cultural drivers of organisational practice can be openly explored and what it means to be 'professional' in an organisational context. These can be transposed to placement and a variety of other organisational settings existing within the broad umbrella of the third sector.
4. Societal level: Students and lecturers, as members of society, may be experiencing social policy implications as part of their lived experience. Where students' primary lived experiences is outside of UK, an opportunity arises to reflect the accepted notions of concepts such as health, care, equality and human rights.
5. International: UK community development is influenced by and influences practices in other parts of the world. Demonstrating this two-way process should permeate the whole curriculum. Students are both international and local at the same time: 'home' and 'international' may not really reflect the diversity of student backgrounds in the lecture room. Use of diaspora can challenge fixed notions of how things are, reinforcing the possibility of learning from all experiences and placing them within a context of both global and individual: the notion of 'going to work internationally' (outsider status) or 'returning home' (insider status) are not simple transnational constructs.

The model provides a framework to identify the modules that need to be delivered across the 3 years of a degree programme, meeting the institutional needs to have clear progression from 1 year to the next, clear learning outcomes that can be assessed. The assessments are varied reflecting the needs of students to clearly demonstrate specific competencies needed for the field of practice. The five spheres provide the framework. The community development values and practice principles provide the focal point whereby student realities and multiple identities impact the translation and adjustment of the knowledge and skill set being imparted. Students and lecturers are not just 'transcultural' beings but appear to be constantly negotiating re-interpreting their identity. Identity is a complex issue, a complexity that can be used constructively in the delivery of a community development curriculum if sufficient space is provided within and around the formal programme.

Conclusion

The model presented represents a living curriculum designed and adapted in a way paralleling the debate on diaspora with the themes presented as both fixed points, to meet institutional regulatory requirements and as autonomous spheres that are influenced by each other and open to *translation* by the students engaging in the programme. How the students translate the programme is partly influenced by their own identities, not fixed and fluid, where they can be experts and detached critics not solely dependent on the lecturer as the expert-other. By consciously drawing on the framework put forward by Appadurai (1990), students can be encouraged to explore how they adjust to the influences of the respective ‘scapes’ so that concepts like caring are culturally connected to their values and behaviours and become part of their identity as community development practitioners observable in practice.

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Chapter 7

Photography and Teaching in Community Development

Geoff Hinds

Introduction

This chapter will describe our experience of using photography to teach community development for first year university students. The students were required to take photographs as part of an assignment to compile a community profile in which they assessed the needs and assets of a community. Each student was asked to take two photographs, one positive or something they liked or valued and one negative or something they did not like, of their community. The guidance given to the students was not to take photographs of people without their permission or get involved in any dangerous or illegal activities that put them at any risk.

The photographs were then e-mailed to the tutor and put into a PowerPoint presentation which was shown to the whole class. Each student briefly introduced their pictures and responded to any questions. During the session, the group was asked to note the type and range of needs and assets shown in the photos and identify commonalities and themes. At the close of the session the students were instructed to look for any other relevant data e.g. from the media or local authority which could be presented and analysed alongside their photos in their community profile.

The photographs were grouped into themes as needs or assets which were discussed in more detail in classes at a later date when they were also related to research literature and community development values and practice (Clarke 2009).

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Why?

We asked the students to take photographs and present them in class as a way of finding out, early in their studies, how they understood and experienced 'community'. We wanted to use this as a basis for exploring the ways in which the term is used and defined. We also wanted to identify views, issues and assets which could be discussed and related to community development practice.

We chose photographs because they can show a great deal of information about a place (Rose 2008) and in the context of needs assessment are an 'exceptionally powerful' means of description (Wang and Burris 1997). Importantly, photographs are capable of presenting information, views and experiences in a way which is easily accessible to others (Sanchez 2015). Photographs also have to be taken which required the students to go and look around their community; observation is an important aspect of understanding and working with a community (Henderson and Thomas 2013; Hawtin and Percy-Smith 2007). Photos are also inherently subjective which was particularly important for us as we wished, early on in the course, to emphasise the importance of understanding community members' experiences, perspectives and opinions when assessing community needs and assets. There was also the available means as all of the students had mobile phones containing, generally good-quality, cameras.

Another reason is the increasing use of photography (and other visual methods) in working with and researching communities and this exercise allowed us to introduce the students to community-based participatory research methods like Photovoice. This is a method that uses participant or collaborative photography with, often disadvantaged and disempowered communities to record and present issues, conditions and events that affect the community in order to understand and change them. It is rooted in Frietian critical consciousness (Wang and Burris 1997) an understanding of which is important for the development of our students' ideas, values and practice.

It is good practice for community profiles to be co-produced with the community (Hawtin and Percy-Smith 2007; Ledwith 2005) and participant photography has the potential to support and enhance this approach. We were interested in getting students to think about different ways of gathering data and in increasing the interest, accessibility and impact of community profiles. In the past, student community profiles have often been text-based and full of academic references and secondary data which, while appropriate for an academic assignment, would need to be modified for use in any community-based activity like a campaign or funding application that sought to interest and engage community members, policy makers or funders. This exercise is a start to considering the contribution visual and audio material could make to the co-production and impact of community profiles. Additionally, photographs could be used to present a particular issue in a photo essay or an exhibition in the community.

All of the students produced two photographs as requested and nearly all presented their photographs in class. In introducing their photos the students were

asked to briefly address three questions—“What is this a picture of? Why did you take this picture? What does this picture tell us about your community?”—an abbreviated version of SHOWED used in PhotoVoice studies (Wang et al. 2004). As the purpose was to understand and share the students’ views and experience it was important to hear what the students had to say in support of the pictures as photographs, used in this context, do not ‘speak for themselves’.

The Photographs

Every student presented community as a place or location and the photographs were mainly of buildings or the physical environment which identified or illustrated a need or asset. The focus on place and its material aspects probably partly reflected the guidance not to take photographs of people without their consent and the difficulty of accurately representing social processes, networks and interaction.

Most students used their own observation and experience as a guide to what to photograph but the images were not simply personal. The photos represented what they thought affected most or many people in their community like the physical environment, amenities, services or issues like safety and crime. The students also used the photographs to discuss how some conditions and issues made them feel about the place and how they thought others, outside the community, might view the place or stigmatise the residents.

Students described their use of amenities and services like parks, libraries or community centres and through this their social networks and interactions became visible and we explored this as both an aspect and a definition of community. The group was also able to identify functional or communities of interest by describing the varying use of some amenities or services or the prevalence of needs. The photographs provided an accessible and interesting route into the different ways of defining community which can often be a ‘dry’ and confusing discussion. The group was also able to consider place or other communities as the locus for community development activity and practice.

A number of different themes emerged from the photographs which provided the opportunity for classroom discussion, reading and research. Parks and playgrounds were generally seen as an asset especially for parents. Students thought that access to the recreational possibilities of parks and playgrounds was important for individual well-being and social interaction through a shared space and activities. They discussed how this might positively affect the way in which community members saw each other and foster a sense of community. However, some photos also showed vandalism, graffiti and isolated and secluded areas which raised issues regarding other uses of these spaces, their supervision, use of drugs and other illicit activities, and personal safety. These were particular concerns for women and those from minority ethnic groups. It also raised the issue of people experiencing community differently depending on sex, ethnicity and physical and intellectual impairment.

There were a number of photographs of empty or demolished light industrial premises and derelict and vandalised buildings which students said gave the impression of a neglect and lack of care and interest by community members. This affected how they viewed their community and, they thought, reflected negatively on themselves and the community generally. There were also concerns about safety as children used them as playgrounds. This stimulated discussion of whether some buildings could be renovated and used to house community services for the benefit of all. One building in particular was in the process of being developed commercially rather than as a community centre which enabled us to introduce the concepts of urban regeneration and gentrification.

Another negative theme which featured in many photos was rubbish and fly tipping. Once again students commented on how it made them feel and the impression it gave others of their communities. There was a discussion of whether it encouraged further community degeneration in the forms of vandalism, graffiti, crime and other anti-social behaviour. On a more positive note the students explored community 'clean-ups' initiated from within communities as an example of community development values and practice. The roles and responsibilities of the local authority were also discussed.

Schools and colleges were viewed positively by many students for their educational value and also as sites of social interaction, community participation and activity. But, there was also concern about variable standards and quality especially in disadvantaged communities and the upward pressure on house prices as people move to areas with good schools. Libraries and learning centres were also the subject of a critical discussion; they were viewed very positively but there was concern about their sustainability because of cuts to opening times and funding. That concern about funding was also raised by photographs of youth services the closure of which students felt would lead to more anti-social behaviour and problems in communities.

There were also photographs of community, family and Sure Start centres which were all introduced positively by students who described their own use of the centres and the role they played in the social life of their communities. Service cuts and funding concerns were again mentioned as well as the need for community-led activities to raise the importance of the centres with policy makers, maintain services or oppose cuts. Churches were photographed by quite a number of students who saw them as important locations for community activities and support for community members. In particular, students who were relatively recent migrants to the UK, said churches were crucial in helping people settle into communities.

Local shops were seen by many students as important sources of accessible fresh food and services and also social interaction. There was some ambiguity here as there was concern that smaller shops were closing because of both the recession and competition from larger supermarkets. Students were concerned that older or less mobile people would not be able to travel easily which would increase their isolation and affect their health and well-being.

Health and exercise was another theme emerging in photographs of health services and also open spaces and gyms. Local, accessible health services were valued

although, again, there was concern about service cuts. The availability of cheap or free opportunities for exercise was also considered important and the provision of local gyms, swimming pools and safe outdoor exercise spaces was discussed.

Frequent, reliable and reasonably priced public transport was also raised in photographs of new tram services and bus stops. This was considered important for employment and educational opportunities and also for preventing isolation and social exclusion.

So What?

We think that the use of photographs with first year students has fostered the engagement of students in the course by giving them the confidence to go out in their communities, identify real needs and assets in communities and present and discuss them. It also enhanced their knowledge and understanding of community and community development values and practice, introduced them to collaborative methods like Photovoice and provided a foundation for further student reading and research.

Many of the students said that they had never looked at or around their community before; many younger students commented that they had taken it for granted. It also provided an opportunity for the students from abroad who were placed in their communities to really examine what they liked or not for the first time which produced some interesting insights. Observation is an important aspect of community development and neighbourhood work and we wanted our students to have the experience of looking in a methodical manner for, or at, community assets and needs; to become 'skilful, astute observers' (Sanders 2007: 185). A good deal of community development takes place in places or geographical communities so it is important that practitioners have the confidence to be able to systematically assess a place as well as eliciting the views of community members and gathering other data.

The exercise also encouraged the students to be active rather than passive contributors to their own learning. It was apparent from the classroom discussions and the completed profiles that students gained confidence in seeing their observations of needs and assets shared by others. This valued and validated their lived experience (Robinson-Keilig et al. 2014) and their ability to observe and assess their community. The exercise took place early in the module so students' observations had not been heavily influenced by lectures or their own reading. In the context of geography fieldwork, Latham and McCormack (2009) discuss the value of not 'framing' students' experience in advance.

The students went on to relate their findings to published research of community, neighbourhood and the built environment in both UK and abroad, using visual methodologies. In particular, Alexander (2013) identifies similar neighbourhood needs like graffiti, litter and empty buildings and assets like open spaces and shops and also residents' feelings towards them. Also, Nowell et al. (2006) for parks and open spaces, graffiti, rubbish and residents' identity and pride; Van Auken et al.

(2010) for residents' appreciation of open spaces and shared community activity; Fink (2011) for the importance of parks, shops and community centres and communal activities; Nykiforuk et al. (2011) for the effect of the built environment on physical activity; Kennelly and Watt (2012) for fears of post-Olympic gentrification affecting access to affordable housing and shops; and Dakin et al. (2015) for residents' feelings about strengths and weaknesses in a poor area in Nairobi.

It is also clear that many community issues were raised earlier than they would have been using other classroom-based methods or reading. The issues were also explored and discussed in the context of the students' own experience which gave richness to the discussion which collaborative photography-based research methods are reported as producing (Rose 2012). A good deal of this discussion was of 'every-day' issues—quality of local schools or services, opportunities for recreation and play, transport, rubbish, vandalism, crime and feeling safe—which are legitimate needs and important for community development (Ledwith 2005).

We were also interested in stressing to the students the importance of asking community members for their experiences and perspectives as the foundation of practice. This is a key value as well as a method. The subjective nature of photography encouraged students to look at their community, select needs and assets to photograph, and introduce and explain their meaning to the group. Using photos in this purposeful and collective activity allowed us to introduce community-based participatory photographic methods like photoelicitation and Photovoice. Asking the students to take and discuss photographs as a way of assessing the community used key features of both photo elicitation and Photovoice. We feel it is important, where we can, to model in our teaching those methods that reflect the values of community development practice and that the students will also be to use in their practice. It also placed the students, as proxy community members, at the centre of our enquiries and as such opened up the debate regarding the relative power of community members, professionals, researchers and policy makers.

The inclusion of photographs added to the attractiveness and interest of the completed community profiles. It is important for our students to think about the ways in which information, ideally co-produced with the community, can be presented to be accessible to all members of the community and achieve the maximum impact with professionals and policy makers. Photographs and other visual data could help with this.

There is a substantial literature on using photography in research including a large and growing number of photoelicitation and Photovoice studies with disempowered and marginalised people and communities. Purcell (2007) sees these two methods as tools of community development and that, community use of photography "...can give voice to, and make visible, otherwise hidden groups and community-based issues". In the context of Frierian critical pedagogy photography can be used to stimulate critical thinking and develop critical consciousness (Wang and Burris 1997; Purcell 2007).

There is, however, less written on using photography as a method in teaching and learning especially in higher education. Schell et al. (2009) say that using Photovoice as a teaching tool in a post graduate sociology class helped develop critical thinking

and practical research skills and Hyde (2015) discusses using photographs as data in sociological inquiry. Garner (2014) observes in a nursing education context that it is particularly effective with visual learners and in developing critical awareness of a variety of populations. Robinson-Keilig et al. (2014), in the context of feminist pedagogy, see Photovoice as a ‘powerful teaching method’ capable of raising students’ critical consciousness, increasing their involvement in their own learning and recognising their experience and knowledge. In more general terms, Harper (2012) outlines a number of ways in which photographs and other visual methods can enhance the teaching of sociology by adding something that cannot be conveyed in words. Hall (2009) discusses the use of photography as a method for human geography students to use observation in order to record or describe place in human geography and which encourages student engagement. Sanders (2007) uses student photographs to teach urban geography and develop their observational skills and understanding of place. She notes that students understand complex concepts “... when they can see how they resonate in their lives.”

Conclusion

Teaching community development can borrow from the use of photography in both geography and sociology—describing, recording and assessing place and sense of place and understanding the social networks and interactions that occur within it. Both also look at issues which are important in community development like social exclusion, regeneration, gentrification, social mobility and the changing nature of community in terms of social networks and institutions and the effects on place. Photography places student observation and experience at the centre of that learning process in order that the lived experience of community members becomes central to their practice. In our experience photography provided the foundation for identifying features and issues within communities; for exploring key concepts; for developing students’ observational skills; for using students’ experience to begin the understanding of social processes and community as place. It did this using easily accessible technology in the camera phone.

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Chapter 8

A Model for Change: Sharing Ideas and Strategies

Ian G. Cook and Paresh Wankhade

Introduction

The aims of this chapter are, firstly, to examine the context in which the pedagogy of community arises in the UK and elsewhere, briefly summarising the nature of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and then communities themselves. It becomes readily apparent that these are quite different types of entities in their objectives and structures, but it is in their interaction, no matter how complex and difficult, that change becomes possible. We provide some examples of past good practice before focusing on Kahu's (2013) model of holistic engagement with communities by HEIs. The authors then return to good practice in the current era before concluding with some pointers for the way ahead to a meaningful and productive interrelationship between HEIs and communities.

The HEI Landscape in the UK and Elsewhere

It is clear that in the UK, and indeed globally, research and teaching are dominated by elite research-led universities — the Russell Group in the UK — and Ivy League institutions such as Harvard or MIT in the U.S. These HEIs set the research agenda for other HEIs around the globe, and in their structure and operation, they are mainly large-scale and hierarchical, with top-down decision making, albeit moderated at times by a university body such as a Senate. Increasingly, such HEIs are

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market-driven and include internal as well as external markets, with competition for funds both within and outside the institution. Due to the increasing scale of operation, this competition is increasingly on a global scale, with league tables now established to help governments and corporations to identify the ‘best’ HEIs. In the UK, Oxford, Cambridge, and Imperial College London are regulars in the top echelon, while Caltech, Harvard, Princeton, MIT, and the like dominate the U.S., and thus global, league tables (Times Higher 2015). Within these HEIs, subjects such as Science, Technology, Electrical Engineering, and Medicine (STEMs) are dominant due to the perceived need to invest in cutting edge technology, linked to major corporations and business. A neoliberal outlook and positivistic methodology predominates, and refereed high impact journal articles are the *sine qua non* of an academic career. Nevertheless, despite this drive for article publication, the recent REF (Research Excellence Framework) in the UK had a major component in which those submitting for the REF had to demonstrate the ‘impact’ of their work on wider society, providing a welcome counterpoise to the separatist ivory tower mentality that can often dominate the research process (REF 2015).

Communities

In contrast to these major institutions, communities are diverse, generally small-scale, bottom-up and non-hierarchical in their operation, and are run via flat structures, often led by a charismatic individual. Although some communities may be global in type, such as communities of interest linked via the Internet, most communities are predominantly local in their base and focus. Communities rely essentially on face-to-face contact, are often poor, lack resources, and find it difficult to sustain their development over time. Their needs and *raison d’être* are not necessarily readily understood or met by those who adhere to neoliberal perspectives and/or positivistic methodologies. In all, therefore, there is a wide gap between a community and an HEI, particularly when the nature of the elite HEIs noted above is concerned. And yet, within these HEIs and others are staff and students who develop, maintain, or retain a concern for the world outside academe and have an ethical or moral perspective that wishes to look far beyond the ivory tower.

In terms of pedagogy, this may be expressed in the growing debate about engaging students and embedding learning (Treleaven et al. 2012; Bringle and Hatcher 2002). For example, Bringle and Hatcher note that there has been a range of campus-community initiatives in the U.S., but that, unfortunately, too many of these have been based on ‘pockets of needs, laboratories for experimentation, or passive recipients of expertise’ (Bringle et al. 1999, p. 9). In other words, much of the interaction has been ‘on’ rather than ‘with’ the community. Bringle and Hatcher note that resources for these initiatives have come from a range of Federal programmes designed to cultivate civic engagement and a sense of civic responsibility in HEI students. Although much of the emphasis has been on improving the number of successful community projects, they caution that the *quality* of the relationship is more important, helping to bridge the cultural differences between HEI and community

for instance and seeking effective and sensible ways to end the relationship once the interaction has run its course. Treleaven, Sykes, and Ormiston, based in Australia, present innovative approaches for successful student engagement and embedding of knowledge and ideas that move beyond more traditional practice of knowledge diffusion and dissemination. One outcome was greater ‘intercultural competence’ achieved via such good foundations as teamwork and reflective practice. This latter concept will be returned to below and is fundamental to successful engagement with communities external to the HEI.

Another potential source of good practice comes from the work of McCauley-Smith and her colleagues (2014) based in various UK HEIs. They focused on the issue of developing a community of educational leaders and suggest that recent ideas concerning leadership as a shared and collaborative endeavour offer much towards dealing with the fast pace of change and complexity of contemporary society. ‘Sense-making’ (Weick 1995) was an integral feature of this procedure, involving such concepts as identity, enactment, and use of social cues in order to develop effective leadership procedures and processes. Such concepts and good practice help point the way towards inculcating learning and leadership styles that can help bridge the campus-community gap, and it is to this that we now turn.

Bridging the Gap

It is clear that, given their size and importance, it has to be HEIs that take the responsibility for outreach to communities, rather than the reverse. This initially requires a friendly and accessible website that actively seeks community engagement and invites suggestions and proposals from community groups for student projects, staff research, and fundraising activities. The potential for gains to the community cannot be understated in terms of skills and expertise that can be made available from the HEI. Community groups can often be in conflict internally or externally with diverse demands on their time and resources, therefore the HEI can ‘provide the table’ in a neutral setting for negotiation and collaboration between stakeholders from different community interests or public and private sector organisations. An imaginative and effective idea might be provision of ‘community breakfasts’ or ‘brown bag lunches’ for such meetings. Note that such ideas are not new; Cook and his colleagues in the Community Strategies Research Team found that the University of Massachusetts in Lowell utilised such concepts in their dealings with the local community in their efforts to aid urban regeneration (Cook et al. 2000, pp. 187–188; Cook et al. 2015, pp. 33–35).

Universities and other such organisations will also have to recognise that a range of methodologies and epistemologies will be required in order to more fully understand the nuances and intricacies of community endeavour. These include humanism, feminism, and anarchism, and thus may prove controversial, but without such alternative perspectives a fuller understanding of how and why people participate in community action cannot be achieved. Behavioural, psychological, and socio-cultural dimensions help provide a richness of approach that can engage the student

and ensure commitment and motivation to assist the community. The sense-making theory discussed above can also be utilised to help not just students to become a community of education leaders, but community leaders themselves to develop their own skills of knowledge acquisition and effective communication (Weick 1995).

There are also great sensitivities within communities; therefore, student engagement will also need to develop skills in empathy and emotional intelligence (Bernal and Ibarrola-García 2014; Neophytou 2013; Humphrey et al. 2007). For example, Bernal and Ibarolla-Garcia in their study of teacher education in Spain note (p. 6):

We can see the connection between the ethics of caring, moral leadership and relationships. Respect/disrespect, care/lack of care and professional support/lack of professional support involve positive and negative emotions. The leader reconciles positive and negative emotions to release energy for change and address difficult problems. The relationship between respect, care, support and the teacher's professional self, includes the ability to hope, to remain optimistic. Hope helps us to find ways and resources to address difficult problems.

Without hope, communities, like people themselves, can wither and die. In addition, pedagogy will also need to be action-oriented (Norton 2009; Laurillard 2008), taking the student and staff member some distance from the disengaged, objective model of the traditional Cartesian positivist with his/her detached observation point. Action and engagement rather than passive observation and neutrality will complexify the pedagogy of interaction between the campus and the community, but will help to bridge the gap between the two, to the mutual benefit of each.

Examples of Past Good Practice

One example of good practice in the past comes from 'Community Works', which was set up in 1991 as a joint initiative of Liverpool Community Rights, Liverpool Polytechnic, which established a Community Strategies Research Team, and the Community Liaison Section of Liverpool City Council. The broad aim was to provide a Forum and a Network for Community Groups involved in economic development in their neighbourhoods. This would be done via running conferences and seminars to encourage and support Community Based Economic Development (CBED), via field study visits to similar community projects in other parts of the UK, by linking in with relevant professionals working in this field and by representing the interests of its members in relevant forums (Cook and Norcup 2012).

To this end, in the 1990s, as Cook and Norcup (p. 287) note:

Community Works and its partners ran a range of activities: meetings to provide input into the Liverpool City Council Economic Development Plans, information-gathering for applications to the European Social Fund and networking field visits to Glasgow and South Wales. It also established working groups on Employment, Childcare and how to bid for European (Objective One) funding that was available at the time. A *Community Works Directory* and a *Liverpool Community Atlas* were also produced, and, with the Eldonians (mentioned by Ward above), the first Job Link Survey in Liverpool (the *Vauxhall Job Link Survey*), in which local interviewers were trained to interview local people to find out about

employment needs in the locality, and how these needs could be met through CBED activities.

A problem with community engagement is continuation of funding over time. Despite strenuous efforts, the Community Strategy Research Team was unable to obtain funding to continue this endeavour, although staff members were able to ensure that subsequent undergraduate students were able to engage in work experience with community groups in Liverpool, especially with the Eldonian Community which was able to receive and utilise the skills of such students. Today, the legacy of these and other initiatives is found via Liverpool Community Spirit and the Liverpool Community Network, which are city-wide networks.

A Model for Engagement

Student engagement has increasingly become an important aspect of student experience in the HEIs around the world with Kuh (2009), arguing that it can act as a proxy for quality. Notwithstanding the complexity and multifaceted nature of engagement, its critical role in engagement and learning by students is increasingly being recognised (Trowler and Trowler 2010). There is still some disagreement over the exact nature of the construct and a 'lack of distinction between the state of engagement, its antecedents, and its consequences (Kahu 2013, p. 758).

There are several approaches discussed in the literature to promote engagement. Bernal and Ibarrola-García (2014) have argued the need for quality education. The authors stress the emotional competences of academic leaders and teachers and their influence on effective teaching. They further argue that 'teachers' emotions cannot be regarded only in their psychological aspects—they show the interconnections between teacher's beliefs, identity, goals and emotions and teaching' (IBID, p. 33).

Bringle and Hatcher (2002) make a strong case as renewed emphasis on community involvement presents colleges and universities with opportunities to develop campus–community partnerships for the common good. The authors conceive the campus–community partnerships as a series of interpersonal relationships between the institution-campus administrators, faculty, staff, and students and the community groups-community leaders, agency personnel, and members of communities (p. 503). They further argue that the different phases of relationships and the dynamics of relationships can be explored and nurtured to provide institutional personnel with a clearer understanding of how to develop healthy campus–community partnerships (p. 503). This call for civic engagement has stirred a renewed interest in promoting institutional citizenship, building new campus-community initiatives, and promoting a broad sense of civic responsibility in higher education (Bringle and Hatcher 2002; Bringle et al. 1999). Applying Weick's (1995) framework of 'sense making', provide empirical evidence about sense making and leadership development within an educational context. In their study about the Australian Higher

Education Institutions (HEIs), Treleaven et al. (2012) make a strong case for an effective dissemination strategy to successfully 'translate and reproduce improvements in learning and teaching into new contexts, beyond the local site of origin' (2012, p. 747).

Various perspectives or approaches on the current discourse on student engagement are discussed in the extant literature recognising the problem to offer a simplistic solution(s) or models for a much complex question. This further makes it very difficult to pick up the best method or a preferred model. The 'psychological perspective' on engagement, particularly dominant in the school literature, views engagement as an 'internal psycho-social process that evolves over time and varies in intensity' (Kahu 2013, p. 761). Different overlapping dimensions of engagement have been advocated in the literature, including behaviour, cognition, emotion, and conation, with some earlier work which defined engagement as one of the four dimensions or the latter work suggesting engagement to be a combination of these factors (Fredricks et al. 2004; Jimerson et al. 2003). The lack of definition and the differentiation between these dimensions has also been cited as one of the key limitations of this approach (Kahu 2013). The 'behavioural perspective' is also a widely accepted view of student engagement in a HEI setting, which puts emphasis on student behaviours and the teaching practices in these institutions (Coates 2010; Kuh 2009; Kezar and Kinzie 2006). Several survey instruments are commonly used across the HEI globally to capture the student experience. They include the National Student Survey NSS used in the UK HEIs and colleges and the Australasian Survey of Student Engagement (AUSSE). The NSS survey in the UK (HEFCE 2015) benchmarks data on overall satisfaction of students aggregating scores about the teaching, academic support, assessment and feedback, learning resources, organisation and management, personal development, role of student union, and a score for overall satisfaction on the course. While such survey instruments are useful to gauge, document, and address student behaviours, one needs to guard against the validity of the responses as evidence suggests that students often struggle to understand academic terms such as 'thinking critically and analytically' (Kahu 2013, p. 760) and some of the responses could be a result of poor academic performance and lack of engagement on part of the students.

The socio-cultural perspective on student engagement has also been highlighted in the literature (Geyer 2001; Mann 2001) and the experience of an HEI has been referred to by students as akin to a culture shock (Christie et al. 2008) and what Thomas (2002, p. 431) referred to as a 'fish out of water'. Kahu (2013) focuses on the impact of the broader social context on student experience to provide some insights about the nature and level of engagement by students, especially the non-traditional students. There is also a strand in the literature which argues for a 'holistic approach' to tackle the problematic of engagement, the central argument being that the HEIs should be about more than just getting qualifications (Kahu 2013; Bryson and Hand 2008) and a wider institutional

approach is needed to foster engagement not only with the students, but with the staff as well (Hand and Bryson 2008). We, however, need a clear distinction about what is considered to be the process is about ‘engaging with students’ which is largely related to institutional factors, whereas the outcome we should also be aiming for is the ‘student engagement’ with their HEI experience (Kahu 2013).

Amidst the array of different approaches and perspectives, it is quite a difficult endeavour to find or favour one model approach to engagement. We would, however, like to discuss in some detail the conceptual framework provided by Kahu (2013), which depicts the complex array of factors influencing student engagement. It embeds these phenomena and processes within the wider socio-cultural context to draw out the unique nature of the individual experience and the need for in-depth study of particular student population becomes self-evident.

There are six key elements of this framework which include:

1. Socio-cultural context pertains to the wider social, cultural and political discourse and mediates the overall experience and engagement at an HEI. This allows the individual experiences to be grounded in the socio-cultural context and if often influenced by characteristics of both the student and the institutions. This is of particular relevance with respect to students coming from different socio-cultural and economic backgrounds and also in the case of international student population which seeks to gain knowledge and education in completely different settings. Recognition of the socio-cultural context helps to highlight that student engagement is more than just an internal static state; this individual experience is embedded within the socio-cultural context and shown as influenced by characteristics of both the student and the institution (Kahu 2013, p. 766).
2. Structural influences such as the assessment, curriculum, and academic support have a recognisable impact on student engagement. Differences on account of subject disciplines, quality of teaching, nature and quality of feedback, and the organisation and management of the course can be quite critical in influencing student engagement (Mann 2001; Zepke 2011; Yorke 2000). What is equally important is the student-mix-their background, support networks, and family networks, which also impact their learning.
3. Psycho-social influence categories the influence of university life-teaching, staff, support and social life, and the relationships between students and staff (Kahu 2013; Lear et al. 2010; Zhao and Kuh 2004) as an important dimension of student engagement. Student variables such as motivation, skills, and identity can also play part in the overall process. A further strategy could be to increase student awareness of the range of variables within their own control, and the potential impact these factors have on their engagement and success at university (Kahu 2013, p. 767).

4. Student engagement is about the lived reality and targeting interventions and is detailed in the framework with the students at the centre of the whole process. The psychological perspective is evidenced by the inclusion of the three dimensions of engagement, namely, affect, cognition, and behaviour outlined as by Fredricks et al. (2004).
5. Proximal consequences are divided into academic, learning, and achievement, and social, satisfaction, and well-being with the recognition that the influences are 'bi-directional between engagement and both its immediate antecedents and proximal consequences, as illustrated by the two-way arrows in the framework' (Kahu 2013, p. 767). Good relationships foster good engagement which in turn leads to good relationships.
6. Distal consequences of student engagement include not only the immediate or most obvious academic benefits, but also long-term social impacts and contribution to the society in preparation for a bigger role of that of an engaged citizen (Zepke 2010).

We do not intend to propose Kuhn's model as a generalised quasi-deterministic model, but see the potential to guide further research into the important construct of engagement. We are acutely aware of its limitations of not including every possible antecedents and consequences of student engagement, something the authors are themselves conscious of (Kahu 2013, p. 768). We discuss the framework here as a way of engaging with the discourse and sharing our own perspectives as senior HEI academics.

Good Practice Today

The nature and complexity of contemporary communities across the globe means that good practice must be multi-faceted, multi-disciplinary, or cross-disciplinary in order for HEI interaction with community to be effective. This means that, ideally, teams will be set up within HEIs that cut across traditional disciplinary boundaries, which may mean that internal barriers to cross-disciplinary or cross-faculty co-operation will have to be overcome, not least in terms of funding streams that tend to be focused on single-subject departments. Some subjects, such as those in social science or public health, or applied community studies itself, where that is found, should see an advantage to community involvement, not least through the opportunity for students to be better informed about the world outside the Academy, and for meaningful engagement to help improve the health or wealth of people living in communities that suffer from inequality. Other disciplines, such as those in the pure sciences or engineering, may see little to be gained from external community engagement, but would have much to offer in their skills and expertise to local communities. Some persuasion may be required, perhaps by inviting community leaders to address Heads of Department, Faculty Deans, or higher level

University leaders about their needs. University leaders can then in turn seek to free up staff and funding for local outreach activities and a long-term programme of events and activities.

In all these, a long-term funding commitment will be needed by the HEI, and writing in a time of austerity the authors appreciate that this long-term commitment may not be easy. So why should an HEI bother with community engagement? Arguably, it is not the core business of the University, which is Higher Education per se, and the HEI may see itself as being a national or global entity rather than one which is grounded in the community from which it emerged. Here, we must appeal to both University self-interest and to the concept of the common good. At the very least, it is good PR for the HEI to show that it cares for the people around it, that its *raison d'être* is not a narrow self-interest in self-growth and self-aggrandisement. At best, the HEI can demonstrate a strong moral and ethical code via appreciation that concepts of equality and social justice demand engagement from wealthy institutions to support poor ones to assist the development of the latter. But in any case, even if the HEI itself does not feel grounded in the locality, at the very least the people who work in it, from caretakers and cleaners through to the Vice-Chancellor himself or herself, are part of their local world even if all they do is commute through it from afar.

Of course, there is little point in community engagement if it is seen as being a one-way provision of HEI expertise. Instead, the objective must be to help the community to help itself—with the old fishing rod analogy being pertinent here (i.e. in the long-term you don't help people by providing them with fish; instead you provide a fishing rod and teach them/assist them to fish). Community leaders and representatives must be consulted throughout in order to pin down what 'fishing' is needed in the community. HEIs are up-to-the-minute in their networking, use of technology, global contacts, and other skills and can help community representatives to engage with their peers elsewhere, whether via field visits of the type described previously, or via virtual field visits via the World Wide Web. Social media such as Facebook, Twitter, or Instagram need to be harnessed and used as effective forms of communication to assist in breaking down the real or imagined barriers between community and HEI. Interaction and a holistic approach will be necessary. It is inevitable that the HEI will always be 'big brother or big sister' and the community will always be 'little brother or little sister', but is incumbent on the HEI not to become 'Big Brother' in this interaction, feeling that it always knows best what the community needs.

Figure 8.1 presents an A-Z of keywords, people, and concepts that we feel can be developed productively by the HEI in this activity. Many of the keywords are found in this chapter as ideas that need to be developed, or in a few cases avoided. Some are people that we find inspirational in their community engagement. And concepts include those that are important to student understanding of the situation in which communities find themselves. The references given at the end of the chapter help to explore these.

Action
Activism
Anarchism
Art
Bhutto, Benazir
Bottom-up approach
Breitbart, Myrna
Communitarianism
Creativity
Credit unions
Culture
Context
Decentralisation
Diversity
Engagement
Emotional intelligence
Empathy
Exclusion
Feminism
Fieldwork
Focus Group
Freire, Paul
Gandhi, Mahatma
Globalisation
Global Shift
Holistic Approach
Humanism
Higher Education Institutions
Imagination
Inclusion
Inequality
Interaction
Job Creation

Fig. 8.1 Key ideas, people, and concepts for HEI engagement with communities

Kropotkin, Peter
Laboratory
Leadership
Locality
Mandela, Nelson
Mentor
Mutual Aid
Networks
Nation-State
Objectivity
Older People
PAR (Participatory Action Research)
Participant Observation
PDP (Personal Development Planning)
Qualitative and Quantitative Method
Questionnaire Survey
Reflective Field Diary
Research
RIT (Research into Teaching)
Sociability
Social Capital
Subjectivity
Students
Teamwork,
Teresa, Mother
Top-down Approach
University Outreach
Volunteering
Work placement
Work with, not on
Xtra-curricular activities
Youth
Zeal
Zest

Fig. 8.1 (continued)

Discussion and Conclusions

In summary, we have argued in this chapter about the importance of the student engagement for the HEIs. A review of the literature suggests to us that that a simplistic approach or a single research project to capture the multi-faceted dimensions of the student engagement is likely to fail given the complexities surrounding the construct. By improving our understanding about the determinants and antecedents of engagement with their students, HEIs will be in better position to meet the needs of the students and enhance student experience. The growing importance of the student satisfaction surveys (e.g. NSS, AUSS) drives this point quite clearly. The limited research and theoretical analysis of ‘campus-community’ partnerships (Bringle and Hatcher 2002) makes a good case for engaging with this research agenda. This will help clear some of the fuzziness currently surrounding dissemination techniques and will help unpack the practices associated with engagement and embedding of such practises (Treleaven et al. 2012, p. 764). Current discourse is dominated by studies carried out in the Western Hemisphere, while studies examining student engagement in the Non-English HEIs are far and between. We support both in-depth qualitative methodologies to capture the richness of the context as well as quantitative survey methods testing specific hypotheses, while keeping the students at the centre of any such chosen approaches.

We further agree with Kahu (2013, p. 769) that ‘by starting from a place that acknowledges the multi-level phenomena and processes, and the complex relations between them, the focus can be on developing a greater understanding of one element without denying the existence of the others.’ A holistic understanding of the HEI context and the related social, cultural, and institutional dimensions will bring greater clarity to the construct of student engagement. Further research into exploring student dimension in different contexts would further help to build the research base.

As has hopefully become apparent in the above discussion, we, the authors of this chapter, believe in a commitment to community by the HEI. Our recent book (with one of the editors of the current volume) gives examples of the positive impact of community intervention in the area of public health around the globe (Cook et al. 2015). Communities at their best are rich in experience, diverse, and fascinating examples of how people can work together effectively for the common good. At their worst, of course, they can be myopic and narrow in their composition and prejudices. We suggest that the HEI can help communities to overcome any such narrowness of outlook by demonstrating that they are not alone in their endeavours and can be supported by an enthusiastic and engaged body of students and staff who are prepared to go the fabled extra mile in order to help communities set and achieve targets for their short, medium, and even, as a goal, their long-term development. Students and staff alike will feel the deep sense of achievement in such a positive circumstance, as will the community that they assist. We hope that some of the ideas presented in this chapter can contribute in a small way to that endeavour.

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Chapter 9

Establishing Excellence: Where Do We Go from Here?

Michael Snowden and Robert McSherry

Introduction

The chapter explores the pedagogical basis of establishing excellence in educational practice. This is achieved by: exploring what excellence means and its relevance to higher educational practice; applying excellence to pedagogical approaches in particular (heutagogy) and offering ways of how to measure and demonstrate excellence within the curriculum. The chapter is based on a workshop presentation delivered at the HEA York, U.K., in 2014 entitled '*Excellence within the curriculum a lesson from EPAS*' at a Higher Education Academy (HEA) sponsored event exploring '*Community Development and Engagement*'.

What Is Excellence and Its Relevance to Higher Educational Practice?

The popularity and application of the term 'excellence' is often talked about and publicised in the media, marketing, advertising and sale campaigns, but do we really understand the meaning behind the rhetoric and beyond the term in reality. The popularity of the term 'excellence' is undoubtedly expanding. These include the

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Excellence is a symbol and/or symbolic acknowledgement indicating a successful achievement of a desired goal and/or given standard by an individual, team and organisation(s). Demonstrating excellence highlights that a significant amount of work and effort(s) by individuals, teams and/or organisations who have logically and systematically worked through a process to successfully achieve a desired outcome has occurred. Excellence seems to be an outward expressing of achieving a status or award which recognizes an acquired standard or performance of practice or achievement against a given criteria. Finally; Excellence is a term/phrase/concept that is associated with outstanding performance and/or performance's.
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Fig. 9.1 Some observations about 'excellence'

world of business and management, retail therapy and marketing, health and social care and higher education to name but a few (Bell, 2010; Department of Health, 2011; European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, 2014).

Excellence in these contexts seems to be representing an acquired standard(s) of achievement surrounding safety, quality, governance, assurance and value for money. They also cover a variety and diverse range of settings by different organisations, companies, professions and disciplines from public, private and voluntary sectors.

From our experiences 'espousing excellence in whatever we do or provide is one thing but demonstrating this happens in reality is another' (McSherry, Pearce, Grimwood, & McSherry, 2012, p. 10). This is because 'excellence' and/or 'excellent' care, customer service and/or satisfaction has strong association with individual and personal experience(s) of one person with another person(s) and/or their interaction(s) with a given team, organisation/institution culture and environment. Similarly, excellence can be attributed to the quality and performance of an individual, team, organisation and/or structure/product. Recognising and demonstrating 'excellence' as an '*outcome*' is difficult and complex because it is a multifactorial and dimensional concept tied into a multitude of factors. These could include: experience, service, quality, safety, governance, leadership, management, structures, systems, processes, etc. These can either singularly and/or collectively influence the performance and outcome of individuals, teams and/or an organisation(s) and product.

Generally excellence is defined as 'the quality of being outstanding or extremely good: "awards for excellence", a centre of academic excellence' (Oxford Dictionary, 2015). Similarly, Collins (1986, p. 299) define 'excellence' and 'excellent' as 'the fact or condition of excelling; superiority' and 'outstandingly good of its kind'. Collectively these broad definitions of excellence highlight several important facts (see Fig. 9.1).

On reviewing the observations presented in Fig. 9.1 several important messages about 'excellence' emerge that require further explanation. Excellence is a difficult and multifaceted term, phrase and/or concept to define and articulate. It is a term that is interwoven with experience(s), engaging with systems, processes, structures and is dependent on me and or you to achieve a certain goal, aspiration and/or

standard. The difficulty in this context is that we all live our lives and/or practice differently therefore making it inherently more challenging to accommodate for such variables when establishing and recognising excellence. What is remarkable is the fact that when excellence is recognised and rewarded the effects of achieving this level of recognition for an acquired standard of quality and performance can have a profound impact and outcome on individuals, teams and/or organisations status, acumen, appeal, recruitment and retention can be profound.

Not to demise and/or diminish the positive aspects of excellence, cynics may want to suggest that excellence does not exist, and/or if it did how can you measure this and/or capture the evidence to demonstrate this happens. Excellence could essentially be anything that an individual, team and/or organisation desire it to be. This is primarily associated with the following fact(s).

Excellence to us is associated with the way we live our lives and act, respond, integrate and work as an individual. The way we interact and communicate with other individuals and how we work with them and them with us plays an enormous part in shaping us as the person we are. Essentially we do not achieve certain goals and/or aspirations and then stop to say we have achieved an acquired level of excellence. Life, events and situations all contribute to enabling us to master certain areas of our life, work and how we are as a human and how we may influence others or them us. Excellence is not a definitive journey and/or final destination. In fact excellence is a desired aspiration/goal and/or outcome which are constantly changing. Excellence can take on many different meanings for us as an individual, team member and how we work, play and interact with fellow humans. This may be affected both positively and/or negatively by the organisational culture and working environment in which we work. We would like to argue that excellence isn't only desirable but is achievable providing the necessary team vision, goals, values, beliefs, attitudes, behaviours, support, resources are all in place and available.

Burford (2011, p. 1) '*My journey his purpose: Thoughts on faith, community and leadership*' reaffirms the above by asking 'how do you define excellence and, more importantly, how is your definition impacting your journey?'

The challenge facing all of us working in higher education is in answering and addressing the following question. What is the relevance of excellence when it comes to exploring the pedagogical basis of establishing excellence in educational practice? It is: *Unpicking and placing the concept of excellence within the higher educational context: opportunity and challenges.*

Published in 1982 by Tom Peters and Robert Waterman '*In Search of Excellence—Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies*' (Peters & Waterman, 1982) sent shockwaves and challenged the world of management. Their argument was to shift the focus onto the software and not necessarily the hardware approach to seeking excellence within a business. Their arguments centred on the searching for excellence focusing on eight attributes (see Table 9.1).

Table 9.1 illustrates how Peters and Waterman (1982) search for excellence model depicts eight critical attributes that have the potential to impact on a business's productivity, performance, quality, profitability, performance metrics and outputs/outcomes in either an enabling or inhibiting way. Essentially, these eight characteristics could be interpreted as a systems based approach where input,

Table 9.1 Attributes akin to searching for excellence

Attribute number	Attribute title	Excellence rationale
1	<i>A bias for action</i>	Having a shared approach to decision-making both analytically (reviewing productivity/performance) and experimentally (promoting innovation and risk management)
2	<i>Close to the customer</i>	Listening and responding to the voice of the customer(s) through engagement and involvement with quality improvement systems, processes and outcomes
3	<i>Autonomy and entrepreneurship</i>	All employees are actively encouraged and empowered to be creative and innovative within their jobs
4	<i>Productivity through people</i>	People are encouraged to come up with ideas for reducing waste and enhancing productivity. Respect, empowerment involvement through engagement is priority
5	<i>Hands-on, value driven</i>	The companies' philosophy, vision and values are the drivers for excellence
6	<i>Stick to the knitting</i>	Associated with remaining close to the nature of the business
7	<i>Simple form, lean staff</i>	Keep things structurally simple and staff lean but well recognised and rewarded
8	<i>Simultaneous loose-tight properties</i>	Is associated with encouraging autonomy from the top to the frontline along with holding onto the core values and beliefs at the same time

A Simple Model of Excellence (Peters and Austin, 1985)

The EFQM Excellence Model Available at: <http://www.efqm.org/> [Accessed 10/11/2015]

The Toyota Production System 4P Model Available at: <http://missiontps.blogspot.co.uk/p/starting-point-of-tps.html> [Accessed 10/11/2015]

Deming's 14 Points on Total Quality Management (TQM) Available at: <http://asq.org/learn-about-quality/total-quality-management/overview/deming-points.html> [Accessed 10/11/2015]

The Excellence Practice Accreditation Scheme (EPAS) Available at: https://www.tees.ac.uk/schools/soh/epas_index.cfm [Accessed 10/11/2015]

Fig. 9.2 Organisational and business excellence models/frameworks

throughput and output can be influenced at both the hardware (structures, systems and processes) and software (people) levels. We believe these eight characteristics can be broadly categorised into four fundamental themes that influence excellence. These are: leadership and management, people-centeredness, innovation and improvement and evaluation. Nurturing and building an organisation and/or business which focuses on these themes will hopefully create an organisational culture and working environment that recognises excellence through empowering and rewarding innovation and change by improvement (McSherry et al., 2012).

There are numerous models and/or frameworks (Peters and Austin 1985, EFQM 2015, The Toyota Production System 2015, Deming 2015 and EPAS, 2015) that are available to help support and facilitate a business, company and/or organisation in recognising and rewarding organisational excellence. See Fig. 9.2.

A brief review of the excellence models/frameworks detailed in box 2 reveals a variety of distinct similarities and differences. These include, the importance of ensuring the organisation has a sound strategic plan, philosophy, vision and values base that permeates throughout the whole business and/or organisation. How leaders and managers styles, characteristics, attributes and approaches can significantly influence productivity, proficiency, performance and outcomes. The number one priority to a successful business and/or organisation is 'people'. Investing, valuing, rewarding and recognising/celebrating success will produce an abundance of quality fruits. The relevance and simplicity of the model/framework to improving quality for all impacts on people sign in and uptake which subsequently impacts on their aspirations, motivations and achievement of excellence.

In today's world, creating the type of business and/or organisational culture and working environment in which excellence can flourish requires several critical ingredients. These according to McSherry and Warr (2008, 2010) and Green (2012) are *clarity* (where are you going and why), *focus* (what is the vision and how are you going to achieve this) and *connection* (having honest, open and transparent dialogue) to encourage people to feel valued and an integral connected member of the team. Globally Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) are no different to any other business and company. They like many public and independent organisations and businesses are subject to an increase in the numbers of independent external scrutiny and reviews to attest and assure regulators, commissioners and governments of an acquired standard of quality. So what makes a HEI a quality place to work and learn? How is excellence in higher education recognised and rewarded?

Quality and excellence go hand in hand. Recognising and rewarding excellence within the HEI's context is not difficult but highly challenging. This according to Professor Harper cited in Mroz (2010) is because the essence of a great university is 'a gathering of important ideals'. It is he believes, 'not one thing alone, not one capacity in itself, but a combination of many human activities'.

Like Harper we acknowledge the importance people play in recognising and acquiring excellence. However, it is also important to identify how structures, systems, processes and artefacts can enable and inhibit excellence. Quality, excellence and greatness analogous to a HEI are not achieved overnight but through months and indeed often years of continuous quality improvement and change. To be outstanding and to be awarded such accolade by students and staff from independent external review and scrutiny requires human ambition (both employer and staff), sound structural facilities, appropriate governance infrastructures and financial support. These are eloquently endorsed by Kok and McDonald (2015) research which presented eight elements that underpin excellence in higher education. These are: change management, research and training, communication, direction, strategy and shared values, leadership, departmental dynamics and culture, rewards and staffing.

We would like to argue that the globalisation of higher education and the increasing mobility of students and staff have accelerated the demand and demonstration of excellence in the provision of higher education. Within the United Kingdom (UK) Quality Code for Higher Education (Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) 2014) sets out the 'expectations that all UK higher education providers are required to meet'. The QAA Quality Code for HEIs aims to safeguard academic

standards through assuring the quality of the learning opportunities afforded to students and to encourage uninterrupted and regular improvements to higher education provision.

The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) (2014) outlines the concept of excellence in higher education by focusing on five broad themes. These include: approaches to excellence, excellence in practice, definitions of excellence, criteria for excellence and excellence and quality assurance. They conclude 'relating the methods of QA to excellence is probably one of the most difficult tasks for QA agencies. This is probably the reason why the vast majority of ENQA member agencies do not include the word excellence in their own presentations on the ENQA website' (ENQA, 2014, p. 37). Similarly, the Higher Education Academy (HEA) acknowledges excellence and actively endorses this as part of the 'Teaching Excellence Programme' (TEP) (2015). Furthermore the recent Green Paper 'Fulfilling our Potential: Teaching Excellence, Social Mobility and Student Choice' (Department for Business Education and Skills, 2015) introduces the 'Teaching Excellence Framework' (TEF) designed to drive up quality, enhance transparency and promote inclusivity, diversity and social mobility.

What the above documents illustrate is that given the complexity and challenges surrounding demonstrating that excellence in teaching and learning occurs it does not mean that HEIs should avoid rising to these challenges. Demonstrating outstandingly good quality for the future should be regarded as everyone's role and responsibility and can only be done in partnership with all stakeholder including our students and staff. The pursuit of excellence is essentially an outward expression of an achievement of an acquired standard(s) for a given practice and/or performance which when benchmarked against similar statuses is comprehensive and outstandingly good. In contrast excellence could be regarded as subjective concept open to misinterpretation and abuse because of its fluidity and flexibility in highlighting what constitutes evidence of achievement and compliance against the acquired standards and/or benchmarks.

The challenge facing HEIs is in engaging with potential models/frameworks identified in box 2 in order to internalise and action the messages from the various documents, reports indicating what excellence mean from them, their staff and students. Quality, governance, leadership and assuring quality in HEIs must become a priority in ensuring we provide the best possible experience for our students and staff along with value for money.

The Excellence in Practice Accreditation Scheme (EPAS) Table 9.2 can be shown how excellence may be achieved within HEIs. The EPAS launched in February 2003 by Lord Nigel Crisp former Chief Executive of the National Health Service (NHS) has played a pivotal role in improving safety, quality and care. This is achieved by focusing on six core standards. These are: Working in Organisations; Collaborative Working; User Focused Care; Continuous Quality Improvement; Performance Management and Measuring Efficiency and Effectiveness. The philosophy of EPAS is dedicated to encouraging and facilitating the development of best practice by ensuring effective communications, interprofessional collaborative working, integrated working practices and team building in the quest for excellence. From our experiences we have found that EPAS reduces the burden of inspection

Table 9.2 Applying EPAS to demonstrate excellence in HEIs

EPAS standards	Rationale	Relevance to HE	Relevance to HE
		MICRO	MACRO
Working in organisations	Explores the initiatives under the policies and research associated with improving learning within the university and the professional and continued development and working lives of staff. This is associated with leadership and management concentrating on team development, communication and the sharing of information. Philosophy, vision, values and beliefs all form part of this major standard	Individual staff awards, e.g. UKPSF awards at Fellow/Senior Fellow status	Institutional, faculty/School staff developing policy
		University teaching awards	External accreditation and recognition of excellence e.g. Investors in people awards; Times Higher Education University Workplace award, Athena Swan, etc.
		National teaching Fellowships, shared strategic decision making	Learning and teaching focus within university level strategic plan
Collaborative working	Focuses on multi-professional and cross-disciplinary working and development as the main issue for the achievement of quality improvement through integrated team working	Cross Faculty/School collaboration, delivering creative student centre teaching and learning activities, and curriculum planning	Cross Faculty/School collaboration, supporting teaching and Learning projects across the institution
		Peer mentoring and mentor based learning within the curriculum	
User focused learning	Emphasises the importance of the student centred curriculum agenda by incorporating users' views into the development and evaluation of teaching practice and the curriculum	Application of Pedagogy e.g. Heutagogy principles within the curriculum	Barnet's (2014) conditions of flexibility; TEF

(continued)

Table 9.2 (continued)

EPAS standards	Rationale	Relevance to HE	Relevance to HE
		MICRO	MACRO
Continuous quality Improvement	Within all quality improvement systems that have been introduced improving the quality of teaching and learning has always been an issue. The emphasis of this theme is how individuals and teams incorporate the concept of quality improvement in everything that they do. This theme aims to make quality part of everyday working practice	Use of ongoing, regular and responsive consumer evaluation and feedback to inform teaching and learning Embrace a receptive culture of evaluation and challenge	University, Faculty/School wide approach to multidimensional measurement of quality including NSS and course satisfaction survey
Performance management	To manage effectively is to improve performance and user satisfaction. This theme concentrates on how this can be achieved in practice	PDP focus to teaching and learning including curriculum delivery	Effective performance and consumerist training for all participants Collaborative, collegial structure throughout the institution
Measuring efficiency and effectiveness	Aims to demonstrate how efficiency and effectiveness in practice is illustrated through the various systems and processes associated with measurement, benchmarking, audit and evaluation methodology	Pedagogical practice underpinned by striving towards excellence, with clear focus	Clear definitions of what constitutes excellence using for example TEF, UKPSF standards, including subject/ professional benchmarks

and review through offering a patient safety, continuous quality framework for collecting and presenting evidence within an integrated governance system and process.

There are several lenses through which quality in higher education can be viewed. One views quality improvement at the macro or university level, another focuses at the micro or educational-delivery level. One sees quality assessment as an administrative ‘check-off’ exercise, the other sees quality as a continuous improvement in educational delivery. One focusses upon quantitative measures to demonstrate quality, the other values qualitative measures. We propose that what is needed is integrative approach where quality improvements at the practitioner/educational-delivery level are reflected and complemented at the university level with qualitative data from the departmental and faculty level. Essentially EPAS could be applied to HEI

by focusing on the macro and micro aspects of the standards and their relevance to HEI's Table 9.2, illustrates how the six features of 'EPAS' can be used to measure 'excellence' within the HEI.

Working in Organisations

All too often, quality improvement systems are viewed in isolation, many quality improvement systems that have been introduced improving the quality of teaching and learning has always been an issue. The emphasis of this theme is how individuals and teams incorporate the concept of quality improvement in everything that they do. This theme aims to make quality part of everyday working practice. The current quality assurance and accreditation systems do not always address the new curricula models being adopted and often don't address the importance of student learning and the notion of value added. Often, they fail to adequately contextualise the diversity of institutional profiles and performances, therefore we suggest that excellence and quality can be measured by the manner in which awards are made to the university and to those individuals working within the institution.

Collaborative Working

It is clear as presented elsewhere in this text, that collaborative working through cross- and interdisciplinary approaches to teaching and learning remains the fulcrum for the achievement of quality improvement within the curriculum. Collaborative working practices promote understanding of communities and contribute to the development of societal based transferable skills. Cross faculty/school collaborations, the use of peer mentor and community mentor schemes all enhance the learning experience promoting quality and excellence, providing a real-world learning experience.

Continuous Quality Improvement

Within all quality improvement systems that have been introduced, improving the quality of teaching and learning has always been an issue. The emphasis of this theme is how individuals and teams incorporate the concept of quality improvement in everything that they do. Enhanced resources are often demanded to enhance quality; however, this is by no means the key for success. What is important here is that the notion of quality becomes part of everyday working practice, where practitioners regularly draw upon consumer feedback to inform teaching and learning and firmly embrace a culture of evaluation and challenge. Ensuring that the curriculum

is driven by the needs of society and student population it serves. As part of this process the evaluation cycle must be multidimensional and offer full participation to all parties concerned with teaching and learning.

User Focused Learning

This text firmly places the student at the heart of the learning process and due emphasis has been placed upon the importance incorporating users' views in the development and evaluation of teaching and practices, curriculum content and design. The manner in which pedagogical principles have influenced the curriculum, the application of Barnett and Coate (2005) curriculum model and for example the manner in which the curriculum has embraced recommendations such as the 'Conditions of Flexibility' (Barnett, 2014) all influence the development of the curriculum of excellence.

Performance Management

To manage effectively is to improve performance and user satisfaction. This theme concentrates on how this can be achieved in practice. The principles of performance management and the associated practice of peer review are firmly embedded within academic practice and the potential benefits to practice are accepted. However, we suggest all too frequently this is viewed as a source of surveillance and is seldom used as a developmental tool for the enhancement of practice, reflecting how institutional policy of performance management and review may contrast with the perceptions of staff using the policy. Therefore, we suggest that the process is crucial to the development of quality and excellence, but the model adopted should be collegial in orientation, and embraced by staff groups as a developmental process with the appropriate support and guidance for participants.

Measuring Efficiency and Effectiveness

Existing approaches for measuring quality teaching and learning often rely on measuring the student experience and have limited reliability and validity. Efficiency and effectiveness in practice can be illustrated, we suggest, by adopting multiple systems and processes associated with measurement, benchmarking, audit and evaluation. However, examining the assumptions underpinning the conceptions of quality and excellence and its relationship with teaching and learning is fundamental for success. It is clear that 'excellence' due to its multifaceted and complex nature is difficult to define; however, without such a cogent definition it will remain challenging to measure the constituents of excellence.

Conclusion

This chapter has argued throughout that the student should be at the heart of the learning experience; in order to maintain this, we have argued that the adoption of heautogical approaches and Barnett and Coate (2005) notion of the tri-dimensional curriculum model promote a student centred and ‘realist’ curriculum. The EPAS scheme, whilst designed for measuring excellence in health, does provide us with a rudimentary framework which guides and contributes to our understanding of excellence and its measurement. Whilst this may form the basis of excellence, a clear definition of excellence and associated constituents are crucial for successful teaching and learning and should draw from an agreed and supported evidence base. Subject benchmarks, the UK Professional Standards Framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education (2011), the ‘Teaching Excellence Programme’ (TEP) (HEA, 2015), Barnett’s (2014) ‘Conditions of Flexibility’ and the forthcoming Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) (Department for Business Education and Skills, 2015) for example provide a starting point for the search of such a definition. None the less, the current level of evidence underpinning measures of quality and excellence adequate will only be improved by embracing a culture of challenge and accountability. A better understanding of the issues defining excellence and determining quality learning experiences in higher education is required, and we urge educators to consider innovative and creative ways to develop excellence ensuring that the student remains at the heart of an exceptional learning experience. As Barnett (2000, p. 11) notes:

The future that beckons, however, is not just a new order. It is an order with new possibilities which may even turn out to do justice of a kind to traditional values.

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