FIRST DRAFT

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH, POLICY AND PRACTICE:
COMMON USAGE OF KEY CONCEPTS

William A. Ninacs

C.P. 92, Victoriaville, Québec, G6P 6S4

Telephone: (819) 758-7401

Fax: (819) 758-4822

E-mail: ninacs@ivic.qc.ca

and

Michael Toye

Coopérative de travail Interface

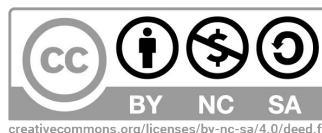180, René-Lévesque Est, bur. 314, Montréal, QC H2X 1N6

Telephone: (514) 866-8303

Fax: (514) 866-1745

E-mail: mtoye@cam.org

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MANDATE

As part of the development of an evaluation framework for the Social Development Partnerships Program (SDPP) of the Social Development Directorate of Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC), the authors were asked to investigate the most common usage of following key concepts:

- applied research;
- capacity building;
- cohesion;
- social development;

- best practices;
- citizen involvement;
- development;
- social inclusion.

The objective of their work was identified as follows: to develop definitions of these concepts that embrace HRDC's mandate in the social and human development field, as well as those of national voluntary social service and disability organisations and key thinkers in the field of social development.

As part of the research, the authors were asked to analyse HRDC and other social development documents, and to consult recognised researchers, practitioners and players in the social development field. Significant differences between French and English language usage of the terms were also to be highlighted.

The depth and scope of research, as well as the methodology undertaken (Appendix 1) was limited by financial and time constraints. It was not the mandate of this project to attempt to formulate complete and exhaustive definitions of the concepts but rather to establish some of their parameters and to identify their main components and the key issues related to them stemming from most common usage. What follows should be considered in this light.

CONTEXT

Part of the strength and usefulness of the concepts listed above comes from their far-reaching appeal and applicability. However, another part may be tied to the fact that differing understandings and definitions exist for many of them. Moreover, a term may have significantly different meanings or interpretations depending on whether it is approached from, for example, a poverty reduction, social intervention or optimisation of market globalisation perspective.

When approaching these concepts from HRDC's social and human development perspective and taking into account the issues facing the national non-profit sector, the poverty reduction context tends to be foremost in the minds of the authors, practitioners and researchers consulted. This context has influenced the nature and issues of the discussion that follows in, what we, the authors hope is the most appropriate manner.

DEFINITIONS

APPLIED RESEARCH

The term "applied research" refers to scientific and systematic inquiry to acquire facts that can be used to solve or prevent practical problems. Applied research is usually contrasted to "basic", "fundamental", or "pure" research which has the purpose of acquiring knowledge for knowledge's sake. Applied research does not differ from fundamental research on epistemological or methodological levels but rather on the end use of the research itself.

Fundamental research is often considered a theory building exercise. Although applied research may not aim to advance general scientific theory, it may often do so just the same (Rubin and Babbie, 1989). French-language literature stresses that there is no contradiction between pure and applied research, and that existing

theories are there to help guide the research process and analyse the data acquired and that theories must be informed by empirical findings (Grawitz, 1993: 417-424).   The premise here is applied research projects should begin with a review of existing theoretical literature and use it to guide the design of the study or to build the analytical framework are both.

Applied research dominates the numerous fields of the physical and natural sciences and is at the heart of most new technological advances. It also has applications in the fields of the social sciences, however. These include: to inform and guide public policy, social intervention, development practice, and all activities related to the interactions between people and their environment, social problems, and methods for improving the human condition, including economic and social development.

The term "applied research" is hardly ever used in both the English-language and the French-language non-profit and voluntary sectors although applied research is usually the goal of the projects that their organisations are involved with.   In the non-profit and voluntary sector, participatory research methods are usually seen as being more likely to provide more accurate information.   This is considered especially true for all research dealing with evaluation processes and criteria. In turn, participatory research projects most often use qualitative research methodologies or longitudinal frameworks. The drawback of these is that they are often more costly when the geographic span is that of a country.

Most of the research work funded by HRDC seems to be applied research with the intent of informing the development of public policy. The fields identified by HRDC's Applied Research Branch (ARB)[1] are the labour market, employment, human capital development, income security, social development, labour adjustment, and workplace innovation issues and problems.   ARB's understanding of the term "applied research" seems to include research, experimentation, surveys, and policy

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[1]   Web site at http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/arb/arb-home.shtml first consulted on July 11th, 2000.

analysis activities. ARB considers that it has a role, as part of its mandate, in implementing experimental research programs to evaluate the impact of possible policy/program interventions, in recommending and managing the development of large surveys and data collection activities, in providing current analysis on economic and labour market developments, in producing macroeconomic and labour market outlooks as well as occupational projections, and in managing liaison and research partnerships with experts from governments both in Canada and internationally (in particular with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development — OECD).

BEST PRACTICES

According to the Network of Centers for Rural Co-operative Development (1996) in the United States, "Best Practices is a term which has recently come into use in the economic development field as practitioners work to capture the insights gained from successful new projects and approaches. Case studies and project evaluation are the building blocks from which Best Practices syntheses are drawn. As successful approaches are evaluated and documented as Best Practices, they become part of the body of knowledge accruing in a maturing field, and are available for replication."

The expression "best practices" is not commonly used in the Canadian non-profit and voluntary sector with the exception of the community economic development (CED) community. The concept, as it is used in the field of CED, refers to key characteristics of successful initiatives that warrant replication. The modelling that results is thus based on empirical data emanating from actual practice instead of on theoretical constructs. This concept was promoted by the National Welfare Grants Program of HRDC at the time that it funded research on CED initiatives in Canada in the early and mid-1990's.

The idea of promoting practice based on essential ingredients is also the basis for the use of this concept in other countries and in international development

settings. For example, the Best Practices and Local Leadership Programme (BLP) of the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat)[2] seeks to "build awareness of proven solutions, demonstrated experience and innovative strategies for policy and decision-making at all levels" by identifying, documenting and disseminating organisations and programs that embody specific principles. These principles include building knowledge, fostering participation, respecting diversity and language, enhancing sharing, respecting the ownership of those who carry out the practices, building respectful relationships and partnerships, and promoting an equitable relationship among all people and between people and nature, including the efficient use of resources and the conservation of non-renewable natural resources.

For the Canadian CED community, best practice is based on multi-functional and comprehensive strategies, the specific integration of social and economic goals, and the empowerment of community residents for the governance of the CED organisation and their community as a whole within a process guided by strategic planning and analysis. In this sector, best practice is also committed to achieving results, both qualitative and quantitative. As such, the use of this concept in this context seems to include the development of performance review and evaluation criteria. This can be seen as risky by some since benchmarks rarely take into account the values espoused in the principles upon which practice must be based. For example, the Inter-Agency Benchmarking and Best Practices Council[3] in the United States believes that to qualify for best practice, an activity must increase productivity, improve quality, and reduce cycle time (is faster) and cost (is cheaper). The framework developed by the CED network appears to be more balanced (although not less rigorous) and specifically eschews a "cookie-cutter" approach to best practice replication.

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[2]   Web site at http://www.sustainabledevelopment.org/blp/ first consulted on July 10th, 2000.

[3]   Web site at http://www.va.gov/fedsbest/KBAbout.htm first consulted on July 10th, 2000.

CAPACITY BUILDING

Capacity building is at the heart of HRDC's activities. The mission of the Department states that it seeks, "to enable Canadians to participate fully in the workplace and the community ... to develop themselves ... to promote a stronger country and a better quality of life", that it "will build the capacity of communities" and "will strengthen the capacity of our local offices to support the full range of our programs and services"[4]. Indeed, capacity building can be done at a variety of levels (i.e. individual, institutional, community and regional) (Ship, 2000, p.2) but it is at the community level that the expression seems to be most prevalent in social and community development literature.

Despite the frequent use of this term, the Government of Canada's Community Capacity Building Workshop[5] admits that "community capacity building (CCB) has managed to arrive in our collective consciousness lacking a concise definition." Rather than attempting to formulate a potentially restrictive definition, it proposes the following broad, working description:

> CCB conceives the notion of a group of citizens working together for their own mutual betterment. It is generally very holistic in nature and encompasses all aspects of the community: economic, social, ecological, political and cultural. Together the group/community seeks out approaches and solutions to economic or social opportunities and challenges. CCB is about building healthy communities. It is a strategic community-driven process, aimed at maintenance, growth, and revitalisation — focusing on assets in ways which enhance both economic and social foundations. CCB is the engagement of a social process which entails elements of the entire social agenda. It is philosophy grounded in the belief that people and communities can manage their own affairs, and places control of the developmental process in the hands of the community (of which HRDC is a part).

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4   Web site at http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/dept/mission/mission.shtml first consulted on July 6th, 2000.

5   Web site at http://www.participation.net/english/hrdcdoc5.htm first consulted on July 6th, 2000.

In HRDC's Community Development Handbook, Flo Frank and Anne Smith (1999, pp. 10-11) note that community capacity building is based on the premise that "community sustainability can be improved over time" with the following elements as being most often included in notions of capacity:

- people willing to be involved;

- skills, knowledge and abilities;

- wellness and community health;

- ability to identify and access opportunities;

- motivation and the wherewithal to carry out initiatives;

- infrastructure, supportive institutions and physical resources;

- leadership and the structures needed for participation;

- economic and financial resources;

- enabling policies and systems.

The Canadian Community Economic Development Network's Policy Framework approaches community capacity building from both community and institutional perspectives.   It identifies capacity building as having the following core components: organising, learning, planning and organisational development.   It recognises that these elements are pertinent for communities in the earliest stages of development as well as for established processes and organisations, since "capacity building is an ongoing necessity." (Canadian CED Network, 2000, p. 2-3) However, investments in capacity building do change as the community economic development organisation evolves and grows.

Such a bi-level approach to capacity building may result from the tendency for conceptions of community capacity to "embrace two overlapping discussions" (O'Connor, 1998, p.8):

- how to create and mobilise resources in the community to meet members' individual needs such as day-care, language and job training, shelter, food, recreation, and rehabilitation, and

- how to build the networks, associations and co-operative activities and attachments that draw members together into a community.

Taken in this sense, capacity building is the equivalent of individual and community empowerment processes. According to Ninacs (1995, 1999a), there are at least two simultaneous empowerment processes at work in development practice: one on the individual level and the other, on the community level (an organisation being seen as a community responding to the needs of its members). Most evaluation materials target one or the other (and quite often subsets of each) and do not take into consideration the essential interaction of each process' components nor the dialectical relationship between the two. In other words, there are essentially four components to the individual empowerment process (participation, technical ability, self-esteem, critical consciousness), each of which evolves along a continuum of its own, but empowerment stems from the interweaving of the four, with each component simultaneously building on and strengthening the others. It becomes imperative to work on all four levels at the same time. But this doesn't work unless the individual is in an empowering environment and hence the need for an empowered community. An empowered community is one that provides its members with access to the resources that they need to ensure their well-being and growth as human beings and ensures that members actually use the resources to develop themselves. This requires that the individuals be empowered and so the two processes build upon and strengthen each other. The community is an entity unto itself, however, and also evolves through an empowerment process made up of four interwoven components: participation, knowledge and ability, communication, and community capital. Note that a synonym for an empowered community is a competent community (Fellin, 1995: 5) and thus, community empowerment — and by extension, community capacity may be seen as the equivalent of community competence. HRDC's mission seems to have such a twofold focus.

While individual human resource development is an important part of capacity building, some organisations and authors are adamant that the development of and increased local control over local economic resources and assets are also a crucial ingredients to building capacity. Even when the responsibility and authority for decision-making are devolved to the community, they are "inadequate without the power and self-confidence that comes with owning productive capacity... Today we have lost most of the skills of self-reliance and no longer own the productive capacity needed to balance central economic and political authority... Communities with widespread local ownership tend to be more vibrant and stable. Citizens participate more in local affairs. Local owners have a stake in the community..." (Morris, 1996, p. 436-437) In order for communities to become places that nurture active citizens who make the rules that govern their lives and who have the skills and productive capacity to generate real wealth, "...local economies must be more than branch plants of planetary corporations. Local government must be more than simply a body that reacts to higher levels of government" (*ibid.*).

In fact, John McKnight and John Kretzman's well-known community development strategy (which has influenced a large number of non-profit organisations) couches the human skills and social capital of a community in the larger proprietary notion of "assets". Its primary separation of assets into those owned and controlled within the neighbourhood and those under external control reinforces Morris' position. The building blocks of this approach are the capacities of individuals in a neighbourhood (skills, talents, and experience of residents; individual businesses; home-based enterprises; personal income) and organisational assets (associations of businesses; citizens groups; cultural organisations; communications organisations; religious organisations). These assets and capacities are located inside the neighbourhood and are largely under neighbourhood control. Complementing them are assets located within the community but largely controlled by outsiders (private and non-profit organisations, public institutions and services and physical resources) and resources originating outside the

neighbourhood, controlled by outsiders (welfare expenditures, public capital improvement expenditures, public information).

Asset development strategies as a means of supporting the process out of poverty for individuals is presently being experimented in the United States (Friedman, 1997) and investigated in Canada (Murray and Nomos, 1998), as means of enabling low-income individuals, particularly the working poor, to exert greater control over personal economic resources. Examples of these are individual development accounts (IDA), set up in the name of an individual or family, and in the name of the sponsoring organisation, that encourage low income earners to save for education, home ownership or to start a business.

CITIZEN INVOLVEMENT

Several similar and related terms come to the fore in the literature when examining the concept of "citizen involvement": "citizen engagement", "civic participation", "community involvement" and various permutations of those terms.

The notion of citizen involvement has evolved significantly over the second half of the 20th century. In the 1950s, the United Nations identified community participation as synonymous with community development which, in turn, was envisaged to be a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation (Abbott, 1995). However, increasing discontent with "modernisation" economic development strategies led to a search for more appropriate styles of development, linked to what has been termed "dependency theory". Community participation was broken down into two distinct approaches: the community development movement and community involvement through consciousness-raising (Freire, 1972) this latter gradually being replaced by the English term "empowerment". In Western countries, a reappraisal of participation and involvement was centred both on democratic concerns as well as developmental ones. In the 1970s, Carol Pateman stressed the education potential of participation to help form engaged citizens

with the progressively refined attitudes and skills needed to sustain democracy (Sirianni, and Friedland, 1995). Today, the term "civic participation" is often used to refer to citizens' participation in politics, although it often also encompasses Robert Putnam's notion of "civic engagement" (1995) which includes memberships in organisations and networks such as neighbourhood associations, choral societies, co-operatives, sports clubs and mass-based political parties (O'Connor, 1998).

More specific to the political arena, "citizen engagement" seems to represent a cluster of strategies aimed at increasing the participation of individual citizens while reviving a sense of, and deliberation on, common interests and public goods. Concerns about participation are fuelled by perceived low-levels of trust among citizens in their governments as well as the intense competition among interest groups, to the exclusion of individual citizens and any sense of common interests and public good. Strategies to promote citizen engagement also seek to provide direct input from citizens on ongoing policy decisions, and can take the form of televoting, citizens juries, and electronic town meetings. According to Saul (1995), such strategies are a natural (if more symbolic than substantive) response to the increasing corporatism of our society. This is happening in all sectors of society, including the community sector. Deena White (1997) warns that there is even a danger that non-profit provincial and national umbrella associations become a corporate voice for organisational interests rather than a communal voice for the disadvantaged, the marginal and the excluded. On the local level, non-profit organisations attempt to prevent such anomalies by favouring participatory democratic structures and processes in order to ensure member control over the organisation. However, umbrella organisations are intrinsically based on "representative" democratic processes as opposed to direct participation ones and so the risk is real.

Non-profit organisations usually advocate direct citizen participation in development and planning structures and other decision making bodies that concern them. Many of these organisations, especially women's groups and representatives

of severely disadvantaged individuals, are adamantly opposed to any kind of token participation. Indeed, a number of authors continue to use Arnstein's "ladder of citizen participation", which was developed in 1968 (Briggs, 1997, p. 191) which distinguishes between non-participation (manipulation, therapy), tokenism (informing, consultation, application), and citizen power (partnership, delegated power, direct decision making power). In the document, "A Framework to Improve the Social Union for Canadians," the federal government, nine provinces and two territories committed themselves to ensuring "effective mechanisms for Canadians to participate in developing social priorities and reviewing outcomes" (p. 3). Needless to say that the development of such mechanisms constitutes an immense challenge.

Strategies for enhancing citizen contribution to decision-making processes must constantly be adapted to the circumstances of the situation. According to Abbott (1995), the appropriateness of a particular strategy is determined by two factors in the wider environment: the openness of government to citizen participation; and the complexity of the decision-making process. Effective participation becomes more difficult as openness declines and complexity increases, and strategies must be chosen as a function of these factors.

Moreover, both HRDC and voluntary sector organisations target specific groups of people, such as individuals who have gone through mental health systems, the homeless, the physically challenged, ex-offenders, substance abusers, women, and especially youth.   Each category has its own dynamics and concerns, and programmes to support involvement must be adapted accordingly. However, issues relating to women cut across all of these practices, mainly because women are more likely to be poor than are men (National Council of Welfare, 1998) and are therefore present in most categories. Specific concerns relative to women's participation in society in general and in the economy are: a) the need to redefine productivity to include unpaid work in the home and in the community, b) the establishment of multiple bottom lines to evaluate performance, c) the

development of collective resources, and d) the inclusion of women in decision-making that concerns them or their families (Alderson and Conn, 1994).

COHESION

When interviewed for this research, Robert Glossop of the Vanier Institute of the Family noted that "cohesion" seems to be "the word of the day." A flurry of recent studies and investigations of the term would appear to justify his impression.

For example, the Standing Senate Committee on Social Affairs, Science and Technology studied social cohesion and its implications for Canada, releasing its report in June 1999[6].   After conducting a literature review and receiving presentations and submissions from policy analysts, academics and others, the committee offered the following definition: social cohesion refers to a situation where everyone has access to establishing basic social relationships in society, [such as] work participation, family life, political participation, and activities in civil society.

In this sense, social cohesion means inclusion and participation. Labour market restructuring — the end of Fordist models of production — accompanied by reductions in Welfare State policies and programs have contributed to the creation of a situation wherein a large number of individuals have become trapped in a downward spiral of professional dismissal social exclusion: non-participation in the labour force and eroding social ties (Castel, 1994: 13-16; Lévesque, 1995: 23-24). These people are the population groups targeted by HRDC programs and the tie to HRDC's mission — "to enable Canadians to participate fully in the workplace

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[6]   Web site at http://www.parl.gc.ca/36/1/parlbus/commbus/senate/Com-e/SOCI-E/rep-e/repfinaljun99-e.htm first consulted on July 10th, 2000..

and the community"[7] — could not be clearer,   Building social cohesion means attempting to reverse this negative spin removing the different barriers that are blocking the access of certain groups in society to various forms of participation (social, economic, political, and cultural). The social and economic exclusion of individuals and groups is a major threat to social cohesion for two reasons: a) because it increases disparities in society; and b) because both the process and effects of exclusion run counter to the goal of building a sense of shared values and trust among citizens.

Indeed, the Senate Committee report concludes that social cohesion is about both re-distribution of resources and shared values.   Similarly, the Federal Interdepartmental Policy Research Committee (PRC) defined social cohesion as the ongoing process of developing a community of shared values, shared challenges, and equal opportunity within Canada, based on a sense of trust, hope and reciprocity among all Canadians.   The Canadian Policy Research Network's (CPRN) recent Mapping Social Cohesion project emphasised not the shared challenges and equal opportunity, but rather the presence of basic patterns of co-operative social action that emanate from that context. Complementing those basic patterns of co-operative social action, the CPRN identified core sets of collective values, feelings of attachment, sense of identity and a shared sense of purpose as part of social cohesion. (O'Connor, 1998)

Generally speaking, elements that typically figure in social cohesion discussions include values, identity, institutions and infrastructure, culture, purposes and projects, social networks, connectedness among individuals, and ties of attachment and/or trust and the capacity to co-operate. CPRN's Round Table discussing these issues was unable to suggest a unified concept of social cohesion, but rather contrasted social cohesion with social fragmentation, the spectrum of which can be traced out along the following five "left / right" dimensions: legitimacy /

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[7]   Web site at http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/dept/mission/mission.shtml#200 first consulted on July 10th, 2000.

illegitimacy; inclusion / exclusion; belonging / alienation; political engagement / apathy; and accommodation / conflict. The group thought that the presence of features on the left would not imply social cohesion, but their presence would indicate that Canadian institutions were able to function legitimately and that Canadians were willing and able to participate in their society. Conversely, the presence of the features on the right would imply fragmentation, and possibly the presence of an underclass (O'Connor, 1998).

Theobald (1997) points out that cultural diversity can also be important to long-term cohesion. He feels that there is a growing sense that nations will be more interesting if they are diverse rather than homogeneous. Movements to recover cultural traditions will create a richer world if we remember that wealth is not just monetary. He warns that we cannot cut off the roots of our cultural systems and expect to flourish. Other threats to social cohesion identified by O'Connor (1998) include: economic polarisation and difference; intergenerational inequities; rural-urban and regional divisions; public-elite disconnection and declining deference; cultural diversity; Canadian culture in an information society.

DEVELOPMENT

According to Douglas (1994, p. 90), development "has often been poorly defined and is subject to changing definitions." In fact, in a survey conducted in the mid-1980's, 72 different meanings of the term were registered. (Martinussen, 1996, p. 35) The rate at which its definitions are changing and multiplying, however, has likely never been greater than today.

Throughout the 20th century, Western conceptions of the world and history were largely characterised by notions of progress, evolution and development. Prior to the Second World War, progress and evolution were predominant while "development" gained popularity subsequently. Since the mid 1950's, the notion of development as something positive and good has been tied particularly to countries in the Third World and poorer population groups. For example, as Asia and Africa

went through decolonization, the social conditions on these continents increasingly became the object of international attention. In the industrialised countries as well as in the multilateral organisations, with the World Bank in the vanguard, these conditions were perceived as the result of lack of development or underdevelopment. Their conception of development was one of a change process resulting in greater similarity with the conditions prevailing in North America and Western Europe. Towards the end of the last century, factors and elements traditionally considered "externalities" began to receive more attention. Indeed, increasingly sophisticated and far-reaching indicators and measures bring into view the human and environmental dimensions of progress and development, such as in the UNDP's Human Development Report. Today, especially since the publication of the Bruntland report (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987) put forward the notion of sustainable development, the economic dimension of development must compete with social, environmental, and cultural dimensions on various levels including personal, community, local, regional and national ones. Indeed, it has now become difficult to speak of development without considering its long term effects on both people and the environment.

According to Douglas (1994) and his focus on community economic development, development is essentially a normative concept. It is associated with a change in a community's state from one time period to another that should include, as an option, a community securing what it already has, in the face of threats that would dispossess it. In other words, development can also include a group's maintenance of a particular desired state. The interpretation of the nature of that desired change (e.g. safer, more prosperous) is based on a set of values held by the group. It is also interpreted on the basis of an indicator to describe and measure the base-line state of the community and the incremental change in key variables (e.g. employment, household income) over a period of time.

Christenson *et al.* (1989) define development as a social transformation in the direction of more egalitarian distribution of social goods such as education, health

services, housing, participation in political decision making, and other dimensions of people's life chances, through growth involving technological and economic transformation — a progressive perspective that has been common in Canada for the past 30 years or more (Gagnon and Martin, 1973). An alternative development may thus also be seen in not only a genuine and lasting improvement in the conditions of life and livelihood, but also as a political struggle for empowerment of households and individuals.

Generally speaking, distinctions between concept, theory and strategy can prove useful in understanding the term. A development concept (or objective) is value-laden, reflecting notions of what ought to be understood by development, either in terms of particular conditions to be achieved or in terms of a certain direction of change. It contains the answer to what development is. A development theory seeks to express the structure and systems of a social reality into which a development concept can be introduced. Finally, a development strategy refers to the actions and interventions undertaken to promote strictly defined development objectives (Martinussen, 1997, p. 15). When discussing development from any one of these perspectives, particular dimensions will arise, for example, the role of the State and other sectors of society, the degree of citizen participation and control over decisions related to it, the effects of the proposed transformations, etc.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Social development is prominent in HRDC's work. The Social Development Directorate of HRDC "works to enable Canadians to participate fully in the workplace and community. We focus on people with disabilities, children and their families, and work in partnership with public, private and non-governmental interests to identify issues, develop solutions, and build the capacity of communities to address lifelong development holistically."[8]

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[8] Web site at http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/hrib/sdd-dds/menu/home.shtml first consulted on July 7th, 2000.

As a signatory to the 1995 Copenhagen Declaration emanating from the World Summit on Social Development, Canada committed itself to addressing the core social development issues identified at the summit: poverty eradication, employment, and social integration. In its report on the implementation of the outcomes of the World Summit on Social Development five years later, the Canadian government described the approaches it has taken to promote social development, identifying the following measures: the transformation of public policy, the improvement of the government's fiscal situation, the promotion of jobs and growth, the reform and reinforcement of basic social programs, investment in children and youth, the promotion of full participation, and the improvement of justice and community safety (Government of Canada, 1999).

But what exactly is social development? In a recent conference, Jean Panet-Raymond attempted to define this term as follows: "Le développement social est un processus démocratique et continu qui favorise la participation maximale des personnes, groupes et communautés afin qu'ils définissent ensemble les objectifs sociaux, économiques, culturels, politiques permettant de produire une société juste et solidaire favorisant l'épanouissement et le développement des potentiels de tous ses membres." (Panet-Raymond, 1999, p. 8) The goals of social development, according to his definition, include:

- the reconciliation of individual and collective welfare;

- the development of human potential;

- individual self-determination (autonomy or empowerment);

- the active participation of individuals in decisions that concern or affect them;

- the development of communities and societies within the respect of cultural differences.

Furthermore, all of this is done holistically wherein ethical, spiritual, economic, social, political, cultural and environmental dimensions are considered. As a goal as

well as a process, the concept of social development can therefore have universal implications.   With respect to community development, Caryl Abrahams characterised a social development practice perspective as including "multi-level factors, institutionalisation of the development process; input from the population experiencing change; and the examination of the goals of such change on individuals, communities and society" (Abrahams, 1992, p. 104).

Such a view seems prevalent in the non-profit sector. For example, the Ontario Social Development Council's Quality of Life Index is a good example of a concrete application of these criteria.   It focuses on four dimensions of community development with a social development emphasis: a) social (children in care of Children's Aid Societies, social assistance recipients, social housing waiting lists); b) physical and mental health (low birth-weight babies; elderly waiting for placement in long-term care facilities; suicides); c) economic (number of people unemployed, number working, bankruptcies); d) environmental (hours of poor air quality, environmental spills, tons diverted from landfill to blue boxes). (Raphael, 1998, p. 3)

A slightly different usage of the term developed in France through the 1980's, where large-scale urban social development programs were put into place, in line with the U.S. War on Poverty of the 1960's and the British community development projects, educational priority areas and community-based social services of the 1970s. Despite similarities, rather than calling their work community development, the French policies and their practitioners tended to use terms such as "urban social development", "local social development", or "social development of neighbourhoods". For Cannan, however it "is clear that urban social development falls in the framework of the Anglo-Saxon concept of community development" (Cannan, 1995, p. 238).

SOCIAL INCLUSION

Until recently, the predominant usage of the term "social inclusion" in Canada and the United States was in connection with children having developmental or other disabilities and their integration into the school system. It is now taking on a broader meaning within that sector, as well as coming into use to describe other populations and barriers. For example, the Canadian Association for Community Living is carrying out a national project entitled "Promoting the Social Inclusion of Children Who Have a Disability" whose goal is to provide families with the tools to promote inclusion of their children with disabilities, to strengthen families, and to foster enabling and supportive communities.

Social inclusion is part of HRDC's key social development goals, outlined in the Department's mission as striving for the "equitable participation of marginalised groups; particularly Aboriginal peoples, children, youth and people with disabilities" (Ship, 2000, p. 3).

The concern that significant populations are increasingly excluded from participation in mainstream society is more and more common in developed nations. The Applied Research Branch of HRDC has allocated a research theme to the prevention of exclusion and poverty reduction, a theme that focuses on the poor, recipients of social assistance, lone parents and disadvantaged neighbourhoods and their potential for increased labour market integration and improved labour market outcomes.

In Europe, inclusion is generally framed in reference to its opposite, the notion of exclusion, which has had a wide body of literature develop since it came into usage in the 1970's. In this perspective, social exclusion is most often the result of poverty or unemployment, and responses are often described as "insertion" or "insertion par l'économique", the latter of which Ninacs has translated as "integration-through-work". Similarly, in North America, although increased economic growth has reduced unemployment levels in recent years and while

various public policy changes have decreased welfare rolls, labour market restructuring (Harrison and Weiss (1998) along with continued barriers to employment for those receiving welfare on both administrative and policy levels (Deniger *et al.*, 1995) have contributed to the paradox of simultaneously-created wealth and poverty in both Canada and the United States. Neither economic growth nor public policies are making significant inroads on the poverty front for a number of population groups and new strategies to remedy this situation are thus actively being sought.

Integration-through-work policies and programmes are both multidimensional and incremental and are often based on the idea that poverty is a process (as opposed to a state of being) and that it progressively excludes individuals both economically (from the work force) and socially (from networks and resources) as it gets worse. Intervention to counter this process must hence simultaneously occur on both economic and social levels, and must be adapted to a continuum of population groups caught up in the process of exclusion — the working poor, the short-term unemployed, the persistently unemployed, the dependent poor, and the indigent — or having special needs stemming from discrimination, oppression, or physical and mental disabilities (Ninacs, 1999). In general, North American integration-through-work practices can be seen as following two broad avenues: a) training and placement; b) job creation for specific target groups. In turn, there are different types of integration-through-work training strategies. On-the-job training and placement programmes are usually found in either training businesses or in existing workplaces. Off-site training and placement programmes, on the other hand, are characterised by a sectoral approach. The main types of integration-through-work job creation practices targeting specific groups are: a) self-employment, and b) social enterprise development. Partnerships and networking with other actors in the community are key factors to the success of these programmes, and anchoring integration-through-work initiatives in local dynamics can, at the very least, help to avoid duplication (since many models overlap) while having the potential, by

favouring ties and exchanges of all kinds, to solidify the bonds of solidarity that enable a community to make optimal use of all its resources (Sauvage, 1996).

"Insertion" is hence often used to refer to both employment integration via retraining and work experience programs, and social integration in a much broader sense. It thus implies policies, resulting in socio-cultural services working to promote harmonious relationships between groups, generations, races and contributing to civic consciousness and active citizenship (Cannan, 1995).

Conceptual models of exclusion can help indicate steps to be taken to diminish it. Klasen's (1998) two-way classification system for categorising the sources of social exclusion explores the relationship between disadvantage and exclusion. He identifies four sources of exclusion which are not mutually exclusive (economic, social, birth or background and societal or political) and proposes two distinct mechanisms of social exclusion: exclusion which stems directly from the disadvantage; and exclusion stemming primarily from public policy that turns the existing disadvantage into a form of social exclusion. This approach to inclusion/exclusion has important policy implications, clarifying the need for strategies that prevent the disadvantage from turning into social exclusion.

The Canadian Council on Social Development and Carleton University held a 1997 seminar examining inclusive social policy development as an essential component in the creation of communities that are truly inclusive. The seminar identified four themes contributing to inclusive social policy development: building inclusive institutions, creating partnerships with diverse communities, culturally appropriate service development and delivery and inclusive social policy research (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1997).

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Appendix I: Methodology

At the outset of the research, HRDC provided the following documents and website references to the authors as points of departure:

DOCUMENTS:

Government of Canada (1999). *A Framework to Improve the Social Union for Canadians: An Agreement between the Government of Canada and the Governments of the Provinces and Territories*, February, 1999.

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WEBSITES:

The HDRC homepage: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca

HRDC's and vision at: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/dept/mission/english.shtml

Related legislation at: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/common/acts.shtml

Applied   Research   Branch   Archives: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/arb/arb-home.shtml

Strategic Policy Branch: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/stratpol/home.shtml

Social   Development   Directorate: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/hrib/sdd-dss/menu/home.shtml

Estimates   Part III - Report on Plans and Priorities: http://www.hrdc-drhc.gc.ca/dept/fas-sfa/rpp0001.shtml

All of these documents were read and all of the Web sites visited at least once.

As part of the research, telephoine interviews were done with: Al Hatton, Coalition of National Voluntary Organisations, and Robert Glossop, Vanier Institute of the Family. Jean-Panet Raymond, École de service social, Université de Montréal and Conseil québécois de développement social, and Eric Shragge, School of Social Work, McGill University, and Graduate Diploma Program in Community Economic Development, Concordia University, were also consulted.

A search was performed in William Ninacs' personal database of over 4,000 books, articles and other documents in his possession on social and economic development and related subjects.

Internet searches using the compound search engine Copernic turned up hundreds of sites from which the most appropriate were consulted.

Finally, the authors' personal knowledge deriving from their experiences as researchers and as practitioners in both the non-profit and voluntary sector and the community economic development field was also taken into consideration.