

# Sustainability Options for Resource Based Rural Communities

## Phase Two: Full Literature Review



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## Introduction

We are pleased to present this report of the Literature Review, which represents Phase Two of the “Achievable Sustainability Options for Resource-Based Communities” project. This review has been performed by a team of Athabasca University researchers and research assistants with the participation and financial assistance of the project partners: the Town of Hinton, Town of Grande Cache and Grande Prairie Regional College and the Alberta Rural Development Network (ARDN).

The purpose of this project is to investigate available options to provided Grande Cache and Hinton with the best options available to work toward a more socially, environmentally and economically (SEE) sustainable future. The project is divided to three phases:

- 1) Setting the Stage Conference, which occurred in May of 2011
- 2) Literature Review (this phase) which will culminate in a Knowledge Symposium to be held in March, 2012
- 3) A federally funded experimental phase which will test the best options within the communities. Funding for this phase is still pending as of this printing.

The primary research questions for each priority area were as follows:

### 1. Knowledge Based Economy:

- How are knowledge-based economies developed and sustained?
- Are there examples of rural knowledge based economies? What social and community attractors are key? Will these attractors mesh with the existing culture of the communities?
- How can the resource-based knowledge that individuals have gained over time be leveraged for the transition to sustainability knowledge based economy?
- How can a culture of knowledge and education be encouraged to transform Hinton and Grande Cache into Learning Communities, which would promote and support a sustainable, knowledge-based economy?

### 2. Local Community Financing Options:

- What social ownership and local economy options are available?
- What examples are there of community-based local finance options?
- What infrastructure needs to be in place to enable and facilitate community investing?

### 3. Entrepreneurship:

- How can an entrepreneurial spirit be fostered in a resource-based economy to create greater socio-economic diversity and stability?
- How have other resource-based communities diversified their economies and attracted more entrepreneurial risk takers and innovators? What might sustainable entrepreneurship look like?
- What other forms of entrepreneurial opportunities for innovation and social enterprise exist for both communities?

### 4. Housing:

- How can the construction of affordable quality homes, well designed for the climate and environmentally efficient, be facilitated in a resource-based economy?
- What kinds of planning and regulatory tools can be used by municipalities to encourage sustainable design of neighbourhoods and buildings?
- How can house purchases be accommodated for new people moving to the communities?

### 5. Education

- What are the best options for providing more choice in primary and secondary education?
- What are the best options for these communities to encourage greater participation in higher education?
- Can the communities provide niche education, perhaps based on emerging sustainability trends in resource industries, and can they capitalize on being near a world heritage national park?

### 6. Developing a Community Culture:

- What strategies are other communities taking to engage social sustainability and social inclusiveness?
- What role would a “third place” (community/public space) play in developing community culture and identity?
- How are both communities accommodating increasingly diverse immigrant populations, particularly those located in Alberta and western Canada?
- What examples can be found from other communities to strengthen arts and volunteerism?
- What are the quality of life indicators that attract people to a community?

## 7. Protection and Utilization of the Natural Environment and the Athabasca and Sulphur Rivers:

- How to capitalise on a public good in a sustainable manner?
- What is the best balance of recreation, environmental protection and commercial utilization of regional natural areas in both communities, or in the Athabasca River in the Hinton region?
- What changes can be made to benefit the community without affecting or imposing on the Athabasca River ecosystem or the natural terrain around Grande Cache?
- What municipal policy can be used to improve public access to the riverfront?
- What research exists for using rivers for electrical energy generation?
- Are there examples of low-impact river and wilderness based tourism and tourism services? What opportunities exist for developing these in Hinton and Grande Cache?

As much as possible, all literature available under these topics was researched and presented in this study. The full literature review for all of the above topic areas will be made available directly to the project partners, and to the general public through the Project website: <http://arbri.athabascau.ca/hinton-gc>

I would like to take this opportunity to thank the researchers for dedicating their time for this project, the research assistants for their talents and dedication, and our project manager Jim Sellers. Further, I would like to thank the municipalities of Grande Cache and Hinton for having confidence in the academics at Athabasca University to pursue this challenge, and Grande Prairie Regional College for participating in this project. Finally, I would like to thank Alberta Rural Development Network for their generous funding of both Phase One and Phase Two of this project.

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Knowledge Based Economy

## Knowledge Based Economy

The concept of the Knowledge Based Economy overlaps all other subject areas of this literature review and, as such, will duplicate some of the findings in each section. This section summarizes the benefits and challenges of pursuing a Knowledge Based Economy in a rural resource dependent community.

### **Definition of Knowledge Based Economy (KBE)**

Typically understood as the emergence of a post industrial economy, Knowledge Based Economy comprises organizations that combine technology and well educated people to maximize the exploitation of knowledge for profit, as opposed to exploiting natural resources to create wealth.

This term initially was associated primarily with the information and computing sectors and the emergence of both large information and computing firms, and smaller clusters of firms both upstream and downstream of larger companies that developed software and hardware for various aspects of the computing and telecommunications industry, and later, the emerging Internet and Worldwide Web.

Today, whole industries that rely on increased intensity of knowledge and innovation as the basis of their business have spread across all sectors of the economy, not just the information sector. Knowledge is the key value added service to a range of industries such as bio-agriculture, food, advertising, media production, architecture and a host of other creative industries. KBE is not only concentrated in Research and Development, but is usually spread across whole organization (Ian Brinkley, (2006)<sup>1</sup>.

The definition of KBE also includes a spatial aspect. The distribution of the initial KBE industries was often found in clusters of highly networked firms, working perhaps in same building, alley, street, neighbourhood or community and has been primarily an urban phenomenon. That is, both the theory and the empirical cases are drawn from larger cities. The firms are often located in edgy, newly re-developed parts of a city, sometimes in de-industrialized, decommissioned or brownfield neighbourhoods where cheaper commercial and office rent is available, and old warehouses and more affordable residential spaces combine to house these start up clusters of companies (D. Harvey, H. Hawkins, N. Thomas, 2012<sup>2</sup>).

In our research we pose two questions of the literature:

1. whether the concept KBE adapts to rural communities that are highly reliant on primary or extractive industry; and
2. more generally, what a primarily urban concept might look like when applied to a rural region context?

The results of this research shows:

- Both Hinton and Grande Cache contain the key factors associated with transitioning to and sustaining a knowledge based economy, including: willingness to support human capital investment; functional learning sites that could be adapted to support training needs of the labour force; a combined population of over 15,000 that could reflect a diverse labour force in terms skills and experience; and significant trades knowledge that could be utilized to train younger workers as retrain mid-life workers.
- Some extractive industries are more technology and knowledge intensive than others. Some firms within the same sector (e.g.: forestry or mining) rely more on KBE inputs than others, depending on the age of the facility or competition and government pressure to innovate.
- One option for the resource sector is to consider the emergence of knowledge intensive types of companies both upstream and downstream to the main extractive industry. Some research focuses on identifying places along the commodity chains where points of insertion of new firms based on KBE might be effective. For example: training, professional development in new technologies, research into sustainability initiatives, etc.<sup>3</sup>. Alternatively, the primary industry could develop new by-products (e.g.: pulp and paper lignin uses) or co-generate products by recognizing sustainability values (greenhouse gas reductions) that make business sense. These can include such concepts as converting waste heat into electricity that can be fed into the electrical distribution grid (ALPAC); or bringing together firms at regional level who could combine their wastes (e.g.: biomass wastes) to produce electricity. This could include various regional agricultural, livestock and other wastes (potato farmer, waste hog, farmers, etc.).
- Hinton's clustering of industries in an eco-industrial park so that one's waste is next industry's raw materials or energy source.
- Examining unique new ways to capture energy from mining and geothermal energy production (Majorowicz J, Grasby SE, 2010)<sup>4</sup> with new ideas to build on Grande Cache's current system of geo-thermal power. These may require a Feed In Tariff Policy (such as Ontario's) to make it worthwhile, which could be lobbied through the Alberta Urban Municipalities Association (AUMA).
- There are new technologies for flow of river power production but the policy context needs work on a Feed In Tariff Policy. Wind power generation has the same challenges. The issue of hybrid ownership (municipal, private, community group) is working in some centres.
- A different approach would be to cultivate the downstream knowledge economy which could include a range of environmental services to primary industry impacts such as:
  - Environmental management of impacts;
  - GIS mapping, planning, linking place based industries to extractive firms and forging urban consulting.
- Links between public investment in KBE and poverty reduction.

## **KBE and Place: The Rural Creative Economy**

Two recent studies examine the rural creative economy in the UK. This research emphasized links between the creative economy and rural amenity lifestyle.

Rather than the urban culture or “people climate” that spurs innovation in cities, UK researchers found that people are drawn to rural centres to balance creative life within what they called a “place climate.” The real draw alongside the cluster of creative people was the rural lifestyle.

These two studies focussed on creative cultural arts in rural areas, a unique area we have not much focussed upon. The patterns remain relevant to this study.

## **Creative Arts in Rural Countryside**

Liveability is an attractor. Opportunity for self-actualization, balancing work and life, and the kind of emergent creativity that this setting offers were key factors in their choice of location. This Creative Countryside argument examines how key arts industries such as artists, designers, architects, musicians, film/ tv/radio production and artisanal food production, etc. can be attracted to an area. Their work also identified upstream suppliers such as craft industries, and downstream businesses such as distribution, restaurants, tourism, etc.( David Bell, Mark Jayne, 2010<sup>5</sup>).

The studies also noted how some creative businesses, and many individual and home based businesses, required greater broadband Internet access. Access to the Web allows many of these industries and contractors to function well in remote locations.

Another type of KBE is temporary clusters such as fairs and festivals. These have positive spillover effects for the local economy. These can become creativity incubators and link creativity to place (for example, The Banff Centre).

## **Educational Opportunities: Innovation and Collaboration in Rural Environments**

Soots, Sousa and Roseland (2010, 1<sup>6</sup>) point out, “political and economic restructuring over the past 30 years has had a profound impact on the social and economic economy.” To adjust, non-profits, as well as educational institutes alike, have taken on a greater responsibility to address social needs, environmental concerns and fluctuations to the local marketplace. Furthermore, there is an increasing need, for an inter- and cross- disciplinary approach to the complex social, economic and environmental problems facing society today. (Soots, Sousa and Roseland, 2010).

Thus, it is with frequency and urgency that regions, around the global are transitioning towards the knowledge based economy, to address these complex changes. Here, knowledge production and utilization, as well as innovation and social cohesion are key processes in addressing these issues in long-term sustainability. To this point, the European Strategy for Sustainable Development addressed the importance of education in the following way:

Education is viewed as a prerequisite for promoting the behavioral changes and providing all citizens with the key competences needed to achieve sustainable development. Success in reversing unsustainable trends will, to a large extent, depend on high-quality education for sustainable development (GHK Consulting, 2008, 6<sup>7</sup>).

Romer, (1986, 1990<sup>8</sup>), argues that technology and knowledge production are now essential components of the economic system (32). Yet, economic systems do not exist in isolation, but are bounded to community development strategies. Fundamentally, “both require human and social capital derived from higher education levels, skills development and the capacity for knowledge transfer.” (11). As indicated, investment in a regional development strategy is multi-dimensional, and must enable all learners to cultivate skills, knowledge and networks that build cohesion, in addition to achieving measurable economic outcomes.

### **Social Capital and Entrepreneurism**

In 2010, Hinton was named one of ten, of Alberta’s best communities for business<sup>9</sup>. Hinton’s relatively close proximity to Edmonton (approximately 280kms), access to scenic areas and recreational amenities (i.e. a thirty minute commute to Jasper), as well as a high average household income were factored into the findings. While Alberta’s average annual income was \$73,823 in 2006, Hinton boasted a total annual average of \$82,069 in 2006. However these numbers can be misleading. In the instance of resource towns, higher than average incomes likely mask greater income gaps and disparity between those with low paying service jobs and those with high paying industry jobs. As noted in Hinton’s Sustainability Plan, “the gap between rich and poor is also greater (2010, 21<sup>10</sup>).”

The town site of Grande Cache was intentionally established in the early 1970’s to accommodate the development of coalmines. Since this time, the town’s economy has “been strongly affected by the ever changing markets for natural resources (2010<sup>11</sup>).”

As Fahy (2009<sup>12</sup>) describes, in 2008, Alberta generated, “the highest provincial growth rate in Canada, the lowest unemployment rate<sup>13</sup>.” The province as a whole retains a competitive advantage drawn from its natural resource base. However, because an over dependence on resources, can leave a community vulnerable to change, the provincial and federal governments are seeking ways to capture new revenue streams related to knowledge production and utilization. Guiding this shift in economic priorities is the recognition that “knowledge and creativity have become the true measure of economic potential<sup>14</sup>.”

Although dependence on the high incomes produced by the resource industries in the region is already established by the communities, what is not clear are the options for diversification and the stimulus for the creation of alternative industry. The key to finding these new opportunities lies in the creation of new ideas and entrepreneurial applications for using the local resources that are available. The net result of these concepts is the development of a Knowledge Based Economy. As in any area that has developed and evolved to new ideas and opportunities (Silicon Valley as an obvious example) clustering of groups, inter-dependency and local investment are the key factors.

Social Capital is a difficult measure, but is usually described as the frequency and value of transactions that occur as a result of relationships between groups (Putnam, 2001). Community owned businesses bring people together, and do so more frequently: investors, workers, entrepreneurs and a variety of support networks (customers, government, family, and media).As is typical with successful clusters of like-minded or inter-related companies, groups of local investors from these fields, also called Angel investors in that their approach is usually guided by altruism and less by profit, can bring a wide variety of expertise to new business development opportunities and encourage more entrepreneurial ventures.

The greatest challenge in cultivating Social Capital and local entrepreneurship is the difficulty is matching the parties together. Farrell's (2001) study of Angel Investors found that many investors were seeking innovative enterprises to invest in, but had difficulty meeting entrepreneurs. This is a major step in the development of new ideas and local investment.

Another criteria often overlooked (or ignored) when assessing the long-term stability of resource-dependent communities, is the contribution made by non-resource sectors. For example, non-resource sector jobs include a corrections facility in Grande Cache that employs 300 workers (2008 report) and Hinton's health care field employs more than 200 workers (Alberta Venture<sup>15</sup>). Furthermore, both towns express interest to develop and expand their respective tourism sectors as another area of economic growth.

Sustainable, creative, and inclusive municipal planning, encouraging entrepreneurship and local investment in the same, and the development of a knowledge-based economy able to attract talented, creative citizens, are key steps to the success of a long term, strategic diversification of Hinton and Grande Cache.

For example, emerging sectors in both communities include tourism, and potential growth in green technologies. Tourism is supported the area's vast assortment of natural amenities and near proximity to Jasper. The development of green technologies in Grande Cache, such as wood pellet production, thermal power generation and value added forest products operations<sup>16</sup> is viewed as excellent potential for utilization of local knowledge and skills, economic expansion and job growth.

Also, vibrant communities that offer attractive amenities and services are viewed as key attractors to tech/innovative industries and new residents. For example, a market research study of more than 1200 high tech workers in Canada (1998,10) found that quality-of-life and a close proximity to friends and family to be the most important factors participants associated to the attractiveness of a job.

Knowledge based economies are not a 'one-size fits all' deal to planning. How new skills and information are utilized to foster regional growth may depend on a number of local factors and variables, including: the size of the town or region; existing infrastructure and partnerships; the degree a vision is shared across public, private and community stakeholders; resource commitment (e.g. funding); as well as the "ability of locales to generate, attract and retain the highly skilled workers" (Florida, 2000:8<sup>17</sup>). Greater emphasis to invest in citizens through meaningful education, training and lifelong learning is required by all sectors, including economic, public, educational, civic and voluntary. As such, frameworks that emphasize educational opportunities as strategies for economic growth and community wellbeing are key to the success of planning for a Knowledge Based Economy.



## Community Finance and Investment Options

# Local Capital Investment and Finance Options for Rural Alberta Communities

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## Introduction

The profound socio-economic shift occurring because of global economic restructuring has created a “financing gap” in many Canadian communities. In short, many owners of capital have invested where they can obtain higher returns, and in the wake have left many communities depleted or even deindustrialized. In rural and smaller urban Canadian communities, a range of factors have made it less profitable to invest in existing local capital, than in other markets. Access to capital for business development has become sparse. And, mainstream financial institutions are finding it hard to fill the void. Capital has left town. Despite these constraints, however, Johnstone (2011) has discovered that even in the most disadvantaged rural communities “entrepreneurial processes are not similarly constrained” and ground-breaking local finance initiatives are emerging.

This document reviews how a number of Canadian communities are raising local capital through debt and equity mechanisms that both address current financial challenges and create strong community businesses, which bolster the local economy and foster broad based development.

The first part of the paper discusses the ‘financing gap’ and dominant trends in the international world of finance and how local capital can be regarded as somewhat of an alternative to these trends. The second part analyzes how local capital not only mobilizes local investment dollars, but also other community resources to foster growth and development. We explore some of the core mechanisms for raising local capital using debt and equity to finance community owned businesses, and we present some successful examples. The last section of the paper introduces several financing mechanisms that could be used by rural communities in Alberta to raise local capital.

## Addressing the Financing Gap by Mobilizing Local Capital

The financing gap is attributed to two key factors. First, market trends have focused their attention away from rural areas and smaller markets. Second, sources of finance to secure important economic infrastructure in rural communities can be costly. The lack of capital in many ways has stalled growth, created higher unemployment, reduced the local tax base, put pressure on the existing social services and encouraged outward migration (Halseth and Ryse, 2010).

Without delving too far into globalization and the causes and impacts of economic restructuring, the financing gap can be attributed to the significant shift in investing away from traditional industries located in rural areas and towards the global financial sector and foreign markets. According to one specialist, the shift is compounded by the increase in the size<sup>1</sup> and complexity of the finance industry, which has enabled financiers and speculators to create:

(M)ajor externalities that contribute to financial and real economic instability; it promotes short-term investment strategies; it contributes to inequality; and it undermines economic efficiency and the achievement of social goals in the real economy (Epstein, 2010).

For Zizek (2009) and Cortese (2011) the function of financial markets has been altered<sup>2</sup> (Mishkin, 2008) severing the connection between Wall Street (Bay Street) and Main Street. The former has control over the majority of available capital, and are wary to invest in local business, especially in rural areas. The diminishing availability of capital from traditional sources is further complicated when a community is in decline. Entrepreneurs have less to invest, as do their support networks of family and friends. Local financial institutions, such as a district branch of a national or provincial bank or a regional credit union, often will not have the capacity or the willingness to support local business development (Perry, 2009).

The second part of the financing gap is the cost of raising capital. Raising equity (through a public offering, that is, by selling shares that could be traded on a stock exchange) requires a lengthy process, expensive legal and accountant fees, and has to be approved by a securities and exchange commission. With fees for an offering in the hundreds of thousands of dollars, the investment must be large enough for this to be considered a transaction cost. As an alternative to traditional financing from banks (or the individual who takes on large amounts of debt to start or maintain a business), communities are getting involved, sharing risk and rewards to create stronger local economies.

### **Local Capital and How It Can Be Mobilized**

Local Capital does not have a lengthy formal or technical definition. It could easily be referred to as domestic, rather than foreign owned. Most tend to think of it as capital that resides within a self-identified community. It serves the same function as non-local capital, but is often used differently, for instance, to achieve different goals than foreign owned capital.

Using local capital to finance local business, for example, fosters community ownership. This links economic outcomes (the success of the business and return on investment) to community goals such as sustainable employment and fair wages. As a part owner, community members often become advertisers, advocates, and prime customers of local business.

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<sup>1</sup> “Financial profits as a share of total corporate profits grew from 10 % in the early 1980s to 40% in the mid-2000s. In 1981, U.S. private debt was 123% of GDP; by 2008 it was 290% /.../ the gross debt of the financial sector rose from 22% of GDP in 1981 to 117% in 2008 “(Crotty, 2009)

<sup>2</sup> 1) intermediate between savers and borrowers 2) mobilize savings; 3) allocate credit to their most profitable uses; 4) engage in maturity transformation 5) provide liquidity 6) facilitate inter-temporal allocation of consumption and wealth 7) reduce risk

But where does this money capital come from? One way to think about the source of local capital is to consider the wealth that people in your community have invested in their bank accounts, term deposits and RRSPs, bonds, or perhaps monies they have invested in the stock market. Unfortunately, much of this local money leaves to community to circulate in global financial circles.

The circuit of local capital is different. It is based on raising or mobilizing pools of capital from a self-designated community to invest in a local business. Individuals can invest by purchasing local securities in the form of shares (equity; essentially owning a part of the firm) or bonds (debt; loaning the firm a fixed amount over an agreed upon duration of time and interest rate).<sup>3</sup>

Loans involve a fixed term and rate of return, are typically connected to capital assets and are guaranteed. For example, a firm may seek to purchase new equipment to expand or replace current outdated machinery. They borrow the required capital from people in their own community, and agree on the terms of the loan (interest rate, and when they will be repaid). If the business does not succeed, they could sell the machinery to repay their debt.

Shares/equity is a very different scenario. In these instances the shareholder owns part of the business and their investment is not guaranteed. The risk is higher. Their return on investment will depend on the success of the firm. As such, investors will most likely provide patronage to the business, and seek to connect with other local businesses and suppliers to strengthen the local economy. The motivation to see a return on investment also encourages the transfer of investor business acumen and connections. More important, selling equity ensures that local businesses stay in their home communities. Unlike a loan where the connection to local investors is dictated by the length of the term, owning shares can mean a community owns part of the business for as long as it chooses. Some co-operatives address their financing needs by selling both member loans, and shares.

Through these mechanisms the capitalization issue is addressed, however, the process usually also instigates a series of impacts on productivity<sup>4</sup>, economic development, and democracy. Combined, these factors empower rural communities and enable them to address larger challenges such as dependency caused by economic restructuring.

### **Strengthening the Local Economy**

By linking the broader community to local business through the sale of securities, other resources are also mobilized. It not only increases the effectiveness of existing capital, but also helps a business obtain a highly effective mix of inputs to optimize productivity. Alongside efficiencies, community ownership encourages an increase in local patronage, as

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<sup>3</sup> As per the previous discussion on the costs of selling shares, these mechanisms typically apply to certain exemptions discussed throughout this paper.

<sup>4</sup> Without delving too far into the literature economic growth is dependent on the ability of a society to invest savings into existing as well as new and more efficient capital, and by augmenting the productivity of capital by improving the skill and education of workers (labour, and the level of human capital). Moreover, the ratio of capital to labour and the mix of other forms of capital, will also determine levels of output (Romer, 1994). In terms of the former (capital to labour ratio), the ability to foster more capital-intensive modes of production usually translates into more skilled labour and higher wage rates; as well as a higher likelihood for unions, and worker benefits (pensions, training, profit sharing). Industries that offer higher income levels tend to be correlated with several positive development indicators and more sustainable and diverse economies.

well as partnerships between local suppliers and services. This networking creates a multiplier effect whereby more money is spent locally and stays in the local economy. A popular study to illustrate this point had researchers track \$100 spent locally. The Institute for Local Self-Reliance (2003) did this in Mid Coast Maine and found that for \$100 spent at home \$45 stayed in the local economy, whereas for every hundred dollars spent at a 'chain' store, only \$14 dollars stayed in the local economy. Many studies have shown the alternative to local business is often detrimental; diverting public capital away from other sources, lowering the wage rate and reducing the potential for growth (Virchez and Cachon, 2004). According to Shils and Taylor, "in exchange for one new part-time job in a mega-discount store, about 1 and a half full time jobs are eliminated in smaller stores."...most jobs are "minimum wage" with little opportunity for improvement or promotion and most are non-union with all the ramifications implicit in such situations (i.e. absence of provision of benefits to large numbers of employees). In some situations, they report, the mega-retailers have closed down operations after several years. Having forced the closure of much of the local retail trade, the closures leave a retail vacuum and an exacerbated unemployment problem. (Dalal, Al-Khatib, DaCosta and Decker, 1994)

In contrast, locally owned businesses strengthen the economy by promoting agglomeration and business clustering. Many communities do this by marketing their products and produce under a regional banner. Or, individual producers engage in partnerships to share costs in marketing and advertising. Either way it becomes easier to gain a larger segment of the market, and reduces the transaction costs to offer competitive prices.

Apart from bolstering local capital, other community resources are also mobilized; in particular human and social capital. In terms of human capital, a group of local investors can bring a wide variety of expertise to bear as they scrutinize business development opportunities and create well thought out business plans. Working with an extended network of entrepreneurs and investors also creates opportunity to reduce many business costs, as the group can do much of the work themselves. This arrangement also allows for experienced investors, many of whom are successful entrepreneurs, to pass their expertise on to the next generation of novice local investors.

Social Capital is a difficult measure, but is usually described as the frequency and value of transactions that occur as a result of relationships between groups and people (Putnam 2001). Community owned businesses bring people together, and do so more frequently: investors, workers, entrepreneurs and a variety of support networks (customers, government, family, and media). This can help in finding good employees, reduce advertising costs (word-of-mouth), and also help locate potential investors, suppliers and consumers. Social Capital also helps identify investment opportunities, connecting investors and entrepreneurs. Farrell's (2001) study of Angel Investors found that many investors were seeking innovative enterprises to invest in, but had difficulty meeting entrepreneurs. Although they had available financial capital, their lack of social capital prevented them from mobilizing it in profitable ways.

There are increasing examples of how these different resources contribute to broader economic development. One of the most interesting, and perhaps recognizable, is in the world of sports. The Green Bay Packers of the National Football League is owned by local shareholders, not an individual billionaire. To finance the team to enter the league in the 1930s, the team sold shares to the community. Whenever they have needed to raise capital, it has come through additional public offerings. These shares (which cost \$250 USD) are non-tradable and cannot be sold back to the team. They do not come with any free tickets or

other memorabilia. However, by owning the team it has prevented the raid on public coffers to build new stadiums; the benefits of which accrue to individual owners and create negative urban economic development impacts<sup>5</sup>. More important, it has provided a resource for local non-for-profits to fundraise. Last, it should also be noted that Green Bay has continuously fielded a competitive team and most recently won the 2011 Super Bowl (Zirin, 2011)<sup>6</sup>.

“Established communities, whether urban or rural, central or peripheral are known to be sources of social capital and the well spring of democratic action” (Johnstone, 2011). It is, arguably, these social factors, rather than, say, the stock of capital, that strengthens local economies.

As we plan for more sustainable communities, community ownership is integral in addressing certain forces of underdevelopment. It empowers communities to decide what they produce and consume; rather than adhere to the objectives of large foreign owned firms beholden to their shareholders. Profits are returned to community owners and are spent and/or reinvested locally.

Connected to economic development, community ownership also facilitates an increase in economic democracy (Schweickart, 2002, as cited in Morin, 2011): worker-self-management, the existence of a “largely free” market, and social control of investment<sup>7</sup>. The adoption of innovative ownership models is also part of the sustainability question. Co-op Power, an American (Massachusetts based) Clean Energy Co-op, finances green energy projects while also addressing issues of social inequality based on class and race<sup>8</sup>. To do so, they engage different communities around environmental issues, while providing opportunities for low-resource individuals to participate through a multi-stakeholder share structure. Co-op members can loan the co-op money through purchasing a bond, or own part of the co-operative as a shareholder. However, neither of these designations increases these members ability to vote. Basically, wealthier members cannot buy the vote. Moreover, there are opportunities for members to earn shares through sweat-equity as well as buy-in to the co-operative over two years. This gives workers and members, many of whom have fewer assets, to become owners and then benefit from any earnings.

Getting the different groups together to invest their savings, future earnings, as well in ventures that might create only small tangible returns and intangible returns that might only be accrued by future generations, is a unique endeavor. The group might be made up of people with different backgrounds, but they usually share common values, and a common vision towards their community. While this might seem blasphemous to the Gordon Gecko types, it is not uncommon investor behavior. Farrell (2001) finds that angel investors often

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<sup>5</sup> This issue is explored in both Dennis Coates and Brad R. Humphreys (2000). *The Stadium Gambit and Local Economic Development*, *Regulation*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 15-20. As well as Dave Zirin’s manuscript *Bad Sports: How owners are ruining the games we love* (2010)

<sup>6</sup> The Football Club United of Manchester City is also in the process of selling community shares to raise £1.6m through a similar ownership scheme. <http://fc-utd.co.uk/communityshares>

<sup>7</sup> Morin (2011) identifies the main distinction from “industrial democracy” (the managing power of the workers *qua* workers), in that it extends power to other stakeholders such as unemployed people, future generations and the general community.

<sup>8</sup> About Section of Co-op Power Website: <http://www.cooppower.coop/>

invest as a group (syndication)<sup>9</sup>, and when they do they are less risk averse, and are willing to wait a longer period of time to see a return on their investment.

Understanding why there is often a premium on foreign direct investment over supporting local capital to foster economic growth extends beyond the scope of this section. However, it does identify some of the challenges, as well as the changes in attitudes that underlie the mobilization of capital. Linking these notions to strengthening the economy Michael Schuman (2011), paraphrasing Jane Jacobs, explains:

If you can produce the goods and services you consume in your own backyard, it doesn't make sense to import them. Every time you import something unnecessarily you give away a piece of your economy. A key to economic vitality is diversifying your economy with as much self-reliance as possible.

Given that Canadians invest a great deal more outside of the country (Holden 2008); it is apparent that there is a great deal of potential to increase the scope and scale of community investment funds, and local capital.<sup>10</sup>

## **Local Financing and Investment Mechanisms**

This section examines the various ways Albertan communities can raise local capital. It summarizes different strategies and provides some additional examples from outside of the province. These mechanisms are intended to link investors and local entrepreneurs through the sale of shares or bonds. Underlying these financing mechanisms is a commitment to strengthening local businesses, keeping local jobs, and fostering ethical and increasingly green or sustainable business practices.

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<sup>9</sup> “Syndication is the term used to describe the co-investment of more than one investor in a project. Syndication is a means of providing greater amounts of capital for entrepreneurs by pooling the investments of a variety of individuals. Syndication is a risk reduction mechanism for angels providing benefits in two ways. Firstly, one angel does not have to provide all the funds, so angels can invest in ventures that require more funds than they are able, or care, to devote. Secondly, it spreads the knowledge base about market and agency risks amongst the group. “(Farrell, 2001)

<sup>10</sup> Holden's report shows:

- The Canadian economy is strongly oriented towards foreign direct investment.
- 35.4% of GDP is CDIA and 30.4% of GDP is FDI
- The USA accounted for nearly 58% of the total stock of FDI in Canada while about 44% of Canada's CDIA was in the US markets.
- On balance, the value of Canadian assets held by US interests in 2007 exceeded the value of US assets held by Canadians by \$62.5 Billion.
- The largest stock of FDI in Canada by Industry is in the finance and insurance sector, where it reached \$93 Billion in 2006. Investment in energy and mining is second highest at \$87.1 Billion
- The manufacturing sector has the highest degree of foreign ownership in Canada (almost half of the industry in foreign owned) Overall, FDI owns 21% of all industries.
- Canada is a net investor in the world; the stock of CDIA has exceeded the stock of FDI in Canada in every year since 1997.

### ➤ **Credit Unions**

Credit Unions are local member owned banks. Many credit unions provide business loans, as well as business banking and often other advisory services. Credit Unions are intended to be active in their community and tend to have a better understanding of local needs. This makes a difference when assessing a loan application from a local entrepreneur compared to a larger bank. The resurgence of community owned businesses in Nova Scotia, as well as in the UK, is attributed to promoting the role of Credit Unions in financing local business development (Perry, 2009; Nakagawa and Larratta, 2010). A business loan from a Credit Union is the most basic and straightforward form of local capitalization, however it does not facilitate a great deal of community ownership.

### ➤ **Crowd Sourcing**

This is a new technique based on leveraging support from an online community, through websites such as [Kick-~~Starter~~](#). Basically, an entrepreneur raises funds by posting their business idea online as well as a request for start-up funding; people donate accordingly. While this doesn't have an ownership component, many entrepreneurs use this mechanism as a way to guarantee initial sales by offering an exchange of good or services based on the amount donated. This crowd-sourcing method is gaining popularity and could easily be adapted on a community level.

### ➤ **Exemptions for Accredited and Eligible Investors**

The federal government, under National Instrument 45-106P Prospectus and Registration Exemptions allows individuals of a certain income level and net worth to purchase exempt market shares in a local business without that business having to provide an offering document. The rationale is that these individuals are wealthy enough that they can incur the losses if their investment is lost. These shares are eligible to be included into a self-directed RRSP, or can be purchased by transferring existing RRSPs. As these shares are RRSP eligible it also allows the investor to defer part of their tax payments. This type of informal investing, if structured in a way that provided voting rights for all parties involved, could facilitate broader community ownership.

### ➤ **Community Investment Funds**

Community Investment Funds (CIFs) are pools of capital drawn from a self-designated area to be invested locally, by a group of community members. While they do resemble, and serve a similar function as venture capitalist firms, traditional lenders, and (development) banks, they are structured in a way to not only provide a return on investment but also broader community benefits. CIFs mobilize more than just financial capital, but mobilize human and social capital as well. They provide an opportunity for various stakeholders (investors, workers, entrepreneurs and community members) to harmonize their goals to create stronger local economies.

In this structure investors purchase shares in an investment fund which is then invested into a local business. This delineation prevents the CIF from micro-managing the firm they invest in. CIFs can invest in local business by employing two different strategies: providing loans (debt) or purchasing shares (equity). CIFs have been incredibly successful in Nova

Scotia with their Community Economic Development Investment Funds (CEDIFs). This program assists eligible communities by providing templates for public offerings, as well as significant tax rebates for individuals who invest locally. Over the past eight years this program has mobilized over 40 million dollars to be invested locally. This has helped to create hundreds of jobs as well as expand their renewable energy sector.

### ➤ **Community Bonds**

Community Bonds are a debt instrument that enables communities, as well as not-for-profits and charities, to raise capital. This strategy is typically used to finance the purchase of a large capital asset such as a building. Instead of going to a bank for a loan, the group sells bonds to their extended network of members for the same amount (Perry, 1993). These bonds are guaranteed, and typically have a fixed rate of return and are paid back over the long term. A recent example, and now a champion for this type of strategy, is Toronto's Centre for Social Innovation. Currently there is no provincial program for community bonds in Alberta. However, the government is looking into the feasibility of using it to help finance the not-for profit sector. Given certain exemptions under the co-operative act (see below) there are ways in which communities could create their own form of ad hoc community bonds.

## **Co-operatives**

The legislation around co-operatives provides a number of opportunities to mobilize local capital. Most co-operatives require membership fees, and often have programs where members can provide loans (Brown, 2004). In Alberta members of a co-operative with less than 100 members are allowed to invest up to an initial amount of \$10,000, plus \$5,000 in every following year. As such, co-operatives can mobilize close to one million dollars to build or expand their business. However, given the constraints of the size and ability of the membership to raise capital amongst themselves, there is often a need to look at other local financing options. The following shows two programs that enable co-operatives to raise local capital.

### ➤ **Canadian Worker Co-operative RRSP Program**

Co-operatives (whether producer, consumer, solidarity, multi-stakeholder, or worker) are able to raise capital by selling shares to its members under a federal program administered through the Canadian Worker Co-operative Federation (CWCF) and Concentra Financial. In terms of the former these shares are eligible to be included as part of one's own Self-Directed RRSP, thus providing some tax relief to the shareholder when they are purchased. This process is relatively straightforward and has been successful in financing the growth of several successful co-operatives. The key steps include:

- The co-operative registers with the CWCF RRSP Program and pays a yearly registration fee of \$100.
- The co-operative assembles an information package for its members and potential investor that will include:
- The co-operative's history, its key financial information, etc.

- An overview of the offering: size of the offering and what it will be used for, share size, minimum and maximum amount of shares an individual can purchase and other related information

To purchase shares a potential investor must read and sign a Risk Acknowledgement Form; which explains that these shares are not guaranteed and that the investor could lose their entire investment. Once they have decided on how many shares they would like to purchase they fill out a Declaration of Purchaser form, which is then submitted to the co-op who issues them with the physical copy of the shares. To include these shares in a Self-Directed RRSP, shareholders must have an account and pay an annual fee of \$100. Potential investors are also able to transfer existing RRSPs to purchase shares in a co-op. Any fees associated with this transfer are incurred by the investor. Dividends will be paid directly into this account, or potentially reinvested within the co-op. Most offerings for co-operative shares are intended to be held for at least five years.

#### ➤ **New Generation Co-operatives**

A New Generation Co-operative (NGC) allows members and non-members to purchase market exempt shares in an agricultural co-operative. However, unless they are a member, investors (shareholders) cannot vote on matters related to the co-operative. Further, the amount of shares a member-investor owns does not affect their voting power like in a conventional firm. Voting rights are based on one-member one vote, not one share one vote. These shares are usually a mid to long-term investment (5 years).

This type of structure allows co-operatives to raise capital within a larger network beyond their membership. It invites and permits community members, patrons, suppliers and other groups to become involved in owning local economic resources. Westlock Terminals NGC (founded in 2002) was able to initially raise over a million dollars to purchase and expand their local grain terminal, and more importantly to prevent its' closure. A second share offering in 2006 raised another 1.2 million dollars. There are some 270 members. Since purchasing the grain terminal there has been a significant investment in new capital, including new elevators and systems, an increase in profits (Cabaj, et al. 2009), and payback on investment shares of seven percent. In 2011 Westlock Terminals scaled up its operations, and purchased a stake in the ownership of GNP Grain Source, a major inland storage owned by 7 independent grain terminals with grain handling facilities for over 2.2 million metric tons of annual throughput.

The NGC model is popular in many other parts of the world, including the UK, Australia, New Zealand and the United States. Some of the recent literature (Cook and Chaddad, 2004) has also shown some interesting examples of how NGCs have transformed into what could be described as investment co-operatives. This has occurred most recently in the ownership structure of irrigation and dairy co-operatives in Australia (Plunkett, Chaddad, and Cook, 2010), and New Zealand (Trechter, McGregor, and Murray-Prior, 2003) respectively.

#### ➤ **Investment Co-operatives**

This is a relatively new type of co-operative and has shown some proven successes in Alberta. The Sangudo Opportunity Development Co-operative (SODC) has raised over a

quarter of a million dollars locally in member loans to finance local business development (Evans, 2011). An investment co-operative is similar to a local institutional investor, or a community investment fund, but is structured like a co-operative. Like a CIF it facilitates the process of finding an opportunity that requires a capital investment and then sells shares in that opportunity to its members. This structure often has a development component to it as well, with a small portion of the profits being re-invested into a local development fund. Like an NGC it follows the OMOV principal. This creates a set of checks and balances that prevent one group from controlling (and profiting from the sale of) a local business.

### **Other Co-operative Strategies**

Many co-operatives in Europe and North America also help in financing the development of new co-operative businesses, by pooling and reinvesting a small percentage of their profits. One example is the Arizmendi Association Model. In this case one co-operatively owned business (a bakery and cheese shop) helped another co-op get started. They assisted in the business planning and technical aspects of the business, but also helped them finance the initial start up costs. Over the past 14 years they have done this 6 times (Marrafino, 2011). This has grown the size of their development fund, and by increasing the amount of members, they added to the amount of skills available. The Evergreen Economic Development Co-operative in Cleveland Ohio has followed a similar strategy on a slightly larger scale. They have started a worker-co-operative industrial laundry service for a large teaching hospital. Portions of the profits are kept to help start a renewable energy company that installs solar panels, as well as large-scale urban green house agriculture project (Alperovits and Williams, 2010).

#### **➤ Labour-Sponsored Venture Capital Corporations**

There are a variety of local investment programs incentivized through tax credits at both the federal and provincial level. Labour Sponsored Investment Funds (LSIF) typically partner with local economic development agencies to invest in businesses, and often social-enterprises. Many of these funds are similar to the aforementioned CIFs in that job creation, as well as supporting workers' rights and collective enterprises, is in close proximity to the priority of providing a return on investment. These funds have also been highly effective in addressing the financing gap in disadvantaged regions. For instance the Solidarity Fund QFL, founded in Quebec in 1998, created seventeen decentralized regional funds to invest between \$50,000 and \$2 million in new businesses startup capital. Further:

On the local level, 87 local funds(SOLIDE) were established in collaboration with the Union des municipalités régionales de comtés (Alliance of Regional Municipal Counties). Half the capital was provided through a \$10 million central common fund (SOLIDEQ) created by the Solidarity Fund QFL and the remaining capital came from the municipalities and other sources. The approach of these funds is the same as the regional funds, but they target smaller projects (\$5,000 to \$50,000) (Hebb, Wortman,et al. 2006 citing Ninacs, 2003).

Similarly in British Columbia LSIF Working Opportunities partnered with Community Futures and contributed \$750,000 to their community loan fund (Hebb, Wortman et al. 2006).





## Entrepreneurship and Business Development

## Entrepreneurship and Business Development

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### Community Context

The Towns of Hinton and Grande Cache have developed around vital industries including coal, forestry, oil and gas, and tourism. In an attempt to mitigate the impact of “boom and bust” economic cycles on their local economies, both communities are seeking to diversify their reliance on natural resources by encouraging the development of entrepreneurs and alternative industries based on their current resources and their picturesque location. In relation to Alberta’s overall economic growth, emerging economies in the developing world provide the greatest potential for increasing the province’s exports of natural resources and value added refined products. The Government of Canada is also continuing to facilitate increased market opportunities for Canadian exports, entering into investment promotion and protection negotiations with a number of countries including China, India and Indonesia, for example.

The Government of Alberta shares the sentiments of these negotiations, stating specifically:

Energy is critical to our prosperity, but Alberta must diversify its customer base to achieve the greatest returns. [The Alberta] Government will actively design initiatives to access global markets and assist Canadians and our trading partners in understanding Alberta’s energy goals. The infrastructure necessary to get our resources to new markets must cross other jurisdictions, so any expansion will involve various partners at the provincial, national and international levels. (Speech from the Throne 2012)<sup>18</sup>

Recognizing that “Alberta’s current fiscal framework relies too heavily on volatile energy revenue as a source of income,” the double-edged sword of abundant resources necessitates strategic diversification, and both the federal and provincial governments have initiated economic development programs to facilitate greater economic growth. Importantly, entrepreneurship and business development can provide the Towns of Hinton and Grande Cache increased opportunities. As the Government of Alberta’s Small Business Profile notes, “today, small businesses are responsible for over one-third of all private sector employment in the province, and they contribute almost 30 per cent of Alberta’s total economy.” 96 per cent of

businesses in Alberta are small businesses, with 19,324 new businesses created in the province between 2000 and 2010.<sup>19</sup> Potential for Hinton and Grande Cache to increase their share of small businesses in Alberta surely exists.

Sustainable, creative and inclusive municipal planning with an eye to opportunity in energy-related sectors, encouraging entrepreneurship, maximization of local labour and resources, as well as the development of a revised knowledge-based economy able to attract talented, creative citizens, all provide the bases for a strategic approach to achieving the Hinton and Grande Cache region's greater potential.

Within this context, this Economic and Business Development Report informs the following questions:

1. How have other resource-based communities diversified their economies and attracted more entrepreneurial risk takers and innovators? What might sustainable entrepreneurship look like?
2. How can an entrepreneurial spirit be fostered in a resource-based economy to create greater socio-economic diversity and stability?
3. What other forms of entrepreneurial opportunities for innovation and social enterprise exist for both communities?

*How have other resource-based communities diversified their economies and attracted more entrepreneurial risk takers and innovators? What might sustainable entrepreneurship look like?*

In late 2010, a literature review was conducted examining the policies that municipalities in Canada were undertaking in order to revise their thinking about economic development. For example, the Alberta Urban Municipalities Association (AUMA) has produced a Municipal Sustainability Planning framework to help guide communities towards long-term visioning and implementation. Recognizing that communities across Canada are facing a number of challenges, including "inadequate funding to provide and maintain essential services and infrastructure, need for greater economic diversity, aging population, developing opportunities for young people, and need to sustain long-term community development and capacity building,"<sup>20</sup> this guide offers a 5 step framework towards a Municipal Sustainability Plan, including Vision, Success, Current Reality, Action Plan, and Implement/Monitor. The MSP has a comprehensive guide that is being used by a number of municipalities in Alberta, and offers a good start for communities to plan out their futures. The Town of Hinton's City Council has already produced a Strategic Plan, published in February 2011, which has many of the elements of the MSP. The following provides supplemental frameworks for an overall economic development plan, by incorporating alternative thinking focusing on different aspects of economic development, including the arts, culture, heritage and environmental sustainability.

## 1. Creative Cities

The Creative Cities Network of Canada (CCNC)<sup>21</sup> is a network of over 100 academics, practitioners, policymakers, and officials working towards realizing the principles and practices of Creative Cities within Canadian municipalities. Nancy Duxbury, who has served as the Director of Research for the Creative City Network of Canada and the Director for the Centre for Expertise on Culture and Communities run out of Simon Fraser University, writes that “innovative action is doing something out of the norm, something new to that situation or context” and that “pressures for economic renewal drive innovation.”<sup>22</sup>

One of the drivers is the need to identify a “niche” that includes attracting mobile citizens, investments, and jobs; improving “quality of place”; and building identity through branding. The cases of Vancouver, Toronto, Ottawa and Halifax are also showcased as examples of cities implementing principles of Creative Cities. In addition, measures and benchmarking suggestions are included as a means to measure effectiveness of the overall strategy. Some relevant indicators include levels of financial investment, jobs created, new businesses started, number of visitors, and attendance at cultural community events. The following is taken directly from Duxbury’s publication *Creative Cities: Principles and Practices*.

- In order for creativity and innovation to take hold, local planning processes must value the following principles:
  - Each city and community is unique in its history, development, human and other assets, challenges, aspirations and opportunities.
  - Implementation of ideas and strategies in a community is an art, based on thick knowledge of, and sensitivity to, the complexity of a community’s cultural ecosystem, and the broader contexts in which it operates.
  - Faced with strong forces of homogenous products and offerings, city development must be rooted in authenticity. Balance is key: for each standardized, mass-market introduction to a community, something should be done that emphasizes the uniqueness of the community, for example, through public art.
  - Durable innovation depends on “thick” community involvement and shared ownership of processes and outcomes. Horizontal networks must be nurtured and supported on an ongoing basis across the community. Such networks, even within the cultural sector, often do not exist, or are fragile.
  - Small projects that are sustained over time can make a difference. Incremental change intelligently applied can lead to significant innovation.<sup>23</sup>
- There are also a number of factors that must be present:
  - Collective will – Political and public will to mobilize resources, take risks and stay the course.

- Visionary Fit – The community’s vision must resonate with its particular circumstances and possibilities, including local assets and constraints.
  - Strong Community Networks – The existence of, and robust connections among, appropriate individuals and organizations are required to act on ideas.
  - Strategic Resources – Resources for innovation are multi-dimensional, including: money, people with available time, expertise, skills, knowledge/information; and social relationships and spaces for networking.
  - Time – This involves both the time required to make change, recognizing that plans unfold over long periods, and also the element of appropriate timing, which may mean speeding up processes as opportunities arise, or delaying to a more propitious moment.
  - Flexibility – Implementing innovative ideas are, by their nature, experimental and require flexible approaches. In dynamic community situations, challenges and opportunities evolve, As such, visions, plans, and rules must be adaptable such that innovative projects can be implemented or tested out.<sup>24</sup>
- There are 4 innovative approaches/frameworks to building a creative city:
- a) Innovative Knowledge City
    - “...developing internationally recognized research and education centres which generate leading-edge ideas and knowledge and develop new industries for the future.”<sup>25</sup>
  - b) Niche Economic Development
    - “...developing an international reputation for leading-edge research and industry in a few core industries.”
    - “...actively nurturing the city’s distinct cultural resources, consciously and carefully developing and promoting its strengths as a unique cultural and heritage and tourism destination.”<sup>26</sup>
  - c) Local Community / Economic Development with a Cultural Component
    - “...get the arts, culture and heritage fully recognized at decision-making tables and city planning processes.”
    - “...they will be incorporated into the community’s vision and ‘official’ mindset, and reflected in effective support structures and initiatives...”
    - “A growing expression of community cultural development is cultural tourism, a strategy leading many municipalities to encourage creative activity in order to build their tourism industry.”<sup>27</sup>
  - d) The Creative City
    - “...[explicitly includes] arts, culture, and heritage in the future plans and general visions for the city.”

- “...build strategically on opportunities arising, while addressing medium-term challenges.”<sup>28</sup>

For the purposes of Hinton and Grande Cache, given their proximities to the burgeoning oil and gas industry, it is recommended that the Innovative Knowledge City, Niche Economic Development and Local Community/Economic Development with a Cultural Component be used as a combined guiding framework for local planning. This is compatible with the principles found within GEM, that local economic development rides the coattails of large enterprises in the region, and the subsequent training that can be developed using EMPRETEC and the SME Toolkit, which will be discussed in the next section.

*How can an entrepreneurial spirit be fostered in a resource-based economy to create greater socio-economic diversity and stability?*

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) notes that “enabling people throughout the economy and society to become entrepreneurs will provide new ideas, knowledge and capabilities, and enhance the influence of market demand on innovation. Developing entrepreneurial talent is important for turning innovations into opportunities which create value, jobs and economic growth.”<sup>29</sup>

This report finds that for Hinton and Grande Cache, an entrepreneurial spirit can be fostered through the combination of 1) the GEM framework, and 2) the EMPRETEC model. It is recommended that the GEM model, which promotes the role of large, established enterprises providing entrepreneurial spillover, be used as a framework to conceptualize economic development opportunities in Hinton and Grande Cache, first. Second, the EMPRETEC model is recommended to incubate entrepreneurship within individuals, help them cultivate individual competencies and talents, and support their entry and retention into the SME sector.

## 1. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM)

The GEM “has sought to explore the widely accepted link between entrepreneurship and economic development” recognizing that the impact of entrepreneurship “varies according to [the national] phase of economic development.”<sup>30</sup> The GEM Conceptual Model focuses on the role of large established enterprises that are already plugged in to international trade markets and can promote self-expansion, maturation, new market opportunities for SMEs through technological spill-over, spin-offs, increased domestic demand, integration into supply chain, etc. This depends, however on the existence, capacity and vibrancy of an SME sector.

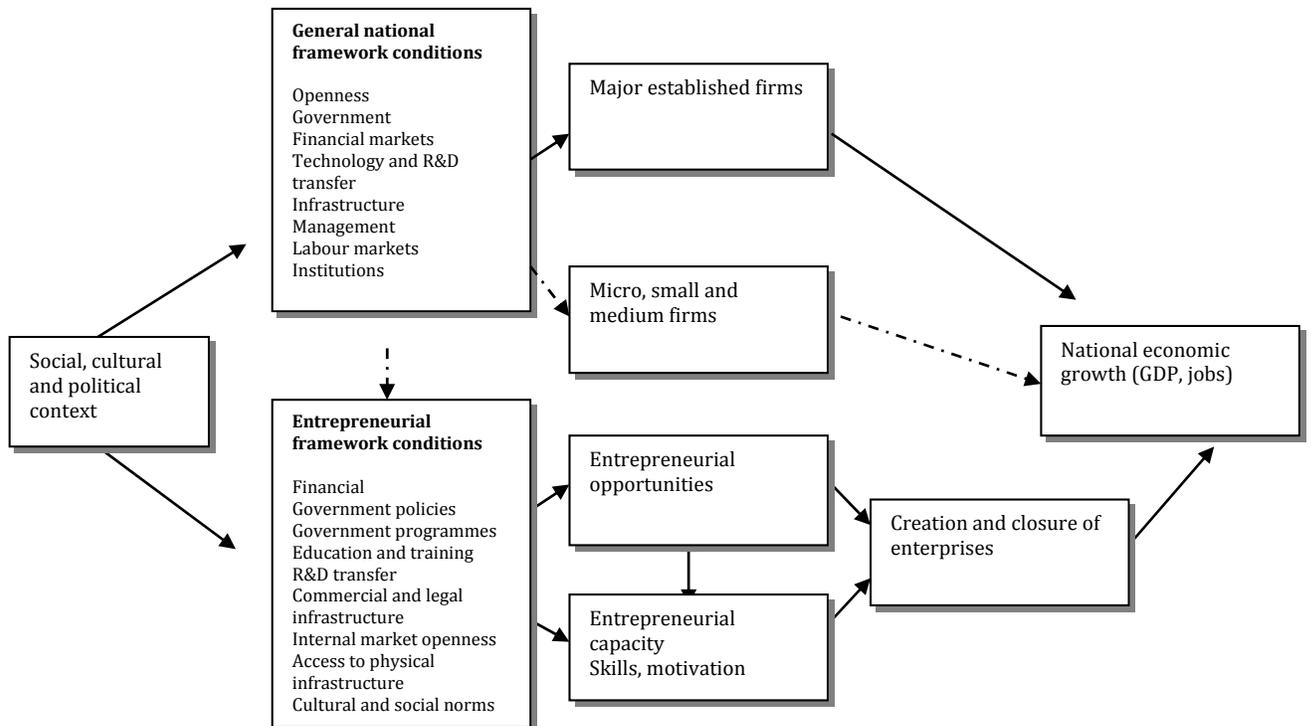
GEM factors affecting differing levels of entrepreneurship:

1. Perception of opportunity
2. A culture that respects entrepreneurs and accepts wide disparity in wealth creation
3. The policy and business infrastructures, investments and tertiary education
4. Demographics (men aged 25-45)

## 5. Financial support from informal sources<sup>31</sup>

GEM also looks at the Total Entrepreneurial Activity Index, which looks at two factors: 1) proportion of adult population currently engaged in creating a new business; and 2) the prevalence of new firms that have survived the start-up phase.

The GEM Model:



This Model, produced as an adaptation from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2002 Executive Report by Reynolds et al in 2002, describes that

Depending on national framework conditions, large firms, generally integrated into international trade markets, can promote self-expansion and maturation. The economic success of large enterprises tends to create new market opportunities for SMEs through technological spill-overs, spin-offs, an increase in domestic demand for goods and services, an integration of SMEs in supplier networks, and so forth. Yet whether domestic firms are able to seize these opportunities depends largely on the existence of a competitive and vibrant SME sector. The lower portion of [this figure] highlights the second mechanism driving economic growth: the role of entrepreneurship in the creation and growth of firms. The entrepreneurial process occurs in the context of a set of framework conditions (see “Entrepreneurial framework conditions”). It further depends on (a) the emergence and presence of market

opportunities and (b) the capacity, motivation and skills of individuals to establish firms in pursuit of those opportunities. While the success of large established enterprises tends to create profit opportunities for small and new firms, these firms can also affect the success of large enterprises. For instance, by being competitive and reliable suppliers, SMEs provide a competitive advantage for large firms in global arenas.<sup>32</sup>

In terms of Alberta's economic development, the GEM Model highlights the need to ensure that an entrepreneurial spirit is fostered at the national level and, with Alberta's vast resources and opportunities, the Towns of Hinton and Grande Cache can benefit through policies that enable large firms, whether in the forestry, oil and gas, or coal industries, to spill over into local economies.

## 2. EMPRETEC

"A pioneering United Nations programme in developing entrepreneurship is EMPRETEC from the Spanish for emprendedores (entrepreneurs) and tecnología (technology)."<sup>33</sup> The EMPRETEC programme aims to enhance productive capacity and international competitiveness for the benefit of economic development, poverty eradication and equal participation of developing countries in the world economy. "EMPRETEC is a mechanism that instills behavioural change into a select group of promising entrepreneurs. It is dedicated to helping promising entrepreneurs put their ideas into action and helping fledgling businesses to grow."<sup>34</sup> Through the EMPRETEC methodology, 150,000 entrepreneurs in 29 developing countries have been able to learn and hone vital entrepreneurial skills and competencies.<sup>35</sup>

The EMPRETEC methodology, based on Harvard psychologist David McClelland's extensive work, is premised on his findings that everyone has inner motivation to improve. This "motive for action" was called an archetype by McClelland. He classified the 40 archetypes in three motivational main types, led by the achievement, planning/affiliation or power drive."<sup>36</sup>

The EMPRETEC methodology then identifies 10 key areas of competencies (PECs) related to entrepreneurial development, each of which fall under the three motivational main types. These include:

### Achievement

1. opportunity-seeking and initiative;
2. persistence;
3. fulfillment of commitments;
4. demand for quality and efficiency;
5. calculated risks;

### Achievement

The motive for achievement is a need that makes people accomplish great things. They love challenges. They want to drive themselves so that they are capable of doing what they aim to do. The desire to achieve is evident in all aspects of their personal and professional lives.

Planning/Affiliation

- 6. goal-setting;
- 7. information-seeking;
- 8. systematic planning and monitoring;

Planning/Affiliation

We all have a relative in our family who loves to organize the New Year's Eve get-together. Their motive is a tremendous need for aggregation. Entrepreneurs love this lifestyle and love to associate with important people in the community.

Power

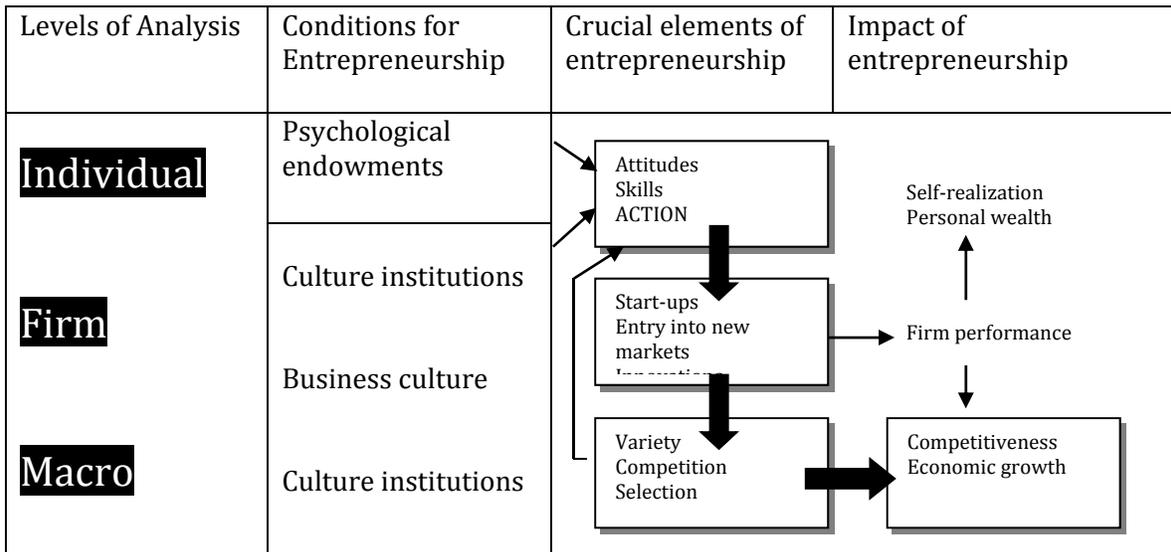
- 9. persuasion and networking; and
- 10. independence and self-confidence.

Power

Entrepreneurs love the freedom and independence of being their own boss. Entrepreneurs have to be free to pursue their own ideas, follow their own road. They are the movers and shakers, the people who make things happen.<sup>37</sup>

\*Please see below for a more detailed outline of these competencies.

In 1999, Sander Wennekers and Roy Thurik developed a conceptual model that linked entrepreneurship, with an emphasis on the importance McClelland placed on individual competencies, to economic growth. The following figure describes their model.<sup>38</sup>



According to this analysis, entrepreneurial activity always originates at the individual level, therefore entrepreneurship is always “induced by an individual’s attitudes of motives, skills and psychological endowments,” which McClelland focused on, but is also influenced by “cultural and institutional factors, the business

environment and macroeconomic conditions.” Realization of entrepreneurship, however, always occurs at the firm level. Start-ups, then, are “vehicles for the transformation of a good idea into actions.” The macro level of industries and national economics is the sum of entrepreneurial activity. This is where competition can occur, productivity is enhanced and variety and change in the market are encouraged. There is also a feedback loop where entrepreneurs can learn from their own mistakes and successes, and of others’ and adapt their attitudes to become even more viable.<sup>39</sup>

Following from this framework, training can be developed suited specifically to Hinton and Grande Cache using the EMPRETEC training. Additional resources can supplement this training, such as the International Finance Corporation’s Small-Medium sized Enterprise (SME) Toolkit. This Toolkit provides easy-to-understand procedures required to start and run a business. This is a valuable resource for policymakers and can be included in possible entrepreneurship development workshops. All of the information is free and downloadable, with quizzes at the end of each section providing a good wrap up for participants. It could be used as an introductory training developed with each particular municipality’s needs in mind.

#### \*10 Key Areas of Personal Entrepreneurial Competencies (PECs)<sup>40</sup>

##### 1. Opportunity-seeking and initiative

An entrepreneur is someone who seeks opportunities. Where other people see problems, entrepreneurs see opportunities and take the initiative to transform these opportunities into profitable business situations. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Do things before being asked or forced to by events;
- Take action to extend the business into new areas, products or services; and
- Seize unusual opportunities to start a new business, obtain financing, equipment, land, work space or assistance.

##### 2. Persistence

Entrepreneurs have the determination to persevere in the face of obstacles. When most people tend to abandon an activity, entrepreneurs stick with it. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Take action in the face of significant obstacles and challenges;
- Take persistent actions, or switch to an alternative strategy to meet a challenge or obstacle; and
- Take personal responsibility for the performance necessary to achieve goals and objectives.

### 3. Fulfilling commitments

Entrepreneurs always do what they say they will do. They always keep their promises, no matter how great the personal sacrifice. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Make a personal sacrifice and extraordinary effort to complete a job;
- Pitch in with employees, or take their place if needed, to get a job done; and
- Strive to keep customers satisfied and place long-term goodwill above short-term gain.

### 4. Demand for quality and efficiency

This has to do with passion: being obsessed by the need to improve quality, to do something better, faster or cheaper. This passion is reflected in the integrity of entrepreneurs and the pride they have in their work. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Find ways to do things better, faster and cheaper;
- Act to do things that meet or exceed standards of excellence; and
- Develop and use procedures to ensure that work is completed on time and that work meets agreed-upon standards of quality.

### 5. Taking calculated risks

Taking calculated risks is one of the primary concepts in entrepreneurship, the element that makes them entrepreneurs. They are willing to take risks. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Deliberately calculate risks and evaluate alternatives;
- Take action to reduce risks and/or control outcomes; and
- Place themselves in situations involving a challenge or moderate risk.

### 6. Goal-seeking

This is the most important competency because none of the rest will function without it. Entrepreneurs know what they want. They know where they're going in business. They're always thinking about the future and set goals. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Set goals and objectives which are personally meaningful and challenging;
- Articulate clear and specific long-term goals; and
- Set measurable short-term objectives.

## 7. Information-seeking

Entrepreneurs do not like uncertainty or assumptions. They don't like to count on others for information. It seems that an entrepreneur spends a lot of time gathering information about their clients, suppliers, technology and opportunities. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Personally seek information from customers, suppliers and competitors;
- Do personal research on how to provide a product or service; and
- Consult experts for business or technical advice.

## 8. Systematic planning and monitoring

Systematic means "in an orderly, logical way". Planning is deciding what you are going to do. Monitoring means checking. It is, in fact, what a business plan is for: to see if something is feasible prior to trying it. Entrepreneurs demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Plan by breaking large tasks down into sub-tasks with clear time-frames;
- Revise plans in light of feedback on performance or changing circumstances;
- Keep financial records and use them to make decisions.

## 9. Persuasion and networking

Entrepreneurs use a definite strategy for influencing other people to follow them or do something for them.

A successful persuasion strategy depends upon all parties involved, that is, the entrepreneur and the people he is trying to persuade. Entrepreneurs demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Use deliberate strategies to influence and persuade others;
- Use key people as agents to achieve own objectives; and
- Take action to develop and maintain a network of business contacts.

## 10. Independence and self-confidence

This competency concerns entrepreneurs' quiet self-assurance in their capability or potential to do something. It is an internal confidence that is reflected by the challenges they choose to undertake in life. Being self-confident means taking total responsibility for making things happen. They demonstrate the following behaviours:

- Seek autonomy from the rules and/or control of others;
- Attribute the causes of successes and failures to one's own conduct;
- Express confidence in their ability to complete a difficult task or to face a challenge.

### 3. Potential Areas of Business Development

The following section describes potential areas of business development related to industries in and around the Grande Cache / Hinton area. The section also outlines potential opportunities related to the oil and gas sector, as it is a central component of Alberta's current and anticipated economic growth. Entrepreneurs in Grande Cache and Hinton, while relying on innovative diversification of existing industries and new areas of business development, can also benefit from linking in to the oil and gas sector in functional ways.

#### **Forestry / Forest Products**

Alberta's forestry industry consists of approximately 150 companies and over 2,300 logging and log hauling contractors and forest supply and service providers. The sub-sectors of the forestry industry include primary (raw wood into logs, cants, pulp, newsprint, lumber, etc.); secondary/re-manufacturing (primary wood products into doors, boards, boxes, other engineered building components, etc.); tertiary (fine building products including moulding, furniture, cabinetry and specialty products); harvest / reforestation; and supply and service (providing goods and services such as welding fabrication, engineering, heavy equipment, chemicals, research and development, generators and piping).<sup>41</sup>

1. Residential and commercial uses for pine beetle affected wood (furniture, hardwood flooring)<sup>42</sup>
2. Pulp and paper uses for pine beetle infested wood<sup>43</sup>
3. Integrated bio-technology opportunities through conversion of forest bio-mass to bio-energy, bio-chemicals and bio-material (use of roadside residue, undersized trees, trees killed by insects [e.g. pine beetle], non-merchantable salvage, mill residues, black liquor from pulping, and peat)
  - Construction: \$570 million in GDP and 5,300 person-years
  - Operations and Maintenance: \$180 million in GDP and 1,700 jobs per year<sup>44</sup>
    - Nanocrystalline cellulose (NCC)
    - Anticipated uses:
      - Reinforced polymers
      - Advanced composite materials
      - Films for barrier and other properties
      - Additive for coatings, paints, lacquers and adhesives
      - Switchable optical devices
      - Pharmaceuticals and drug delivery
      - Bone replacement and tooth repair
      - Improved paper, packaging and building products
      - Additive for foods, cosmetics
      - Aerospace and transportation<sup>45</sup>

Gross Market Opportunities for Bio-Products (Global) <sup>46</sup>	
Product	Global Market Potential By 2015 (USD\$)
Green chemicals	\$62.3
Alcohols	\$62.0
Bio-plastic and plastic resins	\$3.6
Platform chemicals	\$4.0
Wood fibre composites	\$35.0
Glass fibre	\$8.4
Carbon fibre	\$18.6

### **Oil and Gas**

Alberta's oil and gas industry has been "Alberta's engine of growth since 2000," creating immense growth for both the province and country. The industry has also strengthened other industries, providing support to oil and gas producers in construction, engineering, pipelines, and petrochemicals and gasoline refining. Revenues were split equally "between natural gas (including liquids) at 47.5 per cent and crude oil (52.5 per cent)" in 2008, with capital spending in the oil sands increasing fourfold over the period of 2002 to 2008. Despite the economic slowdown, long-term growth is still anticipated, as the oil sands are seen as one of the world's reliable and secure sources of energy.<sup>47</sup> In a related note, construction and engineering industries have benefitted greatly from Alberta's recent boom. The rate of growth doubled that of the overall economy and reached its peak in the period of 2004 to 2006, when it grew at annual rate of 16 per cent. This boom has created upward pressures on labour costs and an ever increasing demand for workers, although more recently, with the economic downturn, many projects have been postponed and cancelled. This has mitigated growth in the near term despite government stimulus spending that has kept some projects rolling.<sup>48</sup> The anticipated rebound in energy-related industries will trickle through and help revamp construction and engineering in the medium to long term, which could be beneficial to entrepreneurs in the Hinton and Grande Cache area seeking to invest in energy-related industries.

1. Manufacturing of, and training related to, oil sands metal fabrication and oil and gas equipment and machinery<sup>49</sup>
  - This will help to expand Alberta businesses' share of share of US oil and gas field equipment and machinery imports
  - \$1.25 billion per year and 12,000 jobs per year
  - \$150 million per year and 1,350 jobs per year<sup>50</sup>
2. Manufacturing of, and training related to, pipelines construction
3. Refining petroleum products and petrochemicals

4. Bitumen upgrading related supplies and businesses
5. Depending on the materialization of shale gas plays, the opportunity exists to manufacture multi-stage hydraulic fracturing equipment, machinery, and related services
6. Manufacturing opportunities related to carbon capture and storage (CCS)
  - Construction: \$12.4 billion in GDP and 140,000 person-years
  - Operations and Maintenance: \$830 million in GDP and 2,600 jobs
  - \$100 million in GDP and 1,100 jobs per year<sup>51</sup>

**Alternative Energy**

1. Manufacturing of supplies and inputs for wind farms
2. Manufacturing of supplies and inputs for solar energy production

**Health**

1. Development of extended care facilities and retirement communities

**Education**

In recent years, the Government of Alberta has made substantial investment in Alberta’s Education industry. In 2008, approximately 1500 educational institutions benefited from investments totaling about \$3200 per Albertan, 35 per cent above the national average. More recently, government spending has been on a downward trend, although as the economy recovers, it is anticipated that the industry will again be funded thoroughly. In terms of opportunity in the Hinton and Grande Cache area, the establishment of a Research Park or other such research-oriented facility could be a viable option. A wide range of potential partners from a variety of industries are included below.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Norquest</li> <li>· Forest Products Association of Canada (FPAC)</li> <li>· FPIInnovations</li> <li>· Canadian Wood Fibre Centre (NRC)</li> <li>· Alberta Innovates</li> <li>· CelluForce</li> <li>· Alberta Oil Sands Technology and Research Authority (AOSTRA)</li> <li>· Innoventures Canada (i-CAN)</li> <li>· Alberta Research Council (ARC)</li> <li>· Alberta Newsprint Company (ANC)</li> <li>· West Fraser Mills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Alberta Pacific Forest Industries Inc.</li> <li>· Alberta Spruce Industries Ltd.</li> <li>· Canadian Forest Products Ltd. (CANFOR)</li> <li>· College of Alberta Professional Foresters</li> <li>· College of Alberta Professional Forest Technologists</li> <li>· Department of Renewable Resources, University of Alberta</li> <li>· Manning Diversified Forest Products Ltd.</li> <li>· Millar Western Forest</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Metal Fabricators and Welding Ltd.</li> <li>· Modular/Manufactured Housing Association of Alberta and Saskatchewan</li> <li>· Woodland Operations Learning Foundation</li> <li>· Alberta Building Trades Council</li> <li>· Alberta Chamber of Resources</li> <li>· Alberta Forest Products Association</li> <li>· Albion Sands Energy Inc.</li> <li>· Association of Professional Engineers, Geologists and Geophysicists of Alberta</li> </ul>
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Community Development Trust</li> <li>· Alberta Forestry Research Institute</li> <li>· National Research Council Canada's Industrial Research Assistance Program (IRAP)</li> <li>· Forestry Innovation Investment, B.C. (FII)</li> <li>· Verdant Wood Technologies (hardwood flooring)</li> <li>· Alberta Forest Products Association</li> <li>· Enbridge Pipelines Inc.</li> <li>· EnCana Corporation</li> <li>· Enform Canada</li> <li>· EPCOR Utilities</li> <li>· Horizon Construction Management Ltd.</li> <li>· Harvest Energy Trust</li> <li>· Keyano College Foundation</li> <li>· Ledcor Industrial Limited</li> <li>· Mackenzie Aboriginal Corp.</li> <li>· NewGen Synergistics Inc.</li> <li>· Nexen Inc.</li> <li>· Petro-Canada</li> <li>· Petroleum Human Resources Council of Canada</li> <li>· Petroleum Service Association of Canada</li> <li>· SGS Canada Inc.</li> <li>· Shell Canada Limited</li> <li>· Statoil</li> <li>· Suncor Energy</li> <li>· Syncrude</li> <li>· Synenco Energy</li> <li>· The Focus Corporation</li> <li>· TransAlta</li> <li>· ABC Headstart</li> <li>· Accredited Supports to the Community</li> <li>· Alberta Association of Services for</li> <li>· Children and Families</li> <li>· Alberta College of Social Workers</li> <li>· Alberta Council of Disability Services</li> <li>· Red Deer Cultural Heritage Society</li> <li>· Red Deer Symphony Orchestra Association</li> <li>· Robin Hood Society</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Products Ltd.</li> <li>· Palliser Lumber Sales Ltd.</li> <li>· Resource Industry Suppliers Association (formerly Forest Industry Suppliers and Logging Association)</li> <li>· United Steelworkers, Local 1-207</li> <li>· Vanderwell Contractors Ltd.</li> <li>· West Fraser Mills Ltd.</li> <li>· Weyerhaeuser</li> <li>· Alberta Network of Immigrant Women</li> <li>· Alberta Museums Association</li> <li>· Alberta Seniors and Community Supports</li> <li>· Bethany Care Society</li> <li>· Boys and Girls Clubs of Alberta</li> <li>· Boys and Girls Clubs of Calgary</li> <li>· Calgary and Area Child and Family Services Authority</li> <li>· Calgary Chamber of Voluntary Organizations</li> <li>· Calgary Homeless Foundation</li> <li>· Calgary Inter-Faith Food Bank</li> <li>· Calgary Learning Centre</li> <li>· Calgary Philharmonic Orchestra</li> <li>· Calgary SCOPE Society</li> <li>· Calgary Stampede</li> <li>· Canadian Mental Health Association,</li> <li>· Alberta Division</li> <li>· Catherine C. Cole &amp; Associates (Heritage consultants)</li> <li>· Central Alberta AIDS Network Society</li> <li>· Central Alberta Diversity Association</li> <li>· Central Alberta Immigrant Women's Association</li> <li>· Central Alberta Women's Outreach Society</li> <li>· Alberta Food Processors Association</li> <li>· Alberta Pressure Vessel</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Canadian Association of Petroleum Producers</li> <li>· Canadian Natural Resources Ltd.</li> <li>· Coal Association of Canada</li> <li>· Construction Labour Relations of Alberta</li> <li>· Construction Owners Association of Alberta</li> <li>· Construction Sector Council of Canada</li> <li>· Devon Canada Corporation</li> <li>· Dynatec Corporation</li> <li>· Electricity Sector Council</li> <li>· Elk Valley Coal Corporation</li> <li>· Cerebral Palsy Association in Alberta</li> <li>· Chinook Edge School Division</li> <li>· City of Calgary</li> <li>· Community Information and Referral Society</li> <li>· Cross Cancer Institute</li> <li>· Edmonton Chamber of Voluntary Organizations</li> <li>· E4C</li> <li>· Edmonton Mennonite Centre for Newcomers</li> <li>· Elizabeth Fry Society of Calgary</li> <li>· Family &amp; Community Support Services</li> <li>· Family School Wellness, Chinook's Edge School Div. 73</li> <li>· Family Services of Central Alberta</li> <li>· Gateway Association for Community Living</li> <li>· Golden Circle Senior Residential Centre</li> <li>· Human Resources Council for the Voluntary/Non-profit Sector</li> <li>· John Howard Society</li> <li>· Kids Help Phone</li> <li>· Mountain Standard Time Festival</li> <li>· NeighbourLink Parkland</li> <li>· Private Career Development Contractors</li> <li>· Public Interest Alberta</li> <li>· SMART Technologies Inc.</li> </ul>
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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Society for Assisted Cooperative Recovery</li> <li>· from Eating Disorders</li> <li>· The Calgary Foundation</li> <li>· The Muttart Foundation</li> <li>· The Support Network</li> <li>· Transitions Rehabilitation Association of St. Albert and District</li> <li>· United Way of Calgary and Area</li> <li>· United Way of the Alberta Capital Region</li> <li>· University of Calgary</li> <li>· Vibrant Communities Calgary</li> <li>· Vocational &amp; Rehabilitation Research Institute</li> <li>· Volunteer Alberta</li> <li>· Volunteer Edmonton</li> <li>· YMCA of Edmonton</li> <li>· Youth and Volunteer Centre</li> <li>· Agrium Inc.</li> <li>· Alberta Building Trades Council of Unions</li> <li>· Alberta Federation of Labour</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Manufacturers' Association</li> <li>· Alta Steel</li> <li>· ATCO Structures Inc.</li> <li>· BioAlberta</li> <li>· Blue Falls Manufacturing Ltd.</li> <li>· Calgary Economic Development</li> <li>· Canadian Manufacturers and Exporters – Alberta</li> <li>· Canadian Plastics Industry Association</li> <li>· Cessco Fabricating and Engineering Limited</li> <li>· Christian Labour Association of Canada</li> <li>· Dynamic Source Manufacturing</li> <li>· Edmonton Economic Development Corporation</li> <li>· Fiborex Glass Corporation</li> <li>· Forest Industry Suppliers and Logging Association</li> <li>· G.E. Harris Energy Systems Canada Inc.</li> <li>· Gienow Windows &amp; Doors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Standen's Limited</li> <li>· Tesco Corporation</li> <li>· Vantage Food Inc.</li> <li>· Waiward Steel Fabricators Ltd.</li> <li>· Westbridge PET Containers</li> <li>· Western Archrib</li> <li>· XL Foods Inc.</li> </ul>
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### Service

1. Application of successful tourism models related to low-impact river and wilderness-based tourism
3. Development of a vibrant arts and entertainment culture
4. Encouragement of service industry and nightlife
5. Development of riverside businesses (coffee shops, cafes, bookstores, restaurants)

### Non-Profit and Voluntary

The non-profit and voluntary sector provides opportunities for entrepreneurship, specifically social entrepreneurship, where an entrepreneurial spirit can be fostered, public benefit can accrue, and social capital can be built, all without the conventional incentive of profitable gains. For example, in 2000 Statistics Canada noted that the non-profit's share of Canada's GDP was "higher than either the agriculture or motor vehicle manufacturing industries, and equivalent to the Canadian accommodation and food services industry" with Alberta's non-profit sector generating a total revenue of \$9 billion in 2003.<sup>52</sup> The sector can contribute to economic development by providing opportunities for employment, especially for women, seniors, and youth, as well as volunteer opportunities that lend to overall community growth. While there are many challenges to the sector, most notably a

reliance on public and private funding, which have been especially drained since the global economic downturn in 2008, the sector should still be considered as part of the economies of Hinton and Grande Cache, and recognized as an area of entrepreneurial opportunity.

#### 4. What other forms of entrepreneurial opportunities for innovation and social enterprise exist for both communities?

There are four main areas of focus resulting from the review of literature on how to enter the global economy, increase entrepreneurship, develop businesses, and diversify the economies in Hinton and Grande Cache:

- a. International frameworks, policy guidelines, programs, and training which can be applied to municipalities in Alberta
  - i. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, which has outlined policies that different levels of government can undertake to promote local business development, for example, support of start-ups, entrepreneurship education, and management training programs.
  - ii. The UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), specifically the EMPRETEC program, which focuses on individual competencies and training in cultivating entrepreneurship, can be used as a model for developing workshops and training.
  - iii. The World Bank Group's subsidiary International Finance Corporation (IFC) has produced a free, interactive SME Toolkit that can be used to develop training.
  - iv. World Bank Doing Business reports, which focus on the challenges faced by local entrepreneurs and how local governments can help to ease the burdens of starting a business, can be used as a model for easing constraints on SME development.
  
- b. Local government strategies
  - i. So far, we have examined some of the economic development trends in Grande Cache, company profiles in Grande Cache, community diversification strategies in Hinton, and a case study of Lethbridge's experience with a Taiwanese pork-processing plant.
  - ii. We have found that the Town of Hinton has devised planning that seeks to develop Hinton as an Educational Hub. Although vital funding for this project has been declined at this time, it is still important to follow this train of thinking in terms of Hinton's municipal development.
  - iii. We have also found, through the example of Lethbridge, that it is important for local governments to take a two pronged approach when seeking to enter the global economy: 1) a balance between managing the different interests of the citizenry, and helping

businesses run more efficiently and at a higher profit; and 2) facilitating regional partnerships for economic development.

c. Federal economic development projections

- i. The National Energy Board projects that energy supplies will grow to record levels, domestic energy demand growth will slow, however emerging markets provide great opportunity for export.
- ii. Here, we have been looking at economic development from a more federal perspective. The crux of this research is that Alberta's oil sands provide great opportunity for Canada to become a net energy exporter and, in relation to this project, surrounding municipalities in Alberta should be able to benefit in an environmentally and economically sustainable way.

d. Knowledge-based economies, Creative Cities, and the Creative Class: what can we add here?

One of the main goals of Hinton's Community Diversification Plan is to solidify the demographics by creating a community and culture that attracts the right mix of people that will promote economic growth. Included in this is the development of programs and support systems to attract young families and immigrants who could lend to an entrepreneurial culture in Hinton. A number of questions emerge:

- a) How are knowledge-based economies developed and sustained?
- b) Are there examples of rural knowledge based economies? What social and community attractors are key? Will these attractors mesh with the existing culture of the communities?
- c) How can the resource-based knowledge that individuals have gained over time be leveraged for the transition to sustainability knowledge based economy?

Here, we have been reading Richard Florida's *The Rise of the Creative Class* in order to understand the changes in modern, industrialized economies around notions of work, leisure and home. Specifically, these ideas can provide insight into how Hinton and Grande Cache can attract the right mix of individuals who can help develop each municipality as a Creative City (Town).

- For example, in his chapter on the Creative Ethos, Florida notes that there are four characteristics that encourage creativity: “domain activity, intellectual receptiveness, ethnic diversity, [and] political openness.”<sup>53</sup>
- Noting the importance of a systemic approach, Florida suggests that “the Creative Economy is undergirded by new sets of

institutions that have emerged to [support the production and transmission of other ideas]. Taken together, they make up what [he calls] the ‘social structure of creativity,’ comprising (1) new systems for technological creativity and entrepreneurship, (2) new and more effective models for producing goods and services, and (3) a broad social, cultural and geographic milieu conducive to creativity of all sorts.”<sup>54</sup>

- Offering a definition, Florida states that “the Creative Class consists of people who add economic value through their creativity. It thus includes a great many knowledge workers, symbolic analysts and professional and technical workers, but emphasizes their true role in the economy...And it is increasingly clear...that while the members of the Creative Class do not yet see themselves as a unique social grouping, they actually share many similar tastes, desires and preferences.”<sup>55</sup>
- Florida notes 2 categories:
  - Super Creative Core, consisting of scientists and engineers, university professors, poets and novelists, artists, entertainers, actors, designers and architects, as well as the thought leadership of modern society: non-fiction writers, editors, cultural figures, think-tank researchers, analysts and other opinion-makers.
  - Creative Professionals, who work in a wide range of creative industries such as high-tech sectors, financial services, the legal and health care professions and business management – with each of these requiring a high-degree of formal education and human capital<sup>56</sup>
- The Creative Class includes 38.3 million Americans, which is about 30 per cent of the U.S. workforce.
- 1900 – 10 per cent of the workforce
- 1970s-80s – 20 per cent
- 1991 – 25 per cent
- 1999 – 30 per cent<sup>57</sup>
- Creative Class values: individuality, meritocracy, and diversity and openness.
- In terms of employment, the Creative Class wants three things: a challenging job, a flexible workplace, and job stability.<sup>58</sup>
- According to Florida’s field research and statistical surveys, the Creative Class values the following job factors and workplace attributes (not ranked):
  - Challenge and Responsibility
  - Flexibility

- A stable work environment and a relatively secure job
  - Compensation
  - Professional development
  - Peer recognition
  - Stimulating colleagues and managers
  - Exciting job content
  - Organizational culture
  - Location and community
- For the purposes of this review, I will focus on the “Location and Community” aspect of Florida’s research:
- Creative workers have noted that location and community involvement are vitally important to their job search, stating that “they need to live in places that offer stimulating, creative environments.”<sup>59</sup>
  - Creative workers also “use location as their primary criterion in a proactive sense: They will pick a place they want to live, then focus their job search there.”<sup>60</sup>
  - “In a 2001 survey of U.S. workers by the public opinion firm Zogby International, nine out of ten reported quality of life (i.e. in the surrounding community) as being important in their decisions to take their current jobs.”<sup>61</sup>
  - In a 2001 survey of people looking to switch jobs, the Wall Street Journal reported that location was second only to salary as their prime motivation.<sup>62</sup>
  - Florida also notes that Creative workers also spend their free time on community projects, “[seeking] direct involvement on their own terms, in part because it is part of their creative identity...People use their extracurricular activities as a way of cultivating their interests, values and identities both in the workplace and in society more generally. In [his] view, they reflect a broader process of self-actualization and an attempt to use work as a platform for pushing forward an overall creative identity.”<sup>63</sup>
- Jumping forward to his section on “Community”, Florida notes that “the Creative Class is moving away from traditional corporate communities”<sup>64</sup> , moving towards the “economic winners” that have high concentrations of creative economic outcomes, in the form of innovations and high-tech industry growth. They also show strong signs of overall regional vitality, such as increases in regional employment and population.”<sup>65</sup>
- Creative centers are “succeeding largely because creative people want to live there. The companies then follow the people – or in

many cases, are started by them. Creative centers provide the integrated eco-system or habitat where all forms of creativity – artistic and cultural, technological and economic – can take root and flourish.”<sup>66</sup>

- “What [Creative Class people] look for in communities are abundant high-quality amenities and experiences, an openness to diversity of all kinds, and above all else the opportunity to validate their identities as creative people.”<sup>67</sup>
- This information is useful, especially considering the existing and potential recreation-based activities that Hinton, Grande Cache and their surroundings can provide.
- Florida goes on to debunk the myth that in the internet age, geography no longer matters. “Not only do people remain highly concentrated, but the economy itself – high-tech, knowledge-based and creative content industries that drive so much of economic growth – continues to concentrate in specific places...Place and community are more critical factors than ever before. And a good deal of the reason for this is that rather than inhabiting an abstract “space”...the economy itself increasingly takes form around real concentrations of people in real places.”<sup>68</sup>
- Discussing the notion of clustering, Florida notes that “companies cluster in order to draw from concentrations of talented people who power innovation and economic growth. The ability to rapidly mobilize talent from such concentrations is a tremendous source of competitive advantage for companies in the time-driven Creative Economy.”<sup>69</sup>
- Florida discusses Quality of Place as having three dimensions:
  - “What’s there: the combination of the built environment and the natural environment; a proper setting for pursuit of creative lives.
  - Who’s there: the diverse kinds of people, interacting and providing cues that anyone can plug into and make a life in that community.
  - What’s going on: the vibrancy of street life, café cultures, arts, music and people engaging in outdoor activities – altogether a lot of active, exciting, creative endeavours.”<sup>70</sup>



## Affordable Housing

## Affordable Housing

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Dr. Michael Gismondi

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### **Context: Issues, Concepts and Debates in Rural Affordable Housing**

This literature survey reviews a wide range of sources of potential relevance to affordable housing in rural Canada. Its first section provides an overview of the context of providing affordable housing in rural communities, identifying key themes; barriers and opportunities; and key terms. This context shares similarities with urban communities, and indeed, other communities worldwide. But a community's experience with affordable housing is tied to its location, context and the competing interests within the community, underscoring the differences between rural and urban. This observation is true even when rural communities are only compared to other rural communities, pointing to the complexity of the issue.

The second section provides a discussion of three issues of particular relevance to rural communities in western Canada that are grappling with providing affordable housing: First Nations and Metis; amenity migration; and multiculturalism. The third section provides tools that can be used to achieve affordable housing and the final section comprises an annotated bibliography of relevant literature.

Most sources focus on Canada, the US and the UK; however there are sources from Asia, Africa and Europe as well. Some of these international examples turned out to be of limited relevance to the Canadian context, as their focus is on the specificities of policy environments other contextual factors that are markedly different from—and inapplicable to—North America (Ali, 2006; Adarkwa and Oppong, 2007; Cassel and Hoffman, 2009; Couch et al., 2009; de Kam, 1998; Dumreicher, 2008; Curry and Owen, 2009; Heins, 2004; Josodipoero, 2003; Lee, 2000; Long et al., 2008; Mahadeva, 2005; Nesslein, 2003; Gurran and Whitehead, 2011; Wang et al., 2011). In other cases, numerous US-based studies were of limited applicability due to their focus on federal and state policies or legal precedents that are not relevant to the Canadian context (Downs, 1991; Harsch et al., 2009; Hirsch, 2005; Hoch, 2007; Knaap, 1990; Landis and McClure, 2010; Payne, 2006; Peterson, 2011; Sale, 2009; Scally, 2009; Shoked, 2011; Hoffman, 2000; Ziebarth and Meeks, 1998).

Nonetheless, many of these sources point to the fact that there are numerous similarities and shared problems across national and continental divides. For example, although the UK and the US differ from Canada in terms of its history, policy context, demography, and numerous other factors, many regions in the UK and the US (like Canada) are facing a housing crisis, and this crisis is particularly acute in the area of affordable housing (Crook et al., 2006; Bogdon, 1997; Shaw and Ingram, 1990; Warson, 2001). Many regions are grappling with socioeconomic and racial segregation and gentrification (Dwyer, 2009; David, 2009; Phillips, 2004), inadequate and dilapidated housing (Morton et al, 2004), and the predominance of

single-family housing that does not meet the needs of existing residents (Jones and Tonts, 2003). In this context, much can be learned from other regions that are responding to these problems, although the particularities of political, economic and geographical contexts remain important (Golant, 2002; Kintrea et al., 1993).

Another shared issue is the cuts to federal funding of affordable housing in North America, and the concomitant shift of responsibility for affordable housing provision from the federal level to state/provincial, regional, and local levels of government (Katz et al 2003; Sazama, 2000). Canadian historians have pointed out, however, that Canadian federal housing policy has never been particularly focused on social welfare, geared instead primarily to “market welfare” or ensuring continual production of housing, rather than its affordability to marginalized groups (Hulchanski, 1986). Economists have often assumed that producing more housing in general will lead to more affordable housing, since increased production tends to lower demand and reduce prices; however, empirical study of the affordable housing submarket reveals that it is not closely integrated with the general housing market (Somerville, 2001). This means that an increase in overall housing supply will not necessarily increase the supply of affordable housing. Similarly, simply creating more rental housing may not address the need for more affordable housing, especially for very low-income individuals and households (Katz, 2003).

Subsidies to affordable housing—whether federal or local—have been an important tool for creating housing affordability. They have been associated with reductions in violent crime and dependence on welfare (Schwartz, 1999). Federal housing funding in the US, the UK and Canada has significantly diminished over the past two decades, and especially in the wake of the 2008 economic crisis (Schwartz, 2011a; Wehrwein and Pollack, 2005). This decline has led many researchers and analysts to shift their focus from federal-level subsidy and policy towards more local and regional decision-making, policymaking and planning, which is the focus of this study, although some of the literature reviewed in this study remains focused on attempts to recover federal subsidy programs, overhaul federal policy, or entrench housing as a right (Hartman, 1998; Mallach, 2011; Webster, 2005).

Other articles are focused on policies relevant to affordable housing, but their methodological approach limits their applicability to this study. In particular, studies with a focus on “predictive” variables tend to limit their analysis to the likelihood of policy adoption (and the variables that affect it), and provide little insight into the policies themselves, their effectiveness, or their relation to affordable housing or the broader context of urban-rural policy and planning (Auh and Cook, 2009; Meltzer and Schuetz, 2010; Pagano and Bowman 1992; de la Cruz 2009; Scally, 2012). The relationship between policy, planning, and housing affordability is a complex puzzle, and interventions, whatever their intentions, can increase or decrease housing affordability (Knaap, 1998).

### **Conceptual Issues with Rurality**

Numerous authors emphasize the complexity of rural areas, criticizing approaches that treat rural housing as a monolithic problem (Halseth and Rosenberg, 1995; Rawding, 2007). Rural areas are often conceptualized in purely quantitative terms (as population density, for example), which misses the differences in access and

resource allocation in these communities (Steven, 2011). Others have criticized the dichotomy of urban and rural, pointing to its obfuscation of mutual influences, connections, and overlapping trends and practices (Lichter and Brown, 2011; Qadeer, 2000; Lang and Dhavale, 2005). The specificity of rurality also has important implications for policy and planning, as analysts have argued that housing policy for rural areas “must give full regard to the social, economic and cultural attributes of rural life and not just the criteria of environment and landscape” (Scott and Murray, 2009). More specifically, rural communities in Canada face specific barriers to increasing affordable housing due to limited rental housing, population decline in some communities, and an emphasis on single-family detached units and homeownership. These problems disproportionately affect youth, single parents and the elderly seeking affordable housing (Slaunwhite, 2009). Moreover, multifamily housing residents have different needs and characteristics than renters or owners of single-family detached homes (Goodman, 1999).

### **Localism, Regionalism, Nationalism**

Numerous articles point to the need to create policies and community development strategies that are responsive to local needs and attentive to the particular regions and communities affected by them (Clandenning et al., 2002; Sirmans, 2003). Proponents of community capacity-building argue that participatory processes can be essential tools in mobilizing community support and participation to affect change in affordable housing and other areas (Noya et al., 2009). Some studies thus focus on the capacity of community members to respond to housing problems collectively, pointing to the importance of norms of mutuality, sharing of information, inclusiveness, and a participatory civic structure (Morton et al., 2004; Scott et al., 2011). Others focus more on community economic development, emphasizing market-based strategies as a tool to create collective benefits that address inequalities (Steven, 2010). These community-based strategies sometimes take place at a local level (defined by the boundaries of a municipality) or at a regional level (encompassing multiple municipalities). In an era of population and employment decentralization, some authors have argued that the metropolitan area—not the individual political jurisdiction—represents the appropriate level at which to think about and act on access to affordable housing (Katz, 2009). However, regional planning and policymaking is complex and can be stymied by both higher and lower levels of government (Provo, 2009).

In contrast, others argue that local (or ‘parochial’) interests are precisely the problem to be overcome in introducing progressive planning legislation and meeting national housing goals (Hoffman, 2009). Others have argued that perceived elements of parochialism and NIMBYism are often more nuanced than they appear, and often point to the need for participatory approaches that engage local citizens in planning and policy decisions (Gallent and Robinson, 2011). The different conclusions in these arguments can be explained at least in part by their methodological and conceptual focus. Whereas localist arguments are often the product of sustained engagement with community members, nationalist arguments tend to be more policy-oriented and can be prone to perceive local interests as (at best) passive recipients of national policymaking and (at worst) parochial opponents that present obstacles to progressive national housing policy.

Another factor is the historic relation between federal policy designed to encourage affordable housing, and local policy designed to discourage it and attract single-family housing, especially in the United States (Katz et al 2003). Although federal policies have encouraged affordable housing, affordable housing policies are often pursued as a strategy to achieve other purposes, such as creating jobs during the Depression, quelling dissent in the 1960s, and stimulating the economy in today's recession (Edson et al., 2011). Furthermore, the contemporary context has shifted, with the decline of federal-level affordable housing policy, and the increasing local interest in promoting affordable housing (rather than discouraging it) through land use planning and regulation. Some argue that subsidies will continue to form a crucial component of housing policy, arguing that principled arguments against direct subsidy tend to ignore real-world complexity (Ball, 2000). Analysts of very low-income residents have argued that continuing subsidies are the only way to meet the needs of this demographic (Lloyd, 2009). Others have suggested that the major barrier to affordable housing development is the complex array of stakeholders that often end up in adversarial relationships, pointing to the need for more meaningful processes of negotiation and collaboration (Field, 1997). In other contexts, these relationships are more cooperative, with collaboration between planners, developers and policymakers (Tewdwr-Jones et al., 1998).

### **Key Barriers and Opportunities**

In a report authored for the Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC), David Bruce (2003) identifies some key barriers and opportunities for affordable housing in rural areas.

Barriers to rural affordable housing include:

- High building costs
- Not In My Backyard mentality (NIMBYism)
- Limited economic options, economic uncertainty, and lack of viable housing markets
- Limited economic return on rental housing
- Lack of community service infrastructure
- Lack of community leadership
- Ineffective or counterproductive public policy and regulations

Opportunities for rural affordable housing include:

- Introducing new municipal planning, zoning, and development practices
- Creating proactive community leadership
- Converting/renovating buildings to create affordable housing
- Responding to market demand from seniors
- Integrating assisted housing for seniors, disabled people and others
- Embracing manufactured housing

## Seniors housing

Seniors housing comes with its own complexities and there are often regulations in place that impede the development of housing appropriate to the needs of housing (Weeks and LeBlanc 2010). In a study of seniors housing, Rosenthal (2009) identifies the following obstacles: zoning and subdivision ordinances that restrict the types of housing that can be built; limits on multifamily structures or manufactured housing; minimum setbacks, square-footages and lot sizes, and maximum floor-area ratios; controls on additions of accessory dwelling units (secondary suites); treatment of assisted-living operations as commercial rather than residential; and excessive parking requirements ignoring lower ownership and usage rates by seniors. Most of the regulations identified by Rosenthal are part of exclusionary zoning regimes, designed to encourage single family detached housing, and discourage other, higher-density housing forms that are more accessible to low-income populations and seniors.

## Employment

One study suggests that the most important factors affecting the need for affordable housing in Canada are employment levels and sources of household income (Skaburskis, 2004). Others argue that enabling low-income families to live closer to employment centers (and stronger schools) in the regional economy not only will benefit those families and their children, but will also help reduce commute times, meet employer needs for workers and ameliorate other negative consequences associated with current metropolitan growth patterns. (Katz et al., 2003; xii). Employee housing can be particularly important for rural areas, where it can be difficult for job-seekers to find affordable housing and (for the same reason) difficult for employers to recruit and retain employees. Joel Derbyshire discusses an innovative example of employee housing in which a bakery worked closely with a housing association to create affordable housing, training and development programs and other community-based initiatives (Derbyshire, 2006). The issues of employee housing can be particularly acute in the case of migrant labourers, especially in the agricultural sector, where employees are often extremely marginalized and live in overcrowded, substandard conditions (Ziebarth, 2006). One study focuses on the development of farmworker housing to address these problems, and finds that the provision of safe and affordable housing for farmworkers created an important space of belonging for a particularly marginalized population (Nelson, 2007).

## Services

Katz 2003 et al argue that policies designed to raise incomes (or decrease costs) for low-income individuals and families is a neglected area of housing policy. Whereas most policies focus on increasing the supply of housing, they suggest that policymakers can make housing more affordable by subsidizing the cost of essential services, such as nutrition assistance, healthcare and childcare (xii). The provision of these services is particularly important in assisting those on social assistance (especially women) in transitioning towards work and stable living conditions. A

study of rural women in America revealed that the availability and affordability of housing were significant barriers to transitioning from welfare to work, along with a lack of supportive services such as childcare and transportation (Cook et al., 2002). These services are often lacking in rural areas, and the lack of support services can force people into the shelter system, or out of rural areas altogether (Forchuk et al., 2010). Others have suggested that the concept of homelessness should be broadened in rural areas to include poor people on the edge of homelessness, pointing to the need for social services tailored to rural environments to assist insecurely-housed individuals and families (Fitchen, 1992). Rural areas often use a system of ‘crisis management’ in relation to homelessness, which fails to deal with the underlying factors leading to homelessness, pointing to the importance of localized investigation, especially in rural areas, because so little is known about how to respond to the unique challenges of rural homelessness (Cloke et al., 2001). Criticisms of emergency procedures—in lieu of comprehensive rural development strategies—are a common theme in literature on rural areas (Greer, 2003). It is argued that shelters—while necessary and important—fail to engender social reciprocity and do not address the lack of affordable housing in these communities (Hoch, 2000). In terms of homelessness, one study advocates health promotion and illness-prevention models in rural communities, so that the factors contributing to homelessness can be addressed, and homelessness can be prevented (Forchuck et al., 2010).

### **Homeownership**

Homeownership has been actively promoted in North America (particularly in the US) as a way to incorporate marginalized communities into the economic mainstream while promoting growth and overall economic activity (Bogdon, 1997; Stegman, 1995; Warson, 2001). Others have pointed to homeownership as a determinant in individual well-being and quality of life (Brereton, 2011). Immigrants and minorities are less likely to be homeowners even after controlling for income, and a lack of home buying and credit knowledge is a major barrier to homeownership for all demographics (Sirmans, 2003). Some have called for the promotion of “fiscal literacy” to promote homeownership, arguing that increased ownership will rejuvenate neighbourhoods (Song, 2000). In 2008-2009, the promotion of homeownership as an economic growth strategy backfired, as thousands of low-income households faced foreclosures and the US spent billions to bail out some of its largest financial institutions. Even before this mortgage crisis, housing analysts had pointed to the dangers of low-income homeownership with very little equity and increasing reliance on high-cost mortgage products (Saegert and Benitez, 2005; Stanton, 2009; Stegman, 1991; Stein, 2010).

In this context, Community Land Trusts have been championed as a more stable, community-based, and equitable form of homeownership that preserves affordability (Stein, 2010). There are numerous factors that make CLTs a stable form of affordable housing, but a major factor is their capacity to cure mortgage defaults and avoid foreclosure. For a more detailed discussion of CLTs, see the section in Tools for Planning and Policy.

## Key Terms in Affordable Housing

The following section defines some of the key terms in the literature on affordable housing. Although there are commonly held definitions of numerous concepts related to affordable housing, the meaning of many of these concepts is also deeply contested. This contestation is an important and irreducible part of affordable housing and local politics as policymakers, planners, developers, advocacy groups, non-profits, and other stakeholders attempt to modify and redefine concepts to serve different interests and aims. Elites (such as developers and policymakers) often have much more control over these definitions, and the stakes of this contention can be quite high, as definitions of concepts such as ‘affordability’ or ‘sustainability’ can determine the future of development, regulation, planning and policy (Sturzacker and Shucksmith, 2011). These insights highlight the importance of participatory governance that engages citizens and stakeholders in collective processes and mitigates unequal power relations and exclusions.

**Affordable Housing:** The Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation defines housing affordability as a situation where no more than 30% of gross household income is spent on housing. This standard of approximately 30% is common to virtually all definitions of affordable housing, including rentals and homeownership. A household is considered in core housing need “if they cannot find somewhere to live that is in reasonably good condition and is big enough for their household without spending more than 30% of their income.” The target population for affordable housing providers is generally those individuals earning 80% or less of the area median income (Daniels, 2003). Many non-profit housing providers (and their funders) have a mandate to target individuals and families below the low-income cut-off, as defined by Statistics Canada. Other major funding agencies (such as BC Housing) have similar measures for affordable housing property management (Housing in Greater Vernon, 2010).

### Low-income Cut Off

Many housing non-profit societies target people and families who are under the low-income cut off (defined by Statistics Canada).

Low-income measures, before tax for 2007

	Number of children					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
1 adult	18,178	25,449	30,903	36,356	41,809	47,263
2 adults	25,449	30,903	36,456	41,809	47,263	52,716

[www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/75f0002m/2009002/tbl/tbl-5-eng.htm](http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/75f0002m/2009002/tbl/tbl-5-eng.htm)

BC Housing has a similar standard used by the majority of affordable housing property managers.

Region	Bachelor	1 bedroom	2 bedroom	3 bedroom
Kelowna	\$22,000	\$25,500	\$33,000	\$36,000
Kamloops	\$20,500	\$23,500	\$29,000	\$33,500
<b>Vernon</b>	<b>\$18,500</b>	<b>\$22,500</b>	<b>\$28,000</b>	<b>\$32,000</b>

**Social Housing:** the intervention of public authorities in providing or owning stock, and the existence of allocation procedures. From the perspective of those who occupy the housing, the key characteristic is generally their inability to be otherwise housed appropriately at a decent standard within the private market (Noya et al., 2009).

**Social Residualization:** the effect created by an exodus of people from a neighbourhood or community because it is no longer a desirable place to live, leaving behind a 'social residue' and a population faced with concentrated poverty and stigmatization. (see <http://urbanrim.org.uk/residual.htm>)

**Supply-side Programs:** programs designed to increase the supply of affordable housing. These programs regulate or incentivize the production of housing, or its preservation and maintenance. These include inclusionary zoning and density bonuses, for example.

**Demand-side Programs:** programs designed to make housing more affordable, meaningful and accessible for those who use it (renters and homeowners). These include homebuyer financing programs or rent subsidies, for example.

**Developer Exactions (aka Impact Fees):** fees levied on developments to help offset the costs incurred by municipalities in providing infrastructure and capital costs made necessary by new developments. (Bosselman, 1985). Impact fees were developed in part as a response to 'leapfrogging' – a process in which developers skip over properties to obtain land at a lower price further away from cities or towns, despite the existence of utilities and other infrastructure in the bypassed parcels (Heim, 2001). Like inclusionary zoning, there has been opposition to impact fees on the basis that they impede the production of housing and increase housing prices. However, it is important to keep in mind that these fees are designed to ensure that new developments reflect their true cost in terms of infrastructure so that these costs are not imposed on local governments. Proponents argue that like inclusionary zoning, impact fees are an important tool in creating affordable housing that is not reliant on direct subsidies (Witten, 2003). One study of impact fees found that they increase the price of expensive homes, while their impact on cheaper homes was negligible (Waddell et al., 2004).

**Development Credits Programs:** these programs permit the transfer of development potential from one area to another, creating incentives to preserve certain areas of undeveloped land. The owner of restricted parcels receives the development credit, which may be sold or transferred to another parcel more suitable for development (Kwasniak, 2004).

**Amenities:** pleasurable aspects associated with natural wilderness, agricultural landscapes, historic structures and cultural traditions. Natural amenities refer to characteristics directly associated with land and water. The value of these amenities tends to be driven by aesthetic associations with trees, forests, open space, waterways and other features of the natural landscape. Amenities have been particularly important in rural contexts because they are often key drivers of growth and development (Clendenning et al., 2002).

**Amenity migrants:** those who make locational residence or travel decisions based on the availability of amenities. This demographic creates much of the demand for development in amenity-rich areas.

**Inclusionary Zoning:** refers to the practice of requiring the inclusion of affordable homes in the development or redevelopment of market rate housing or mixed use communities. In most cases, this takes the form of a local ordinance or policy that requires all developments of a certain size (e.g., ten or more units) or all developments that meet certain characteristics (e.g., developments that require a special permit) to include some percentage of affordable housing. (Brunick and Maier, 2010).

**Exclusionary Zoning:** regulatory policies (usually land use and zoning regulations) that require large lots or impose strict limits on density, usually to encourage single-family detached housing. These policies tend to deter affordable housing development and exclude lower-income and minority households (Katz et al., 2003). Historically, the prevalence of exclusionary zoning has tended to reproduce socioeconomic and racial segregation (Rothwell and Massey, 2010). They have also been associated with suburban sprawl and increased environmental degradation (Robert, 2003).

**Density bonus:** many inclusionary zoning policies include “cost off-sets” to help defray the cost of creating affordable housing. These cost offsets often include density bonuses (which allow a developer to build more homes or apartments on a parcel of land than would otherwise be allowed under the base zoning); zoning or design flexibility; parking reductions; fee waivers; an expedited review or approval process; tax breaks; or local, state, or federal subsidies. In many cases, these cost offsets can actually make housing development more profitable than it would have been otherwise (Seyfried, 1991).

**Local Housing Trust Fund:** many programs allow developers to pay a fee in lieu of including affordable housing in the market rate development (or to donate land in lieu of including affordable housing). These fees are then typically deposited into a local housing trust fund and used to help subsidize the creation, preservation or operation of affordable housing in the community.

## 2.0 First Nations and Metis housing; multiculturalism; and amenity migration

### 2.1 First Nations Housing and Metis

The problems of affordable housing in First Nations communities are complex, multifaceted and different from other contexts. First Nations communities are often characterized as a “Third World” in a “First-World” country, and the substandard conditions of First Nations housing is consistent with a more general North-South divide where First Nations communities (particularly in Northern areas) lack funding, adequate and affordable housing, and other necessary services that other communities take for granted (Kendall 2001). Housing adequacy is an important factor that is often ignored by planning, policy, and research that merely quantifies the number of units and fails to take into account problems with these units, such as mould, disrepair, and overcrowding (Optis et al., 2012; Larcombe, 2011). Good quality, affordable housing is an important determinant in community well-being and health (Robson 2008). Policies are often designed and implemented by professionals rooted in southern, urban contexts, which are disconnected from the needs and challenges of northern communities, such as the need for subsidy of housing and its maintenance (Chislett et al., 1987; Bone and Green 1983). Researchers and housing advocates call for site-specific, culturally-relevant housing and policy that take into account local needs and encourage community participation in decision-making, such as housing cooperatives (Tester 2009; Dean and Smoke 2010).

Bone, R. M. & Green, M. B. (1983). Housing assistance and maintenance for the metis in northern Saskatchewan. *Canadian Public Policy*, 9(4), 476-486.

By the late 1950's, the movement of Metis from the land to small settlements in northern Saskatchewan had created a housing crisis. To correct this social problem, the federal and Saskatchewan governments entered into a series of joint agreements to fund public housing programs for poorly-housed low income families in isolated Metis centres in the Saskatchewan north. Ten years after the first agreement was signed (1976), a housing survey was conducted and its results indicated that this program of homeownership had increased the quality and size of dwellings. Key issues/problems: However, this survey also indicated that these same low income owners spent little money on maintenance and this situation accounted for the 'poorer' physical conditions of their dwellings as compared to DNS staff housing. Key findings: The authors argue that inadequate maintenance of these modern dwellings by their Metis owners is primarily related to low family income. The social program solved one problem (poor housing), while creating another problem ('housing poor' Metis, unable to pay housing maintenance costs). One solution is some form of subsidized housing maintenance program which, while more costly in the short run, would minimize the long-run cost to the public purse and ensure an adequate standard of housing in these remote centres. Debates: No debates, paper primarily explored inadequacy of DNS program. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: In some isolated communities, affordable home ownership is not enough, since residents may not have adequate income to pay for upkeep due to chronic

unemployment. Thus, subsidized housing maintenance is required.

Chislett, K. L., Green, M. B. & Bone, R. M. (1987). Housing Mismatch for Metis and Northern Saskatchewan. *The Canadian Geographer*, 31(4), 341-346.

The authors recognize a number of problems with housing in northern Saskatchewan Metis communities: Key issues/problems: very high arrears on the heavily subsidized mortgages, vandalism, abandonments, and rapid deterioration of the newly constructed dwellings. It is the authors' contention that these problems are indicative of housing mismatch and occurred mainly because the original objectives and program design have underrated, and even ignored, important economic and geographic differences that exist between the remote, often isolated, impoverished, and largely Metis communities of northern Saskatchewan and the relatively wealthy, non-native, urban south. Offers analysis of the NDP government's unsuccessful Northern Saskatchewan Housing Program, underscoring the fact that poor communication between government agencies and affordable housing recipients led to confusion around homeowner responsibilities in relation to upkeep and maintenance. Key findings: The DNS Northern Housing Program has not solved the housing problems of northern Saskatchewan because the housing provided was not compatible with the cultural and economic characteristics of the clients. Geographical factors also come into play, because the program did not adequately consider the effects of severe environment, logistical isolation, sparse settlement and the higher costs of living (influenced by distances from services, supplies, educational and employment opportunities, skilled tradesmen, building materials and equipment, etc. The costs of living are so much higher than for southern low-income families, for whom the payment scale was developed, that households in the north have found that spending 25 per cent of their total income on shelter alone is difficult. Debates: No major debate outlined in study, rather the debate is implied due to the paper's overarching critique of the DNS Northern Housing Program. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: Good article that provides a fair assessment of the way in which geographical distance, and urban/rural differences reproduce mismatch between housing policy (southern, urban policymakers) and application (real northern locations).

Deane, L. & Smoke, E. (2010). Designing affordable housing with Cree, Anishinabe, and Metis people. *Canadian Journal of Urban Research*, 19(1), 51.

Three levels of government are investing in the renewal or construction of affordable housing in Manitoba's inner-city areas. Much of this housing is targeted to communities that are predominantly Aboriginal. Key issues/problems: Little consultation has occurred about the underlying cultural assumptions of the design of these homes. This is in spite of the fact that the layout of a home may significantly direct the life ways of a family or affect their relationships to relatives or neighbours. Lack of consultation has proved problematic in some Indigenous communities, whereas in those few cases where consultation has occurred, the emerging designs have been significantly

different from conventional designs. Key findings: This article describes a four-year process of consultation on cultural concepts in the design of buildings intended for Aboriginal families in urban communities in Manitoba. Participatory design activities drew out numerous themes that, if incorporated into buildings, might help Indigenous families retain or recover their cultural values and lifeways. A number of these Indigenous themes have been incorporated in buildings that have already been constructed. The themes relate not just to the decorative features of the buildings but to conceptual assumptions underlying their design. The article concludes with some public policy recommendations. Debates: Article outlines disjointed and fractured experience of aboriginal peoples in Canada as promulgated through residential schooling and other forced assimilation programs; in response, authors emphasize building trust between aboriginal communities and policymakers through participatory design. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: Although supposedly focused on an urban setting, this article reiterates a theme familiar to all settings: policies and social programs tend to be disconnected from the needs and desires of future occupants; see Chislett (1987), Bone (1983) above. This article is relevant in terms of its participatory research model, and policy recommendations listed in the conclusion to create more inclusive decision-making around social housing for aboriginal populations in Canada.

Kendall, J. (2001). Circles of disadvantage: Aboriginal poverty and underdevelopment in Canada. *American Review of Canadian Studies*, 31(1), 43.

Statistics Canada figures for 1996 show the Aboriginal population at 799,010, with Indians comprising the majority of this population, followed by Metis, and then Inuit (Table 1). Key issues/problems: It should be noted, however, that according to Statistics Canada, "there was significant error introduced in the Census because of problems in fully covering the Aboriginal population," which resulted in clear indications of undercoverage (Ark Research Associates 1996, 11). Comparing Aboriginals to other Canadians with respect to life expectancy, percentage of the population under fifteen years of age, fertility, and infant mortality, the paper outlines these key findings: 1) the significantly higher percent of the Aboriginal population under fifteen is an indicator of much higher birth rates; 2) higher infant mortality rates and lower life expectancy among Aboriginals are related to several factors, including lack of access to adequate health care, particularly in remote locations, and high rates of substance abuse and suicide; 3) aboriginal incarceration rates--in provincial jails it is eleven times that of other Canadians, in federal penitentiaries, five times (Quinlan 1999, 73). These figures point to a population experiencing a completely different level of development from that of the majority population, a level of development more closely resembling that of a third-world country. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: given the distinct characteristics of aboriginal populations in Canada (and their often geographically isolated locations), this article is relevant to the degree that it contextualizes the need for a more robust approach to affordable housing for aboriginal populations.

Larcombe, L., Nickerson, P., Singer, M., Robson, R., Dantouze, J., McKay, L., & Orr, P. (2011). Housing conditions in 2 Canadian first nations communities.

International Journal of Circumpolar Health, 70(2), 141-153.

Key issues/problems: Housing conditions were assessed in 2 Canadian First Nations communities. Possible associations with tuberculosis (TB) were explored. Key findings: An association was found between the number of persons in a house and self-reported TB. Improved housing conditions in First Nations communities are indicated to promote and sustain health as well as human and Indigenous rights. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: In-depth account of the problem of overcrowding in First Nations rural housing.

Optis, M., Shaw, K., Stephenson, P., & Wild, P. (2012). Mold growth in on-reserve homes in Canada: The need for research, education, policy and funding. *Journal of Environmental Health*, 74(6), 14.

Key issues/problems: The impact of mold growth in homes located on First Nations reserves in Canada is part of a national housing crisis that has not been adequately studied. Nearly half of the homes on reserves contain mold at levels of contamination associated with high rates of respiratory and other illnesses to residents. Mold thrives due to increased moisture levels in building envelopes and interior spaces. Increased moisture stems from several deficiencies in housing conditions, including structural damage to the building envelope, overcrowding and insufficient use of ventilation systems, and other moisture-control strategies. These deficiencies have developed due to a series of historical and socioeconomic factors, including disenfranchisement from traditional territory, environmentally inappropriate construction, high unemployment rates, lack of home ownership, and insufficient federal funding for on-reserve housing and socioeconomic improvements. Key findings: The successful, long-term reduction of mold growth requires increased activity in several research and policy areas. First, the actual impacts on health need to be studied and associated with comprehensive experimental data on mold growth to understand the unique environmental conditions that permit the germination and growth of toxic mold species. Second, field data documenting the extent of mold growth in on-reserve homes do not exist but are essential in understanding the full extent of the crisis. Third, current government initiatives to educate homeowners in mold remediation and prevention techniques must be long lasting and effective. Finally, and most importantly, the federal government must make a renewed and lasting commitment to improve the socioeconomic conditions on reserves that perpetuate mold growth in homes. Without such improvement, the mold crisis will surely persist and likely worsen. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: In-depth analysis of problem of mold growth in aboriginal homes, its relation to inhabitant health and the lack in adequate research, education, social policy and funding to address the conditions. An update to the problems initially outlined in Chislett (1987), Bone (1983) above.

Robson, R. (2008). Suffering an Excessive Burden: Housing as a Health Determinant in the First Nations Community of Northwestern Ontario. *The Canadian Journal of Native Studies*, 28(1), 71.

On-reserve housing in Canada is, according to the Royal Commission on Aboriginal Peoples “in a bad state.” Key issues/problems: A large portion of the estimated 89,000 on-reserve houses in Canada, are in poor condition, overcrowded, improperly serviced, poorly sited and generally, inappropriate given the culturally based shelter needs of the approximate 423,000 on-reserve residents. In Ontario, where the estimated 19,667 on-reserve houses accommodate a population of approximately 74,676, housing units too are in poor condition. In the treaty 3 area of northwestern Ontario, the twenty-six reserve community's 2,182 housing units are also less than adequate in meeting the shelter needs of the reserve population. Inadequate housing raises the spectre of housing related health concerns. Ranging from tuberculosis to shigellosis right through to mental health issues, inadequate housing suggests that on-reserve housing is, in many ways, a health risk. Key findings: Author emphasis on health risk of current mismatched on-reserve housing, and need to provide adequate living space sensitive to the daily living needs of inhabitants (i.e. work space to 'process the hunt', space to allow family gatherings, and so on). Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: Additional affordable housing units must reflect the crisis in rural First Nations communities as foreseen in Chislett (1987), Bone (1983) above, and as explored in recent articles such as Optis et al (2012) and this one. Good contextual piece that outlines the correlations between housing and community well-being and health.

Tester, F. (2009). Iglutaasaavut (our new homes): Neither "new" nor "ours": Housing challenges of the Nunavut territorial government. *Journal of Canadian Studies*, 43(2), 137.

Key issues/problems: The Government of Nunavut inherited from the Government of the Northwest Territories a long-standing problem affecting nearly every Inuk in the newly minted territory. The housing crisis in the new territory has a long history, dating back to the mid-1950s when Inuit in Frobisher Bay (Iqaluit) were first provided with wood-frame housing. A rapidly growing population, low incomes, the subsequent need for social housing, the cost of providing housing in a demanding physical environment, and ideologically driven biases in relation to housing as a market commodity are all factors that help explain the crisis inherited by the new administration. Serious problems of suitability, adequacy and affordability confronted the Nunavut Housing Corporation, which is also facing a decline to zero over the next 30 years in Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation's contribution to the existing social housing inventory. By August 2000, 1,100 families in Nunavut were waiting for some form of housing assistance. The demand for housing was projected to be 260 homes per year over the next 5-year period. Sixty percent of Nunavummiut live in public housing, 98% of whom are Inuit. Key findings: This essay examines the problems that have confronted the Nunavut Housing Corporation and looks at program and policy initiatives undertaken to address the situation, as called for by the Bathurst Mandate, tabled in October 1999, and establishing principles, goals and objectives for the new government and the Nunavut Housing Corporation. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: The crisis of Inuit housing is closely associated with other considerations, including

capacity, the nature and role of the extended family in Inuit culture, self-reliance and labour, and the relationship between housing form (physical design) and Inuit cultural needs. Again, the need for site-specific, culturally relevant housing policy emerges. Additionally, the article provides argument that a model of co-op housing may be successful—acting as a halfway point between state-owned housing and housing markets—given that cooperation is a cultural trait of Inuit culture.

Wiseman, N. (1982). Planning for remote communities: A case study of housing needs assessment. *Canadian Public Policy*, 8(2), 239-247.

**Key issues/problems:** This study deals with the problem of collecting demographic data and assessing housing needs in remote Northern communities. The specific case dealt with is a shared-cost federal-provincial survey project conducted in isolated Metis communities in northern Manitoba in the mid-1970s. There is a discussion of the problems of employing Southern data-collecting methods in such a setting. An inventory of alternative government sources of demographic and housing data for the communities is compiled and critically analyzed. **Key findings:** In conclusion there is the suggestion that an alternative means of data collection would be to rely on community leaders. There are also observations made about the social and physical impact of government housing programs in the remote, native, North. **Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing:** Not entirely relevant to affordable housing in rural communities, but rather acts as a contextualization of the South/North divide in Canada.

## **2.2 Multiculturalism and Rural Housing**

Historically, zoning regulations have tended to reproduce informal socioeconomic and racial segregation, resulting in an underlying structural racism in housing policy, which tends to encourage single-family detached housing. Taken together, these policies are understood as ‘exclusionary zoning’ because they tend to exclude marginalized populations by making it difficult to develop affordable housing. Immigrants and minorities continue to experience higher levels of unemployment and lack of access to affordable housing, so exclusionary zoning policies disproportionately impact these populations (Grant and Danso 2000). These problems can be particularly pronounced in communities with large populations of seasonal migrant labourers, who often lack access to affordable and appropriate housing (Ziebarth, 2006). These issues can be addressed by creating affordable housing that is catered to the specific needs and situations of migrant labourers and minorities more generally (Nelson 2007; Weeks and LeBlanc 2010).

Grant, M. R. & Danso, R. K. (2000). Access to housing as an adaptive strategy for immigrant groups: Africans in Calgary. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, 32(3), 19. Although Africans have been present in Canada for at least a century and a half, very little is known about them. This may be partly attributed to the tendency for earlier census and immigration data to lump all “Blacks” into one

category, and partly due to the fact that Africa has not traditionally been a source of immigrants to Canada. This paper examines how the residential circumstances of African immigrants to Canada have impacted their adaptation to their new society. Key issues/problems: Analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data reveals that, while a few Africans have managed to fit well into the socioeconomic structure of mainstream society, the majority continue to experience various forms of difficulties, including affordability. Key findings: These difficulties are more pronounced in the housing and employment markets where factors such as discrimination, ethnicity, financial constraints and recency of immigration have combined to disadvantage Africans and deny them access to equal opportunities. For Low-income earners, these problems are more likely to cause additional deprivations and the propensity to experience core housing need. The Study identifies discrimination in the housing market to be the most formidable barrier faced by Black African immigrants in Calgary. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: Relevant to study on rural affordable housing only insofar as the piece's research on housing market discrimination would round out an analysis of housing accessibility among minority groups in Canadian rural regions (which is itself a thinly populated field of study).

Nelson, L. (2007). Farmworker Housing and Spaces Of Belonging In Woodburn, Oregon. *Geographical Review*, 97(4), 520-541.

This article traces the history of efforts to build subsidized farmworker housing in Woodburn, Oregon, during the early 1990s. Key issues/problems: Although the northern Willamette Valley has been dependent on Mexican and Mexican American farmworkers since the 1940s, until the 1980s most of those workers had been migratory and lived in labor camps. Political economic transformations shifted these dynamics, causing an increasing number of farmworkers to settle permanently in towns such as Woodburn. Rising housing costs, in combination with skyrocketing demand for low income housing, led to a housing crisis in the late 1980s. The Farmworker Housing Development Corporation, established in 1991, successfully built two housing projects in Woodburn despite fierce resistance from city leaders and many longtime residents. Key findings: These housing projects not only provided safe and affordable housing for farmworkers but also claimed a space of belonging for a group profoundly marginalized in terms of economics, race and legal status in Oregon and throughout the United States. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: Article reveals the difficulty posed to temporary workers attempting to relocate from labor camps to social housing within towns, where a greater sense of community and belonging could be established and workers could have access to amenities. Conflicts between competing visions of community belonging (the longtime white residents vs. the 'newcomers') underscore the need for rural affordable housing to be sensitive to the ethnic divisions that may run through tighter-knit rural communities.

Weeks, L. E. & LeBlanc, K. (2010). Housing concerns of vulnerable older Canadians. *Canadian Journal on Aging*, 29(3), 333-347.

Key issues/problems: Preparing for the future housing needs of older adults is

imperative in countries with an aging population, but little is known about these issues among vulnerable older adults. Key findings: This study used a qualitative approach to identify key housing concerns in this group. A total of 84 vulnerable older adults including Aboriginal elders, those with various disabilities, and ethnic minorities participated in 10 focus groups. The Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation's (CMHC's) standards of core housing need provided a framework for data analysis, along with the identification of additional key housing themes across and within groups of vulnerable older adults. The results provide insight into preferred housing characteristics, regardless of housing form. Additionally, the results provide insight into how to support vulnerable older adults who choose to remain in their homes and communities and how to help ensure that appropriate housing is developed that meets the needs of this diverse population. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: Underscores the need to engage in consultation and participatory social policy design in relation to aging adults (specific data on ethnic minorities and aboriginals is pertinent to multicultural housing needs assessment).

Ziebarth, A., (2006). Housing seasonal workers for the Minnesota processed vegetable industry. *Rural Sociology*, 71(2), 335-357.

Key issues/problems: Very little information is available regarding housing for Minnesota's migrant workers. It is estimated that approximately 20,000 people migrate to Minnesota each summer to work in the production and processing of green peas and sweet corn. Obtaining adequate, affordable short term housing for these workers and dependents accompanying them is a challenge. Many migrants end up living in overcrowded, substandard conditions that place financial burdens on their limited incomes. Key findings: Using secondary sources, including a survey of 282 migrant workers, government documents, and media reports, this study provides a review of migrant workers' housing in four Minnesota counties where vegetable production and processing occur. Relevancy to Rural Affordable Housing: by utilizing the work of D. Mitchell, the paper illustrates the way in which poor housing conditions that seasonal workers live within, reinforce negative and racist stereotypes and serve to advantage the local elite and policy makers, who then erect barriers to the establishment of better social housing in their communities. Again, the need to open lines of communication and trust between affected groups and policymakers is necessary to create a more inclusive social policy design process

### **2.3 Amenity Migration**

#### Amenities, Growth and its Consequences

Rural areas are often caught between extremes of rapid depopulation and economic decline, or rapid growth and development. Both scenarios present important challenges for communities and their capacity to create and maintain affordable housing. Most rural areas are increasingly less self-sufficient, with implications for economic viability (Powe and Hart, 2008). In hot markets, where population is growing rapidly and housing is in short supply, producing new affordable units may be a top priority. But in markets where the overall demand for housing is weak and

vacancy rates are high, new units may not be needed; instead, poor households may need assistance in paying for the housing that is already available. (Katz et al 2003)

Many rural regions are rapidly growing through the phenomenon of “amenity-led development,” through which people migrate and settle to regions based on their environmental characteristics, natural resources and rural lifestyle. Amenity-led development brings unique challenges and can lead to rapid increases in housing, and a crisis of housing affordability in the regions affected by it (Clandenning et al., 2002). In rural areas, studies have shown that environmental amenities are major attractors of growth and demand for affordable housing (Cho et al 2005). In these amenity-rich regions, it is particularly important to avoid generalizations that ignore the unique features of different geographical contexts, which can have profound effects on the rate and nature of growth (Halseth and Rosenberg 1995). These areas often lack planning resources and do not have regulations in place to limit and shape growth and development (Clandenning et al., 2002). This often leads to situations where piece-meal development proposals are approved without an overarching strategic plan, which often undermines the character of rural areas and small towns (Neil and Hart 2011).

Amenity-based development (and rural development more generally) also tends to generate real and perceived tensions between environmental and social objectives (Satsangi and Dunmore, 2003). Although there are important tensions between ecological preservation and affordable housing development, scholars have pointed out that these tensions often have more to do with the ways in which policies are framed and implemented, rather than any irreducible tension between environmental and social agendas (Satsangi, 2009). There are shared responses to these problems by municipalities and governments across international contexts in the literature reviewed in this study; however, these conversations often lack a common language. For instance, Crook et al (2006) analyze a policy in the UK called S. 106, which is similar to the North American frameworks of density bonuses or inclusionary zoning, discussed later. Similarly, researchers have called for comprehensive strategies to address the challenges of amenity-led development, including policies and planning for affordable housing, natural resource management, transportation, and support services (Clandenning et al., 2002; Green and Marcouiller, 2000; Hammer et al, 2009). The UK faces similar problems and researchers have called for a strategic approach that increases land allocations and works with community groups such as Community Land Trusts to create affordable housing in perpetuity (Gallent, 2009). In North America, many of these approaches are discussed under the umbrella of “Smart Growth,” a form of development that is responsive to the need to bring together social and environmental objectives, emphasizing compact development, mixed-use and mixed-income neighbourhoods and the creation of jobs near housing and transportation (Talbert and Costa 2003; Goodman 1999; Curran and Wake 2008).

Even in towns experiencing rapid growth in economic activity and development, there are often pockets of poverty, social isolation and exclusion. Location has been found to be the most significant factor in predicting housing outcomes, with important effects on the likelihood of homeownership and the quality of housing (Latimer and Woldoff, 2010). High-poverty neighbourhoods can adversely affect the well-being of families, not simply because of poverty itself, but because

these neighbourhoods often lack good-quality schools, grocery stores, community centers, and other important services (Katz et al 2003). High-poverty areas can thus reinforce socioeconomic and racial segregation (Crook et al 2006).

These problems can be particularly acute in rural areas, where lack of affordable housing is often compounded by a lack of access to important services such as healthcare and public transport, along with hidden costs associated with rural living (Brereton et al, 2011; Zimmerman et al 2008). Lack of affordable housing can also make it difficult for individuals to enter the local labour market, even if employment opportunities exist (Dunn et al 2002). Katz et al call for the expansion of affordable rental housing in healthy neighborhoods (where it is scarcest) in order to promote economic and racial diversity. This provides opportunities for low-income households to live in neighborhoods that offer safety, good schools, quality services and access to employment opportunities (Katz et al 2003). Further discussion of policy, planning, and community-based initiatives related to affordable housing are discussed in the “Tools and Mechanisms” section.

### **3.0 Tools for Affordability: Strategies, Models and Policies**

This section reviews four interconnected sets of tools: (1) Strategies and Concepts; (2) Housing Models; (3) Housing Policy; (4) Key Texts.

1. **Strategies and Concepts:** a review of the concepts of ‘Smart Growth’ and the ‘Housing Continuum’ as practical concepts that have helped local governments, community groups, and housing providers think strategically about affordable housing in their communities. The Housing Continuum helps distinguish between different demographics and housing needs, while Smart Growth helps reveal the ways in which policies, regulations and housing models and complement and reinforce one another.
2. **Housing Models:** a review of different models for the construction, maintenance and governance of affordable housing, including: mobile homes, affordable housing complexes, co-operative housing, cohousing, cluster and cottage housing, non-profit developers, and community land trusts (CLTs). Particular attention is paid to CLTs due to their unique benefits and the complexity of the model.
3. **Housing Policy:** a review of specific policy instruments, zoning regulations, and programmes that can be used by municipalities or regional governments to regulate, require, incentivize, maintain, or preserve affordable housing, including: Density Bonus, Development Credit Programs, Inclusionary Zoning, Comprehensive Development Zoning, Housing Agreements, Secondary Suite Allowance, Historic Preservation, Land Banks, and Housing Funds
4. **Key Texts:** a review of important reports and publications on affordable housing in North America, with particular focus on texts that are relevant to rural affordability in Canada. Much of this report has been developed from these texts, many of represent collaborative efforts between consultants,

lawyers, policymakers, local governments and non-profits. They are excellent resources for municipalities attempting to create and preserve permanent, affordable housing.

## 1. Strategies and Concepts

### Smart Growth

Smart Growth not a single policy or instrument, but rather a broad set of land use approaches that increase the livability and vibrancy of communities (especially in terms of affordability). Smart Growth seeks to create a diversity of housing opportunities for different income levels, life stages and family types, incorporating insights that make neighbourhoods more livable and sustainable (Curran and Wake 2008). Smart Growth BC produced a review of 'Best Practices' for affordable housing in 2007, examining a range of affordable housing approaches used by local governments in 68 jurisdictions in North America, providing insights into the effectiveness of various tools (Wake 2007).

Key features of Smart Growth relevant to housing include:

- Compact neighbourhoods with mixed uses: supporting diversity of housing and mixing commercial and residential zoning allows residents to live, work, and shop in close proximity. This improves quality of life, affordability, traffic congestion, and the sustainability of communities.
- Encourage growth in existing communities, rather than new suburbs or developments. This creates savings by through maximal use of existing infrastructure (sewers, electricity, etc.) and preserves agricultural land and ecosystems from development.
- Use cheaper infrastructure and green buildings. These can significantly lower housing costs and environmental impacts in the long-term, for both municipalities and homeowners.

### The Housing Continuum

The "Housing in Greater Vernon" report (2010) uses the concept of the 'housing continuum' to break down housing into different segments, in order to analyze the different strategies and challenges of creating affordability in each segment (Housing in Greater Vernon 2010). These segments fall into two major categories: 'affordable' and 'attainable'. Wake and Curran (2008) use a similar continuum, distinguishing between government subsidized housing (requiring ongoing subsidies), non-market housing (requiring initial subsidies), and market housing (private rental/ownership housing).

The City of Vernon used this continuum to create a Housing Strategy that would assess the needs of the different demographics along this continuum, address housing gaps and create housing to meet these different needs. Vernon has received provincial funding support and BC Housing grants; however, they emphasize the importance of collaborative partnerships between the City and various non-profit groups, both for successful funding applications, and successful affordable housing

delivery. More broadly, they emphasize the importance of collaboration and consultation between developers (including non-profit developers), non-profit housing providers, financial institutions (such as credit unions), granting agencies and senior levels of government. Facilitating, promoting, and engaging in these collaborative exercises can help municipalities define the most effective strategy for creating affordable/attainable housing in their region.

Affordable housing meets the needs of individuals at or near the low-income cut-off, who cannot afford market rental housing. These are the most well-known forms of alternative housing, encompassing emergency shelters, assisted living and subsidized housing. They all require ongoing subsidies, usually from public funders such as BC Housing.

Attainable housing meets the needs of individuals or households living on moderate incomes that are often priced out of the private housing market (for both rental and ownership). This demographic is often ignored in terms of affordable housing, but it often represents a large segment of the population in many areas. Increasingly, many young professionals with good jobs are still unable to qualify for a mortgage or afford a house at market rates. Creating market and non-market attainable housing can help create housing that meets the needs of this demographic, including dual-ownership models that ensure perpetual affordability. Attainable housing is particularly attractive to many local governments and others attempting to respond to crises of affordability because it can be created with initial grants or funding but no ongoing subsidies.

#### Types of Affordable housing (Emergency, Supported, Low-cost)

Emergency/Transitional housing: including homeless shelters, women's shelters, transition houses, etc. Clients often have very little or no income. These housing services are generally understood as 'emergency' housing; however, they are increasingly used on a long-term basis due to lack of alternatives.

Supported units: apartments or other dwellings with subsidized rents, intended for very low-income individuals, often on fixed incomes (such as seniors, or social assistance recipients) and they include special care services (such as seniors care). Without these supportive services, people are often forced into emergency housing or homelessness, placing more strain on emergency services (which also tend to be more expensive).

Low-cost or below-market units: these are subsidized units for individuals or families below the low-income cut-off, but with more income than social assistance. These are necessary services because many households and individuals are working but remain unable to afford market rents and basic needs.

#### Types of Attainable housing (market rentals, market ownership)

Market and non-market rentals: these are units that require initial subsidies or grants from government agencies or other sources in order to be established, but generally do not require ongoing subsidies. These meet the needs of low-moderate income individuals and households that are priced out of the rental housing market.

Market and non-market ownership: these units require initial subsidies as well, and do not require ongoing subsidies. They meet the needs of individuals or households that cannot afford to buy property on the housing market. These are often 'dual-ownership' or 'resale-restricted,' which limits the resale value of these units and maintains their affordability permanently (see section on Community Land Trusts, below)

## 2. Housing Models

There are numerous alternatives to traditional homeownership and rental housing, which can help create affordable housing that promotes environmental sustainability, participatory governance, socioeconomic diversity, and community cohesion and stability. Organizations such as cooperatives, CLTs, and non-profit housing are not only effective tools for the delivery of affordable housing; analysts have suggested that they are also important for their community-based structures and their reorganization of social life through these structures (Skelton 2000). In some cases, some of the models reviewed are created and maintained by residents themselves, without support from governments or non-profits. Many of these models do not require ongoing subsidies; however, in most cases, housing will be more affordable and successful if it receives support and expertise from local government and non-profits, especially when it is being developed.

### Mobile Homes

A study of mobile homes in rural America revealed that mobile home park residents often have a distinct territory, a fairly homogenous population, and a collective ideology that foster a sense of community (MacTavish and Salamon, 2001). Another study produced similar findings, noting that mobile home owners surveyed were overwhelmingly satisfied with their dwellings, but that mobile homes have their own unique issues, including financing, social stigma, and hidden costs associated with mobile home ownership (Aman and Yarnal, 2010).

### Affordable Housing Complexes

Affordable housing complexes are the most familiar context for affordable housing, encompassing municipally- or non-profit-owned complexes offering rental units to low-income individuals and families. Local, provincial, federal and private funders often subsidize them in order to make rents affordable. Many affordable housing complexes are designed for specific demographics such as aboriginal housing, seniors housing, or single-parent family housing (Daniels 2003). They are typically located in high-density urban areas, and it is suggested that they may be unsuitable for rural areas, at least in their conventional form (Daniels 2003).

## Co-operative Housing

A Housing Co-op is a legal entity in which members purchase shares in the co-op and participate in management and governance of their housing. Members hold regular meetings and share responsibilities for governance and repair costs. In some cases co-op housing may be formed under the umbrella of non-profit organizations, which cater to the given population in need of housing (Daniels 2003). In terms of new housing co-ops, members often participate in decisions involving securing land, financing and construction (Wake 2007).

Housing Co-operatives in Canada have produced almost 100,000 units of housing in Canada and they house almost 1 million people in the U.S., making them the largest Canadian affordable housing provider that does not require ongoing subsidy (Wake 2007). Daniels (2003) suggests that co-ops (and some cohousing) provide the greatest level of autonomy as an alternative to private homeownership, with participatory governance and “a sense of self-sufficiency and pride in the home” (2003, 7).

In a study of limited equity housing cooperatives (LECs), Saegert and Benitez, (2005) found that LECs are an under-used and valuable model for creating housing ownership that improves quality of life for low- and moderate-income households. LECs can also promote economic and racial integration; offer stable, long-term affordable housing in the context of real estate booms; offer an attractive alternative to rental for a substantial portion of renters. Like other forms of limited-equity homeownership, LECs provide many of the same benefits as homeownership without the large asset accumulation associated with market-rate ownership. For an explanation of ‘limited equity’ homeownership, see the section on Community Land Trusts (CLTs) below.

## Cohousing

Cohousing refers to a co-operative in which members purchase a parcel of land collectively, with each member owning their own dwelling on that land. The arrangement also includes co-operatively owned, shared and maintained amenities such as a community house, kitchen and meeting rooms (Daniels 2003). Affordable cohousing can be difficult because lower-income community members rarely have the savings required to invest in cohousing (Daniels 2003).

The participatory planning process and community-focused operations are often very different from affordable housing developers and funders. Differences in social capital and socioeconomic status can be more prevalent in cohousing because of the participatory processes and consensus-based decision making (Garciano, 2011). Furthermore, classism and NIMBYism can exist from the beginning, since many low-income cohousing units are a product of inclusionary zoning regulations, rather than a priority of other cohousing residents. Cohousing units are also more decentralized, customized and relatively small developments, making them more expensive to build.

On the other hand, Garciano (2011) argues that the expertise and efficiency of affordable housing developers could be an asset to cohousing communities, helping

them create more affordable housing and reducing construction costs in general. He also points to the need for cohousing-friendly non-profit developers, and the need to ensure that local zoning and planning regulations do not impede the development of cohousing. These partnerships will be crucial in creating affordable cohousing so that the relatively short timelines of affordable housing construction can be wedded with the relatively long timelines of community-building and participatory planning characteristic of cohousing. Garciano also recommends creating multi-phase cohousing developments, in which several distinct cohousing communities are built, sharing resources, construction management and development-wide amenities.

### Cluster and Cottage Housing

In high-amenity, rural areas, the 'rural aspect' is often a priority for residents, which often translates into zoning regulations that privilege large lot sizes and dissuade compact or high-density housing. These large lot sizes often contribute to the crisis of affordability, as the supply of housing cannot keep pace with demand (Daniels 2003). In contexts where subdivision of large parcels to create smaller lots may run against Official Community Plans, innovative housing projects such as cluster housing may offer an alternative to subdivision, creating 'micro-villages' (Daniels 2003). Innovative policies can complement this approach, regulating the number of total square footage on a lot (rather than the number of dwellings) and thus encouraging smaller, compact dwellings rather than large trophy houses or mansions (Daniels 2003). Cohousing and cooperative housing can be excellent mechanisms for delivery and governance of this type of housing, and they can also be combined with innovative forms of land tenure, such as Community Land Trusts (Daniels 2003). See sections on Cohousing and CLTs for more information about these models.

### Non-profit Developers

Non-profit developers can be an invaluable component of affordable housing production. Whereas private developers require a significant return on investment for every housing development (usually between 15-20%) non-profit developers can develop affordable housing at cost, taking enough to cover their costs. These savings can be passed on to consumers (resulting in more affordable rentals or ownership) or they can be reinvested to create more affordable housing stock. Proponents of cohousing and other innovative housing models have emphasized non-profit developers, which may be less attractive to private developers but can provide immense community benefits (Garciano, 2011).

### Community Land Trusts

Community Land Trusts (CLTs) differ from most other housing models discussed because they are not a form of housing, but rather a form of land tenure. CLTs separate ownership of the land from ownership of the dwellings. They hold the land in perpetuity and lease the dwellings on a long-term basis (usually 99 years). In this way, CLTs are often called 'dual ownership' or 'mutual homeownership'. Lessees can

usually build equity through this arrangement upon selling or transferring the dwelling and the lease. This is why it is known as ‘limited equity’ housing: the key to the CLT form of tenure is that the lease limits the resale value of the dwellings, maintaining them as affordable housing units in perpetuity. CLTs can lease their dwellings (whether apartments, houses, townhouses, etc.) to individuals, housing co-operatives, or non-profit housing providers that provide affordable rental housing. In this way, CLTs (as a form of land tenure) are compatible with many of the housing options discussed above. CLTs have also been found to fuse objectives of social and environmental sustainability, which are often placed in oppositional or adversarial relations in other contexts (Satsangi, 2009).

Barriers to the development and success of CLTs include the perceived complexity of the model and difficulties understanding its terms, along with the complexity of collaboration amongst diverse stakeholders including funders, policymakers, board members and community members (Paterson and Dunn 2009). Many CLTs have been created in close collaboration and partnership with municipalities, often making use of municipal Land Banks or Housing Funds generated from zoning and planning policies. What follows is a brief overview of CLTs as a movement and an outline some of their key features and advantages.

Although the Community Land Trust movement is just beginning to develop in Canada, it is well-established in both the US and the UK. In the US, the CLT movement developed as a response to the plight of poor people in the South, especially African Americans. In 1967, a CLT was created in Georgia as a way to secure access to 5000 acres of agricultural land for African American farmers (Lewis and Conaty, forthcoming). Like other CLTs, it was designed strategically, as a model that would secure permanent affordability, and in this case, it presented an alternative to exploitative sharecropping in the American South.

CLTs have grown significantly over the past two decades in the US and the UK, and there is growing interest by major cities in developing partnerships with CLTs to expand them further. There are a number of key features of CLTs that make them attractive to municipalities grappling with the issue of affordable housing (from Lewis and Conaty, forthcoming):

- (i) CLTs are non-profit, tax-exempt corporations: Their mission is to deliver permanent affordability. They can flexibly provide different forms of housing (to rent or to buy) and can be used to develop additional place-shaping facilities including workspace, gardens, renewable energy and amenities. Land can be acquired in diverse ways through purchase, tax abatements or donation.
- (ii) Dual ownership and dynamic property rights: As already noted CLTs separate the ownership of the land that they remove from the market from the ownership of the buildings. Land is communally owned under a CLT but dwellings can be privately owned.
- (iii) Leased land and housing affordability: Land cannot be sold; it is leased. Each CLT develops a resale formula to keep the housing affordable over the long term. The aim is to differentiate the land the CLT retains for community use in perpetuity from the stipulated equity share an owner-occupant can receive on the sale of the housing units. The CLT exercises

this power through a pre-emptive right to buy when housing units are resold. Each CLT maintains a waiting list for housing and those leaving a CLT have a contractual obligation to sell back their housing to the CLT at a price set by the resale formula in the lease.

- (iv) Open and place-based membership: CLTs operate within a defined geographical area. The size of this sub-regional area in the USA varies from a rural town or rural county to a district of a city or the city itself.
- (v) Tripartite governance: The board of a CLT in the US model is composed of multi-stakeholders. Normally a third of board members are elected to represent those who lease land from the CLT, another third elected as representatives of residents of the CLT's geographical area and a final third are proposed to represent the public interest locally, such as: public sector officials, non-profit services providers and local funders.

CLT Profile: The Champlain Housing Trust (from Lewis and Conaty, forthcoming)

One of the most successful CLTs is the Champlain Housing Trust in Burlington, Vermont. Burlington is a small town (39,000 residents) in Northwest Vermont, and the Champlain Housing Trust Vermont (CHTV) partnered with the municipality to expand its model successfully. Because Burlington is a high-amenity area, many houses in were purchased as second homes for holidays, driving up the cost of housing in the area. Over the past 25 years, it has created 1900 affordable units (60% dual ownership, and 40% rent).

CHTV provides education and advice to its owners and tenants around debt and budgeting, maintenance, and homeownership. They have creating financing packages that include down payment assistance from local, state, and federal government sources, and they offer interest rates 2% lower than the average mortgage. CHTV's 2500 members have helped provide funds for land acquisition, which are used to leverage funds and capital grants from both public and private sources.

### The Appeal of CLTs

CLTs are extremely appealing to policymakers and community members alike because they provide good-quality, affordable housing and homeownership to people who are priced out of the mainstream housing market, but also because they ensure that this affordability is permanent by limiting the resale value of CLT homes. This differs from most other affordable homeownership programs, which provide low-cost homes but have no mechanism to preserve this affordability over time. Recipients of these programs often make windfall profits because they are able to sell their homes for significantly more than they paid for them. In contrast, CLT homeowners may sell or transfer their homes, but the terms of the lease limit their resale value, often linking it to the consumer price index or other measures that insulates prices from housing booms. This makes CLTs an attractive tool for policymakers and local governments, because CLTs effectively recycle homeownership subsidies, ensuring that housing stays affordable even if it is sold multiple times. Many analysts have

argued that this long-term affordability is the defining feature of CLTs, making them an attractive tool for long-term affordability and community stability (Curtin and Bocarsly, 2008).

### **3. Housing Policy**

The tools below encompass policies, zoning and other mechanisms that municipalities can use to create or encourage affordable housing.

#### Density Bonus

A density bonus is a tool that enables local governments to allow developers to build to a higher density (or higher floor area ratio) in exchange for affordable housing units, land, cash-in-lieu, or amenities that benefit the community such as daycare centers, recreational facilities, or community centers. A density bonus system is an incentive-based voluntary contribution rather than a compulsory requirement. They provide developers with additional revenue by allowing increased density, thus creating a built-in incentive that does not require additional tax breaks (Daniels 2003). Over 30 local governments in BC currently use the density bonus provisions of the Local Government Act. (Lumina Services Inc.).

Density bonuses deliver affordable housing at no loss to the developer, and they promote the efficient use of available land (Curran and Wake 2008). Density bonuses are generally associated with large-scale developments, but they can be applied to smaller scales by permitted duplex or triplex construction in areas that are normally zoned for single-family housing. At both larger and smaller scales, density bonuses help to minimize ecological footprint by encouraging more compact housing and reducing sprawl (Daniels 2003). However, the rewards offered to developers may not be sufficient to incentivize affordable housing, and it can be challenging to properly communicate the policy to developers, buyers and sellers (Curran and Wake 2008).

#### Development Credits Programs

These programs permit the transfer of development potential from one area to another, creating incentives to preserve certain areas of undeveloped land. The owner of restricted parcels receives the development credit, which may be sold or transferred to another parcel more suitable for development (Kwasniak, 2004). In a study focused on development credits programs in Canada, Kwasniak suggests that Canadian municipalities may establish forms of development credit programs, albeit with limits due to lack of legislative authority. He distinguishes development credits as a program that enables compensation to landowners, while achieving municipal preservation priorities. These policies appear to be very similar to 'density bonus' policies, discussed above.

## Inclusionary Zoning

Unlike density bonus schemes, inclusionary development requirements are usually mandatory. The differences between the use and the impact of inclusionary zoning and comprehensive development zoning can be difficult to discern, particularly where the development of non-market rental housing projects is involved.

Inclusionary zoning (IZ) is zoning that requires applicants to contribute to affordable housing in order for rezoning proposals to be approved. This can be achieved through different policies, which may include requiring a certain percentage of developed units to be affordable, off-site construction of affordable units, or cash-in-lieu paid into a housing fund. Each of these options has its benefits and drawbacks. For example, cash-in-lieu or off-site affordable housing may be more efficient and mitigate concerns about discouraging development; however, these policies can also reproduce socioeconomic segregation that mixed-income developments would address (Curran and Wake 2008).

Brunick and Maier (2010) advocate IZ to create and preserve affordable housing in mixed income communities and in good locations, along with state and local efforts to generate new public and private investment in affordable housing. They note how inclusionary zoning is capable not only of creating affordable housing, but of creating affordable housing near important amenities in popular neighborhoods that are located near jobs, good schools, transit, and parks. It has also been associated with increased academic success of children in low-income families, as it promotes socioeconomic integration (Schwartz, 2011b). Inclusionary zoning is particularly well-suited to municipalities that cannot afford to provide direct subsidies to affordable housing, due to lack of funding or revenue (Basolo, 2011). It can easily be adapted to local policy goals, housing market conditions, residents' preferences and variations in political environments (Schuetz, et al 2009). Since the 1970s, more than 300 local governments in North America have implemented inclusionary zoning programs, resulting in the production and preservation of hundreds of thousands of affordable units, often without subsidies (Brunick and Maier, 2010). It is estimated that IZ programs in the US have produced over 100,000 units of affordable housing (Talbert et al 2006). An advantage of IZ is that it secures a commitment to build affordable housing at the time of rezoning, before development begins (Curran and Wake 2008).

Others have expressed concerns that inclusionary zoning may have unintended economic consequences that constrain residential development and increase housing prices (Dustin 2009; Meltzer et al 2011). They argue that financial burdens imposed on the private sector should be offset with other economic incentives to encourage development. These perspectives tend to emphasize the profit-oriented perspective of builders and developers, insisting that municipalities must ensure that inclusionary zoning policies continue to create profitable conditions for developers to produce new affordable housing stock (Floryan, 2010).

Others have argued that the impact of inclusionary zoning and other regulatory measures on housing prices is always a question to be investigated empirically, as its impacts will vary depending on local market conditions, and can be avoided or mitigated through policy interventions (Anthony 2003; 2006). Suggested policy interventions aim to minimize impediments and costs to municipalities without

reducing impacting revenues to municipalities, such as: allowing for higher-density developments (or requiring minimum density) to increase housing stock; expediting permitting costs; designing impact fees per development, rather than per unit (so that developers are not penalized for higher-density developments); and creating financing programs for small- and medium-sized developers of affordable housing (Anthony 2006). Some studies have found that IZ policies have no significant impact on housing supply, suggesting that critics have overestimated the adverse effects of the policy (Mukhija et al., 2010). Beyond debates about their overall effectiveness, it is important to note that IZ requires new development (Curran and Wake 2008).

### Comprehensive Development (CD) Zoning

CD zoning refers to areas planned by local governments, usually as mixed-use areas. CD zoning allows for flexibility in density, allowing local governments to negotiate for public amenities beneficial to the community. Over 40 local governments in BC are currently using comprehensive development zoning compared to 23 in 1996, indicating that it is gaining increasing acceptance as a tool for gaining housing and other community benefits from private development. (Linking Affordable Housing Policy to Usage 2001). CD zoning is similar to IZ, but usually CD zoning involves government negotiation with developers for amenities, while inclusionary zoning generally requires these amenities, and they tend to focus on affordable housing, though the difference between requirement and negotiation is often blurred in practice (Linking Affordable Housing Policy to Usage 2001).

### Housing Agreements (including Covenants)

Housing agreements ensure that affordable housing developments remain permanently affordable, by creating covenants that are binding to current and future owners of land. Section 905 of the Local Government Act allows local governments to enter into housing agreements for affordable and special needs housing (Daniels 2003). These agreements may specify the form tenure (i.e. rental or leasehold) or the demographic of the occupant (i.e. seniors), how the units are administered, and their price, often through resale formulae or other regulations on price appreciation (Daniels, 2003). In this way, covenants can be an alternative to dual-ownership models such as CLTs, since both have mechanisms to ensure permanent affordability (leases in the case of CLTs, and covenants in the case of Housing Agreements).

### Secondary Suite Allowance

Allowing secondary suites (basement suites, garden suites, garage apartments, etc.) in a community is one of the easiest and inexpensive strategies to increase affordability in communities (Daniels 2003). Secondary suites have historically been prohibited as part of exclusionary zoning practices that attempted to preserve the model of single-family detached housing. Secondary suites can increase density without increasing development pressure or requiring any additional infrastructure, without changing the character of the built environment. Because of this, and

because they are created and maintained at the discretion of homeowners, they are not beset by public opposition or NIMBYism that confronts many other affordable housing strategies (Daniels 2003). They are the most inexpensive way to create affordable housing stock and they provide a mortgage helper for first-time homebuyers (Curran and Wake 2008).

The voluntary nature of secondary suites makes it impossible to predict how many units of affordable housing will be created (Daniels 2003). A related problem, especially for high-amenity areas, is the prevalence of short-term vacation rentals, which do not increase affordability in the community (and may even contribute to the problem) (Daniels 2003). It is therefore important to differentiate secondary suites from vacation rentals. The cost of renovation and creation of secondary suites may be too high for many homeowners. This problem can be addressed through tax rebates or other economic incentives (Daniels 2003). In rural areas, secondary suites are often permitted in more remote locations far from service areas, rather than near the core of the community, which increases transportation and other costs. They can also increase the need for parking (Curran and Wake 2008).

### Historic Preservation

Historic preservation has been used to preserve historic buildings or other sites. It is sometimes used as a tool to attract tourism; however, it can also be associated with gentrification, as it often raises housing prices and exacerbates problems of housing affordability. At the same time, some have argued that historic preservation and affordable housing are not necessarily at odds, and both objectives can be achieved if they are incorporated into a comprehensive housing and land use strategy (Cohen 1998). Others have shown how historic buildings can be rehabilitated for the purpose of affordable housing, albeit with unique challenges (Ceraso, 1999).

### Land Bank

There is broad variation in the specificities of Land Banks in terms of their administration and application. Generally, land or capital is acquired through taxation, levies, or donation through policies such as inclusionary zoning and density bonuses. Developers may be required to provide a parcel of land outside their development or cash-in-lieu, in exchange for permission to redevelop, subdivide, or rezone land (Daniels 2003). These provisions can then be added to a Land Bank administered by the local government. In this way, a community Land Bank can accumulate lands and/or funds to be used for affordable housing. They can also create opportunities for long-term partnerships between municipalities and non-profit housing providers (Curran and Wake 2008).

### Housing Fund

Similar to Land Banks, Housing Funds are often created to aggregate cash-in-lieu payments accrued through inclusionary zoning or other local government regulations. Funds may also come from property taxes or other levies imposed by the municipality for the purpose of creating affordable housing. Housing Funds can

provide a stable and dependable source of capital (as funding or as financing) for non-profit housing developers, Community Land Trusts, housing co-operatives, or other organizations dedicated to creating or maintaining affordable housing (Curran and Wake 2008).

#### 4. Key Texts

There are a number of important reports and articles on affordable housing that contain policy recommendations, best practices, and detailed analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of many of the tools discussed above. Many of these are written in plain language with policymakers and affordable housing advocates as the intended audience. A brief summary or abstract is provided for each publication below.

Bruce, D. (2003). Housing needs of low-income people living in rural areas. Ottawa: Canadian Mortgage Housing Corporation.

This research report summarizes the housing situations of low-income persons living in rural areas of Canada. It also identifies the barriers to addressing their housing needs, and the opportunities that exist in rural communities and small towns to address these situations. Methodology includes a literature review, a statistical review, and twelve case studies of diverse rural communities across Canada, with informant interviews and document analysis.

Clendenning, J. G., Marcouiller, D. W. & Kedzior, R. (2002). Natural amenity-led development and rural planning. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 16(4), 515-542. This annotated bibliography contains a comprehensive account of research on amenities and amenity-led development. This is particularly relevant to rural areas where natural amenities have driven growth and development. Rural America's economy, culture and landscape have entered a period of sustained and dramatic change. Patterns of land use and the context of development are increasingly driven by natural resource-based amenity values. Planners face a new breed of economic, social, and environmental issues brought about by this rapid change in land use; driven, in large part, by demands for rural residential developments and recreationally-oriented land uses. This annotated bibliography has been compiled as a primer to the academic literature that relates to this phenomenon.

Curran, D., & Wake, T. (2008). Creating market and non-market affordable housing: A smart growth toolkit for BC municipalities. Vancouver, BC: Smart Growth BC.

This report, created for Smart Growth BC, contains a comprehensive overview of policies and practices to encourage the development and preservation of neighbourhoods that are affordable, diverse and sustainable. It focuses on instruments and policies available to local governments, with a detailed analysis of legal and jurisdictional issues, strengths and weaknesses, and case studies and examples of their use.

Curtin, J. F., & Bocarsly, L. (2008). CLTs: A growing trend in affordable homeownership. *Journal of Affordable Housing and Community Development Law*, 17(4), 367-394.

This article contains a comprehensive review of Community Land Trusts (CLTs) in the US, including their historical and political context, common issues facing CLTs, case studies of successful CLTs, and insights into future CLT development.

Daniels, N. (2003). Options for affordable housing new solutions to the housing crisis in the islands trust area. Victoria: Islands Trust.

This paper discusses the need for affordable housing in BC's Islands Trust area, and provides a review of the options that may be available in pursuance of this goal. Although there are some unique features of the Islands Trust area, this report contains important insights for other rural communities, especially high-amenity areas with rising land values and pressures created by tourism and vacationing.

Davis, J. E. & Demitrowitz, A. (2003). Permanently affordable homeownership: Does the community land trust deliver on its promises? A performance evaluation of the CLT model using resale data from the Burlington community land trust. Burlington: Burlington Community Land Trust.

This report contains a detailed analysis of the largest Community Land Trust in the U.S., examining its benefits in comparison to traditional homeownership. Between 1984 and 2002, the Burlington Community Land Trust (BCLT) in Burlington, Vermont developed 259 moderately-priced single-family houses and condominiums. All of these homes were sold to first-time homebuyers subject to durable controls over their occupancy and resale, controls designed to maintain their availability and affordability for low-income households far into the future. The first resale of a BCLT home occurred in 1988. By the end of 2002, the BCLT had overseen the resale of 97 houses and condominiums.

This pool of re-sales provided a rare opportunity to evaluate the performance of a housing model that promises to secure the benefits of homeownership for persons of limited means, while achieving larger social goals like the preservation of affordability, the stewardship of public subsidies, and the stabilization of residential neighborhoods. There had been no systematic evaluation of these claims heretofore, because most of the nation's CLTs are still too new and too small to have had a significant number of resales. The BCLT was an exception. Its sizable portfolio of resale-restricted housing offered enough cases to assess how effective the BCLT had been in actually delivering – and equitably balancing – the individual benefits and the community benefits promised by its innovative model of homeownership.

Housing in Greater Vernon: Analysis and strategies for affordability throughout the housing continuum. (2008).

This report, created by The Social Planning Council of the North Okanagan, provides a detailed strategic analysis on the current state of affordable housing in Vernon, and recommendations for addressing affordable housing across different demographics and income levels. Though some of the specifics of the report are only relevant to Vernon, it provides an excellent example of a coordinated, strategic and systematic analysis undertaken by a community that will help guide affordable housing policy and provision efforts by developers, non-profits, policymakers and planners. The SPCNO provides a coordinating role for community stakeholders to ensure that initiatives are strategic and

coordinated. In order to further assist these groups and continue to build on the momentum, SPCNO focused on the following goals:

- Provide an overview of housing affordability in Greater Vernon
- Make recommendations for stakeholders on addressing gaps within each section of the housing continuum
- Research financial models for partnerships between non-profits, developers, and different levels of government for attainable housing

This report is meant to act as a review of what has been accomplished and provide a framework for where the community can focus next. The following recommendations are based on the strategic plans from various community committees as well as interviews with individual housing organizations. SPCNO will use the information gathered in this report to further assist community stakeholders in their efforts to address affordable and attainable housing issues in Greater Vernon.

Katz, B., Turner, M. A., Brown, K. D., Cunningham, M., & Sawyer, N. (2003). Rethinking local affordable housing strategies: Lessons from 70 years of policy and practice. Washington: The Brookings Institution Center on Urban and Metropolitan Policy; The Urban Institute. This discussion paper—published by the Brookings Institute and the Urban Institute—provides a detailed overview of affordable housing strategies in the United States, with the aim of contributing to the strategies, ideas, and perspective of local-level government and policymakers who aim to increase affordable housing. Efforts to provide affordable housing are occurring at a time of great change. The responsibilities for implementing affordable housing are increasingly shifting to state and local actors. The market and demographic changes in the country are complicating the picture, as sprawling jobs-housing patterns and downtown revivals in some places are creating demand for affordable housing for working families and immigrants in both cities and suburbs. To help state and local leaders design fresh solutions to today's affordable housing challenges, The Brookings Institution Center on Urban and Metropolitan Policy and the Urban Institute joined forces to examine the lessons of seven decades of major policy approaches and what these lessons mean for local reforms. This executive summary of the full report, funded by the John S. and James L. Knight Foundation, finds that past and current efforts to expand rental housing assistance, promote homeownership and increase affordable housing through land use regulations have been uneven in their effectiveness in promoting stable families and healthy communities. The findings suggest guiding principles for local action, with important cautions to avoid pitfalls.

Planning for Housing, 2004: An overview of local government initiatives in British Columbia. (2004). Victoria: Ministry of Community, Aboriginal and Women's Services.

This report, published by the BC Ministry of Community, Aboriginal, and Women's Services, reviews local government affordable housing initiatives in British Columbia, based on a survey of 179 planners and chief administrative officers of local governments. In addition to an overview of strategies for affordable housing, it contains a special focus on small communities, housing for those with special needs, and addressing homelessness.

Wake, T. (2007). Review of best practices in affordable housing. Vancouver: Smart Growth BC.

The purpose of this report is to review the range of affordable housing approaches used by local governments in select jurisdictions in Canada and the U.S. and to provide some preliminary comments about the effectiveness of these tools. This review will provide the backdrop for Smart Growth B.C. to work with other organizations, the development sector and local governments to develop an affordable housing strategy. This report suggests the need for more robust affordable housing initiatives that reflect the learning from approaches undertaken in the U.S. since the 1980's.

The report describes and reviews policies, programs, and a strategy based on their frequency of use by local governments, identifies how each are used in the jurisdictions surveyed and lists them in order of most frequent use. The report reviews a variety of policies, strategies, and models, including: Inclusionary Zoning, Density Bonus, Rent Restriction, Resale Price Restriction, Secondary Suite Policy, Housing Fund, Demolition Policy, Affordable Housing Strategy, Real Estate Escrow Interest Grant, Growth Management Strategy, Public Private Partnership, Housing Needs Assessment, Housing Organization, Land Banking, Waitlist System, Real Estate Transfer Tax Allocation, Co-operative Housing, Cohousing, and Community Land Trusts.





Education: Context and Opportunities

# Education Literature Review: Context and Opportunities

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## Summary

In many towns and cities education and educational opportunities are considered crucial to stabilizing the local population and to support the development of a skilled workforce. However, in many smaller cities providing education and educational opportunities to the local population is limited because of the fewer resources and the smaller population compared to larger urban centres. Recently, the towns of Hinton and Grande Cache have embarked on a journey to support their communities by call for greater education and educational opportunities. Members of those communities identified several issues that reveal some possible explanations for why there are limited educational opportunities.

This report is divided into six sections. The first sections, the introduction, sets out purpose of this report as well as explain how adult education could serve as the perspective under which the issues associated with education and educational opportunities could be understood. The second section is a review of the literature that focuses on some of the issues facing small towns. In this section we also provide a brief overview of the different options associated with post-secondary education in Alberta. In the third section we begin to explore different educational opportunities associated that could support the local communities. In the fourth section we explore the concept of learning centres as an option that could be further explored. In the fifth section of this report we provide a series of recommendations for future work should that become available. The recommendations are:

1. Determine the local needs and priorities associated with educational opportunities that will support Hinton and Grande Cache;
2. Conduct a comprehensive inventory and in-depth analysis of existing educational opportunities in the region;
3. Integrate any new initiatives into existing opportunities; and
4. Explore the feasibility of developing an innovation or learning centre.

In addition to the content described above, ten case studies are provided as examples of the unique and innovative ideas associated with education and educational opportunities. The content and recommendations found in this report is intended to provide an understanding of the broader role that education can have in efforts to strengthen the local economies of Hinton and Grande Cache. The intention is that this report will complement the literature reviews in to strategically situate education and potential educational opportunities within the areas identified by the working groups.

## 1. Introduction

In many towns and cities education and educational opportunities are considered crucial to stabilizing the local population and to support the development of a skilled workforce. However, in many smaller cities providing education and educational opportunities to the local population is limited because of the fewer resources and the smaller population compared to larger urban centres. Recently, the towns of Hinton and Grande Cache have embarked on a journey to support their communities by call for greater education and educational opportunities. Members of those communities identified several issues that reveal some possible explanations for why there are limited educational opportunities. Those issues included:

- The current primary and secondary school systems do not provide sufficient choice for professional parents with respect to programming for their children;
- Both communities lack a physical post-secondary institution, inhibiting on-going education locally;
- There is a perception that young adults do not understand the benefits of higher education as unionized workers can command relatively high incomes without post-secondary education;
- By comparison, governments in other countries are diversifying their resource-based communities by encouraging and demanding that students continue their education;
- Adults have little opportunity to continue their education because of work and family demands;
- There could be educational opportunities that take advantage of the geographic proximity to Jasper National Park; and
- Research and graduate study opportunities relating to resource knowledge could be further developed.

In trying to develop strategies aimed at addressing these and other issues facing these communities, a number of key research questions have been developed with the hope that evidence could be collected in order to deal with those issues. Those questions are:

1. What are the best options for providing more choice in primary and secondary education?
2. What are the best options for these communities to encourage greater participation in higher education?
3. Can the communities provide niche education, perhaps based on emerging sustainability trends in resource industries, and can they capitalize on being near a world heritage national park?

The direction of this report has been guided by the three research questions. This report is divided into six sections. The first sections, the introduction, sets out purpose of this report as well as explain how adult education could serve as the perspective under which the issues associated with education and educational

opportunities could be understood. We conclude the first section with a brief profile of Hinton and Grande Cache. The second section is a review of the literature that focuses on some of the issues facing small towns. In this section we also provide a brief overview of the different options associated with post-secondary education in Alberta. In the third section we begin to explore different educational opportunities associated that could support the local communities. In the fourth section we explore the concept of learning centres as an option that could be further explored. In the fifth section of this report we provide a series of recommendations for future work should that become available. In the sixth and final section of this report we provide ten case studies to serve as examples of where the application and implementation of ideas described in the third and fourth sections.

The content and recommendations found in this report is intended to provide members of the communities with an understanding of the broader role that education can have in supporting efforts to strengthen the local economies of Hinton and Grande Cache. The intention is that this report will complement the additional literature reviews by strategically situating the education and potential educational opportunities with a broader perspective.

### **1.1. Adult Education: Modes of Instruction and Approaches to Learning**

In broad terms Adult Education is the practice of teaching and educating adults. It is the structuring of learning opportunities directed at the interests of adults. Spencer (2006) explains how adult education can be viewed from a variety of perspectives, including: social development, personal development, vocational training, and social movement. Each of these perspectives brings with the specific aim of setting the conditions for adults to learn for a variety of purposes, which can involve retraining. Fundamentally, the adult learns in different ways than children because of her accumulated knowledge and experience. Moreover, adults bring they interests and desires to a learning setting. These components are examples of Andragogy, which can influence the design and implementation of education programs to be more in line with the unique needs of adults.

Adult education can take place in a variety of settings, such as place-based communities or communities of practice. Typically, adult education is concerned with two traditional outcomes that relate to economic or social goals. The first goal sees education as a way to provide training for employment and career advancement through certification and credentialism; the later builds critical, responsive and democratic citizens through lifelong and lifewide learning. The direction of this report is concerned with both types of education and focus primarily on education for the adult learner. As such, a stronger emphasis in the report is placed on post-secondary education, apprenticeships and career training programs for the adult learner.

A community-oriented approach to education must be concerned with the whole lifespan of the learner, or education from birth to death. The context of how education is structured also changes throughout ones' lifetime, for example, from standard classroom instruction in primary school, to learning through sport clubs, or attending book club, by gaining certification in first aid training or through participation in school-to-career, apprenticeship program. As such, this report is

interested in formal, informal and non-formal learning opportunities as they relate to the communities of Grande Cache and Hinton, and as supported by the literature.

### 1.1.1. Explanations of Terminology

The descriptions that follow offer additional information on the modes of instruction and types of learning styles that will frame further discussions within the report on the unique needs and opportunities primarily of, but not limited to adult learners.

**Andragogy:** Refers to a learning approach that views an adult as a learner that is independent and self-directed. An adult learning is one who is internally motivated to learn (e.g. learning for the sake of learning). Learning takes place in informal environments, such that the role of the teacher is viewed more specifically as a resource. This type of learning approach is most concerned with adult learners as it facilitates reflective learning and deep level processing (Herod, 2002)

**Apprenticeships:** Are training programs that often combine classroom lectures with hands on learning at a job site, or at a post-secondary institution. Apprenticeship programs are concerned with the transfer of formal knowledge and skills to a work setting. The coordination of this approach requires a partnership between an educational institute and an employer. Upon the successful completion of an apprenticeship—which may require the completion of a set number of hours logged on site, as well as passing formal tests—learners can receive a certificate. Apprenticeships are coordinated in secondary schools and through post-secondary institutes; provincial training and certification standards are established by Alberta’s industry (i.e. employers and employees).

**Distance Education:** Is a mode of instruction, which time and physical separation occur between student and instructor. Distance education programs are used to ensure students in remote, less populated regions have access to higher education programs. The use of this method has been well documented in Northern Canada, as well as remote Australian communities. The literature highlights both strengths and weaknesses associated with this approach to learning. The strongest criticism of distance learning assumes that it has failed the learner. Meaning, too many distance education courses have been sold to communities without “considering the needs of the student or the environment in which the course was delivered” (McMullen, et al, 2003, p. 7). Still, others believe that distance education is a “second-rate option,” compared to face-to-face delivery (McMullen et al., p. 8).

For some learners, encountering distance learning is a new experience, and can be intimidating at first. Additional barriers participants encounter to distance learning can include a lack of access to, comfort or proficiency with learning technologies and the self-direction that is required by adult learners (Fahy, Steel, & Martin, 2009). Distance learning is best applied to theoretical coursework that does not require hands on-learning. Programs, such as health care provider and welding, often require a hybrid delivery method that includes on-line course work and group discussion, with on-site demonstration (e.g. a hospital or shop).

Strong advocates provide compelling cases in support of distance education. A 2009, study on those views of northern learners in Alberta, regarding postsecondary education (Fahy, Steel, & Martin, 2009) found distance education addressed, “the

roles of employee, parent and community member better than group instruction, and markedly better than training that required learners to relocate to another community” (ix). Distance learning performs best, when it is responsive to the local environment and the needs of its learners. The use of on-site tutors, flexible personal relationships between those involved, and finding ways to make students feel a part of the institution can have, “a tremendous impact on the success and motivation of the student” (McMullen & Rohrbach, 2003, p. 8).

**Experiential Learning:** This approach to learning stems from personal experience or discovery, and involves the student in his/her learning to a much greater degree than in traditional learning environments. Qualities of experiential learning, according to Roger and Freiberg (1994) include: personal involvement, self-initiated, evaluated by learners and pervasive effects on learner, such personal change and growth. Related terms can include hands on, problem based and situated learning.

**Formal Learning:** Is most often associated with a classroom setting in an educational institute (e.g. primary, secondary and post-secondary institutes, and vocational training). It is learning that occurs within an organized and structured context, follows a structured design and upon completion, typically leads to formal recognition (e.g. diploma, certificate).

**In-formal Learning:** Is not structured in way of learning objectives, learning time, and learning support, and typically does not lead to certification. Learning can be planned or occur spontaneously through participation in “daily life activities related to work, family or leisure” (Rubenson, 2007, p. 22).

**Lifelong Learning:** Assumes that learning is part of life, where the integration all types of learning, “create the ability for continuous lifelong development of quality of life” (Heideveld & Cornelissen, 2008, p. 10). The lifelong learner continuously acquires those skills and knowledge that prepares one to respond to the “different roles, situation and, environments that somebody will encounter in the course of a lifetime” (Heideveld & Cornelissen, 2008, p. 10).

**Lifewide Learning:** Refers to where learning takes place throughout ones lifespan. This setting changes through the course of one’s life, and may include school classrooms, church basements or volunteering at the local community gardens.

**Non-formal Learning:** Is structured and may include certification; however an education or training institution does not provide this type of service. Non-formal learning is provided in the workplace, through volunteer groups and non-for-profits, and includes “organizations or services that have been set up to complement formal systems, e.g. arts, music and sports classes” (Rubenson, 2007, p. 22).

**Pedagogy:** This approach is used for dependent learners who are externally motivated (e.g. seeking a reward) and is offered in a formal environment. Here, the role of the teacher is to provide transmittal techniques (e.g. lecture, assigned readings, etc.) as well as planning and assessment. This approach is used in most primary and secondary classroom settings (Herod, 2002).

**Site-Based Learning:** Is learning delivered in its most traditional sense, where students and instructor engage in face-to-face learning, in the same place and at the same time. As learners and places have their own unique history and identities, site based learning is assumed to be the most adaptable mode of instruction able to respond to the specific

needs of the learners, respective of the place they live in. The contribution made by, as well as the physical presence of higher education institutions or informal learning centres, (e.g. community or literacy centre), impart benefits that extend beyond the learner, to the community.

## **1.2. Profiles of the Communities**

The communities of Grande Cache and Hinton address the need for proactive solutions to ensure sustainable growth and development of each respective community. The Economic Development Plan from Grande Cache (Town of Grande Cache, 2008), and the Community Sustainability Plan from Hinton (Mahaffy & Agnew, 2011) offer a starting point to the discussion on future planning, and are referred to extensively in each community profile listed below. From these reports, we learn that Hinton and Grande Cache are not homogenous communities; they are diverse in multiple ways that include those related to size, history, location, population (and demographics) and resource base. Yet, similar to each community, is a need to understand current assets (particularly related to education), and explore ways to expand, and build new opportunities and linkages that promote education and lifelong learning. Appendix A offers a list of some of the communities' current educational assets; however this list is not exhaustive, and will need to be built on.

Before moving further into the report, it is of value to learn more about the communities in more detail. The profile section will briefly examine each community, so that opportunities for education and planning for sustainable futures can be better integrated into their context. After this section, the report will take a broader perspective to explore global and national factors that shape Canada's resource dependent (also referred to as single industry) towns.

### **1.2.1. Grande Cache Community**

The town site of Grande Cache was intentionally established in the early 1970's to accommodate the development of coalmines. Since this time, the town's economy has "been strongly affected by the ever changing markets for natural resources (Town of Grande Cache, 2010a, p. 1). Similarly, the town's population has fluctuated—over its past 43 years, alongside market changes—where the "town's population crested at 4,500 in 1996, and dipped to about 3,000 by 2003" (Harding, 2005). Most recent statistics (2011) place the town's current population at approximately 4,200.

Today, the towns' key employment sectors have expanded into additional resources and services, including oil and gas exploration and development, forestry, coal production, tourism, thermal-electric generation as well as a federal correctional institution. Mining, oil and gas are the largest employers with 19 percent of total jobs, followed by service industry (e.g. accommodation and food services) at 12 percent, and construction at 11 percent (Grande Cache, 2010b). Emerging sectors indicated from the town's Economic Development report (2008) include tourism, and potential growth in green technologies. The former sector is supported by Grande Cache's vast assortment of natural amenities, and near proximity to Jasper. For example, over 32,000 people visited the town's Tourism and Interpretive Centre in 2009—most on route to Jasper National Park. In the latter, the development of

green technologies such as, “wood pellet production, power generation and value added forest products operations” (Grande Cache Plan, 2010a, p. 2) is viewed as possible areas for job expansion, growth in revenue and utilization of local knowledge and skills.

Barriers to development include those of topography (e.g. mountains) past land use planning and current political boundaries (e.g. crown land). The town must carefully balance expansion activity, with the limited amount of provincial land available for additional residential, commercial and recreational developments. Other barriers to economic development are a small and limited trading area, the availability of affordable housing, rental shortages and access (highway and air service is limited). Areas in need of immediate improvement, as indicated in the town’s Economic Development report (2008), include childcare services and road improvements. Some respondents saw a potential area of conflict related to future development plans; they were opposed to economic expansion if it adversely affected conservation efforts of natural amenities (2008, p. 11). The report concludes that retention and expansion strategies should target the following areas:

- Human Capital – Improving Grande Cache’s Labour Availability and Productivity.
- Physical Capital – Improving Grande Cache’s Physical Environment.
- Improving Grande Cache’s Marketability to Tourists, New Businesses and Developers.
- Enhancing Grande Cache’s Existing Firms through Technical and Development Assistance (The Town of Grande Cache, 2008, p. 18).

### **1.2.2. Hinton Community**

According to a 2010 Alberta Venture Magazine, Hinton was named one of ten, of Alberta’s best communities for business. Hinton’s relatively close proximity to Edmonton (approximately 280kms), access to scenic areas and recreational amenities (i.e. a thirty minute commute to Jasper), as well as high household income factored into the decision.

Hinton’s high household income is largely connected with a competitive natural resource industry (e.g. coal, pulp and sawmill industry represent the largest employers in the community). While, Alberta’s average annual income was \$73,823 in 2006, Hinton boasted a total annual average of \$82,069 in 2006. However these numbers can be misleading. In the instance of resource towns, higher than average incomes likely mask greater income gaps and disparity between those with low paying service jobs and those with high paying industry jobs. As noted in Hinton’s Sustainability Plan, “the gap between rich and poor is also greater” (Mahaffy & Agnew, 2011, p. 21).

A quick look at Hinton’s occupation and industry profile, as analyzed from Statistics Canada 2006<sup>71</sup> census information, supports the income gap theory. For example, 18 percent of jobs held in Hinton were in agriculture and resource based industries. While 13 percent were held in both retail and business services, and 12 percent in manufacturing. A further 20 percent of respondents were categorized ‘in other

services' (*Advameg, Inc.*, 2012). As a moderately sized town, Hinton has seen modest growth over the years. In the most recent survey in 2009, the town reported a population of 9,825 residents, an increase of 4.5% since 2001. Slightly more than 14,000 people live within an hour's commute of Hinton, which includes 5,236 residents in Jasper and 8,098 in Edson (Statistic Canada, 2011) — the town of Grande Cache is a two hour commute, or approximately 150km away.

Hinton, like many resources based towns in Alberta's north have a competitive advantaged, when it comes to resources. However the 'booms' are often short lived. Time and time again, resource towns and their population suffer as their economic base becomes obsolete or is depleted. Mindful of their potential vulnerability, the community of Hinton is taking a proactive stance to invest in their future.

The town's Community Sustainability Plan (Mahaffy & Agnew, 2011) identified education and wellness as an opportunity for sustainable development. What appears to be most needed is the development and expansion of local educational opportunities. This includes ideas such as a "regional education hub" that provides "local access to work-based training" (p. 23). As, one community consultation member was quoted as saying in the Sustainability plan:

University towns never die. Let's roll out the red carpet and create a splendid campus of the Rockies that will attract students from around the world with its focus on environmental studies, local industries and tourism (Mahaffy & Agnew, 2011, p. 21).

Some researchers urge caution to strategies that link education to only serving economic ends. Rather than focus on attracting students from 'all around the world', situating ways that enable more residents to participate locally, in meaningful vocational and academic studies, as well as lifelong learning may offer a more effective way to foster economic development and community wellness.

## **2. Issues Related To the Pursuit of Knowledge in Rural Communities**

What factors define a community as 'rural'? Geography, shared values and place-based identity, small population, and resource base, (e.g. agriculture, mining, timbre, etc.) come to mind. Yet, some researchers suggest that the categories used in the past to define a place as 'rural' are becoming obsolete by the rapid and far-reaching changes the 21st Century brings. Today, rural communities are no longer as isolated as they once were. Advancements in technologies, such as roads and the Internet are breaking down distance. Likewise, the global market place, and less constrictive trade barriers will require firms and regions seek new, and innovative ways to remain competitive in this 'new economy' that rewards the production and utilization of knowledge.

The effects of rapid globalization may regenerate local regions or further isolate and distress those places and people unable to adjust. This is especially true for remote, rural communities dependent on traditional industries such as agriculture, mining and manufacturing. The evidence is seen in these towns and places by way of the "closure of institutions such as banks and post offices, and attendant problems of unemployment, declining population, and a drain of youth to the city" (Lane & Dorfman, 1997).

Strategies that enable sustainable community development require foresight, action and planning. First, this includes finding internal, rather than external ‘solutions,’ that strengthen linkages within their communities. (Lane & Dorfman, 1997). Secondly, the use of monitoring and adequate planning is necessary to “decrease the severity of busts and increase the long-term viability of the community” (O’Hagen & Cecil, 2007, p. 20). And lastly, a proactive stance and not to wait for problems to arise, was viewed as “the best way to prevent the downfall of communities dependent on primary industry” (O’Hagen & Cecil, 2007, p. 20).

### **2.1. Canada’s Resource Dependent Towns: Education and Lifelong Learning**

Since the 1980’s a substantial body of literature has amassed on Canada’s resource dependent towns. Over these years, a number of pervasive stereotypes have emerged, which continue to inform our present day understanding of those resource communities. One strong standing stereotype that holds, views resource communities as relatively homogenous entities. This assumption is tied up with the following characteristics: the relative isolation of resource towns, the existence of an unbalanced (and dominant) labour and industry profile, male dominated labour force, and unstable employment (e.g. seasonally or cyclically).

Based on their cross-country analysis of Canada’s resource towns, Randall and Ironside (1996) found contradictory evidence to long held stereotypes, and found “tremendous differences in the characteristics of these resources communities” (p. 32). Rather than use employment as the most influential indicator for diversity within a resource town, they suggest other factors should be given equal weight:

Given rapid changes taking place within many of these communities, it may be that total income, level of exports, pace of technological change or occupational structure are more appropriate indicators of specialization or diversification (Randall & Ironside, 1996, p. 24).

Furthermore, a community itself may be highly specialized in one sector; yet as a whole, regions themselves are diverse. This diversity is aggregated through “dependencies on a broad range of resources and manufacturing sectors represented across the network of communities within the same region” (Randall & Ironside, 1996, p. 21). Thus, it is likely true that people from Hinton will commute the one-hour distance to the similar sized town of Edson, (and vice versa), to access different services that are offered within a diverse, regional network.

Another criteria often overlooked (or ignored) when assessing the long-term stability of resource dependent communities is the contribution made by non-resource sectors. For example, non-resource sector jobs include a corrections facility in Grande Cache that employs 300 workers (2008 report) and Hinton’s health care field employs more than 200 workers (Alberta Venture news article). Furthermore, both towns express interest to develop and expand their respective tourism sectors as another area of economic growth.

Regardless of the role the non-resource sector plays, or the extent communities can tap into a regional network, to expand their economic base, towns are limited to growth by external factors. Randall & Ironside (1996) point out; remoteness or spatial isolation may be one of the most defining factors that presumably leaves

towns specialized, vulnerable and dependent—likely more so, than the effect of concentrated activity in resource industries. Two mechanisms are used to offer an explanation. The first, being that because of isolation, remote resource communities struggle to attract or retain additional export-oriented firms. Second, less remote resource communities likely “acquire a more diverse economy as a result of their greater accessibility to major products and labour markets” (Randall & Ironside, 1996, p. 31). This theory appears to have merit in the instance of Grande Cache. Located further off the beaten track, respondents from Grande Cache reported “the availability of skilled labour and road and highway systems” were viewed as the “two barriers to the expansion of existing businesses and the development of new businesses” (Town of Grande Cache, 2008, p. 20).

Compounded by changing global trends, research on single and diversifying resource towns shows, for the most part, that an economy built on a small basket of goods ultimately will limit a region’s capacity to diversify overtime. As indicated by Wotherspoon (1998):

Regions dominated by resource industries (e.g. agriculture, fishing and mining) are highly vulnerable to the negative impact of shifts in markets, technological changes and concentration of capital that are intensified within globalization (p. 132).

Examining the economic wellbeing across single-industry communities in Canada, Cecil and O’Hagan (2007) found a positive relationship was found between industry diversification and long-term security. Their findings show concentrating single-industry communities always lost a greater proportion of their population, had lower incomes, and sustained a high unemployment rate over time. Whereas, diversifying single industry towns lost a smaller percentage of their population, had slightly higher average incomes, decreased their unemployment rate overtime and had a larger (and increasing) percentage of their population obtain their highest level of education from a post-secondary institute (Cecil & O’Hagan 2007). Furthermore, the researchers found that diversifying primary towns were better positioned to gain a competitive advantage in the future. Diversifying towns were more likely to increase their percentage of jobs that related to the knowledge based economy, than towns that did not diversify.

Lastly, a report studying Canada’s forest dependent communities suggest additional indicators are needed to quantify the stability of resource based communities, in addition to economic variables. Beckley (2008) turns our attention to those aspects of social wellbeing, which are only weakly or indirectly connected to economic variables. Future questions or considerations that may be used to quantify the extend social wellbeing is experienced, include: the extent people are satisfied and fulfilled by their jobs and livelihoods, the achievement of social cohesion as well as local empowerment, e.g. the ability to make choices related to self and the community (p. 262).

### **2.1.1. Barriers to Access and to Learning**

Providing accessible and relevant options for all learners supports “many different, yet related outcomes that may include those associated with economics (e.g. greater

financial prosperity) and the workforce (e.g. new career paths) or those associated with individual and community wellbeing” (Fahy & Steel, 2011, p. 21). And yet as we will learn, rural communities and their learners are more likely, than their urban counterparts, to encounter serious obstacles to participation in lifelong learning. Consequently, addressing barriers to adult learning and education for all members of the community is as much an economic as a social issue.

It seems fair to say, that as a whole, rural learners have not benefitted equally from public services, such as education. For example, according to Statistic Canada (2006) 26 percent of Albertans aged 25-34 were recipients of a university degree in 2006, yet in Hinton, and Grande Cache, these numbers were significantly lower at 9 and 8 percent respectively. It comes as little surprise, to learn that, overall, economic and educational opportunities and resources in rural communities continue to lag behind those of urban areas (Gibbs, 2004).

Whether an individual pursues higher education depends on several knowable factors, “including the local labor market, social class, gender, and often the encouragement or discouragement received from both parents and teachers (Sherman & Sage, 2011 p. 2). The following section identifies potential barriers to learning that may be internal or external to the participant. When possible, the analysis of the barrier includes information relating to, or drawn from Hinton and Grande Cache. Strategies that break down barriers and create more inclusive opportunities for lifelong and lifewide learning will be explored in greater detail towards the end of the report.

Socio-economic: demographic factors such as age, gender and place of origin, are strongly linked to levels of participation in education. Data shows those least likely to participate in adult education and training programs represent the following: those with low levels of literary skills, have parents who have low levels of education, are older, are low-educated, women and immigrants (Rubenson et al., 2007). In addition, a survey on rural education in Alberta (2005), found that, “rural Albertans, males, Aboriginal people, the disabled and those from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds have lower participation and educational attainment outcomes than other Albertans” (Alberta Advanced Education, 2005, p. 4). Comparing these findings with demographic information collected from Statistic Canada (2006) we can assume that a higher than average number of residents from both Hinton and Grande Cache represent those who are most likely to be underrepresented in adult education. Furthermore, this information is substantiated by the fact that a significantly low number of residents in both towns have post-secondary degrees.

Social: Parents level of education, values and expectations have a strong influence on an individual’s educational goals as well as their initial experiences in school. Data from a 2005 comparative analysis demonstrated that in Canada, “respondents whose mothers’ or fathers’ educational attainment is higher than the respondents’ are more likely to participate in adult leaning than those whose parents have the same level of education as the respondents” (Rubenson et al., 2007, p. 42). In this regard, planning for education today, becomes an issue of urgency, when we learn how a legacy of educational attainment, (or lack thereof) affects the next generation of community members.

Location: Although Hinton and Grande Cache offer a variety of formal, informal and non-formal education programs, that include courses through distance learning, students must commute to larger cities for higher levels of certification (e.g. degree).

**Table 2.1: Distance to nearest Post-Secondary Campus**

	Grande Prairie Regional College	Edmonton Post-Secondary
Hinton	334 km	290km
Grande Cache	190km	436km

The town of Hinton recognizes their disadvantage, as they “can’t offer the full menu of training and apprenticeships that would allow students to fully prepare right here for jobs with our largest employers” (Fahy, et al., 2009, p. 21). Without a locally based post-secondary institute, more learners go away to study, or do not study at all. This in effect, limits the pool of skilled labourers that are locally available and created other challenges for those resigned to leave for learning.

Much has been written of the challenges students face when they leave their community (or commute back and forth) to pursue post-secondary education. For example, findings on participants’ views and preferences for post-secondary education, in four remote northern Alberta communities consistently showed that most northern residents prefer to remain in their home communities while taking post-secondary training. At the same time, “leaving the familiarity of the community and the support of family imposes a heavy emotional and financial burden on many students and their families (Fahy, et al, 2009, p. 53). In addition, a survey of Northern Ontario residents found “a striking 89% preferred to stay in their community to pursue educational and training goals” (Advanced Education Report, 2005, p. 6).

Programming: Across all levels and ages, programming for rural learners must be relevant, flexible (e.g. to work schedules) and in some instances, offer a clear path between education achievement and job attainment. In the instance of Hinton, the lack of capacity to offer relevant career related programming locally is viewed as a missed opportunity. The town has large number of health care providers, trades workers, educators and equipment operators, yet the town does not provide a locally available training facility in these fields (Mahaffy & Agnew, 2011). The same pattern repeats itself—students are required to leave their community to receive formal education linked to local jobs in high demand.

If a shift to a knowledge based economy is viewed as a priority for future planning, than providing cutting edge programs in those fields are needed locally.

Programming may include, but is not limited to: information and computer technology, communications, small and ‘virtual’ business development, life sciences and natural resources, etc. On the other hand, if jobs within these fields are not available locally, findings show students are likely to migrate to larger centres more suited to support industries that require highly skilled, professional workers.

Support services: The availability of support services and infrastructure, such as childcare facilities, is crucial to the needs of adult learners. Already, we know from

the community reports that these services are lacking within each community. For example, respondents from Grande Cache indicated that childcare, was “in immediate need of attention” (Town of Grande Cache, 2008, p. 46). Other studies point to the, high costs of fulltime studies and expenses as real barriers to participation (McMullan, 2004; Fahy et al., 2009), thus rural learners require access to funding and grants. Although rural students are require support services, they “tend to have lower levels of awareness of advanced education opportunities and supports available” than their urban counterparts (Alberta Advanced Education, 2005, p. 5). This includes access to social networks, role models and supports that place a high priority on post-secondary education. It should be noted, that students may lack awareness of opportunities and supports, as a result that these programs are not supported or advertised within the community.

Economy: The availability of well paying employment immediately out of high school is strong motivator for “potential learners to enter the labor market directly, without first completing post-secondary training” (Alberta Advanced Report, 2005, p. 8). At the same time, Fahy et al. (2009) show that Alberta strong economy effects participant enrolment at post-secondary institutions, when students must choose between the options of employment or education. According to the study, full-time enrollment at Alberta’s two institutes of Technology and its universities had marginal growth: 14 and 16 percent respectively. Yet, part time, distance learning offered through Athabasca had steady growth at 30 percent over the same time period (Fahy et al., 2009). The evidence shows students often chose to work, and maintain part-time, distance employment rather than engage in full-time studies.

## **2.2. The Province Of Alberta: Lifelong Learning and Sustainable Development**

At the provincial level, the government of Alberta is also concerned with the affects globalization has on its resource base and economy. For the most part, Alberta has greatly benefitted from its natural assets that include a strong, diversified and competitive resource base. Summarizing findings from Alberta Finance and Enterprise, Fahy et al. (2009) describe how in 2008, Alberta generated “the highest provincial growth rate in Canada, the lowest unemployment rate, and an accumulated surplus (as of early 2008) of approximately \$16 billion” (p. 1). The province as a whole retains a competitive advantage drawn from its natural resource base. However, an over dependence on resources, may leave a community vulnerable to change. At the regional and provincial level, governments are finding ways to capture new revenue stream related to knowledge production and utilization. Guiding this shift in economic priorities is the recognition, from the Government of Canada, that “knowledge and creativity have become the true measure of economic potential” (Rubenson, Desjardins & Yoon 2007, p. 8).

Communities that emphasize learning as an overarching development strategy are more resilient to unexpected changes, better equipped to manage potential risks, and more responsive to opportunities as they present themselves (Roger & Baker, 2000, p. 3). In Hinton’s Sustainability Plan (Mahaffy & Agnew, 2011), the community appears to prioritize learning, as it associates, “a sustainable community” with one, “that values learning.” (p. 23). Furthermore, it should be

noted that there is a gradual understanding that pursuing a social agenda on adult learning may in fact be very good economic policy:

Recent studies show that an equitable distribution of skills has a strong impact on overall economic performance. This is an important finding, one that helps justify policies to upgrade the skills of disadvantaged groups (OECD, 2005, p. 10).

The twin goals of lifelong learning and economic prosperity are viewed as regenerative strategies for development in the Government of Alberta's 2010 Business Plan. The report emphasizes the development of highly skilled and quality people, as well as support for research and innovation as essential to economic diversification. Similarly, numerous government and municipal planners around the world, are now addressing education as a cornerstone to sustainable development where: "continued access to education and training for all a country's citizens are seen as an investment in the future—a pre-condition for economic advance, democracy, cohesion and personal growth" (Chapman, 1997, p. 151).

### **2.3. Post-Secondary Education in Alberta**

Structurally, Alberta's advanced learning system is composed of "public board-governed institutions, the apprenticeship and industry training system, private providers and community-based organizations" (Government of Alberta, 2010, p. 2). The provincial Government of Alberta supports Alberta's advanced learning system in a number of ways. Those include:

- Funding for advanced learning providers;
- Coordinating and approving programs of study at public institutions;
- Licensing and approving programs at private providers where required by legislation;
- Rewarding learner excellence through the provision of scholarships;
- Financial assistance to eligible Albertans
- Certification in designated trades and occupations;
- And facilities industry's development of training and certification standards (Government of Alberta, 2010, p. 2).

#### **2.3.1. Campus Alberta**

Campus Alberta is not a physical place or post-secondary institute. Rather it is a framework that guides Alberta's advanced learning system, and is intended to provide all Albertans, "the opportunity to participate in lifelong learning through flexible learning pathways" (Government of Alberta, 2010, p. 2). Campus Alberta has a presence in more than 80 communities in Alberta, through formal partnerships with regions, colleges and adult-based learning sites. Campus Alberta is often hosted by a local community College. A Campus Alberta host site may promote partnership with additional post-secondary institutes such as MacEwan University, Grande Prairie Regional College and NAIT to expand off-campus programs in rural communities, such as Hinton and Grande Cache.

Currently, Campus Alberta offers courses in the following areas: high school upgrading, degree transfer, diploma and certifications. Programs are delivered at the local level through the use of technology, such as video conferencing, on-line course work and WebCT. The latter can include, in some cases, a synchronous delivery system where students ‘attend’ the class daily, in a scheduled block, in real time. However, in a few instances, courses are taught on-site, such as a 20-week entry-level clerical program offered through a partnership with NAIT (NorQuest College, 2012). Other programs, such as the Practical Nurse Hybrid Diploma (available in Hinton) are delivered through a blended program that includes on-line lecture and labs with a clinical experience. This is a transferable program, and currently has a waitlist (2012). With over 200 health care providers in Hinton (Alberta Venture, 2010), perhaps the interest in the program relates to the availability of local employment. See appendix E for additional information on credentials and programs offered through post-secondary institutes in Alberta.

### **2.3.2. eCampusAlberta**

As a not-for-profit, eCampusAlberta is a consortium of sixteen Alberta-based post-secondary institutions, including eleven Comprehensive Community Institutions (CCIs), one distance-learning university, two Baccalaureate and Applied Studies Institutions (BASIs) and two Polytechnical Institutions (PIs). See appendix D for list of the types of post-secondary institutions available Alberta.

All programs offered through eCampusAlberta are delivered online, to locally based students, through a “lead” and “partner” model, where:

The lead institution develops and offers the course or program and provides the instruction and materials in an online environment. The partner institution offers support services, such as access to the library and exam supervision as well as research and study skills support (eCampusAlberta, 2012).

Since the organization was formed in 2002, participation in online education has seen a steady increase. According to the website the number of eCampusAlberta registrations increased, “by approximately twenty four percent to 16,213 in fiscal 2010/11, up from 13,107 in 2009/10” (eCampusAlberta, 2012). In addition to this trend, data collected from previous years consistently shows a higher female participation rate where, “approximately 70 to 75 percent” of participants are female (eCampusAlberta, 2012).

Furthermore, according to a 2011 eCampusAlberta survey, the majority of those enrolled in courses also participate in full time employment (55.5 percent); whereas, only 7 percent of respondents indicated being unemployed. The reality that most adult learners balance school and work, supports the eCampusAlberta assumption that “the majority of eCampusAlberta learners would not otherwise access their programs of study in a traditional (on campus) manner” (eCampusAlberta, 2011).

Hinton, Grande Cache and the neighbouring community of Jasper report improvements in the number of adult learners enrolled in upgrading, and post-secondary courses, as indicated by eCampusAlberta (2011). Over a five-year period, (2006-07 to 2010-11), Hinton experienced a strong increase in the number of

students enrolled in eCampusAlberta: from 19 participants in the first year, to 113 by year five (see Table 2.2 for more information).

Table 2.2: eCampusAlberta Student Enrollment (distance, Online learning)

	2010-11	2009-10	2008-09	2007-08	2006-07	Total Enrollment	Town Population
Hinton	113	106	22	14	19	274	9,825
Grande Cache	18	13	2	4	2	39	3,783
Jasper	20	11	17	9	3	60	5,236

#### 2.4. 'Leaving to learn' and Outmigration

Outmigration refers to the outward flow of people, from their place of upbringing and education, to other regions. The term is popular in the study of rural communities, where talented individuals—often from small and isolated communities—move to larger metropolitans and urban areas for advanced schooling, economic advancement and lifestyles. The trend of leaving is especially true for the region's most academically talented, including "rural young adults with educated parents, high academic achievements and high educational aspirations" (Sherman & Sage 2011, p. 2).

In 'Learning to Leave' and subsequent articles, Corbett (2007; 2009), draws attention to the well established connection between formal education and mobility out of rural areas. He argues that, "place should occupy a more central place in the way we think about and deliver education." By studying remote fishing towns in Eastern Canada, Corbett learned a great deal about the relationship between community, schooling and education. He found place relates to relationships between the community, its' history and primary industry, and includes the way school is "understood and experienced by parents, educators and students" (Corbett, 2009, p. 1). This experience led him to ascertain that, formal education is designed for those who leave, and favours certain participants (e.g. in terms of social-economic class and gender) over others. As the community of Hinton and Grande Cache begin to address social and economic issues through regenerative educational strategies, the challenge of how to, "re-embed education into the community, for the community and all learners" (Corbett, 2009, p. 1) becomes significant.

Examples from Alberta show similar trends as reported by Corbett. When rural-based students leave their communities for educational opportunities, few return to their community of origin to find employment. For example, findings from Alberta indicate, "while 40% of all post-secondary graduates completed high school in a rural area, only 14% returned two years after graduation" (Alberta Advanced Education, 2005, p. 6).

Furthermore, the precedents to increase locally available options may increase participation in adult education overall, as "those beyond a commuting distance from

community colleges were less likely to pursue adult education than individuals with college institutions close to their area of origin” (Alberta Advanced Education, 2005, p. 5).

#### 2.4.1. ‘Booms and Busts’

Both Hinton and Grande Cache have benefitted from their proximity to natural resources such as coal, gas and timbre, as well as other natural amenities, such as wilderness areas and Jasper National Park. At the same time, both towns are left vulnerable to the fluctuations of the market—the booms and the busts. Jon Bourdou, a local business owner and Chamber of Commerce member from Grande Cache, was quoted as saying, during an interview for the Financial Post:

We’ve always been at the mercy of Ottawa and the world’s economy. We are so vulnerable. Even though times are good right now, as a businessperson you can’t stop worrying about the future. The worrying is relentless. (Harding, 2005)

At present, primary resource towns, such as Hinton and Grande Cache currently do enjoy higher incomes associated with higher paying, resource industry jobs, than the provincial average. And yet, this type of economic concentration leaves communities vulnerable as resources are exhausted, over time, or cheaper alternatives are found:

Quality of life in the region has often been affected economically and socially by the economic peaks and dips controlled by market forces far beyond their boundaries. The communities have had to bend to the needs of industry, not the other way around (Sellers, 2011, p. 14).

The availability of high paying employment jobs held in the natural resource sector, may meet immediate economic needs for some, yet: “the lack of knowledge employment impacts the long term competitiveness of the town” (p. 22).

Furthermore, other challenges associated with a concentrated resource-based economy stem from the wide gap in pay of those who work high paying industry-based jobs, and those employed in service jobs. In addition, Lawrie et al. (2011, p. 142) summarizes others, in regard to the economic and social upheaval industry contraction or closure brings:

Indeed, the literature is replete with studies pointing to high rates of unemployment, poverty and other forms of social malaise in places following the demise of an industry on which a community depends for its economic prosperity (Bradbury & St-Martin 1983; Neil et al. 1992; Halseth, 2005).

A 2006 report in Hinton titled *Beyond Boredom*, looked at the tradeoffs between a robust, but limited single resource-based economy and the long-term consequences of the ‘bust’ that follows this dependency. As summarized in Hinton’s Community Sustainability Plan, the report found “high levels of family dysfunction and substance abuse” were linked to a “lack of social cohesion.” (Mahaffy & Agnew, 2010, p. 26). Furthermore, it is assumed the cyclical and seasonal work that drive local economies in industry towns attracts highly mobile and transient populations. Ultimately, this influx of temporary workers does little to strengthen community bonds.

On the other hand, much work has been undertaken to learn about those characteristics that attract people to a community. Vibrant communities that offer attractive amenities and services are viewed as key attractors. For example, a market research study of more than 1200 high tech workers in Canada (KPMG/Cata Alliance 1998, p. 10) found “quality-of-life” and “a close proximity to friends and family” to be the most important factors participants indicated with the overall attractiveness of a job.

According to Florida (2000), highly skilled, professional workers often seek “balance of economic opportunity and lifestyle in selecting a place to live and work” (p. 43). Regional growth, he argues, “depends on the ability of locales to generate, attract and retain” skilled workers, which directly relates to the communities’ ability to establish and offer a wide variety of social and environmental amenities.

A quick survey of the region shows that Hinton and Grande Cache, exhibit terrific natural amenities and wilderness areas, including Jasper National Park, that may be capitalized on to attract, and retain more skilled workers. The Canadian Death Race in Grande Cache, and the availability of numerous environmentally and socially minded organizations such as the Foothills Research Institute, the Athabasca Watershed Council, the Palisades Stewardship Education Centre, and the Hinton Community Garden point to a number of local services that enhance social cohesion and quality of life. See appendix A, to learn more about the local opportunities that are available.

The question of how Hinton and Grande Cache attract new people to the area who will stay long-term, and invest in the community overtime, and how this relates to an overall education strategy for sustainable development are key areas to be further explored in the following section.

### **3. Educational Opportunities: Learning in Rural Communities**

All stages of learning are critical to development of an individual, and the community. Based on background information, we do know that opportunities exist that we assume are meeting the majority of learning needs for primary and even secondary students. This is based on the availability of local schools coordinated by regional school districts. For example, in the 2011 school year, the Grande Yellowhead Public School division reported a total of 1188 students enrolled in public schools in Hinton and 786 enrolled in Grande Cache.

Some post-secondary options, certificates and diplomas are available locally, primarily through distance learning. Lifelong learning programs for adult learners are available in the form of workshops, seminars and courses. Appendix A provides an overview of some current opportunities for formal, non-formal and informal education and adult learning. Yet, it’s brought to our attention that current levels of programming are not meeting the need of Hinton and Grande Cache’s adult learners. Precedence is placed on expanding the local presence of post-secondary education within both communities. With this in mind, the emphasis of this report is on the adult learner.

The approach we are promoting in this report situates learning in a lifelong and lifewide perspective. As such, opportunities for learning are vast—they include

formal, non-formal and informal modes of instruction, and are plentiful—they occur during one’s whole life, from cradle to grave. The setting where learning occurs is as varied as the needs of the learner. The course of this section will explore current opportunities for lifelong and lifewide learning, and discuss options to expand the presence of post-secondary institutes. Opportunities, as already mentioned, exist within each community, and the region. The goal is to learn how to build success on the multiple assets already are in place.

### **3.1. Options and Strategies for Lifelong Learning**

#### **3.1.1. Enable Success and Growth**

Barley and Andrea (2007) found those factors that contribute to the success of rural schools were grouped into the following themes: leadership, instruction, professional community and school environment. In the same study, teachers suggested that diverse and interesting extracurricular programming “are important because they give students a reason to be at school other than academics, give them success experiences, and encourage them to participate in the school community” (Barley & Andrea, 2007, p. 6).

Students are more likely to succeed in primary and secondary schools, when the school itself has high internal performance, such as staff retention. Barley and Andrea (2007) found high teacher retention rates contributed to the overall functioning of a school and were strongly linked to the overall maintenance of a supportive professional community. This included close relationships between students and teachers that provided the continuity needed to support curriculum innovation and school improvement plans.

Relevant, hands-on programming is recognized to strengthening students’ participation and interest in school. In the example of Hinton, creative partnerships recognize this value, and work together to make learning relevant to the needs of its learners, and their community. For example, since 2003, the Foothills Research Institute’s (FRI) celebrates ‘GIS day’ by opening their doors, each year, to student learners. FRI offers fun, hands-on learning about GIS tools, Geo-Caching and natural sciences relating to the local environment, to more than 400, grade 7 and 8 students from Hinton. See section 6 to learn more about the Foothills Research Institute, and other opportunities available locally.

A second example of locally based, hands-on programming is provided through a partnership between the Palisades Stewardship Education Centre (PSEC) in Jasper National Park, and the Grande Yellowhead Regional Public School Division (GYPSD). Wherein “the foresight and innovation shown by GYPSD administration has helped make the Palisades a leading environmental educational facility within Canada” (Parks Canada, 2011). This partnership has led to the development of interactive and hands-on learning opportunities, as an extension of school curriculum. See section 6 to learn more about the Palisades Stewardship Education Centre, and other opportunities available locally.

The types of programming and delivery methods schools implement to engage and attract learners are diverse, yet specific to the unique environment, challenges and opportunities found within a region, including budget constraints. Further

programming options might explore new ways to work with, and utilize existing amenities; such as William A. Switzer Provincial Park, located near Grande Cache.

What other partnerships can be drawn on between schools, and locally based organizations? To understand how best to meet the needs of current learners, and their families, and position the towns' development towards a knowledge based economy will require the collection of information from 'users' to learn what types of program and delivery methods best suit their needs and interest, and what programs align with future career options (e.g. renewable resources).

### **3.1.2. Senior Learners**

Opportunities that address the specific learning needs of senior learners, and that recognize their contribution to community wellness are aspects of sustainable communities. For towns, like Hinton and Grande Cache that are concerned with growth—their capacity to attract and retain families (and retirees) over the long haul matters. A commitment to provide unique programming that increases the quality of life for senior residents and allows for their contribution into the community adds to the overall attractiveness of both towns.

At present, Grande Cache and Hinton have a younger population than the provincial and national average. As such, senior learners make up a relatively small portion of the total population. Yet, planning should not overlook the needs of, and contribution senior learners impart to communities. After all, these learners represent those most able to mentor, volunteer and donate their time to community development activity.

Both Hinton and Grande Cache offer non-formal learning programs for adult learners available through their local chapter of the Community Adult Learning Council (CALC), yet none focus specifically on the unique needs and learning styles of senior learners.

Additional research is needed to address, what other local opportunities might exist, and expanded on to offer programming suitable for senior learners. For example, what can be learned from regions that offer specific programs for mature learners such as Cariboo Chilcotin Elder College at Williams Lake BC. The college is a volunteer organization committed to meeting the learning needs and educational interests of older adults in Williams Lake and surrounding areas.

### **3.1.3. Multi-generational Learning**

Finding bridges between the young and old can facilitate the exchange of knowledge and skills, enhance participant's quality of life, and strengthen community bonds. North Peace School Division No. 60 (BC) created an Intergenerational Program to realize some of these benefits, by providing "an effective framework for developing relationships and a sense of belonging at school and in the community. For example, the Intergeneration Program, offered at Charlie Lake Elementary School (located in a semi-rural community 6km of Fort St John), takes students to a senior's resident complex the last Thursday of each month. Students socialize with seniors, perform

group task and even celebrate birthdays. The program is seen to be mutually beneficial the seniors and student learners.

#### **3.1.4. Site-based Post-Secondary Education**

Rural Colleges are repositories of knowledge and human resources, and provide the appropriate environment in which to foster innovation and new ideas. As deliverers of higher education, they develop human and social capital, as well as the skills required by regional labour market needs (Alberta Advanced Education, 2005, p. 14).

Recent discussion put forward in Hinton and Grande Cache involve the development of a site-based, post-secondary institute. Looking to the past, a 2009 plan explored the likelihood of developing partnerships and opportunities that would support a post-secondary institute in Hinton, dubbed Campus Alberta West. According to the report:

The Town of Hinton sees an expanded post-secondary education presence as a key element in achieving its four focus areas of sustainable community economic development and diversification, promoting tourism, linking innovation and entrepreneurship, and ensuring that Hinton is a place that people, especially young people, want to stay (Yates, Thorn & Associates, 2009, p. 8).

Looking to the rest of the province, more than a dozen post-secondary institutes are hosted in small, to medium sized communities. For the most part, these institutes are located in rural, semi-rural and more remote regions in Alberta. Those institutes including KEYANO College in Fort McMurray, and a Satellite College in Fairview, hosted by Grande Prairie Regional College. A quick look across the border into British Columbia provides additional examples of post-secondary institutions that offer diverse programming to smaller communities, such as Thompsons River University in Kamloops (with a regional campus at William's Lake) and the College of the Rockies. The latter has campuses in seven regions; two of which, specialize in mountain adventure, adventure tourism and eco-tourism.

As a whole, these examples simply aim to show that other communities in rural places appear to be successful in establishing, and expanding a post-secondary presence. However, these examples should be reviewed mindful of the context they operate within. The history of the place, those partnerships and synergies, as well as opportunities that lead to their development may offer lessons, yet might not be transferable to the region in question.

A site-based post-secondary institution supports regional social and economic development in a number of ways, as indicated by the Government of Alberta:

Rural Colleges are repositories of knowledge and human resources, and provide the appropriate environment in which to foster innovation and new ideas. As deliverers of higher education, they develop human and social capital, as well as the skills required by regional labour market needs. (Albert Advanced Education, 2005, p. 14.)

Universities also produce spillover effects into the community, such as the transmission of knowledge, and the direct spending from staff, students and

university expenditures, all of which support the region's local economy. However, some maintain that a region with a small population should not assume a university of this scale would be profitable or even operate on a cost-recovery basis (Fahy et al., 2009).

Felsenstein (1996) discussed the economic and societal outcomes and inputs universities have on their host region as 'backward' and 'forward' linkages relating to the household, the local government and the local economy. For example, a local university directly affects a household through income and employment related to the activities of the university, or may further marginalize those who cannot attend. At the local government level, the university may increase tax revenues; this will also result in an increase in demand for public services. Lastly, local businesses and firms will directly benefit from the university's expenditures, but the university may also be in direct competition with local businesses on the labour or real estate market.

Summarized by Mille (2004) forward linkages benefit the community "in the form of a change to the level of human capital, to the knowledge pool and to the attractiveness of the local area to households and firms" (p. 80). She goes on to add, that universities positively contribute to a local economy through the networks they create:

Firstly, education and training activities improve the level of human capital of the individuals attending universities and of society as a whole and, secondly, universities' basic and applied research activities, whether contractual or not, contribute to improving the economy's stock of scientific and technological knowledge (Mille, 2004, p. 81).

Post-secondary institutes also contribute to their host region by establishing reciprocal relationship that may help a community define, or diagnose their competitive advantage for regional development. According to Drabenstott (2008), the combining impact of globalization means more so than ever, that how regions compete matter. Put simple, new products (e.g. innovation), drive economic growth, and universities are amongst the greatest engines for innovation.

Regions not located near universities (i.e. the sources of innovation), or unable to make connections to their host universities are disadvantaged. This disadvantage is further recognized, when regions desire to shift their economic base from that of a resource based economy to one, which emphasizes knowledge production. However, simply being located near a university does not ensure that innovation and ensuing benefits of research transfer into the community. Often, regions do not know what their future competitive advantage is, and the activities that universities undertake, such as research, "are not organized to supply innovation in a form that regions can readily access" (Drabenstott, 2008, p. 51).

Mechanisms that ensure the exchange of information between the university and community are critical to a region's capacity to gain a new competitive advantage. Other strategies focused on revitalization, attracting new residents, business development and encouraging networking will need to be undertaken simultaneously to enhance the rural quality of life. As described by Malecki (2003):

Attracting migrants should be complemented with education and training of people in existing businesses. Building networks to encourage interaction among entrepreneurs, and between entrepreneurs, and other local leaders in education and government, rather than in isolation, will increase information sharing that might not take place otherwise (p. 212).

### **3.2. Regional Partnerships with Government, Post-Secondary and Industry**

Universities, industries, firms and non-profit organizations each have a vested interest within their community related to the twin goals of economic and social development. In Alberta and beyond, many positive examples show ways different groups work together to advance educational opportunities, strengthen community, and improve quality of life. Key attributes of partnerships may include sharing resources, building collaborative networks across common goals, and increasing the breadth of services available. Within this section, examples highlighting partnerships between industries, post-secondary institutes and communities are discussed. Lastly, recommendations for developing mutually beneficial partnerships are discussed.

#### **3.2.1. A Changing Context for Community-led University Partnerships**

Partnerships between post-secondary institutes and their host region are not a new phenomenon. However, the development of the partnership and their roles, have changed overtime. In the past, universities were typically viewed as depositories of knowledge, held by key experts who conducted experiments on community life, as outsiders. During this period, universities typically operated on deficit models—as experts, they responded to their communities on a need by need basis (Wiewel & Broski, 1997).

At present, a more equitable partnership model is used to describe the relationship between post-secondary institutes and their host region. The partnership model considers the social and political relationship between both partners, while acknowledging societal, and economic changes. Thus, knowledge is co-constructed between partners. An effective partnership model acknowledges, “both parties have needs and that success requires a mutual recognition of needs, shared problem definition, and a joint search for solutions” (Wiewel & Broski, 1997, p. 2).

A recent study from Bow Valley College, in southern Alberta, illustrates the latter point. Together, partners participate in ‘a joint search for solution.’ In 2011, college representatives visited four towns in southern Alberta to learn about the priorities of their community members regarding post-secondary education. Secondly, to gain insight on the role the college can take to provide for those needs. See section 6 to learn more about Bow Valley College, and other opportunities available locally.

In the case of Hinton and Grande Cache, both communities can draw on their own current experiences, and past partnerships with post-secondary institutes. More recent partnerships to look towards might include developments between the Athabasca River Basin Research Institute (ARBRI), the community and Athabasca University. Also, the Foothills Research Institute works with graduate students on

research, and other provincial post-secondary institutes may be considered. For example, in the later instance, a recent project includes the development of a world class, animal-tracking device (the Animal Pathfinder), that is licensed and commercially available. Looking to past partnerships, the Hinton Training Centre (HTC) coordinated their programming with NAIT, to deliver year round, academic course in Forestry.

Conducting an assessment of current (and past opportunities) available in Hinton and Grand Cache would help to identify existing, and potential partnerships, as well as serve to indicate those commonalities shared between local organizations, the community and post-secondary institutes.

### **3.2.2. Building Sustainable Partnerships**

The ‘Great Cities’ program created at the University of Illinois, in Chicago, is an example of a strong partnership between a local university and their surrounding community. This partnership model offers the following best practices when building responsive partnerships. Those include strong leadership, skill development, recognizing strengths and weaknesses of each partner, and acknowledging the capacity for change in organizational structures and processes (Weiwel & Browski, 2007). See section 6 to learn more about the Great Cities project, and other opportunities available locally.

Prins (2006), indicated the, “hallmark of good partnerships is the recognition that neither universities nor communities are monolithic entities” (p. 11). The setting, participants, project deliverables and supporting roles can change overtime. University partners are encouraged to consider the following, when planning for partnerships with their host community, as summarized by Prins (2006):

- Find a balance between supportive and directed roles;
- Enable the community to take initiative and have a greater say in shaping the partnership— they are the ones who live in the setting the research is focused on;
- Increase internal coordination among personnel and academic departments.

The Provincial University of Lapland takes the idea of partnerships and collaboration one step further. In 2003, the northern Lapland region in Finland pooled the expertise, and resources of universities in four remote, northern regions to create a consortium. Although the university operates through a network as ‘one’ institute, its’ strength is drawn from each of the four institutes, which are responsible to the educational, social and economic needs of their own community. The wellbeing of the whole region is made stronger through the sum of its parts. See section 6 to learn more about this collaborative and other opportunities available locally.

Lastly, power dynamics are likely to impact partnership, and how well they function overtime. Hierarchical structures may seem to exist between university personnel and community members, and also between large industry (who are used to getting their way) and community members. Developing a clear blueprint of roles and responsibilities at the earliest chance may prevent confusion down the road.

### **3.3. Career Development Programs and Training**

Training programs and apprenticeships are offered in Alberta through partnerships with the following regional stakeholders: government (e.g. green certificate), local organizations (e.g. the Learning Connection in Hinton), school districts (e.g. career and technology class), post-secondary institutes (e.g. dual-credit programs) and industry (vocational training and apprenticeships). Typically, programs offered target secondary students, adult learners and employees. They prepare learners to make transitions at work and throughout their life. As an indirect benefit, these programs can strengthen a participant's sense of belonging and build community. Conversely training may increase outmigration, by preparing students for those highly skilled jobs that may not be available locally.

This section explores in greater detail opportunities available for training at the local level. A summary of key networks or partnerships and programs offered locally are included. Benefits associated with career development services are provided and case studies are used to illustrate examples from within and beyond Alberta. This section concludes with recommendations to approaching industry-based training partnership.

#### **3.3.1. Training and Career Development Programs for Secondary Students**

The province of Alberta supports a number of training and school-to-work programs for secondary students. The role of the provincial government is often supportive and administrative to these programs that operate as partnerships with industry, school districts and additional government branches. As a whole, these programs bridge K-12 knowledge with career paths, and more importantly, help ensure seamless entry from high school into post-secondary training. For example, the average age for entry into first year welding in Alberta was at twenty-eight, (Silva & Phillips 2007, p. 48), whereas successful participants of Registered Apprenticeship Programs, may be able to attend their second year of apprenticeship as early as age eighteen.

In addition to 'fast track' their schooling, participation in formal apprenticeships offer students additional benefits. Those include: paid employment, job training, logged hours towards certification, and credits towards their high school diploma and post-secondary course work. These programs make positive contributions to those students who may not usually find success through formal classroom education. As Perrault (2011) points out, not only do these programs provide "the foundations for a skilled work force, they are also seen as an opportunity for students who struggle with traditional, academic programming to complete high school" (p. ii). (See appendix C for additional information on characteristics of effective secondary training programs in Canada).

Below is a list of Alberta's Training and Apprenticeship Programs:

- **The Registered Apprenticeship Program (RAP).**<sup>11</sup>

RAP Allows students to begin training towards careers in trades (with upwards of 50 to choose), as early as grade 10. All apprenticeships provide students with pay, allow students to earn upwards of 40 credits towards a high school diploma and lead to the accumulation of hours towards the students first year apprenticeship at a post-secondary institute. Participants must be under the age of 20 to participate. Provincial scholarships are available to assist with costs.

Olds Junior Senior High School has a successful record offering RAP and dual credit programs to local high school students through collaboration with Olds College. For example, 8 percent of the school's population participated in RAP (2005-2006). See section 6 to learn more about the about the program available at Olds Junior Senior High School.

- **Green Certificate Program.**<sup>12</sup>

Green Certificate is an apprentice-style training program serving the agricultural industry. Students are provided the opportunity to enter a variety of agriculture-related pathways, to earn credential leading to a career in agribusiness and gain up to 12 credits towards high school diploma. Students who complete all three courses in an area of specialization earn the technician level Green Certificate. The Ministry of Agriculture and Alberta Learning supervise and administer the program.

- **CAREERS: The Next Generation.**<sup>13</sup>

CAREERS, an industry-driven private/public partnership, provides opportunity for students to explore career options through apprenticeships and at summer career camps. Skills promoted target those sectors experiencing skills shortages. Partnerships allow CAREERS to represent over 250 possible occupations related to health services, industrial technologies, and trades associated with RAP.

- **Dual Accreditation Programming (Dual Credit):**

Dual credit programs are well established in Manitoba, British Columbia and Ontario, and a number of pilot programs are underway in Alberta. Dual credit offers schools a way to help students explore future career paths through apprenticeships or in post-secondary college, technical or university courses. Dual credit allows

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<sup>11</sup> [www.tradesecrets.org/](http://www.tradesecrets.org/)

<sup>12</sup> [www1.agric.gov.ab.ca/\\$department/deptdocs.nsf/all/grc6643](http://www1.agric.gov.ab.ca/$department/deptdocs.nsf/all/grc6643)

<sup>13</sup> [www.nextgen.org/about/programs/](http://www.nextgen.org/about/programs/)

students to 'fast track' their education by earning both high school and postsecondary credits, for the same course.

In February 2011, Northern Lakes College extended its dual credit programming both in reach (e.g. to students in Slave Lake) and in programming. For the college, this program provides a positive investment to a region (i.e. Slave Lake) with a low participation rate in post-secondary education. See section 6 to learn more about this collaborative project between Northern Lakes College, and Slave Lake school district.

### **3.3.2. Benefits associated with Career Development Programs and Areas for Improvement**

A report on career development services for Canadian youth, suggests those programs and activities that prepare learners for future career paths offer the following benefits:

- Increase motivation to continue learning after high school;
- Reduce the number of school leavers in either high school or post-secondary;
- Increase career certainty and academic success;
- Build work readiness;
- Support the integration of labour market information;
- Change attitudes that decrease career choice (e.g., support young women's entry to science, technology and engineering careers)
- Reduce poverty and unemployment by getting youth to stay in school longer; and,
- Increase focus on a career path when work experience is attached to some form of career-development reflection (Bell & Bezanson, 2006, p. 3).

Formal career training programs are relatively new in Alberta, and continue to gain widespread use. As regions become more familiar with these programs, the following recommendations are offered:

- More seamless delivery through stronger coordination at the government and community level. This includes appropriate funding for institutions to cooperatively offer programs;
- Expanding dual credit programs to all secondary students;
- Develop regional councils to advance trades training to youth representing the local community, industry, employee representatives, post-secondary institutions and secondary schools;
- Link economic forecasts with program offerings;
- Increase access and encourage greater participation from women. Research and offer more programs that encourage female participation; at the same time, understand (and breakdown) current barriers.

- Provide trade specific professional development for instructors in rural communities.
- Target earlier grades by expanding career awareness and development programs (Silva & Philips, 2007, p. viii-ix).

Lastly, Grubb (2001) describes economic strategies that use, “schools to enhance economic development often lead to narrow forms of vocational education and training” (p. 53). Rather, communities are urged to advocate for broader and more integrated approaches to career development and school-to-work programs that promote other goals (e.g. community stewardship, entrepreneurship and sense of community) in addition to higher education and employment for rural youth (Rojewski, 1999).

### **3.4. Funding Opportunities for Adult Learning and Training**

Participation in educational opportunities related to career training is typically funded by individuals, and through grants as well as scholarships. For example the Northern Alberta Development Council (NADC) Bursary program qualifies fulltime, post-secondary students who are able to work in select industries, in select northern regions (including Grande Cache) with \$12,000 over two years. The bursary is meant to encourage students to train for jobs in high demand in northern Alberta. Those jobs include: education, medical and health, engineering and technical fields and social work (NADC, n.d.).

Funding through provincial and federal partnerships, such as those through the Western Economic Partnership Agreement (WEPA), fund post-secondary institutes with the premise of supporting innovate, entrepreneurial and sustainable communities (Government of Alberta, n.d.).

#### **3.4.1. Paying to Train: Employers and their Contribution to Adult Learning**

In industry-based towns, students are likely to choose immediate employment in low-skilled entry jobs during strong economic times; conversely, as others leave to pursue higher education, the sustainability of the community is weakened. The following holds true for industry: as the availability of skilled workers is limited, firms may struggle to find a suitable local workforce. These challenges pose a real concern for Hinton and Grande Cache. Already both towns cite the shortage of skilled labour, as well as a lack of student participation in higher education, as persisting obstacles to their futures development. At the national level, these challenges are exasperated by predictions of additional and widespread labour shortages into the future. According to 2005, statistics from the Conference Board of Canada because of “demographic changes and the accompanying aging of the workforce, it is estimated that by 2025, Canada will have a labour shortage of 1.2 million skilled workers” (Desjardin et al., 2007, p. 43). Given these local and national trends, the question of who pays for employee training requires further investigation, as multiple stakeholders are implicated.

In Canada, funding for adult education and training is equally divided between the employer and the individual, through self-financing (Desjardin et al., 2007). For those employers in more remote communities who find it difficult to recruit skilled workers in the region, one obvious solution to the problem “is for employers to become more engaged in training their existing workforce” (2003, p. 77).

Green, Galletto and Haines (2005) indicate larger firms are more likely to finance training opportunities for their employees, than small firms. In fact, firm size was the largest predictor related to employer participation in school-to-work apprenticeship programs. Evidence of these findings, are found in Alberta’s north. For example, a large northern employer—Canadian Natural Resources (CNQ), “makes available \$3000 annually to its employees for reimbursement for costs of tuition and resource” if directly related to the job, or the learners career with CNQ (Fahy & Steel, 2009, p. 23).

A workforce development network is an industry-led strategy that can improve the functioning of local labour market in the following three ways (Green et al, 2003). First, a network can improve the flow of information between employers and workers. Second, pooling resources across several firms with similar training needs reduces costs. Third, linkages are improved overtime, between school and work. In the case of the later, the employer may provide incentives (similar to NADC Bursary) that encourage students to pursue programs in advanced post-secondary education that connect to future employment with local industry.

Lastly, strategies may include formal partnerships between post-secondary institutes and potential employers; as a result, large firms may finance specific programs delivered through post-secondary institutes for the purpose of training a local workforce. Already, many career-related programming exists through CampusAlberta that provides training for those sectors in high demand, in northern communities. Therefore, the stretch to involve industry and firms in the development and execution of educational programs, for the explicit outcome of training workers may provide a fit in some cases.

### **3.4.2. Economic and Non-Economic Outcomes**

Directly funding educational programs through a formal partnership favourably positions industry to push an agenda that supports the needs of the job market first. Questions should be raised as to the value lost to both the learner and community, when students are more likely to encounter opportunities for lifelong ‘training,’ than for lifelong ‘learning.’ As Pittman, McGinty and Gerstl-Pepin (1999) point out:

While producing greater job marketability for the individual student has visceral appeal, the implications of this goal are troubling. Tying a student's achievement (knowledge and skills) to an economic outcome (competing in the global economy) places economic considerations in a position to dominate educational decision-making (p. 19).

Non-economic outcomes of education are viewed in “intellectual, political and ethical terms as creating critical thinkers and members of a participatory democracy” (Pittman, McGinty & Gerstl-Pepin, 1999, p. 21). In this regard, education focused on

the full capacity of learners is a powerful tool that builds sustainable futures. As elegantly described by a practitioner from South Africa:

Education is at the heart of reconciliation, reconstruction and nation building programs. Is education not a tool to enhance the realization of people's full potential? If this were the case, the act of plunging into education is an empowering process. It is an act of enhancing the capacity and ability of people to act in a manner that directly and indirectly benefits them, their environment and the rest of creation (Mkhabela, 2008, p. 63).

Strategies that pool resources and expertise, share a common vision and are able to equitably balance needs of all stakeholders in educational decision-making, should be considered when addressing issues related to expanding the local workforce, through training. The importance of those considerations that place the needs of the learner and their potential for growth, above economic outcomes cannot be overstressed.

#### **4. Educational Opportunities: Innovation and Collaboration**

Soots, Sousa, and Roseland (2009) point to the profound impact that political and economic restructuring, over the past 30 years, has had on the social economy and economic economy. To adjust, non-profits, as well as educational institutes alike, have taken on a greater responsibility to address social needs, environmental concerns and fluctuations to the local marketplace. Furthermore, there is an increasing need, for an inter- and cross- disciplinary approach to the complex social, economic and environmental problems facing society today. (Soots, et al., 2009).

Thus, it is with frequency and urgency that regions around the globe are transitioning towards a knowledge based economy to address these complex changes. Accordingly, knowledge production and utilization, as well as innovation and social cohesion, are key processes for long-term sustainability. To this point, the European Strategy for Sustainable Development addressed the importance of education in the following way:

Education is viewed as a prerequisite for promoting the behavioral changes and providing all citizens with the key competences needed to achieve sustainable development. Success in reversing unsustainable trends will, to a large extent, depend on high-quality education for sustainable development (GHK Consulting, 2008, p. 6).

This section draws on case studies and reports primarily from the European Union, Australia and North America that have integrated educational opportunities into regional, sustainable development strategies. By demonstrating what is already available, Hinton and Grande Cache are better able to successfully integrate strategies into their own vision and planning process that align with a knowledge based economy. The effectiveness of the following strategies (as indicated below), is demonstrated through a social economy approach:

- Learning Communities and the knowledge based economy.
- Education for Sustainable Development.
  - Innovation and Learning Centres.

#### **4.1. Positioning Educational Opportunities for Growth in a Knowledge Based Economy**

Romer (1986, 1990) argues that technology and knowledge production are now essential components of the economic system (p. 32). Yet, economic systems do not exist in isolation, but are bounded to community development strategies. Fundamentally, “both require human and social capital derived from higher education levels, skills development and the capacity for knowledge transfer” (Alberta Advanced Education, 2005, p. 11). As indicated, investment in a regional development strategy is multi-dimensional, and must enable all learners to cultivate those skills, knowledge and networks that build cohesion, in addition to achieving measurable economic outcomes.

Knowledge based economies are not a ‘one-size fits all’ deal to planning. How new skills and information are utilized to foster regional growth may depend on a number of local factors and variables that include: the size of the town or region; existing infrastructure and partnerships; the degree a vision is shared across public, private and community stakeholders; resource commitment (e.g. funding); as well as the “ability of locales to generate, attract and retain the highly skilled workers” (Florida, 2000, p. 8). Greater emphasis is required across all sectors (e.g. economic, public, educational, civic and voluntary) to invest in citizens through meaningful education, training and lifelong learning. As such, frameworks that emphasize educational opportunities as strategies for economic growth and community wellbeing are provided below.

##### **4.1.1. Learning Communities**

The concept of ‘learning communities,’ is gaining momentum in Europe, Australia, as well as at home, in Canada—estimates suggest there are more than 300 learning communities worldwide. To date, the concept is informed by over thirty years of research and development by UNESCO (Faris, 2001). Faris, a strong advocate behind the movement in Canada, provides the following, widely used definition:

Learning communities are neighbourhoods, villages, towns, cities or regions that explicitly use lifelong learning as an organizing principle and social/cultural goal in order to promote collaboration of their civic, economic, public, voluntary and education sectors to enhance social, economic and environmental conditions on a sustainable, inclusive basis. (Faris, 2007, PowerPoint Presentation).

Put simply, learning communities are focused on the integration of lifelong learning into community planning for sustainable futures. Often, communities that are preparing to transition towards a knowledge based economy, adopt this concept as a framework to inform decision making and goal setting. This approach aids in this transition from resource dependency to knowledge production, through its emphasis on the mobilization of learning resources and expertise across all community sectors, including the economic, private, public, civic and voluntary (Faris, 2001). Benefits associated with the integration of this framework into community planning include: healthy communities, social inclusion and civic engagement, environmental sustainability and economic diversification (see appendix B for Faris’s conceptual framework).

In Canada, the development of learning communities is supported at the national level, by the Canadian Council on Learning (CCL). In the past, this organization has helped communities measure their progress to achieve their goals and objectives, as officially designated learning communities. Communities with official designation include large urban centers: Victoria (BC), Vancouver (BC), and Edmonton (AB), as well as smaller communities such as, Fort Erie (ONT), and St John's (NFL). In the example of Fort Erie, project outcomes have included the development of a website and a learning community committee (Wilson, 2008).

#### **4.1.2. Learning Communities and Planning Tools: The Composite Learning Index**

In 2006, the Canadian Council on Learning (CCL) developed a Composite Learning Index (CLI), or benchmark tool that, “allows communities to examine their strengths and weaknesses in the area of learning—in school, in the home, at work and in the community” (Canadian Council on Learning, 2010, p. 2). The 2010 report directs communities to their website, to learn more about the comprehensive role this tool can play in futures planning:

With new results published on CCL's website every spring, the CLI is an objective and reliable measurement tool that can help communities make the best possible decisions about learning... that will strengthen social ties bolster the economy and hopefully improve people's lives. (Canadian Council on Learning, 2010, p. 2)

More than 4,500 communities across Canada have been evaluated with the CLI, and given numeric scores to understand how they rate. High scores suggest a community “possesses the kinds of learning conditions that foster social and economic well-being” (Canadian Council on Learning, 2010, 2). Whereas lower scores show the opposite—a community is underperforming in areas key to lifelong learning.

CLI indicators are organized into four learning pillars:

- Learning to Know - track the development of skills and knowledge such as literacy, numeracy, and critical thinking (e.g. post-secondary enrollment);
- Learning to Do - track the acquisition of applied skills tied to occupational success (e.g. workplace training);
- Learning to Live Together - track the cultivation of respect and concern for others, including social cohesion;
- Learning to Be - track areas of learning related to creativity, personal development, and health in the physical, and spiritual senses. (Canadian Council on Learning, 2010. p. 4).

#### **4.1.3. Education for Sustainable Development**

Hinton and Grande Cache are looking for sustainable solutions that address the current needs of all lifelong learners, and desire to enhance educational opportunities over time (e.g. a site-based post-secondary institute). Both communities express further, the need to remain viable in a changing marketplace,

and attractive to families and professionals, overtime. Education for Sustainable Development (ESD), offers a successful planning framework that may be integrated into Hinton and Grande Cache to address areas relating to education and community development.

Like Learning Communities, ESD is a planning framework that is also gaining strong momentum, specifically in Europe (e.g. Holland and England), Australia and New Zealand. From 2005-2014, the United Nations emphasized the importance of activities in this area, by launching the decade of Education for Sustainable Development. At its core, ESD seeks to integrate, “the tenets, values and practices of sustainable development into all aspects of education and learning” (UNESCO, 2009). As such, ESD is deeply concerned with the equitable and responsible management of community resources (e.g. environmental, economic and social), overtime. As such, the role of education and training should contribute to all three axes of sustainable development, as described by the following definition:

Education for Sustainable Development is concerned with providing all citizens “the opportunity to acquire the values, competencies, knowledge and skills that enables him or her to contribute to humane, socially just, economically viable and ecologically sustainable future (UNESCO, 2009).

ESD encompasses a lifelong learning process; meaning it should permeate all formal, non-formal and informal learning opportunities. The concept recognizes that because “values, lifestyles and attitudes are established from an early age, the role of education is of particular importance for children” (GHK, 2008, p. 6). Yet, ESD is also concerned with lifewide learning, as such it should integrate into all levels of programming, “including vocational education, training for educators, and continuing education for professionals and decision makers” (GHK, 2008, p. 6). As such, all members of a community (including individuals, public, corporate and educational institutes) are required to develop competences in order to integrate sustainable development in all actions and decisions.

#### **4.1.4. Making ESD Happen: Implementation, Reflection and Cooperation**

Findings from a UNESCO follow-up report situates the role of ESD as “challenging mindsets and actions” through a “value-driven educational process” that cultivates the development of people’s skills, responsibilities and proactive engagement in building sustainable communities (UNESCO, 2011, p. 19). The 2011 report, which studied several ESD programs around the world, sets out implementation, evaluation, and reflection strategies, to guide ESD opportunities. See appendix F to learn more about key lessons learned and best practices from the 2011 UNESCO report.

Drawing on research on the social economy and organizational clustering, co-location is shown as Innovation and Learning Centres: Multi-Use and Co-Location Strategies an effective means to facilitate broader social change leading to sustainable futures. Innovation and Learning Centres, such as the Community Learning Campus in Olds or the Banff Centre, bring a variety of players and expertise together, under one roof, to help foster and support the kind of collaboration and innovation needed to address those challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

See Section 6 for more information on the Learning Campus in Olds, and the Banff Centre.

Co-location in the context of this report refers to partnerships between various educational institutes, non-profits and public agencies that are joined together in one facility. For example, the Community Learning Campus (CLC) in Olds, Alberta, is a collaborative partnership between a rural-based school division and a regional college. The high school and wellness facility are co-located in the same building, where additional space is rented out to service providers, such as Family Services, and includes a career centre.

Recent effort and coordination to build a high school in Jasper that will house two school divisions in one facility offers a smaller scale example of co-location, in Yellowhead County (see section 6 for more information). As demonstrated above, co-location and innovation Centres come in a variety of forms, but generally share several key features (Brotsky, 2004):

- They are composed of multiple tenant organizations (primarily non-profits and social enterprises);
- They exist in a physical site, usually consisting of one or more buildings closely situated; and,
- They have the explicit purpose to provide affordable, stable work environments, to build capacity, and to support the missions of the tenant organizations.

Brotsky (2004) points out that the place-based nature of these Centres, creates dynamic hubs for the broader community to meet and organize, thereby extending the benefit of co-location to the local community. This has been the case for university led partnerships that have evolved to create and coordinate innovative and collaborative programs in response to the needs of their community and environment.

For example, the University of Winnipeg's Innovative Learning Centre (ILC) is a collaborative partnership with the local school district that encourages continued student enrollment in secondary and post-secondary education. ILC programs connect young students with hands-on learning, grounded in science and nature, as well as traditional knowledge through summer camps, hosting classes at the university, and by coordinating after school care at ten inner city schools. See section 6 to learn more about the Innovative Learning Centre.

The Yukon Research Institute, located at the Yukon College in Whitehorse, is a second example of an innovative and collaborative program that enlists cross-disciplinary experts, shares resources, and conducts place-based outreach that extends benefits back to the local community and environment, all in one facility. See section 6 to learn more about the university and its six, locally based collaborative projects focused on science technology, the environment and the social economy.

Lastly, multi-use and co-location facilities may have significant presence in the community, both physically and through their reputation. The physical building's infrastructure often embodies the values of the organization that works within it. As

in the case for the Banff Centre, in Banff National Park, the 43-acre ‘village for the arts’ provides space and infrastructure that complement the natural environment, and are designed to inspire collaboration. Evidentially, Soots, et al. (2010) indicate “the layout of these Centres is almost always intentionally designed to facilitate collaboration, co-operation, as well as the cross-pollination of ideas and, spawn new and innovative initiatives.” (p. 10). See section 6 to learn more about the Banff Centre as a Multi-use Innovation Centre.

As shown in these brief examples, co-location, innovation and multi-use facilities can serve to “break down silos, increase opportunities for collaboration and cooperation, create knowledge and learning networks and spark social innovation”, all while sharing resources (Soots et al., 2010). As described further in the section 6 for the case titled Innovation and Learning Centres, co-location is one-way organizations and educational institutes respond to those challenges created by the knowledge based economy. Ultimately, it is through collaboration that organizations, institutes and communities are strengthened to cope with the uncertainty that lies ahead.

## **5. Moving Forward – Recommendations**

As stated in the introduction to this report, the purpose was to provide the members of Hinton and Grande Cache with a means to conceptualize the role of education and what educational opportunities should be explored. As shown above, there are a number of options that could be strategically considered should education become a priority focus for future research. To that end we provide four recommendations that we ask the members to consider as they proceed to develop a strategic vision to support the efforts by Hinton and Grande Cache to strengthen the local economy through education.

### **1. Determine the local needs and priorities associated with educational opportunities that will support Hinton and Grande Cache**

The content of this report serves as an introduction to considering what educational opportunities can be considered for both Hinton and Grande Cache. However, we approached this report with very little background and understanding of the communities’ actual needs and priorities. We conducted this review in keeping a broader perspective, and future research should aim to narrow any review by conducting systematic review of what the communities’ needs are in relation to education.

### **2. Conduct a comprehensive inventory and in-depth analysis of existing educational opportunities in the region**

As shown above, there is a lot of exciting and potential work that is currently implemented in different jurisdictions. However, we do not suggest that these efforts be prescriptively implemented in Hinton and Grande Cache. Furthermore, we are not suggesting that we captured all of the efforts that are occurring in Hinton, Grande Cache and the surrounding region. For that reason we recommending that

an inventory and analysis be conducted in order to understand the region's assets as well as potential gaps.

### **3. Integrate any new initiatives into existing opportunities**

Should an inventory be conducted it should be expected that any initiative recognize the unique nature of the individual communities. A key strength of Hinton and Grande Cache is that each brings a strong tradition of resiliency in addressing the complex social and economic challenges. For that reason any new educational initiatives should build upon what is already in place in order to strengthen the local economy and establish public support for these initiatives.

### **4. Explore the feasibility of developing an innovation or learning centre.**

As shown in section 4, communities have successfully implemented innovation and learning centres to serve a variety of purposes. These centres can be sites for business training or to support local community development. In all cases these centres support different forms of communities and their unique needs. We encourage that an innovation or learning centre should be based on a partnership approach as well as reflect the unique asset of Hinton and Grande Cache being the gateway to Jasper National Park.

## **6. Case Studies: Strategies for Learning Opportunities**

In this section we provide ten mini-case studies. Each case was referred to in different parts of this report. The purpose of including these cases is to provide a broader description of individual examples of successful education oriented initiatives. All cases resemble conditions and circumstances currently facing Hinton and Grande Cache. We encourage the reader to further explore each of the cases by accessing the links provided.

### **6.1. Bow Valley College and Regional Community Partners <sup>14</sup>**

In 2011 members of Bow Valley College initiated the community engagement in post-secondary education solutions project. This project involved consultations with community members from four towns in southern Alberta to deepen the college's understanding of their role in the community as a provider of post-secondary education.

The community identified five program areas as community priorities. Those included health care related programming, small business and entrepreneurial training, high school upgrading, pre-employment training leading to employment and trades (Bow Valley College, 2011). Emphasis was placed on programming that would support the needs of the local business community, as part of an economic development and sustainability plan. The needs identified by the business community were viewed different from other employers, and included "employee

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<sup>14</sup> <http://bowvalleycollege.ca/>

development in the areas of interpersonal, management, leadership and communication skills (Bow Valley College, 2011, p. 5).

The final report outlined three ways the community felt access to post-secondary education could be enhanced. Respondent's answers were grouped in the following areas:

- Student support (e.g. learning centres, career counseling, facilitators, etc.);
- Financial assistance including scholarships, affordable housing and affordable continuing education opportunities for seniors;
- Employer support and building relationships with local businesses (Bow Valley College, 2011, p. 8-9).

During the consultation, each town was asked to answer the question: "what can we do as a community to sustain locally based adult post-secondary education." Discussions resulted in three major themes: communication, collaboration and presence (Bow Valley College, 2011, p. 9). The theme of 'communication' called for better communication between post-secondary institutions, government, businesses, schools, agencies and community members, and asked for a more effective knowledge transfer between sectors and community. Desired benefits stemming from collaboration included co-locating, shared marketing and non-duplication in programming. Collaboration was seen to be vital to engage community support. Lastly, communities felt if post-secondary services were offered locally, they would be well supported—the key to success was having a local physical presence.

## **6.2. University Involvement in the Community: Developing a Model for Greatness – The Great Cities Program, University of Illinois at Chicago<sup>15</sup>**

An example of an innovative partnership between a university and its host region is the Great Cities Program. Although this program explores the relationship between a university and a large metropolitan area, the blue print provided, and lessons learned are transferable to other regions looking to pursue long term partnerships with a post-secondary institute. The question of what can cities and region's do to make themselves into great places is the core philosophy that drives this initiative.

The term, Great Cities is the local university's response and commitment to enhance their community by providing and coordinating educational opportunities. University of Illinois at Chicago (UIC) aligns its vast resources, such as teaching, research and service programs to improve the quality of life in an urban setting, in Chicago. Mindful not to be parochial, the work at UIC, will "contribute to a broader understanding of what is needed for any great city to develop and thrive" (Weiwel & Broski, 1997, p.2). Researchers draw from their own strengths and academic disciplines to work with community-level questions directed at sustainable development. It is the quality of this interaction that allows the partnership to grow in a way that is mutually beneficial to both partners involved:

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<sup>15</sup> <http://www.uic.edu/cuppa/gci/aboutus/index.shtml>.

## **Lessons Learned:**

The researchers offer for themes grouped as lessons learned, that may provide wider application to communities seeking to build partnership models with a post-secondary institute. According to Wiewel & Browski (2007) these include:

- The importance of leadership;
- The skills required for development of partnerships;
- The need to recognize the strengths and weaknesses of different partners;
- And the need for change in organizational structures and bureaucratic processes.

### **6.3. A Community Approach to Knowing: Innovation and Research Programs – The Yukon Research Centre (YRC) of Yukon College <sup>16</sup>**

The case study of the Yukon Research Centre (YRC) demonstrates ways a northern university sets precedents to be relevant to the issues and opportunities of the northern community, and by extending benefits back to the community where the university is located. According to their website YRC provides a number of services at the local and territorial level that supports the goals of collaborative research, innovation and outreach to needs of northerners. This includes providing funding, laboratory space, support space, a residence for researchers, consulting services, and logistics support.

Six relatively autonomous, yet overlapping programs operate out of the YRC: Cold Climate Innovation, Technology Innovation, Northern Climate Exchange, Science Adventures, Resources and Sustainable Development in the Arctic, and Social Economy Research Network of Northern Canada. Combined, these programs provide leadership and innovation in the development of knowledge and skills that have positive impacts on the region, and within the global network of northern community studies.

### **6.4. Connecting Students and Colleges: Career Related Programming - Olds Junior Senior High School, Olds, Alberta<sup>17</sup>**

Olds Junior Senior High School offers a variety of programs that enable students to work with employers through trades and apprenticeship training, (e.g. the Registered Apprenticeship Program), and through local partnerships with Olds College, coordinated through the Community Learning Campus. In the latter instance, Dual credit programs enable students to earn credit towards both their high school diploma and first year of college, essentially fast tracking their schooling with the intention to help participants make a seamless transition into a post-secondary institute. In 2010, the Community Learning Campus hosted the first ever, Dual Credit Symposium, to learn best practices from leaders across the province. A total of sixty-eight

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<sup>16</sup> <http://www.yukoncollege.yk.ca/research>

<sup>17</sup> <http://www.communitylearningcampus.ca/>

representatives from colleges, universities and school divisions were in attendance to discuss the program, funding and pilot projects.

The apprenticeship programs are designed to address the local needs of the community, which has a strong history as an agricultural region, with developments in natural resources. Dual credit opportunities for Chinook's Edge students include welding, meat processing, human relations, fashion, and equine studies, with courses delivered through a blend of on-site programming at Olds College facilities, as well as video-conferencing and other distributed learning technologies.

The program is proving to be successful to learners. In the 2005 academic year, 35 students, or 8 percent of the school population participated in Pre-employment Welding through the Registered Apprenticeship Program (RAP). Seven students attended regular classes in the morning and the welding program in the afternoon for 480 hours of instruction. Upon completion of the course, students received a Pre-Employment Welding Certificate from Olds College. It was noted that in Alberta, the average age for entry into first year welding was at twenty-eight (Silva & Phillips, 2007, p. 48), whereas RAP students have a significant advantage; they are well aligned to attend their second year of apprenticeship at as early as age eighteen.

#### **6.5. Expanding the Impact of Dual Credit Programs - Northern Lakes College & Regional School Divisions, Slave Lake, Alberta**

A new partnership between Northern Lakes College and High Prairie School Division will offer dual credit programming to local high school students for the 2011/2012 academic year. As of February 2012, the college will offer a total of five program dual credit options that include: Emergency Medical Responder, Forestry and Harvesting Technician, Health Care Aide, Power Engineering 4<sup>th</sup> Class and Welding (Northern Lakes College, 2011). The College first began offering dual credits to Peace River students in 2010, and is now extending the program to the public and catholic school divisions in Slave Lake, Alberta. Based on initial success from significant enrollment in welding and power engineering programs, the College will consider adding new programs for the dual credit, as more school divisions show interest.

The College supports the program by instructing course, which are generally delivered at the high school, using online or video conferencing system. Most courses require students attend some labs on weekends at either their school or the college campus to practice hands on skills. In addition, the college offers those high school students who are successful in the dual credit program, a five hundred dollar bursary upon graduation that can be used towards future enrollment at the college.

In a region with low participation rates in post-secondary education, President and CEO of Northern Lakes College, sees dual credit programs as providing a positive investment in the region and its learners, by improving "the transition rate from high school to post-secondary" (Northern Lakes College, 2011, News Release). In addition, providing learners with the opportunity to take college courses during the academic year might give students, "the motivational boost they need to stay in school and build confidence needed to continue on a post-secondary path" he adds.

## **6.6. A rural community's efforts to develop a Multi-Use Learning Facility - Community Learning Campus at Olds College, Olds, Alberta<sup>18</sup>**

Olds is a rural town, located in Central Alberta about half way between Red Deer and Calgary. This region of the province is more densely populated than Yellowhead County, yet the town of Olds has a similar population size, of 7300, to Hinton's 9,825. Yet, the demographics of both towns are quite different. For example, Olds has few visible minorities, and maintains a competitive high school completion rate of 95 percent (Statistic Canada). Partnerships between the local school division, Chinook's Edge, Olds College, and the community are numerous, and likely related to the college's longevity; in 2013, Olds College will celebrate its one-hundredth year centennial.

Much of the College's history and success is fostered through a strong connection to place, which includes the development of a well recognized, locally responsive, agriculturally focused institution. Yet, the college offers more than just agricultural programs. Today, Olds College is a leader in integrated learning and applied research – not just in the field of agriculture but in horticulture, land and environmental management, business, fashion and more (Olds College, 2011).

The Community Learning Campus (CLC) is a unique initiative put forth from a partnership between Chinook's Edge School District, Olds College, the community and local municipalities. Central to the project is the guiding philosophy of collaboration, where community resources are shared. The project outcome is a localized, multi-use facility. Currently, the Ralph Klein Centre, houses both the high school, and the Wellness Centre. In addition to a recreational facility, the Wellness Centre is home to a wide range of service providers that include: the Central Alberta Child and Family Services Authority, Alberta Employment and Immigration (also known as Alberta Works), an Integrated Career Centre and counselors.

At the height of its vision, the CLC views its role and outcomes as innovative, which includes the "re-conceptualization of learning in the future" (Silva & Philips, 2007, p. 51). To achieve this outcome, the CLC will focus on links and opportunities in the following project areas:

- A core high school tailored to offer specialized teaching and learning methods, enhanced through an eLearning Core, Fine Arts and Multimedia Centre, as well as Health and Wellness Centre.
- A Career Centre to integrate the high school and college facilities and programs with community-based career counselors. Programming is to include: academics, applied academics, relevant Career and Technology Studies (CTS), job shadowing, mentorship, internships, apprenticeships, portfolio development, and research assistants' transition opportunities (Silva & Philips, 2007).
- Olds College Campus and use of existing programs and facilities.

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<sup>18</sup> [www.communitylearningcampus.ca](http://www.communitylearningcampus.ca)

- A Community Engagement Site that acts as a hub for community members to access resources (e.g. programs, services and courseware) through on-line learning applications.

To date the project has formed strong partnerships and developed a business plan. Several facilities, including the Ralph Klein Recreation Centre, the Bell eLearning Centre, the Fine Arts and Multi-Media Centre, have now been open to the public, since March 2010 (Bexon & Overwater, 2011). Revenue from these facilities provides the project with funding to carry the vision into the future. For example, in 2012, the CLC announced plans to use revenue to hire a Director of Learning. They will be responsible to work closely with the school districts to ensure, “they are fully utilizing CLC expertise and resources to enhance the delivery of their own curriculum” (Bexon & Woldalski, 2012. Media release).

From a project perspective, the CLC has been incredibly successful at laying out a shared, unified vision and building partnerships to support the development of the project. Advocates of the program see one of the CLC’s greatest achievements to date, is the work done to make high school relevant, meaningful and purposeful to the needs of students, as they transition to college. Lee Tipman, Division Principal and Coordinator of the Health Pathways program, views CLC as having a strong impact for its learners:

Students throughout our division are discovering college courses while still in high school, they are experiencing many different types of courses and careers as they discover their career path, and then they are transitioning easily into post-secondary or the next stage of their work. All of the thought that went into developing the CLC is coming to fruition. (Bexon & Overwater, 2011, media release).

### **6.7. Two Schools, One Roof –Co-location in a small community - Grande Yellowhead Public School Division and Conseil Scolaire Centre-Nord<sup>19</sup>**

An excellent example of two facilities working together to share resources, also happens to be close to ‘home.’ The initiative is from the town of Jasper, and involves recent developments to house two schools together, in one facility. Already, “funding has been announced, the location has been finalized, and an architect has been selected” (Grande Yellowhead Public School Division, 2011, Media Release).

Building a new high school facility has been a top priority for the Grande Yellowhead Public School Division, for the past several years, as the current building is in need of serious repairs. The Francophone School, École Desrochers, has also been leasing space from the high school and community, and is “eager to see a joint school facility built” (Grande Yellowhead Public School Division, 2011, Media Release). Both school districts: the public and Francophone, have encouraged public participation in the project. This includes holding public community consultation to inform the development of the joint facility, and having student representatives from each school, help select the architecture.

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<sup>19</sup> <http://www.gypsd.ca/index.php/jasper-high-school-build>

Prior to the completion of the facility, both school districts will set precedents by developing “agreements that will outline how two schools will function in a shared facility.” A comprehensive agreement ensures the facility meets the needs of their learners, while respecting the distinct identity and mandate of both school divisions. The media release (2011), cites “the strong, positive relationship,” between stakeholders across the two divisions as being, “the foundation that will allow a comprehensive agreement to be established” (Grande Yellowhead Public School Division. 2011). This initial comprehensive agreement may have wider application; as a template, for other divisions interested in co-locating schools under one facility.

### **6.8. An Innovative Learning Centre - University of Winnipeg and Winnipeg School Division<sup>20</sup>**

Formed in 2007, the Innovative Learning Centre (ILC) is focused on “closing the graduation gap” by offering programming grounded “in the philosophy of connecting elementary and secondary students to their school and learning community” (University of Winnipeg, 2010). The intent for these types of programs is to engage young students in their education, with the hopes they will carry on their schooling, as adults. One aspect of success for the program is higher enrollments from high school graduation into postsecondary institutions.

According to the Innovative Learning Centre brochure programs are designed to nurture environmental stewardship, respect indigenous science and enhance Traditional knowledge with a relevant curriculum (University of Winnipeg, 2008a). Over the past few years, ILC has witnessed thousands of young learners participate in their diverse programming which has grown from the past five years to include campus visits and field trips, as well as after school, weekend and summer camps. The following is a brief summary of each of ILC’s programs:

- Eco-Kids on Campus – Elementary school students in grade six, who attend science class at the University of Winnipeg, one afternoon a week over a ten-week period. Classes are delivered by U Winnipeg’s Faculty of Science.
- Enviro-Techs Program – Is delivered to secondary students. The course, written and developed by U Winnipeg, is offered through the U Winnipeg Collegiate (i.e. their on-campus high school). Grade ten students gain high school credit in Environmental Sciences, by working with college and community partners to further promote environmental awareness.
- Eco-kids After School – Is coordinated by ILC, and involves recreation workers delivering after school programming to students age seven to twelve, in ten inner city schools.
- Eco-U-Summer Kids Camp – Is one of the largest day camp programs available specifically to those youth, at risk in the city of Winnipeg. The program is a huge success; more than 1,700 students participated in Eco-U-Summer Kids Camp in the first year of operation in 2007. The day camp is divided into four areas of programming that include earth, fire, wind and water. Activities supported through U Winnipeg include tending the

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<sup>20</sup> <http://www.uwinnipeg.ca/index/community-ilc>

community garden, participating in smudging ceremonies, experiencing storytelling and field trips.

ILC continues to receive project funding from multiple partners, including government, the school divisions and University of Winnipeg. In the past, private donations and foundation gifts allowed for more diversified programming. The capacity to secure funding, and remain economically sustainable enables the program to have a wide reach, especially for those families unable to pay registration fees. For example, the summer camp program is provided at no cost to the participant, and includes lunches, snacks and field trips. The projects has grown to include a number of new directions focused on addressing the unique needs of learner's in different age groups, and delivered to various locales, including the University and after school programs delivered at inner city schools

The foundation for success stems from the strong, shared vision between UWinnipeg and the ILC, where both partners believe that "education is the key to the future." Behind each program and through the partnership is an emphasis to keep "students in school at all levels, across the city and within the province" (University of Winnipeg, 2008b, news release).

### **6.9. Collaborating for Regional Development - Provincial University of Lapland**

In Finland, the Provincial University of Lapland has pooled the expertise of four post-secondary institutes, to address the needs of students living in remote communities, in co-operation with regional stakeholders. Developed in 2003, the consortium is a network of sub-regions and institutions of higher education that have aligned to address some challenges that remote, northern communities are faced with. These challenges have been identified by researchers to include, "long distances, depopulation, decreasing number of students, low-skilled population and limited absorptive capacity of small and medium sized enterprises" (Pekkarinen & Konu, 2007, PowerPoint presentation).

Project objectives for the University are four fold: to support the development of the regions, widening access to higher education, increasing collaboration between post-secondary education institutes and fostering innovation in the northern Lapland region of Finland (Goddard & Pukka, 2008).

The first step to organizing a consortium of universities, within this example, was the commitment from each regional post-secondary institution to establish a network in every remote sub-region. This task involved collaborative planning, and required each region define their needs. The next step, known as the implementation plan, utilized a local competence strategy to analyze the present situation. The focus areas for regional economic development and, the objectives of the each regional post-secondary institute were defined. Lastly, a mutual agreement was developed to address what needs to be done, and the steps the consortium would take to get there, together.

Although the university operates through a network as 'one' institution, its strength is that each of the four institutes is focused to provide regional education and development that aligns with the needs of their own communities first. Ultimately,

the wellbeing of the whole region is made stronger through the sum of its parts. A commitment to the sub-regions is understood to enhance the sub-region's activities, enterprises and individuals. First, the sub-region's activities are enhanced through university support for its developments. Second, business enterprises and firms benefit, overtime with access to more qualified workforce, and through institutional level support for research and development. Lastly, the individual learner draws benefit from increased access to lifelong, post-secondary education in his or her own region.

#### **6.10. Arts, Education and Conferences in the Rocky Mountains - Banff Centre for Arts, Banff, Alberta<sup>21</sup>**

The Banff Centre is a public, board-governed, specialized Arts and Culture Institution operating under the authority of the Post-secondary Learning Act of the Province of Alberta (The Banff Centre, 2008). The Banff Centre has a rich, and long history as a “leader in the development and promotion of creative work in the arts, sciences, business and environment” dating back to its founding in 1933, by the University of Alberta (The Banff Centre, 2012). Since this time, the Centre has grown exponentially to become a world-renowned facility in arts, education and conferences. Arts programming, offered in every medium from visual to vocal, remains at the core of the Banff Centre. However, in addition to Arts, adult learners can participate in leadership programs (including Aboriginal Leadership and Management, and Leadership Development) and community health and wellness programs or attend special events (such as the Banff Film Festival, concerts, etc.). According to the Centre's Mandate:

The Centre's core area of specialization is the Arts, offered at the professional, post-graduate level. Programs are characterized by applied research, independent study, creation, collaboration, production, performance and dissemination of new work. (The Banff Centre, 2008, p. 1).

Through the course of its long history, the Centre has risen to become a “globally respected arts, cultural and educational institute and conference facility” (The Banff Centre, 2012). Today, the 43-acre ‘village for the arts’ boasts a wide array of programming, supporting infrastructure, and can host special events, meetings or conferences for upwards of a thousand guests. However, this level of success represents the accumulation of more than seventy-five years of work that has included mindful cultivation, determination and gradual growth, towards a united vision to ‘inspiring creativity’.

The Centre has expanded over time, by slowly adding quality programs and events that complement social, cultural and economic developments both in the region, and globally. In turn, faculty described as luminaries in their field, and participant learners flock to the Centre from around the world; they come for the experience, the mountain location, its reputation of excellence and the luxurious amenities it provides. To remain economically viable, the Centre relies on provincial and national funding, and also takes a proactive stance to generate its own revenue stream through entrepreneurial activities. For example, during the recession in the 1990s, the Banff Centre, like many

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<sup>21</sup> <http://www.banffcentre.ca/>

educational institutes in the province, experienced extensive funding cuts. Under financial stress, the Centre responded with an entrepreneurial mindset; conference facilities were created to generate consistent revenue.

Private donations and fundraising represent a second important source of funding. Individual contributions made to the Centre have been generous in the past, including one private donation of a million dollars. From 2008-2012, private donations and fundraising activities were amassed for the 'Banff Centre Revitalization' project, encompassing over \$100 million capital projects (e.g. new facilities, upgrades, scholarship endowment fund, etc.).

Appendix A – Opportunities for Formal, Informal and Non-Formal Learning in Hinton and Grande Cache.

	Description	Participants/ Partnerships	Type of Education	Opportunity	Location
Hinton Training Centre (HTC) <a href="https://extranet.gov.ab.ca/srd/HTC/">https://extranet.gov.ab.ca/srd/HTC/</a>	A self contained, educational and training facility for renewable resources to support sustainable resource development  Focus is to “develop and delivery training to forest and land managers and fire suppression personnel”	Alberta Provincial Government employees, Federal Government, Provincial/Federal partnerships, youth groups, Municipalities, Law Enforcement and Emergency Fire Department, Colleges and Universities, Resource Industries (i.e. Hinton Pulp), Forest Engineering Research Institute of Canada, etc.	Formal, non-formal and informal.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Partnered with NAIT (1960s) to offer site-based, formal training/courses in forestry.</li> <li>- Can similar partnerships exist to offer new, relevant programming in life sciences, forestry and renewal resources?</li> <li>- Employs over 30 staff.</li> </ul>	Hinton
Foothills Research Institute (FRI) <a href="http://foothillsresearchinstitute.ca/">http://foothillsresearchinstitute.ca/</a>	FRI “has been conducting applied research on the cultural, ecological, economic and social values of Alberta’s forested	Local societies, government, municipalities, schools and their districts, non-profits, industry and post-secondary institutions.	Non-formal and Informal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lunch n’ learn speaker series,</li> <li>- R&amp;D world-class tools for bear monitoring,</li> <li>- Workshops,</li> <li>- Outreach&amp; Student participation (e.g. GIS</li> </ul>	Hinton

	Description	Participants/ Partnerships	Type of Education	Opportunity	Location
	landscape.”  Strong focus on education, outreach and sharing learning with the community, and partners across multiple sectors			day)  - Support ongoing postsecondary research  - Work with educators to provide hands on learning that is transferable to the classroom.  - Can formal training in natural resource management and research be offered in the future?	
Junior Forest Wardens and Junior Aboriginal Forest Wardens  <a href="http://www.srd.alberta.ca/AboutSRD/SeasonalEmployment/AlbertaJuniorForestRangers/Default.aspx">www.srd.alberta.ca/AboutSRD/SeasonalEmployment/AlbertaJuniorForestRangers/Default.aspx</a>	Is a provincial led initiative to engage youth in forestry or other natural resource careers through summer time crew placements.	Provincial Government, local students, Host community	Formal and informal	- Looks to the community for relevant, natural resource-based projects to work on.  - Seasonal employment and summer work experience available for local high school participants and graduates.	In the past, this program has been based out of Hinton and Grande Cache.
Palisades Stewardship Education Centre (PSEC)	“One of the country’s premier outdoor education facilities for youth and offers	Jasper National Park (JNP) and Grand Yellowhead Public School Division, FRI, etc.	Formal, informal and non-formal	- Programs and locally developed courses offered in stewardship, GIS and Aboriginal Awareness	12 km outside of Jasper

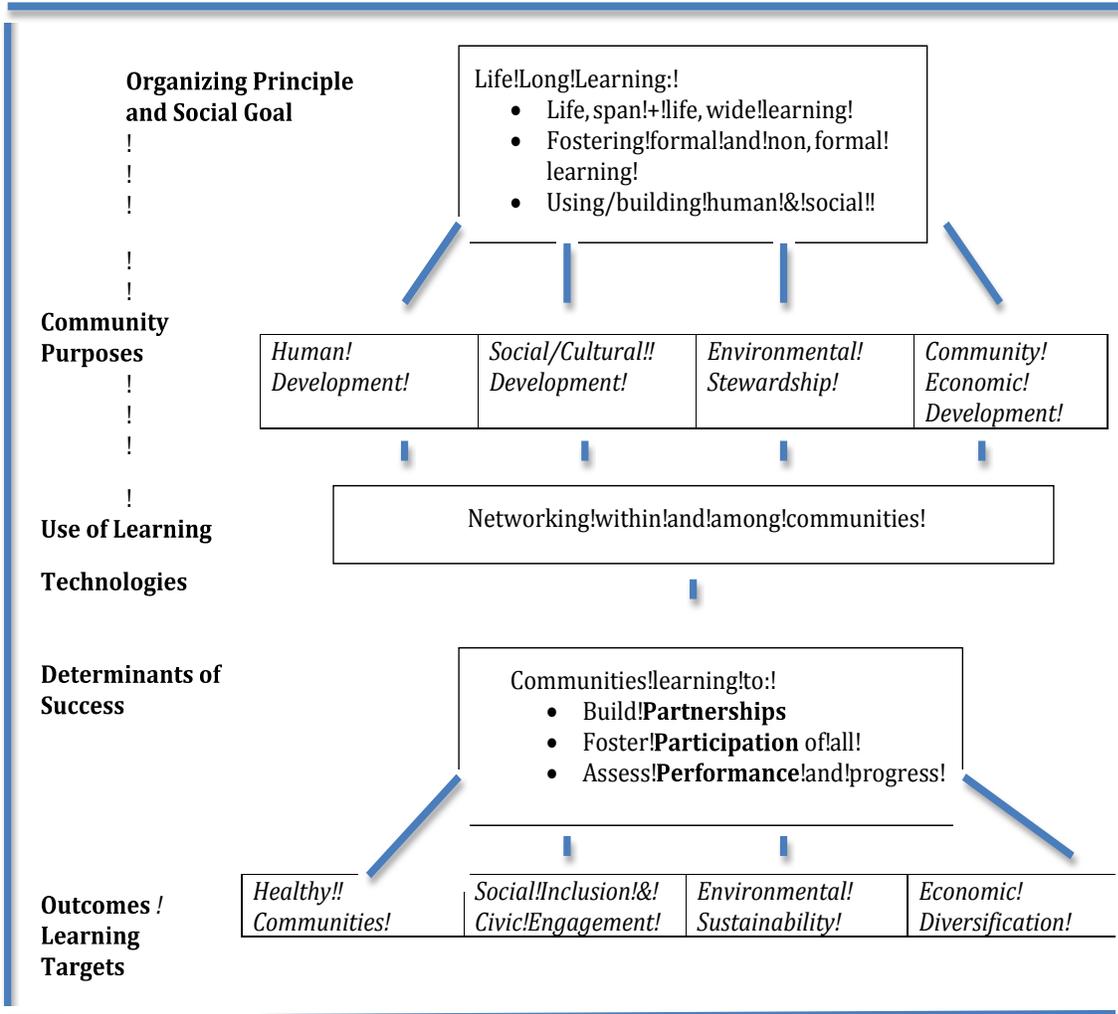
	Description	Participants/ Partnerships	Type of Education	Opportunity	Location
<a href="http://www.palisadescen-ter.com/">www.palisadescen-ter.com/</a>	additional programs and opportunities for adults, families and special groups.  The Palisades is a leading environmental educational facility within Canada	Collaborate on program and hands-on curriculum development.		- Offer Year round programs for high school students; including a selection of 4-day high school credit programs	
Hinton Community Green House <a href="http://www.hintoncommunitygreenhouse.org">www.hintoncommunitygreenhouse.org</a>	Includes two community-focused greenhouses and gardens.	Hinton Community Garden Society, Alberta Recreation and Parks Association, High school communication technology class, Kinder-Morgan Canada Inc. and, numerous support and funding from the local business community.	Non-formal	Three areas of focus:  - Improve food security, - Reduce greenhouse gas emissions, - Promote social cohesion and inclusiveness	Hinton
Athabasca River Basin Research Institute (ARBRI) <a href="http://www.arbri.athabasca">www.arbri.athabasca</a>	"...An innovative interdisciplinary research centre that studies the Athabasca River Basin and its	Will include, Athabasca University faculty members, students and associates, the fostering of linkages and partnerships across	Formal and non-formal	A key to the institute's success will be understanding the research needs of stakeholders, providing information on ongoing	Athabasca

	Description	Participants/ Partnerships	Type of Education	Opportunity	Location
<a href="http://scau.ca">scau.ca</a> .	people from a broad range of perspectives”	disciplines and between the university and broader community,		research initiatives and facilitating research to meet identified needs.	
Athabasca Watershed Council  <a href="http://www.awc-wpac.ca/">http://www.awc-wpac.ca/</a>	“...Is a multi-sector, community minded non-profit focused on present, and long term health of watersheds and their surrounding community (ecological, cultural, economical).	Alberta Watershed Planning and Advisory Councils, Alberta Water Council & Alberta Stewardship Network, Athabasca Watershed Stewardship Groups.	Formal and non-formal.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Improve watershed knowledge and understanding,</li> <li>- Increase awareness and education for all,</li> <li>- Encourage and work towards protection and conservation of watershed,</li> <li>- Help achieve healthy aquatic ecosystem, and safe, reliable water supplies.</li> </ul>	Hinton
Hinton Friendship Centre  <a href="http://www.anfca.com/friendship.html">http://www.anfca.com/friendship.html</a> .	<p>Friendship Centres work to improve the lives of Aboriginal people, as well as the communities they live in.</p> <p>“...A caring culturally driven community organization that</p>		Formal, non-formal and informal	<p>Programs offered are responsive and relevant to the diverse needs of the communities</p> <p>In Hinton, the following 5 programs are offered: Head Start program, the Cultural Connections for Aboriginal Youth (CCAY) formally known as the UMAC, Aboriginal Family Visitor/ Aboriginal</p>	Hinton

	Description	Participants/ Partnerships	Type of Education	Opportunity	Location
	is committed to improving the social, economic and educational opportunities available in their region”			Healthy Families program, Family Diversion Program and the Mamowichitowin program.	
The Learning Connection TLC)  <a href="http://www.thelearningconnectiongpsd.ca">www.thelearningconnectiongpsd.ca</a>	TLC is an alternative, non-traditional education centre and provides diverse programming kindergarten through grade 12.	Town of Edson, Grande Cache and Hinton, Grande Yellowhead Public School division, Palisades Stewardship Centre, etc.	Formal, and non-formal	TLC is flexible to students' needs. This includes offering continuous registration; print, online and hands-on courses; enhancement courses (e.g. video conferencing, outdoor excursions and field trips); training and apprenticeship experience, summer school (including the Palisades Stewardship Education Centre Summer Program) and counseling services for personal, academic and vocational needs.	Hinton, Edson and Grande Cache
Hinton Adult Learning Society  <a href="http://www.hintonlearning.ca">www.hintonlearning.ca</a>	Offers a number of informal education and wellness courses, delivered by	Partners with Literacy Alberta and Community Learning Network	Informal and non-formal.	2012 programs are offered in the following categories:  - General Interest (e.g. iPhone Basics),	Hinton

	Description	Participants/ Partnerships	Type of Education	Opportunity	Location
<a href="#">ng.ca.</a>	instructors and volunteers, as well as through video conferencing			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Employability Courses (e.g. computer basics, chainsaw safety certification),</li> <li>- Community Health and Wellness (e.g. parenting, health and diet, personal finances, mental wellbeing, etc.),</li> <li>- Adult Literacy (e.g. ESL, volunteer tutoring,</li> <li>- International English Language Testing System),</li> <li>- Video Conferencing – Various (e.g. family, health, business and non-profit management, personal growth, finances and wellbeing)</li> </ul>	

## Appendix B - Faris' Community Conceptual Framework



## Appendix C – Characteristics of Effective Secondary Training Programs: A Canadian Perspective

The following themes are identified as key components (or best practices) from secondary training programs in Alberta, British Columbia and Ontario (Silva & Philips, 2007, p. 67-72):

1. Early Career Awareness and Development
  - Programs are delivered to students in lower grades to increase future participation.
2. Vision and Support
  - Extends through all levels in the schools, school district and community; the vision must reflect the unique attributes of the community and its learners.
3. Active Partnerships
  - Well working partnership with community, community partners and agencies.
4. Flexibility in Design and Delivery
  - Scheduling, instruction and site delivery are “responsive to constant changes in the environment in which they must operate” (p. 67).
5. Program Design
  - Do not assume ‘one size fits all’—there are multiple ways to develop and delivery trades training. Internships can be offered in the summer or through holidays as well as delivered in classrooms, at college labs, on-line and on-site. Educational placements may involve individual or cooperative learning.
6. Scheduling of Instruction
  - To meet the needs of all stakeholders, including students, the school and community as well as employers. To accommodate the needs of rural students, some programs are offered at ‘non-standard’ school times (i.e. early mornings, evening and weekends, summer). For example, one program offers welding from 2:00pm to 10:00pm, to capitalize on the college lab while not in use (p. 68).
7. Marketing, Recruitment and Selection
  - Ensure students and community are fully aware of these specialty programs (i.e. site visits, guest speakers, brochures, sponsored events, etc.). Once recruited, a selection process may be useful to help “ensure that the students have the potential to be successful” (p. 69).
8. Articulation with Post-Secondary Institutions
  - “Articulation with post-secondary institutions may occur directly between the school or school district and the institution or it may be one step removed” (p. 70). Articulation ensures that student needs (developed through trades training) align with post-secondary requirement, courses and certification, once students make their transition from high school to the next level of training.

## 9. Active Employer Participation

- “Employers participate by providing worksite placements, guest speakers, tours, participating on industry advisory councils and, in some cases, by providing funding and/or other resources such as equipment, services or expertise” (p. 71). Initial consultation, ongoing relationship building as well as program evaluation can help keep employers invested in the program

## 10. Funding

- Known funding sources include school districts allocation (of core funding), provincial funding from ministries (e.g. dual credit, green certificate), Trusts, grants (accessed through partnerships with community, colleges and schools), governance structures (e.g. First Nation Bands) and industry stakeholders.

## Appendix D - Types of Institutions and Programs in Alberta<sup>22</sup>

Type of Institution	Institution	Credential &/or Programming	Research & Area of Special Focus
Comprehensive Academic and Research Institute (CARIs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- University of Calgary</li> <li>- University of Alberta</li> <li>- University of Lethbridge</li> <li>- Athabasca University</li> </ul>	Bachelor's master's and doctoral degrees; some transfer programs.	Applied & Scholarly Research.
Baccalaureate and Applied Studies Institutions (BASIs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Grant MacEwan University</li> <li>- Mount Royal University</li> </ul>	Academic upgrading to baccalaureate and applied degrees.	Applied research and scholarly activity to enhance instructional mandate.
Polytechnical Institutions (PIs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- NAIT</li> <li>- SAIT</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Apprenticeships</li> <li>- Certificates, diplomas, applied degrees, limited baccalaureate degree.</li> <li>- Continuing education.</li> </ul>	<p>Applied research initiatives; respond to market needs.</p> <p>Offer programs tailored to work place requirements.</p>
Independent Academic Institutions (IAIs)	<p>5 independent IAIs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ambrose University College</li> <li>- Canadian University College</li> <li>- Concordia University College of Alberta</li> <li>- The King's University College</li> <li>- St. Mary's University College</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Baccalaureate degrees</li> <li>- Approved Master's degrees in specified areas.</li> <li>- Independent programming issued their own certification</li> </ul>	<p>Private, University Colleges.</p> <p>Faith Based.</p>
Comprehensive Community Institutions (CCIs)	<p>11 public CCIs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Keyano College</li> <li>- Lethbridge College</li> <li>- Bow Valley College</li> <li>- Lakeland College</li> <li>- Medicine Hat</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Range of programming from academic upgrading to applied degrees.</li> <li>- Apprenticeship &amp; technical training</li> <li>- May offer 1<sup>st</sup> two years</li> </ul>	Responsible for providing stewardship of adult learning opportunities for defined geographic regions.

<sup>22</sup><http://www.cicic.ca/564/description.canada>

Type of Institution	Institution	Credential &/or Programming	Research & Area of Special Focus
	College - Grande Prairie Regional College - Northern Lakes College - Olds College - Portage College - Red Deer College	of degree programs in collaboration with degree-granting institutions.	Applied & Scholarly research.
Specialized Arts & Culture Institutions (SACIs)	- Alberta College of Art and Design - The Banff Centre	- ACAD offers range of degree and diploma programming focused on visual culture and design  - The Banff Centre specializes in non-credit professional development in fine arts, management studies, language and environmental training.	
Apprenticeship & Industry Training	- Training & Certification in 50+ designated trades & occupations.  - 10 post-secondary institutions (PIs & CCIs) provide most of the apprenticeship technical training.	Industry (employers and employees) establish training and certificate standards	Industry Driven System.  Government provides the legislative framework and administration support.

## Appendix E – Credentials in Alberta: Differences Between Certificate, Diploma, and Degree Programs at Universities, Colleges, and Technical Institutes

Programs	Description	Institutional Provider
Alberta trade certificate (apprenticeship) programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Available in approximately 50 designated trades in Alberta.</li> <li>• Take between three and four years to complete.</li> <li>• About 80 per cent of their time gaining on-the-job training and experience and 20 per cent attending classes.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PIs</li> <li>• CCIIs</li> </ul>
Certificate programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Prepare students for entry into specific occupations.</li> <li>• Normally involve one year or less of full-time study.</li> <li>• Normally require the completion of some high school studies (or completion) for admission and may also include mature students and some postsecondary requirements.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• BASIs</li> <li>• PIs</li> <li>• CCIIs</li> <li>• Private vocational trainer</li> <li>• Some cases CARI</li> </ul>
Diploma programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Generally prepare students for employment in a particular field or group of occupations.</li> <li>• Normally involve two years of full-time study.</li> <li>• May require high school completion or specific grades and subjects for admission</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• BASIs</li> <li>• PIs</li> <li>• CCIIs</li> <li>• Private vocational trainer</li> <li>• Some cases CARI</li> </ul>
Applied degree programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide enhanced career preparation at the bachelor's level that applies to a broader range of career and employment opportunities beyond entry level in an industry.</li> <li>• Consists of about three years of academic studies and about one year of related, supervised work experience in industry.</li> <li>• Applied degree programs may have admission requirements similar to those of diploma programs.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• BASIs</li> <li>• PIs</li> <li>• CCIIs</li> </ul>

Programs	Description	Institutional Provider
Bachelor's degree programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Usually require four years to complete but program length may vary by discipline and institution.</li> <li>• Similar admission requirements as applied</li> <li>• Bachelor's degree programs only offered by institutions that have received approval from the Minister responsible for advanced education.</li> </ul>	<p>Only offered at:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Four CARIs</li> <li>• Two BAISs</li> <li>• Two PIs</li> <li>• Five IAIs</li> <li>• One SACIs</li> <li>• One private for-profit institution.</li> </ul>

## Appendix F – Making Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) Happen<sup>23</sup>

### Making ESD Happen

- Encourage the mapping of needs and actions in support of non-formal and informal learning opportunities for sustainable development.
- Encourage the development of action plans that emphasize the role of the business sector, indigenous communities and the media in providing ESD learning opportunities.
- Build synergies among ESD initiatives and programmes to promote a shared vision of sustainable development.
- Develop plans to review the quality and appropriateness of ESD initiatives.

### Reflecting on ESD quality:

- Encourage local and regional plans and actions to clearly identify pedagogical approaches, which support ESD and encourage and promote these across activities.
- Encourage whole-of-institution initiatives, social learning approaches and the development of learning organizations.

### Facilitating ESD implementation:

- Clearly identify capacity-building needs and address these through specific activities.
- Ensure that ESD pedagogical resources are available to educators and learners.
- Create specific funding and structure mechanisms to support ESD innovation and research activities.

### Enhancing cooperation, quality and relevance:

- Identify needs and actions to support partnerships for ESD

### Reviewing progress and change:

- Develop multi-stakeholder monitoring and participatory evaluation systems.
- Create monitoring and evaluation processes that assess the quality of ESD learning processes and experiences and not just outputs.

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<sup>23</sup>[http://portal.unesco.org/geography/en/ev.phpURL\\_ID=15167&URL\\_DO=DO\\_TOPIC&URL\\_SECTION=201.html](http://portal.unesco.org/geography/en/ev.phpURL_ID=15167&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html)



Creating a Community Culture in  
Hinton and Grande Cache, Alberta

## CREATING A COMMUNITY CULTURE IN HINTON AND GRANDE CACHE, AB

Researcher: Dr. Lorna Stefanick

Research Assistant Eileen Omosa

### HINTON AND GRANDE CACHE

Hinton as 'a gateway to the Rockies' offers year round indoor and outdoor recreation activities including multi-use trails, golf clubs, and a mountain bike Skills Park. Its major industries - pulp mill, sawmill, coal mining, oil and gas and tourism (Town of Hinton, 2012) – still figure prominently in the community psyche. The neighbouring community of Grande Cache is best known for its coal mines, oil and gas, forestry, tourism, thermal electric generation, retail and service sector, and a diverse population that includes six aboriginal co-ops with over 300 residents (Town of Grande Cache, 2012).

### INTRODUCTION

To discuss the creation of a community culture in Hinton and Grande Cache calls for an understanding of the population and development dynamics in the two towns. The following section introduces Hinton and Grande Cache in terms of location, population, natural resources and social and economic activities. The information provides a basis from which discussions on creating a community identity and culture are based.

#### **Town of Hinton**

The town of Hinton is located in the foothills of the Rocky Mountains and 287 km west of Edmonton on Highway 16. See Map 1. Hinton began in the 1900s as a small settlement of approximately 100 residents, serving as a construction campground for the railroad, coal mining centre, and logging activities. The town expanded in the 1950s when a pulp mill was constructed (Beckley et al 2007). By 1996, the population had grown to 9961 people. This figure shrunk to 9405 in 2001, but by 2006 it had climbed to 9,738, and to 9825 by 2011 (Statistics Canada, 2007; Alberta Community Profiles, 2012 ). Out of the 2006 total population, 1,145 were of aboriginal identity population (Statistics Canada. 2007).

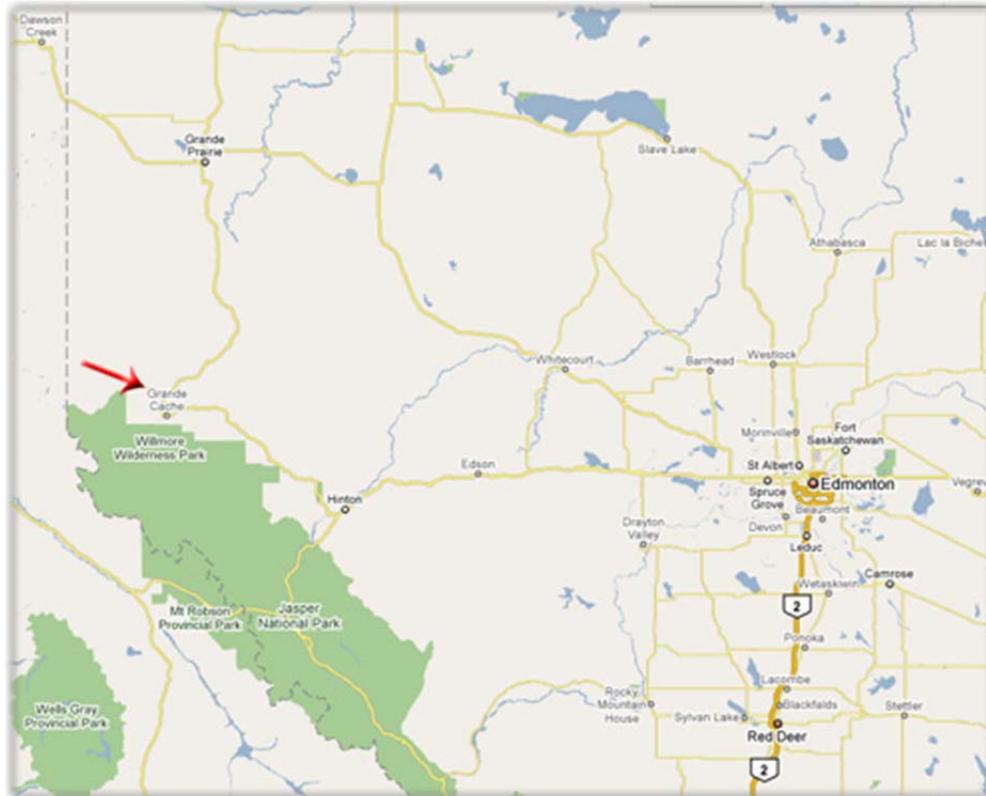
Due to its location, Hinton provides great opportunities for outdoor leisure and recreation activities. The town has facilities for diverse sporting activities, community organizations, service clubs and social groups. The major economic activities in Hinton are coal mining, oil and gas, timber, petroleum, sand, gravel and tourism. Being a natural resources-based economy, Hinton is prone to changes brought about by increased globalization<sup>24</sup> resulting in

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<sup>24</sup> A commonly used definition of globalization developed by the Suny Levin group, globalization101.org, defines it as "... a process of interaction and integration among the people, companies, and governments of different nations, a process driven by international trade and investment and aided by information technology. This process has effects on the environment, on culture, on political systems, on economic development and prosperity, and on human physical well-being in societies around the world." Accessed on March 24, 2011 from [http://www.globalization101.org/What\\_is\\_Globalization.html](http://www.globalization101.org/What_is_Globalization.html)

high population mobility; with 33% of its population having moved into Hinton from outside the municipality, therefore qualifying as a transient community (Parkins and Beckley, 2001).

Map 1: Location of Hinton and Grande Cache<sup>25</sup>



### Town of Grande Cache

The Town of Grande Cache is located 440 kilometres west of Edmonton and 140 Km from Hinton (see Map 1). Grande Cache was established in the 1970s as a coal mining town, and has since grown and diversified its economy into oil and gas exploration and development, forestry, coal production, tourism, thermal-electricity generation, and a federal correctional institution (Alberta Community Profiles, 2012). Built on a mountain plateau at an elevation of 4200 feet, Grande Cache gives a panoramic view of twenty-one mountain peaks and two river valleys; hence it offers outstanding scenery for outdoor adventure to local residents and tourists (Alberta Community Profiles, 2012). In line with the ups and downs of a natural resources-based industry, the population has been trending downward to the current figure of 3,783 in 2012; this represents a decline from Grand Cache's population peak of 4441 in 1996, and more recently, from 3828 in 2001 (Statistics Canada, 2007; Alberta Community Profiles, 2012). Grand Cache is home to six aboriginal Co-ops with an estimated total population of over 330 residents. The key industries in the town claim a share of the total population as follows: Oil and gas exploration and development (EnCana

<sup>25</sup> Source: Alberta Community Profiles, 2012

Corporation has 96 employees; Conoco Phillips Canada has 50); coal production (Grande Cache Coal Corporation has 275 employees); and Milner Power electrical plant employs 66 people with a major expansion planned for no. 14 mine that would see this number more than double. (Alberta Community Profiles, 2012). In addition, a projected 1000 workers will be required during the construction of the proposed \$1.4 billion power plant. In the forestry sector, the Foothills Forest Products lumber mill employs 175 people; while the Federal Correctional Institution employs 250 staff; and the tourism product and services sector employs many local and outside people to cater to tourists. Therefore the town's economy is tied to the ever-changing world markets for natural resources. Life within the community is partly shaped by outdoor recreation and availability of unique scenery. There are many clubs to support the outdoor experience and participation in community.

The above snap-shot of the towns of Hinton and Grande Cache provides a mental picture of a community with an abundance of renewable and non-renewable resources, unique sceneries, thriving industry, and a population composed of all year residents, permanent and casual employees and tourists, among others.

### **Community Identity**

Literature on community identity inclines towards consideration of both people and their surroundings. Community, understood as a social group of individuals who reside in a specific locality, have a common cultural and historical heritage, and shared values and beliefs (Houghton, 2005)). The sharing of locality, values and a history, among other factors, results in the development of a 'sense of community'. Community as an entity can take many different forms: religious, environmental, volunteer, sports groups, cultural, ethnic, professional or academic (Outhwaite, 2006; Afzal, 2008). Further, a community can be defined based on its administrative unit, political jurisdiction, physical characteristics or special features in the form of natural boundaries, landscape features such as rivers, mountains, and highways (Environmental Protection Agency – EPA, 2002).

Individual communities are identifiable by their unique values, norms and traditions. These attributes have been acquired from long periods of interactions resulting in the formation of a wealth of organized knowledge. Individuals within society will normally belong to more than one (sub) community where they play different roles, and end up acquiring multiple identities. Therefore a community provides a structure within which members interact and as a result develop shared understanding and norms which in turn guide individual behaviour. Consequently, community becomes a source of identity for individuals and groups; and the interaction of individuals within any community will have an influence on individual thinking and shape perceptions of such things as their environment, knowledge and value preferences (Afzal, 2008; EPA, 2002).

### **Development of identity**

The concept of identity encompasses unique beliefs, values and characteristics acquired through socialization and interaction within society, so that identity is what defines an individual or group (Hogg et al 1995; Erikson, 1968). As a result, identity is understood as a person's knowledge that they belong to a social group, and the individual knowledge is acquired through interaction with the physical and social environment. Therefore, identity has features of a psychological sense of 'self' and how it relates to the environment

(Fitzgerald and Pontisso, 2006; Gardner, 2003). Over time, the acquired norms, values and characteristics become core to individual or group being.

Once individuals develop a view of themselves as members of a particular group, their behavior tends towards upholding attributes of 'self' or the group's identity by protecting the beliefs and values that enable them to create a sense of identity (Gardner, 2003; Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Kaufman (2003) and Tajfel (1982) are of the opinion that individuals form closer relations with people who hold views similar or closer to theirs, and tend to develop unfavourable ideals and perceptions on those with noticeably different views – the 'other'. In such cases, power inequalities and fear of loss of autonomy will inevitably come into play (Lukes, 2005; Derkzen et al, 2008). By belonging to a group, individual members develop ideals of their group and use the same to contrast with those of the other as a way to retain and maintain their group identity (Kaufman, 2003). The group identity that individuals develop is dynamic, evolving in line with one's relationships with the surrounding world as a way to establish and protect a sense of meaning and adapt to different circumstances (Taylor & Moghaddam, 1994; Hogg, Terry & White, 1995).

### **Dimensions of Attachment to Place**

The question of what enables some people to form a positive identity with a particular community and stay on for long periods of time, while others don't, is partly understood through comprehension of the concept of attachment (Brown et al, 2003). In social settings, people tend to give positive cognition and develop a sense of attachment or belonging to places that give meaning to their lives. The sense of belonging developed by individuals or groups varies from simple recognition, to an association that is intense, sometimes to the extent of becoming fundamental to one's existence and identity (Relph, 1976, cited by Brehm et al, 2004). Place attachment is rooted in social networks and community meanings, or fostered through meanings of environmental quality (Tigges, 2006). Therefore attachment to place is understood and analyzed from different dimensions: community attachment, place attachment, social attachment, attachment to the natural environment, and sense of place (Brehm et al, 2004; Brehm et al, 2006; Tigges, 2006).

### **Community Attachment**

Community attachment is of particular interest to scholars studying community in relation to rural-based communities (Theodori and Luloff, 2000). In contemporary times, the focus on rural areas relates to natural resource exploitation, and on amenity-based migration which has brought in new residents (Brehm et al, 2004). The resulting population (local residents, amenity-based migrants, and employees of industry) raises questions in terms of what type of attachment the different individuals and groups have towards the place, and therefore how integrated they become into the community.

On-going discussions of the concept of community attachment encompass the two concepts of social attachment (connections with family, friends and social networks), attachment to the natural environment, and creation of sense of place (Brehm et al, 2004; Steadman, 2003; Beckley, 2003). An assessment of collective action in terms of involvement and participation of community members in communal activities can be used to identify individual attachment to community. The concept of place attachment involves positive bonds to physical places and the emotions associated with it, which subsequently enhance

one's identity (Brown et al, 2003; Tigges, 2006). Positive attachment to a place results in people proudly identifying with the particular place as their neighbourhood or natural environment, and such an attachment enables the people achieve a sense of stability, familiarity and security (Brown et al, 2003). Hay (1998) posits that place attachment provides defense against identity crisis especially in periods of transition. Place attachment subsequently benefits a community as 'attached' people tend to get more involved in local affairs (Lewicka, 2005). Therefore, an understanding of people's attachment to place is of value to development agencies and policy with an interest on places faced with declines in population, economic or social activities.

### **Social attachment**

Social attachment is measured in relation to social connections which have an influence on a person's degree of emotional or sentimental attachment to their community. Brehm et al (2004; 2006) suggest that a person's social attachment is best assessed through a measure of their attachment to close friends, family ties in the area, local culture and tradition, and opportunities to be involved in community activities. Further measurement of social attachment to a place is done in relation to place of residence, by examining where one has lived for long periods of time and returned to many times. Identification of such a place of residence gets associated with the concepts of security and home (Gustafson, 2001). Hernandez et al (2007) note that people will normally establish bonds with particular places where they feel safe and comfortable, and such people tend to remain at such places for extended periods of time. Gustafson (2001) further notes that measurements of social attachment to a place are achieved through a review of where one has carried out long term activities such as employment or leisure; and by places through which individuals identify themselves i.e. as belonging to a particular town or country, a relation described by Hernandez et al (2007) as place identity. Attachment to a social place is also gauged from the way one identifies places based on relationships they have with others living there, and the existing relations get the involved person to develop feelings of a sense of community.

### **Attachment to the Natural Environment**

Attachment to the natural environment is measured in relation to the level of attachment to physical features in an area (Tigges, 2006). These can be in the form of landscapes, wildlife and opportunities for outdoor recreation. Gustafson (2001) asserts that a relation between the self and the environment is mainly accrued from one's knowledge of a place, which can take the form of a geographical, historical, or actual work done on the environment, for example tilling of land.

### **Sense of Place**

Studies of place have focused on components of place as physical settings, activities and meanings that places have to individuals and groups. Places are viewed as identifiers of one's attachment to a place in terms of emotional bonding and behavioural commitment. Place as creating a sense of community through one's affiliation and belonging. An understanding of one's sense of place is achieved through a review of what makes places meaningful to people: An example is Beckley et al (2007)'s use of resident employed

photography (photo-narratives) to elicit sense of place values in four communities in Canada (Rocky Harbour and Deer land in Newfoundland, and Jasper and Hinton in Alberta) in order to disaggregate people's attachment to biophysical versus socio-cultural aspects of sense of place. Findings from the research indicate that people have both socio-cultural and biophysical dimensions of their community. Therefore, a better understanding of the basic things/materials that underpin a person's attachment to place (Beckley et al, 2007) calls for researchers to consider the two aspects of biophysical, natural or ecological components of place (land, water, forests, geology/mountains, wildlife, fauna and weather) and socio-cultural components (family, friends, built infrastructure, social, political or economic institutions, modes of social interaction, cultural heritage, or human historical meaning) as integral to feelings of well-being and quality of life, and to defining oneself, hence crucial to fostering attachment.

Further findings from Beckley et al (2007) revealed the need to involve community members in the interpretation of research findings. For example, a picture of a lake might be interpreted by a researcher to mean recreational activities, whereas when the photographer explains why he or she took the picture, it might reveal something socio-cultural like a point of transition in his or her life. Therefore, it can be concluded that attachment is complex and it is produced through personal experience with socio-cultural and biophysical attributes. Such information may be useful to policy makers and community leaders to better comprehend key cultural values that exist in a community, gain better insights on common values among residents, and therefore use such information to identify biophysical attributes that are highly valued and necessary in the enhancement of community identity.

### **Determinants of Place Attachment**

Scholars studying communities that are undergoing change in the social and environmental spheres have identified factors which would determine one's attachment to a particular place such as: length of residence; residential satisfaction; home ownership; participation in community activities and decision making; financial investment; higher sense of neighbourhood; lower sense of crime; social cohesion and control. (Brown et al, 2003; Tigges, 2006; Proshansky et al, 1983; Goudy, 1990; Brehm et al, 2004; 2006).

In relation to residence, the main argument is that long term residence allows for the development of increased social ties and attachment to physical attributes of an environment (Brehm et al, 2004; 2006; Brown et al, 2003; Goudy, 1990). Kasarda and Janowitz, (1974) research on length of residence resulted in the development of a community attachment model with a systematic interaction between length of residence, position in the social structure, and stage in the life cycle. Subsequent research using the model indicates that long term residence correlates with the strength of social attachments that involve friends, relatives and others known within the community. Therefore, long term residence has the potential to enhance the likelihood of attachment to elements of the physical and social environment.

Other scholars, however, have different views in relation to long term residence and attachment to place. Brehm et al (2004; 2006) uses a case study from the rural West to argue that both long and short terms residents develop strong attachments to place with variations in influencing variables: recent in-migrants were found to express a stronger initial attachment to certain variables of the environment (landscape, wildlife) than they do

to the social dimensions of community life. On the other hand, long term residents will tend to have stronger social attachment, and sometimes strong attachments both to the social and physical environment. Brehm et al, (2006) argue that new immigrants in general tend to show less social attachment to place because of their shorter residence in the community; however, for those immigrants whose movement to the particular environment is based on the existence of natural amenity settings and the perceived quality of life, they are found to have as much emotional and sentimental attachments to local landscapes as long term residents.

Related research (Steadman, 2006) among second home owners indicates similar findings, that both long term and short term residents exhibit higher levels of attachment with variations brought about by the basis of creation of meaning. Attachment among year round residents was found to be rooted in social networks and community meanings, whereas the attachment of seasonal residents was found to be fostered through meanings of environmental quality and escape from the day to day demands. These findings contradict the literature arguing that mobile people, including those with multiple homes, do not develop strong attachments to their temporary residences (Cuba & Hummon, 1993 cited in Steadman 2006). The argument is based on the assumption that mobility weakness ties to place. In contrast to this view, Steadman (2006) established that mobility can be of benefit by challenging the assumed rigid boundaries between home and away, and mobility increases the potential for reflexivity, therefore allowing greater appreciation of particular places while providing options which enable people to develop greater attachment when they can choose places that best suit them. Steadman (2006) further points out the lack of empirical evidence on whether people who relocate permanently are more attached to place compared to those who don't.

Twigger-Ross et al (2003), hold another view on how people get attached to places. The attachment is achieved through the quality of relationships such individuals maintain in the particular environment. Twigger-Ross's position is part of a debate on whether individuals first identify with a place and then provide a positive evaluation of the place, or does their satisfaction with a particular place result in them identifying with the place? Brehm et al (2004) argue that what determines one's identification with a place can be a combination of factors that include length of stay at a particular place; the social image of the locality in terms of the social and cultural characteristics, the state of the physical environment, and the quality of the built environment; social relationships; and neighbourhood functionality in terms of services and green areas. Thus, a desired state of a physical environment will tend to encourage people to self-identify with such a physical place (Proshansky et al, 1983).

### **Social Integration and Sustainability**

Rural communities in contemporary Canada are faced with challenges emanating from their unique aspects of spatial placement as very rural, resource rich, isolated, resource deprived, to the extent that those who remain behind must have some special attachment to the place (Tigges, 2006). Therefore the question arises: which is the way to preserve or enhance the quality of life, especially for the long term residents? Positive engagement of diverse residents/citizens into a community requires an understanding of 'what makes places meaningful to people? Gustafson (2001) writes that responses to the question center on issues around "self", in terms of where a person has lived for long periods of time and

returned to many times; places where one has carried out long term activities such as employment or leisure; and places where one describes and identifies oneself as belonging to a particular town or country. Further identification of what meanings places hold for people is done through the establishment of the way people identify places based on relationships they have with others living at those places.

Existing social relations encourage individuals to develop a sense of community. There is also need to identify the relation between the self and the environment, a relation accrued from one's knowledge of the place which can take the form of a geographical, historical, or actual work done on the environment (Gustafson, 2001). These views on how to identify meaningful places can be used to map specific places that hold meaning to different members of society e.g. women, men, workers, residents, newcomers.

Fleury-Bahi et al (2008) reviewed relationships between satisfaction with neighbourhood and the process of identifying with that location in three French cities. They established that an individual's sense of identification with his or her neighborhood is mainly determined by social aspects of satisfaction. The study uses the model of cognitive dissonance to explain how individuals identify with a particular place. The model states that individuals go through a process before they can identify with a particular place, i.e. individuals will have an image of the place (e.g. residence) they would like, which they superimpose on the real place/situation. In cases where the real situation does not measure up to the individual's aspirations, the response will be passive or active. A passive response means that the concerned people will stay at a place by rationalizing their choice and make adjustments to fit in. On the other hand, individuals will adjust the environment to fit their mental image of the place.

### **Challenges to Social Integration**

In view of the current reality of communities composed of people and groups with diverse interests, perceptions and objectives; to what extent can they work together towards the achievement of social sustainability? Jaffe and Quark (2006) use examples from a field study in Saskatchewan; they single out neoliberalism and its related practices as issues that need to be dealt with on the road to community sustainability.

The authors question the current practice whereby policy makers assume that members of rural communities are united (through their characteristics of trust, common values, and networks of mutual benefit) enough to take over social and economic development in their localities. The authors see the opposite; they argue that social cohesion is a dynamic process for solidarities, alliances, groups and identities are always in the process of forming and transforming as they conflict or conform to changes in the broader societal structures (Jaffe and Quark, 2006). The process of achieving social cohesion (integration of their constituent members/groups) will need to take the following realities into consideration:

- Existing unequal relations (material and discursively) in which groups are embedded.
- Neoliberalism brought along great changes and restructuring in the social, cultural, economic, political relations of the state, market and society based on its basic idea of financial deregulation.

- Local structures are hierarchical, complex and nested in larger systems. They use the example of Saskatchewan where relationships at the local, regional and global levels are being redrawn as the state and capital have downloaded risk to local levels, while shifting decision-making capacity and market share upward.
- Within all the above, each local community has very specific dynamics of development conditioned by a unique history, social forces and contingency.
- Within each community are found lines of inclusion and exclusion based on income inequality, language, gender, ethnicity, sources of income, class, newcomers.

### **Which way for Social Cohesion?**

The process of integrating members of communities and societies involves the building of shared values and communities of interpretation, reducing disparities in income and wealth, and enabling people to have a sense that they are engaged in a common enterprise, facing shared challenges, and a feeling that they are members of the same community (Maxwell, 1996:13, cited by Jaffe and Quark, 2006). To what extent can this cohesion be achieved within a liberalized economy which demands that people rely on entrepreneurialism as development policy?

Entrepreneurialism has brought about cultural transformation which puts emphasis on the importance of individualism and private property. Social cohesion is thus built around a dominant group which determines how the goods and benefits of change are distributed, who gets access to productive assets and relationships, and generates the basis on which some are included and others are excluded. The result in many rural areas of Canada is depopulation from the decline of concentration of ownership of productive assets. Less people means less rural tax base for the maintenance of services and facilities (Jaffe and Quark, 2006). The pulling out of business enterprises from rural areas results in decreases in population, which in turn leads to decreased formal and informal networks of mutual aid and volunteerism which have traditionally helped create a sense of community (Jaffe, 2003). This in turn narrows down the field of local action wherein new organizing principles and goals have the potential to turn rural areas into entrepreneurial entities (Jaffe & Quark, 2006).

Furthermore, people are drawing on historical processes that define their current identities to the extent that any efforts to enhance community get undermined by the existing local framework of ethnic identities. This turns out to be the overriding logic to define how the community frames its problems and identifies groups and individuals. The result is that the formed identities end up creating further competition for the control of scarce material resources (Jaffe & Quark, 2006).

### **Examples of challenges to sustainability in resource-rich rural Canada**

Storey (2010) explores the benefits and challenges brought to communities<sup>26</sup> by the new work organization in remote rural -rich areas by the fly-in, fly out work organization.

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<sup>26</sup> In the study, Storey (2010) defines community as `people living within a specific area, sharing common ties and interacting with one another, and sustainability as `endurance and the long-term maintenance of

The fly-in, fly-out work organization involves a system where companies fly-in and fly-out their workers and tools for work. As a result, there are few economic benefits to the local people in terms of employment or setting up business enterprises. The outcome is unemployment resulting in young people from the rural resource rich communities leaving for other places in search of employment. Consequently, rural areas benefit little from industries' accrued benefits, yet they are expected to provide services to the transient workers.

Storey (2010) draws on examples of oil and gas explorations and operations in northern BC, and oil sands development operations in northern Alberta to discuss challenges to achieving sustainability in rural resource-rich communities. Community concerns relate to issues of environmental disturbance in the form of ground water use, pollution, and the disturbance to places and spaces of spiritual value and areas for hunting and fishing to aboriginal communities. In some cases, the costs of such development and the high transient population are a social burden to the local community in terms of increases in crime, drug use, prostitution, etc. The activities of resource extraction put increased demands on local infrastructure and services, especially in situations where industry pays more tax to the federal and provincial governments compared to local governments that have the responsibility to maintain local infrastructure.

Using the example of the Regional Municipality of Wood Buffalo and Fort McMurray, Storey (2010) elaborates on challenges brought about by a high population growth of residents and fly-in, fly-out workers: The municipality has struggled to cope with the high pace of growth in demand for infrastructure and services. For example Highway 63 connecting Fort McMurray and Edmonton has one of the highest tonnage per kilometre of highway in Canada, and has been rated as among the most dangerous given the number of fatal accidents that occur along it (Storey, 2010:6). The fly-in, fly-out workers have put high demands on medical and other services used by the local and transient populations, while town businesses seem to lose clients. Most noticeable is the significant reduction in the number of people who have any involvement in the organization of, and participation in community activities such as sport or social functions. There is a decline in the number of school children, questioning the viability of schooling in the community. The fact that industry has the option to either support local infrastructure and services or use fly-in, fly-out services, introduces uncertainty for many people, and fear makes people relocate to other places, mainly to more established towns and cities.

## **Discussion and Way Forward**

The preceding review of literature and discussions on creating a community culture have focused on definitions of concepts related to community identity; factors which determine chances of one's attachment to a place; challenges to social integration; and lessons learned from some resource rich rural areas in Canada. What is most notable in the literature reviewed is that little research has been carried out in Hinton and Grande Cache to establish the best way to facilitate creation of a community culture. Therefore, the reviewed literature provides information on issues of focus/emphasis in any endeavours aimed at

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wellbeing.' Therefore community sustainability implies some sense of common goals and values with respect to wellbeing, and progress towards achieving measurable outcomes

fostering community identity and culture in Hinton and Grande Cache. The following is a summary of issues that will require attention:

- The literature indicates existence of sub-communities within any large community. Specifically, individuals belong to many sub-communities where they hold different roles. There is need to identify and do a critical analysis of communities in Hinton and Grande Cache as a way to understand the structures which have an influence on individual/group identity.
- Social structures are a result of long periods of interaction between members, and that the resulting knowledge structures guide individual behaviour. This calls for a study to comprehend the level of interaction between individuals and existing communities, therefore providing a chance to understand the knowledge construction process.
- Since community organizations are formed mainly to meet the needs of community members and they provide a structure within which community decisions are made and practiced, an understanding of social organizations will provide insights into issues such as community leaders and followers, who holds authority and who is actively involved in decision-making processes, among others.
- The ideas and views put forward by the various authors (in the literature) in relation to place, sense of place, place attachment, etc. can be used to map meanings of specific places or for comparing what meanings a place has to different members of society e.g. women, men, workers, residents, newcomers, etc.
- Further, studies of place attachment tend to focus on attachment to specific physical settings; therefore the Hinton Grande Cache study can focus on understanding the preferences, values and beliefs of stakeholders in relation to land use. This can be used as a means to unearth information on the common values and meanings among the divergent groups in the community.
- Many scholars emphasize the role played by social-cultural and environmental factors in understanding people's attachment to place. There is need to carry out a qualitative study to generate information on common values that could become the basis from which community identity could be created, thus fostering cohesion and sustainability.



## Rural Sustainability Planning in Hinton and Grand Cache, Alberta

## Rural Sustainability planning in Hinton and Grand Cache, Alberta

Researchers: Dr. Mike Gismondi  
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This paper provides a preliminary review of relevant literature concerning opportunities and challenges to implementing sustainable development initiatives in rural, resource dependent communities. The articles were selected based on their relevancy to the development goals expressed by the communities of Hinton and Grand Cache during Phase 1 of the ARBRI research initiative, Advancing Economic, Environmental and social sustainability: An Academic /Municipal Partnership for Resource Based Communities in Alberta. Case studies were chosen that involve communities with similar demographic and environmental characteristics as Hinton and Grand Cache. The literature sources comprise newspaper articles, peer reviewed journals and government publications; collectively these sources provide a preliminary examination of the opportunities available to assist Hinton and Grand Cache in diversifying their economies.

### Multi-use landscapes

Rationale: This section reviews literature on managing landscapes that individuals and communities may have competing uses for. Very often there are a multitude of values that are associated with a given geographic region; the same area may be a timber supply area (TSA), a recreational site, a viewscape or a favourite berry picking spot. Recognition that these multiple values may exist on the landscape is an important asset in sustainable development planning. Diversified use of the landscape assists communities in responding to boom and bust cycles typical of single resource extraction industries. When more uses are preserved across the landscape it creates communities that are more resilient to boom and bust cycles by providing diversified sources of revenue from the landscape. Moreover, it is well documented that multi-use landscape planning is more ecologically sustainable as well.

- 1) Athabasca River Valley - Community Landscape Visioning Process Hinton, Alberta. 2011-12. Draft available on AU website.

This Report provides valuable information and a recommended community based mapping approach to set out and prioritize values for sustainability planning at the landscape scale. While it deals with Hinton and surrounding areas, its methodology would be useful in any community. We recommend this to both communities. The report and its maps would be helpful for framing many of the sustainability directions we discuss in the Athabasca Report.

Summary: The Athabasca River Valley Community Landscape Vision Process (CLVP) was an innovative public-input process that applied a community-based approach to increasing understanding of and identifying local landscape values to inform future land-use planning.

Landscape values of focus included:

- Future Development
- History and Traditional Use, Aesthetics and Character
- Recreation
- Water
- Wilderness and Wildlife

The CLVP provided broad-based, inclusive public forums for local/regional people to engage in sharing and ‘mapping’ their vision for future land-use while safeguarding important community values in the Athabasca River Valley area. This information is particularly relevant in informing Alberta’s Land Use Framework (Upper Athabasca Regional Plan), local Municipal and Regional Sustainability Plans, and local development, recreation and conservation planning in this area.

- 2) Stamm, Larry. 2004. Fraser Headwaters Alliance: A Socio-Economic Profile of the Robson Valley

This brief reviews the Fraser Headwaters Alliance Socio-Economic Profile of the Robson Valley. The profile examines population and economic census data collected from 2000-2004 and contrasts the communities of McBride, and Valemont against other rural areas within the Robson Valley. The findings of the study suggest that the communities throughout the Robson Valley are transitioning rapidly FROM PRIMARILY resource based economies to service based ones. This transition has resulted in more members of the community earning lower wages and working multiple jobs and not receiving health benefits. While service based communities are not subject to the boom and bust cycles associated with resource industries, they experience seasonal fluctuations in revenue. It should be noted that this profile represents the first phase in a three- phase strategy designed to diversify and sustain economic growth in the Robson Valley.

- 3) Adam, M.C. and D. Kneeshaw. (2008). Local Level criteria and indicator frameworks: A tool used to assess aboriginal forest ecosystem values. *Forest Ecology and Management*. Vol. 255 pp. 2024-2037

The following brief examines a review of aboriginal and non-aboriginal local level criteria and indicator frameworks concerning ecological perspectives on forest management. It identifies aboriginal criteria and indicators which are not explicitly reflected in forest management strategies. The study suggests that establishing a clear criteria and supporting indicators of forest management objectives can provide a “platform” for consideration of non-hierarchical, ecological priorities. The article attempts to merge what may be perceived as less quantitative management objectives with those established scientifically. The aboriginal criteria that was reflected in non-aboriginal frameworks was 1) culturally important ecological indicators 2) aesthetics management objectives 3) access to resources indicators were more complex than those of the non-aboriginal frameworks.

The review recommends a more balanced and less segregated criteria and indicator framework that considers the cultural values associated with forest management as well as forest conditions to reflect local level cultural/environmental contexts.

### **Non-timber Forest Product Development:**

Rationale: This section examines the opportunities and challenges associated with developing non-timber forest products (NTFPs) in resource dependent communities. NTFPs are an important part of local diversification strategies as they offer alternative uses of the land base, which provide satisfaction of multiple user groups. Non-timber forest products may include berries, pelts, hunting and trapping experiences, recreational opportunities and mushrooms.

- 1) Freed, J. (2001). Non-timber forest products in local economies. *Journal of Sustainable Forestry*, 13(3-4), 67-69. doi:10.1300/J091v13n03\_06

This brief examines the use of non-timber forest products (NTFPs) in local economies with a focus on Mason County Washington as a case study. It notes the historic importance of these products to First Americans as well as early European settlers and the recent resurgence of interest in these products for medicinal, nutritional and aesthetics purposes in the 1970's . The article notes that this increase in interest has resulted in increases in conflict over access to these products. However, as public emphasis is placed on access to these products there is likely to be a decrease in conflicts over timber management.

- 2) Mitchell, D. A., British Columbia. Forest Science Program, Royal Roads University. Centre for Non-Timber Resources, & British Columbia. Ministry of Forests and Range. (2009). Non-timber forest products, tourism and small scale forestry: Income opportunities and constraints. Victoria, B.C: Ministry of Forests and Range, Forest Science Program.

This brief explores a guide prepared by The British Columbia Inter-agency Non-timber Forest Resources (IANTFR) committee to communicate with and advise the provincial government on management of non-timber forest resources in BC. It examines what NTFP exist in BC and marketing possibilities on a regional or specialized basis ("territorial marketing") Pettenella et al. identify the challenges of reaching NTFP markets, and create a feasibility checklist for forest owners and manager. Additionally, case studies of successful agroforestry are also examined. The article identifies a number of regional linkage possibilities in British Columbia such as culinary tourism products and wilderness tourism. Festivals and special events were also noted as seasonal options for selling products and creating consumer awareness of an area.

Some examples of successful marketing of NTFP include: The Maple Syrup Festival in Duncan, BC and Chantrelle production in Italy. The committee's recommendations section outlines considerations in the development of NTFP for commercial purposes:

- Demand must exceed supply
- The resource must not be readily available for free (exclusionary)
- Managers with experience and willingness to interact with the public
- Competency to run a service oriented business

3) Tickten, T. Ecological Implications of Harvesting Non-timber Forest Products.

Rationale: This brief explores a review of the ecological impact of harvesting non-timber forest products. The review examines 70 harvest studies various NTFP to determine their influence on species physiology, demographics, genetic patterns and community-ecosystem dynamics.

The review demonstrates that the harvest of NTFP can affect all levels of ecological processes and that effects of harvesting may vary spatially and temporally. It also documents significant influence resulting from human management practices such as pruning, restocking, sparring etc. The review concludes that NTFP are at present being over harvested as is demonstrated by low harvest limits for many species. Over harvesting may result in low recruitment rates, changes in species composition, and long term declines. It is therefore appropriate to implement species specific management regimes in the promotion of commercialization of NTFP. Harvest thresholds are species specific and may vary among species depending on climatic and soil differences. The review therefore recommends the adoption of adaptive management strategies for regulating harvests to reflect these thresholds.

**Aesthetic management of landscapes:**

Rationale: This section demonstrates how local communities can work with resource managers to implement logging practices that are creative and less visually invasive than traditional harvesting practices, thereby reducing the impact to viewsapes and providing for recreational opportunities on the landscape such as skiing and hiking etc.

- 1) Piccard, Paul and Sheppard. 2001. Stephen. The effects of visual resource management on timber availability: a review of case studies and policy. BC Journal of Ecosystem Management. Vol. 1 No. 2

The following brief examines volume 1 of the research report prepared by Stephen Sheppard and Paul Piccard concerning visual resource management policy in British Columbia and implications for timber availability. Piccard and Sheppard explore case studies from Mt Hood Wisconsin recreation area along a river, a road corridor in California, Nelson Forest Region Robson, Strathcona and Arrow Cranbrook and Golden TSAs. Each of these timber supply areas had different visual quality objectives delineating a prescribed amount of modification. Piccard and Sheppard illustrate that visual quality can be maintained and even enhanced in sensitive areas through use of alternative harvesting regimes such as partial cutting, single tree selection, clear cutting with reserves. Discretion

lies with the Forest District manager on where to establish VQOs and where to relax them and due to shortages in timber supply in many backcountry areas whether because of overharvesting historically or conservation measures many areas which contain merchantable timber are areas considered visually sensitive. Use of alternative harvesting techniques may provide additional timber supply that would otherwise not have been available using conventional logging practices.

## **Renewable Energy**

History and context of renewable energy in Canada:

Rationale: This section discusses renewable energy opportunities in Canada including wind, geo-thermal and bio-industry. These renewable energy sources help reduce our reliance on other sources of energy that produce greenhouse gases. Attention to these markets, investment into green energy technology and purchasing energy from renewable sources will help to expand this sector beyond its current range.

- 1) Milena Büchs, Graham Smith and Rebecca Edwards. (2011). Low-carbon practices: a third sector research agenda. Third Sector Research Center, working paper 59.

This article explores the potential role that third sector organizations (TSOs) play in implementing low carbon sustainable practices in the “everyday lives of society.” It focuses on the influence of TSOs in effecting changes to individual behaviour modification and established social constructs. Büchs et al. assert that the individual social model used for understanding behavioural change, draws as its focus only individual behaviours. The focus on individual behaviours neglects the wider context of those individual behaviours such as, the social circles they participate in and the role of governments other organizations in influencing those behaviours. The article recommends that our actions be understood as social, collective phenomena rather than as individualised behaviours. Büchs et al. identify five influencing factors of social practices:

- meaning,
- competences
- social structures
- artefacts / infrastructures
- environmental context

They state that individual practices are not entrenched but are subject to change based on the continuous re-enactments of these social practices; therefore our individual behaviours may be better understood by examining the co-evolvement of these five elements and their relationships to one another. TSOs may influence these relationships in different ways and have varying degrees of success depending on type of intervention undertaken, the scale of the intervention or the intensity, the world view of the subject, and the types of practices the TSO is seeking to change.

Additional readings which address this subject:

Middlemiss, L. K. (2009) The role of community-based organisations in stimulating sustainability practices among participants, PhD thesis, University of Leeds.

Middlemiss, L. and Parrish, B. D. (2009) 'Building capacity for low-carbon communities: The role of grassroots initiatives', Energy Policy In Press, Corrected Proof.

- 2) National Energy Board Canada's Energy Future: Energy Supply and Demand Projections to 2035. Government of Canada.

This brief reviews green power in Canada in order to identify the current provinces with green power developments and those that have future opportunities for development as well as some of the current major utility providers. It notes that Alberta was the first province with green energy retail competition and that Ontario recently instituted a number of power projects that offer green power to major power users and to distribution facilities (Toronto's Evergreen is supplying business and residential energy). Saskatchewan developed two wind farms in 2001 that generate approximately 175 MW of wind energy. The energy is generated from two turbine farms and that power municipal government buildings. Additionally, Prince Edward Island and BC have established municipal utilities that supply residential and business power.

- 3) L. Bird et al. / Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 6 (2002) 513–536

This paper documents the emergence of preference based purchasing that enables green energy markets to emerge. The report examines power marketing in Australia, Canada, Japan, the United States and Europe to gain insight into current demands for renewable electricity, existing suppliers and favourable legislation. The article cites a number of examples from within Canada. Despite increases in green power marketing in Canada a relatively small number of utilities and marketers offer green energy products. In British Columbia, BC Hydro has offered green power since 2002. Additionally, Alberta has two incumbent utilities that have managed to subscribe approximately 6,000 customers which accounts for 1% of their respective customer bases. Saskatchewan and Prince Edward Island have also begun developing markets, aided in part by green power purchases by municipal governments. Growth is also expected in the Ontario market, where several marketers are planning to offer green power when competition begins. Nova Scotia and Newfoundland have developed a small number of wind power projects. Presently, price premiums for green power products range from 3.5¢/kWh to 9.8¢/kWh (-US 2–6¢/kWh).

### **Bio-industry Development:**

- 1) Allyson Jeffs, J. B. W. (2003). Province puts \$250,000 into fledgling bio-industry: Bio-Products: Final edition. Edmonton Journal, pp. F.1.Fro.

The province of Alberta's Innovation and Science Branch has allocated \$250,000 in funding to assist Bio-products Alberta (a non-for-profit organization) in working with industry and government to develop a sustainable business plan. Presently Bio-products Alberta is

attempting to secure additional investors for the project. Bio-products include: bio-plastics (with 5 month decomposition rates), bio-fuels such as ethanol and biodiesel, nutraceuticals such as Cold FX, agricultural products and energy production.

- 2) Brenda Birley. (2003). Biodiesel seen as potential fuel: Final edition. Alaska Highway News, pp. A.11.

In this article Ross Rivelli, president of the Canadian Canola Growers Association discusses the potential of biodiesel as a non-petroleum fuel that can have positive environmental implications such as reducing sulphur emissions. It may also be used as an engine lubricant that will reduce engine wear and leaking fluids. The article notes the low risk and resiliency associated with growing Canola crops for bio-fuels; that even poor canola oil can be utilized. This serves to limit instability because of fluctuating annual yields. While the petroleum industry is not in favour of developing the biodiesel industry, biodiesel investments in Alberta could improve the unsustainable image of Alberta's tar sands. The Peace Region Economic Development Alliance has commissioned a feasibility study to assess the possibility of producing commercial crops of canola for bio-fuel purposes.

- 3) BC Grain Producers Association. (2007) Peace River Feasibility Study

The findings of a feasibility study commissioned by the BC Grain Growers Association suggest the potential for biodiesel production in Peace River, BC. If constructed it is estimated that the plant could produce 22.7 million litres of biodiesel, approximately 24 skilled jobs and \$25 million in revenue annually. Additionally, the plant will require 56,000 tonnes of canola per year that will be sourced from local farmers.

Garnet Berge, Biofuels Committee Chair of the BCGPA states, "The study shows us that the project has good markets for biodiesel and canola meal, potential marketing and distribution partnerships, good agronomics, and consultants and an engineering firm with excellent reputations."

- 4) Author Unknown. (2007) Central Alberta town to build plant that produces ethanol from waste. The Canadian Press [Toronto] p. 22.

Federation of Canadian Municipalities has committed 347,000\$ towards a feasibility study, which will examine the potential for developing a bio-fuel plant based in Rimby, Alberta. The estimated cost of the plant is approximately 30 million dollars, however, it is expected that industry and government contribute to infrastructure costs. The plant is a considered a pilot project focussing on the small scale production of ethanol from herbaceous crops as well as municipal waste. It has the potential to mitigate the costs associated with municipal waste disposal as well as provide heat and electricity. Finally it is anticipated to provide between 25-50 full time person hours annually.

### **Geo-thermal Development:**

- 1) Builders tap into geo-thermal heat: Final edition. Nanaimo Daily News. 2004:C.6.

Consumer awareness is increasing about Geo-thermal development opportunities in Canada. Halcyon Meadows is the first large scale single family home development in

British Columbia to use geo-thermal energy. There are presently 30,000 geo-thermal residences in Canada. While installation costs of geothermal pumps are higher than traditional heating systems long term costs are less. It is estimated that carbon emissions can be reduced by 2.5 to 5 tonnes annually as a result of the geo-thermal heating system. Moreover, with an average increase of 4% in the annual price of gas, homeowners at Halcyon Meadows can recover approximately \$2,000 over the first decade.

- 2) Grasby, Stephen E. (Stephen Edward), Canadian Electronic Library (Firm), Geological Survey of Canada. Geothermal Energy Resource Potential of Canada. Vol. 6914. Ottawa, Ont.: Geological Survey of Canada; 2011 322 pp.

The Geological Survey of Canada has compiled a 48 year study on the geo-thermal development potential of Canada. The National Geothermal Energy Program identified Canada as a “significant” source of geo-thermal development opportunities. Case studies identified in the survey include: Meager Mountain British Columbia, where resources of up to 290 °C were discovered (resulting in a pilot electrical demonstration plant); the University of Regina’s direct heating application and Springhill, Nova Scotia’s abandoned mine heat reservoirs. The inventory also identifies north-western and central Alberta as having a number of abandoned mine sites suitable for geo-thermal energy production, however, these presently remain undeveloped.

Most barriers to exploration are associated with exploratory drilling costs, transmission infrastructure and load centers. While the technology to develop EGS systems is still developing, calculations suggest that as few as 100 projects could meet the energy needs of the province. The best EGS prospects are in western provinces due to high overall heat flow. Presently Canada has no tax credits available for geo-thermal energy production. Establishing a long-term geothermal production tax credit is an important part to creating an incentive to invest in geo-thermal energy production. Additionally, it can reduce the uncertainty currently associated with public funding. Geothermal energy production has increased globally and for some countries it now forms a significant proportion of their electrical supply. Geothermal energy production in the United States amounted to 3,153 MW in 2009, replacing 60 million barrels of oil (29 million tonnes of carbon dioxide).

- 3) Majorowicz J, Grasby SE. (2010) High Potential Regions for Enhanced Geothermal Systems in Canada. Natural Resources Research. Vol.19. pp. 177-188.

This article extends the research of earlier studies conducted on geo-thermal energy potential in Canada by assessing the thermal power output of potential Enhanced Geothermal Systems (EGS). EGS are areas of high heat, low permeability underlying sedimentary basins, low drilling costs and close proximity to high consumption regions. Alberta and British Columbia were determined to potentially contain suitable EGS for low carbon sources of heat and electrical generation. The article examines cost of infrastructure and depth-temperature mapping to identify the most suitable areas of development; presently costs are estimated at 2 million dollars. Heat flow values and estimated thermal conductivities are derived from Canadian and US compilations (Jessop, 1990; Beach, Jones, and Majorowicz, 1987; Blackwell, 2007). Very high heat flow values, >80 mW/ m<sup>2</sup>, are characteristic of the northern part of the WCSB (especially in north-eastern BC and north-

western Alberta). The article identifies Hinton as having a suitable geotherm for electrical EGS development at a depth of 4.94-5.95 km and with an estimated cost of \$23M -28M

Additional readings on this subject:

Pasten C, Carlos Santamarina J. Energy geo-storage — analysis and geomechanical implications. *KSCE Journal of Civil Engineering*. 2011;15:655-667.

### **Anaerobic Digestion:**

- 1) Grow the Energy Circle Ltd. Accessed on: Feb. 15, 2012. Retrieved from:  
<http://www.growtheenergycircle.com/Contact.html>

Grow the Energy Circle Ltd. (Grow-tec) is a farm based in Coaldale, AB, that is attempting to become environmentally sustainable. Grow-tec is presently in the process of developing an anaerobic digester that will produce enough energy to power farm operations and feed a continuous 630KW's of electricity to the Alberta power grid. Feedstock for the digester will be sourced from neighbouring feedlots, culled potatoes, processor waste and biodegradable landfill waste. Reduction in the spreading of raw manure and other methane producing biodegradable waste will provide a substantial benefit to the community by reducing emissions from organic material biodegrading across the landscape.

The farm is currently seeking collaborative projects such as algae farms, greenhouse or bio-char facilities that could utilize excess heat produced from the anaerobic digester. A portion of the funding for the project came from the Alberta research council and the Alberta Biorefining Commercialization and Market Development Program (BCMDP) as part of its Nine Point Bioenergy Plan; the grant covered approximately 50% of the cost.

- 2) ENVINT Consulting. June 2010. BC Biomass Energy Guide

The BC Biomass energy guide was prepared for the Ministry of Environment in partnership with BC Bioenergy Network to assist stakeholders in small communities, aboriginal groups, municipalities and industry in researching and implementing bioenergy developments in the province of British Columbia. Specifically the guide seeks to help various stakeholders to:

- Identify suitable bioenergy options and technologies
- Identify technological hurdles
- Finance a bio-energy project
- Implement project development
- Include of First Nations in development of projects
- Collaborate with partner organizations that could assist with project development
- Identify technology and service providers in Canada.

### **In Stream Power Generation (run-of-river)**

BC Hydro has assigned 19 wind and run-of-river projects<sup>72</sup>. The projects include 5 wind-turbine projects and 19 run-of-river projects. It is estimated that the 19 projects require \$3 billion in capital investment and provide 3,000 person years of employment. Additionally, BC Hydro has another 28 projects planned. The BC Ministry of Environment states that provincial and potentially federal environmental assessments will be completed for each of the projects.

The federal government is extending funding opportunities to First Nations desiring to purchase shares or equity stake in renewable hydro projects in British Columbia (Rudan, P., 2009, May 21<sup>73</sup>). The Aboriginal Energy Partnership is collaborating with Eco-trust Canada with the hope s of establishing as FIRST Generation Regeneration Fund for equity financing. Some funding has already been announced for a two-megawatt run-of-river hydro project owned by the Taku River Tlingit First Nation near Atlin in northern B.C. Future opportunities for First Nation involvement in run-of-river projects exists, as there are numerous clean energy opportunities on First Nations land in BC ([www.regenerationfund.ca](http://www.regenerationfund.ca)).

Sigma Engineering Ltd. (2002). Green Energy Study for British Columbia report explores and inventories the potential for development of independent power projects, which vary in size between 500 kW to about 47 MW. The report also documents differences in costs per unit of energy based on differing terrain, capacities and different hydrology. It estimates that 40% of the project sites are developable at less than 7 c/kWh. It concludes that larger projects are typically more cost effective; however, these are associated with increased financial risks of development. The inventory is based on sizing each project to the mean annual flow and operating on a run-of-river basis. The report includes individual project assessments which include transmission costs to the nearest location on the BC Hydro (BCH) grid. It also outlines potential environmental implications associated with run-of-river projects.

### **Run of the River Projects:**

- 1) Hatch Consulting. (2010). Update on Alberta's Hydroelectric Energy Resources. AUC Energy Study.

Throughout the 1980s a number of feasibility studies were completed for the Dunvegan hydro project on the Peace River as well as the Slave River hydro project. Despite not proceeding to later developmental stages the Dunvegan was approved for a 100 MW low head run of river development, which is not yet under construction. Dams in the south of the province are constrained by dam construction costs and have been subsidized in the past with provincial funding. Hatch consulting estimates that smaller projects in the southern basins and larger projects in the northern basins are likely to be developed over the next 30 years as technological prices fall and demand increases for renewable power. Presently the primary constraint to implementation of hydro projects are costs associated with dam construction and spillways. Total development in this period might be as high as 20 percent of the province's ultimate potential of 53,000 gigawatt hours per year. However, to realize this capacity, it is necessary for at least 2 major projects to be constructed. Once constructed these developments would result in large amounts of energy being conserved,

reduction in carbon emissions and provision of renewable energy for the provincial electric system.

It should be noted that the development of Reach B from Hinton to Vega (see map), specifically the Old Man Site and Image Rock Site requires additional investigation. Above the Pembina mouth there is a fall of 380 metres which was examined by the Commission of Conservation Canada, Alberta Power Commission, Calgary Power Ltd. and private consultants, but was not developed further due to the size of the developments considered at that time and associated “topographical and geological problems.”

2) MPE Engineering Ltd. (2008). Water for Life: Assessment of Potential Storage Sites and Diversion Scenarios. Prepared for Alberta Environment.

This report evaluates 10 major river basins to inventory and explore their potential as it considers technical and subjective criteria but is not meant to endorse development of these sites.

The following criteria are considered for assessment and scoring of the identified potential water storage sites:

- i. Evaluate undeveloped sites and intra-basin diversions only.
- ii. Inter-basin sites to be excluded from evaluation and ranking.
- iii. Suitability of geological site conditions.
- iv. Suitability of site hydrogeology.
- v. Flooded area – storage volume ratio.
- vi. Estimation of water supply and demand in the area served.
- vii. Aiding and balancing apportionment requirements.
- viii. Improving current efficiencies and benefits.
- ix. Improving conditions in basins with moratoriums.
- x. Current design conforming to present guidelines and legislation.
- xi. Site availability.
- xii. Improved water supply to 2050 for multi-use projects.
- xiii. Presence of protected or other significant land areas.
- xiv. Dam dimension and storage volume considerations.
- xv. General environmental impacts.
- xvi. Reservoir safety. determine if based on provides information on each basin

Subjective criteria that are evaluated but not ranked:

- o Historical documented costs.
- o Public opinion.
- o Project timelines.
- o Proximity issues.
- o General environmental issues.
- o First Nations’ involvement.
- o Water supply-demand.

Results of the report indicate that there are three sites within the Athabasca River Basin that received an ‘A’ rating, suggesting they are favourable to on stream developments based on the criteria discussed above. The sites include the Athabasca Oldman Dam, the McLeod River Damsite and Moose Portage Dam; it should be noted that all of the sites have

concerns and considerations associated with their potential development. The Oldman Dam would be the largest site on the Athabasca and has a great deal of potential. However, flooding of parts of Hinton at maximum capacity is a concern as are landslide and seepage issues. The McLeod River Dam site and Moose Portage Dam are also potentially suitable sites however, both have poor foundational structures. Finally, all three sites are also subject to the NWT Bilateral Agreement.

### **Wind Energy:**

This brief explores the investment of 850 million dollars by Mainstream Renewable Power (a green energy developer from Ireland), into Alberta's Wind Energy Corporation. The company purchased an 80% interest in projects with an initial capacity of more than 400 megawatts. The three development sites are: the Old Man River 2 project in the Pincher Creek area, the Windy Point Wind Park and the Waterton Wind Farm. All three projects should be operational by 2013. Presently 5% of Alberta's energy is derived from Wind sources. Mainstream renewable anticipates that this amount will increase over time with reductions in costs of technology and increased offset requirements. All renewable energy produced will be sold back to the grid in Alberta with an expected expansion into the United States.

### **Tourism Opportunities**

#### **Youth and Elder Hostels**

Rationale: This section investigates hostel networks within Canada and the United States as potentially sustainable development opportunities. Hostel networks may provide a viable way to diversify revenue streams in Hinton and Grand Cache by attracting visitors looking for unconventional and outdoor oriented recreational experiences at lower costs than traditional hotels or motels. Cost effective accommodations may also encourage visitors to stay longer thereby increasing potential spin off revenues in these communities.

- 1) Michelle Munoz. (2011). Entrepreneur creates hostel environment. *Crain's Detroit Business*, 27(34), S018.

Michel Soucisse manager of Hostel Detroit grand opening was April 17, 2011. The hostel was founded by Emily Doerr, who leased the space and began the business with the support of the Detroit community. The hostel operates as a not-for-profit organization, has a capacity of 18. The hostel averages six to 10 visitors during the week and 12 to 18 on weekends with prices for rooms between \$18 and \$45 a night. Due to the success of the venture the non-profit has extended camping to guests in the backyard and is considering adding a four-bed dorm in the near future.

- 2) Calgary hostel reopens in time for tourism week: Final edition. (2004, *Calgary Herald*, pp. TS.03.

The Hi-Calgary City Center Hostel has re-opened its doors to guests after an eighth week, \$120,000 renovation. The hostel, which has been running since 1975, is located on East

Village, 520 7th Ave. S.E.. It features multi-person rooms (with a maximum of 6 beds per room) for less than a local hotel or motel. Currently the Hi-Calgary is the only hostel available to travellers on their way to or from the Rocky Mountain and received 25,000 travellers annually. Rooms average \$24.00 for Hostel International members, while non-members pay \$28.00 per night for shared accommodations. Private rooms are also available for \$56.00 per night.

- 3) Firth, T., & Hing, N. (1999). Backpacker hostels and their guests: Attitudes and behaviours relating to sustainable tourism. *Tourism Management*, 20(2), 251-254. doi:10.1016/S0261-5177(98)00076-4

This article examines Byron Bay, Australia whose tourism strategy focuses on promoting low-impact entrepreneurial developments. The Byron Bay community views small business as the “life blood” to its persistence. Tourism development in Byron Bay Shire is centered upon local values and environmental sustainability. A significant backpacker market exists, which contributes \$6.9 million annually to the local economy. Presently six hostels service this market.

The study assesses the hostels for 30 sustainable business criteria and asked interviewed respondents to inquire if they had selected the hostel based on any of the sustainable practices. The results of the study were important to understanding visitor preferences in Byron Bay, whose tourism strategy attempts to achieve sustainable development by implementing an economic development model with a focus on low-key entrepreneurial developments to create a sustainable tourism product. However despite this economic model the interview findings suggest that only two of the six hostels implemented more than 50% of the sustainable business practices and only a few (2-3%) of the visitors responded that eco-friendly practices were a factor in selecting a hostel. Some visitors did qualify this response however stating that it was the failure of the hostel to advertise eco-friendly practices that resulted in those practices not being a factor in the selection of a hostel. Respondents indicated that they would choose an eco-friendly hostel over a non eco-friendly hostel if informed prior to making their selection. Recommendations of the study include: investments in sustainable and cost effective business practices and intense government and industry monitoring to assess impacts of hostelling industry.

- 4) Road Scholar Elder Hostels. Website: [www.road scholars.org](http://www.road scholars.org)

Road Scholar elder educational adventures are created by Elder Hostel Inc., an organization that has been offering low cost lodging to elders since 1975. Road Scholar is a program oriented not-for –profit service that assists elders in achieving lifelong learning opportunities. Road Scholar has over 5 million participants and provides over 6,500 educational, travel opportunities in 150 countries. Elder hostels are more cost effective than traditional hotel/motel accommodations and provide senior travelers with the chance to travel at a fraction of the cost and stay with those of a similar demographic. Some of the featured program foci of Road Scholar include but are not limited to:

- Walking and hiking
- Biking
- Intergenerational adventures

- National parks
- African American inspired

### River Tourism:

- 1) Slocan River- white water rafting, wildlife viewing, canoeing Silverspray Rafting. website: <http://www.silversprayrafting.ca/river.html>

Silverspray Rafting is a tour company that provides guided tours along the Slocan River in British Columbia. It is owned and operated by Kevin Pollard an experienced river guide who is committed both to the local community and environmental stewardship in his business operations. Silverspray Rafting provides a number of tour packages (all listed prices are adult):

- 1) The Silver Road- 4 hour tour that provides history of the area and features class II and III rapids
- 2) The Log Driver Family Float is a 3 hour tour directed towards families looking for a relaxing float down a scenic river.
- 3) Quicksilver Whitewater Special- 2 hours tour, \$65.00 person
- 4) Day Long Adventure – all day tour, \$100 a person
- 5) Lardeau and Duncan River- custom expeditions, provides multi-day tour with option to camp and hike Selkirk mountains as well as explore abandoned mining towns (cost not listed)

- 2) Fraser River and Beaver River - Valemount, BC Stellar Descents white Water Rafting. Website: <http://www.stellardescents.com>

Stellar Descents White Water Rafting is a small owner operated tour provider offering river adventures on the Fraser River & Beaver River, in British Columbia. It provides a variety of tours that range from beginner rafting to advanced rafting adventures and includes personalized tours. Located near Mount Robson Provincial Park, one hour west of Jasper National Park the company caters to those outdoor recreationalists looking to diversify their terrestrial adventure with an aquatic one. It offers class I to class IV rapids and focuses on the back country experience to attract guests. It offers 3 tours (all listed prices are adult fare) :

- 1) Fraser River Scenic Tour- \$50.00 slow paced guided tour
- 2) Beaver River White Water Tour – \$94.00 class I to IV rapids, 4 hour return trip
- 3) Fraser River White Water Trip- \$89.00 class I to III rapids, 3 hour return trip

## **Industrial tourism:**

- 1) Mining Tourism-Likely, BC Website: <http://www.likely-bc.ca>

Likely, BC is a small town of approximately 350 residents that is known for its participation in the gold rush of 1859. The history of mining still plays an important role in Likely's local economy as tourists are attracted to visit the old the Quesnel Forks Restoration Site and ghost towns, the Bullion Pit rest stop and the Cedar City Mining Museum, which features many interesting artefacts from bygone gold rush days.

- 2) Castillo Canalejo, A.M., Lopez-Guzman, T.J., & Vazquez La Torre, G. Millan. (2010). Industrial mining tourism activities. *Anatolia*, 21(2), 379-383. doi:10.1080/13032917.2010.9687110

The following article discusses industrial mining tourism in rural areas as means to create economic growth and development within the community. Cordoba, Spain, provides an informative study for this alternative form of tourism. A survey was taken of the local population as well as the tourists, which frequent that region, in order to determine public opinions on industrial tourism activity. Visitors surveyed between 40 to 64 years of age, believe it would be complimentary to other types of tourism as it would serve educational and cultural purposes. While those surveyed between the ages of 30 to 44, saw it as a means to create new businesses, employment and socio-economic growth. A challenge which emerged from the study is the need to establish infrastructure to support industrial mining tourism while still maintaining the historic integrity of the region.

- 3) Darwin T. Wee. (2007). Zamboanga mulls programs for agri-, industrial-tourism. *BusinessWorld*, 1.

This article discusses the idea of promoting agricultural tourism, in the province of Zamboanga, Philippines to create an additional source of revenue. Agri-tourism is the practice of attracting travelers or visitors to areas used primarily for agricultural purposes. Agri-tourism has the potential provide additional tourist destinations and activities within a given area. In Zaboanga tourists will be able to visit organic farms and sardine factories and learn about their operations. Other local companies and farm owners are being encouraged by government and business leaders to develop their farms into tourist destinations, and providing accommodations such as bed and breakfasts.

“We can tap the existing farms and orchards in this city to add to existing destinations... Agri-tourism and industrial tourism should be part of tour packages of the travel and tour agencies.” -Onofre T. Grino, President of Menzi Agricultural Group.

## Supportive Municipal, Provincial and Federal Programs and Policies

### Enabling Municipal Policy

Case Study: City of Revelstoke Active Transportation Plan

- 1) City of Revelstoke and Boulevard Transportation Group. 2010. Revelstoke Active Transportation Plan

The city of Revelstoke in partnership with Boulevard Transportation Group have developed an Active Transportation Plan, which seeks to increase demand for sustainable transport such as biking or walking, as well as some forms of public transport. The AT plan combines recommendations from the Parks and Recreation Master Plan as well as the Comprehensive Transportation Master Plan; it identifies regulations which would facilitate implementation, facilities that may be used in establishing a culture of active transport, as well as information on public demand for alternative transportation in Revelstoke. The recommendations of the AT Plan may be used to inform sustainable transport initiatives in other municipalities.

### Enabling Provincial Policy

Case study: Sustainability planning in Castle, Alberta

Rationale: Attempting to implement a community sustainability plan is full of challenges which are present during the both the developmental stage and the implementation stage. This article contrasts commitments made by the Alberta Environmental Protection and Enhancement Act against unsustainable land and resource use in Castle, AB. It demonstrates that regional sustainability planning by the province is fragmented and underfunded. The article makes a number of specific recommendations to improve sustainability planning in Castle.

- 1) Kennet, Steven. 2006. The Castle: A Litmus test for Alberta's commitment to sustainable resource and environmental management. Canadian Institute of Canadian Resources Law

This article reviews ten years of decision-making on land and resource use in the Castle, AB summarizing the principal findings of a more detailed study published by the Canadian Institute of Resources Law. The Castle is a resource dependent township located in south-western Alberta. Ranching, tourism and resource development are economically important activities for Castle and This article focuses on a series of land-use decisions by the Alberta government that fail to meet the statutory established under the Environmental Protection and Enhancement Act have far-reaching implications not only for the Castle, but also for the broader Crown of the Continent ecosystem that extends through south-western Alberta, south-eastern British Columbia and northern Montana. Alberta's formal commitment to sustainability is embodied in legislation and policy. Both the Energy and Utilities Board (EUB) and the Natural Resources Conservation Board (NRCB) apply statutory 'public interest' tests that require attention to economic, social and environmental effects when reviewing proposed projects. These public interest tests revealed a number of threats to

ecosystem sustainability in new infrastructural developments in Castle and underlined the urgent need for specific regulatory and management responses. These concerns were not addressed in the Castle Integrated Resource Plan; specifically the public interest committee was concerned that the IRP does not provide an sufficiently detailed plan upon which to base land use decisions and criticised the Alberta Environmental Protection Agency's ability to keep the IRP or any plan "current and alive." Specific recommendations made by the committee include:

- That the castle IRP be legislated to reflect local values, be legally binding and include monitoring and updating (p. 62)
- Need for established, scientifically informed guidelines that address the individual and cumulative impacts of industrial and commercial development on the landscape
- Address the proliferation of access routes for forestry and oil and gas operations; as unregulated ATV access is detrimental to other landscape values
- Establish limits on potential future expansion of the ski resort in the West Castle Valley
- Consider "threshold values" in management decisions; intensity thresholds should complement spatial restrictions on activities
- Mitigate excessive reliance on land-use zoning as a management tool
- Establish clearly defined multiple use management strategy that delineates a defined land ethic and ecological bottom line
- Manage cumulative effects and overcoming the 'tyranny of small decisions' through an enhanced and integrated planning framework
- Need for an integrated management approach on both a strategic and a day-to-day basis as incremental decision-making and the fragmentation of management authority along jurisdictional and sectoral lines is a well-recognized impediment to sustainable resource and environmental management (p.80)
- Access management should be given a firm legal basis in the form of a Forest Land Use Zone regulation (p. 73)
- Formalized intergovernmental arrangements with neighbouring jurisdictions in order to ensure ecosystem-based management across the broader region
- The provincial government's integrated resource management initiative, led by Alberta Environment, includes an ambitious "regional strategy" for southern Alberta; should include monitoring plans, environmental indicators against which progress can be quantitatively measured (p.90)

## Community Forest Program

- 1) Smith, Ashley. (2011) BALTA Case Study: Revelstoke Community Forest Corporation

The community forest program was initiated in 1996 in the province of British Columbia, under the NDP government, to devolve power to local communities to manage timber resources proximate to their communities. It was anticipated that this would provide jobs and access to resources locally as well as to mitigate conflict related to timber harvesting in contentious areas. Revelstoke Community Forest Corporation provides an example of how the CF program may successfully provide local community benefits as well as revenue generation when harvesting timber.

The Revelstoke Community Forest Corporation (RCFC) is a community forest that operates under a tree farm license (TFL) within the Columbia Forest District in Revelstoke, British Columbia. Revelstoke Community Forest Corporation was incorporated on April 20, 1993 following the purchase of TFL #56 from Westar Ltd. for 3.5 million dollars. The City of Revelstoke is the sole shareholder with one common share. The institutional model of RCFC provides community members with a say in management decisions that may affect them. The RCFC board of director is composed of local community members and encourages involvement from within the community of Revelstoke. RCFC is an area based tenure with timber supply area of 119,823 hectares. The timber harvesting land base is 33,700 hectares. The management objectives of RCFC include a diversity of values including wildlife and biodiversity management, ecologically sustainable sivicultural practices, aesthetic management in visually sensitive areas, and local employment opportunities.

## Enabling Federal Policy

- 1) Community Futures Program -The Community Futures Program: The community futures program is a nationally lead economic diversification program. It is composed of volunteer boards and staffed with business professionals. Its central focus is implementation of community directed economic development in rural areas.
- 2) Habitat Stewardship Program - As part of Canada's national strategy for the protection of species at risk, the federal government established the Habitat Stewardship Program (HSP) for Species at Risk. The HSP allocates between \$9 and \$13 million a year to projects that conserve and protect species at risk and their habitats. Retrieved from: <http://www.ec.gc.ca/hsp-pih/>
- 3) Aboriginal Funds for Species at Risk (AFSAR) – [www.recovery.gc.ca/afsar-faep/](http://www.recovery.gc.ca/afsar-faep/)  
The Aboriginal Fund for Species at Risk (AFSAR) was established in 2004 in an effort to engage Aboriginal People in the protection of species at risk in Canada. AFSAR provides Aboriginal communities with funds for the purpose of implementing programs under the Species at Risk Act. The specific objectives of AFSAR are to provide capacity to Aboriginal communities the implementation and protect species at risk and their habitat. AFSAR is divided into the Aboriginal Capacity Building Fund (ACBF) and the Aboriginal Critical Habitat Protection Fund (ACHPF).

- 4) Pulp and Paper Green Transformation Program- Seeks to improve the environmental performance of Canada's pulp and paper industry. Retrieved from: [www.nrcan-mcan.gc.ca](http://www.nrcan-mcan.gc.ca)
- 5) Value to Wood Program - Provides technological solutions directly to wood product manufacturers in all regions of Canada through research and communication Retrieved from: <http://www.valuetowood.ca/html/english/index.php>
- 6) Forest Communities Program - The Canadian Forest Service. Forest Communities Program encourages community-level partnerships to take advantage of emerging resource-based economic opportunities. Retrieved from: [www.nrcan-rncan.gc.ca](http://www.nrcan-rncan.gc.ca)

## Knowledge Industry

### Research Forests:

- 1) Canadian Model Forest Network 2012. Webberville Community Model Forest. [Website]. Retrieved from: [www.modelforest.net](http://www.modelforest.net). Accessed on: Feb. 13, 2012.

This brief explores the Webberville Community Model Forest, located in Peace River Alberta, as an example of how alternative types of forest tenure can provide increased opportunities for economic growth, sustainable forest management and fostering a sense of community. The Webberville Community Model Forest (WCMF) is approximately 33,000 hectares of both privately owned and crown land. The WCMF attempts to integrate the goals of multiple woodlot owners and in doing so, provide a more organized approach to private forest management and a larger timber supply area. The article illustrates how collaborative management can offer increased economic opportunities for tree farmers. Landowners are able to effectively combine their lands in order to take advantage of immediate opportunities such as tree planting, recreational trail systems and woodlot inventories, and also invest in future opportunities such as biomass energy projects and carbon credit trading.

- 2) Anonymous. (2008). CNC research forest funded. The Prince George Free Press, pp. A.1.

This article discusses the development of research in being able to predict changing conditions such as climate change and its direct effect on soil moisture and the thriving of tree species in the future. The College of New Caledonia has received a grant of \$198,250 to be applied to their Natural Resources and Environmental Technology program, which will be conducting the scientific research. Information gathered over the two-year of funding for the project will be used to help industries develop forest management strategies. "Corresponding changes in soil moisture are anticipated, so a second aspect of the project will be to investigate the reliability of oak fern as an indicator of changes in soil moisture." "Students in NRET and geography will have been exposed to the project through field trips, labs or lectures."

- 3) Anonymous. (2011). Forest research; research data from forestry and forest products research institute update understanding of forest research. *Economics Week*, 1153.

This article discusses the study of land use and landscape changes in the Ogawa Forest Reserve in southern Abukuma Mountains, Japan, by interviewing local residents and review local historic documents. Socioeconomic forces have brought dramatic changes to the forest landscape and local biodiversity for the past 100 years. These changes reflect shifts in both the use of forest resources by local residents and the management of the national forests. Clarifying temporal-spatial landscape changes by understanding the historical relationship between humans and the landscape provides useful information for optimizing conservation and management planning.

### **Forecasted Challenges**

- 1) Morrison, Robert. (2008). *Alberta's Boom: Challenges and Opportunities for Sustainability Planning*. *Municipal World*

Alberta's resource based economy has resulted in boom and bust cycles that place many municipalities and communities in short term planning cycles. The article discusses the focus on immediate planning horizons by the provincial government which neglect to incorporate longer term, triple bottom line management practices. Currently many municipalities in Alberta face a number of challenges to sustainable development:

- a lack of affordable housing
- few areas for recreation
- urban sprawl
- Unemployment
- environmental degradation due to resource extraction

While substantial recommendations for these challenges are beyond the scope of this article, it does suggest that economic, social and environmental considerations be given more equal weighting in municipal and provincial decisions. Additionally, it suggests that communities should apply for provincial oil and gas tax revenues to address the local externalities of oil extraction.





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## Affordable Housing References

Adarkwa, K. K., & Oppong, R. A. (2007). Poverty reduction through the creation of a liveable housing environment: A case study of habitat for humanity international housing units in rural Ghana: A case study of habitat for humanity international housing units in rural Ghana. *Property Management*, 25(1), 7-26.

The purpose of this research is to show that initiatives to adequately address poverty reduction through the provision of housing units in rural communities in Ghana have come from both local and offshore resources. This paper explores the impact of one such initiative, namely the Habitat for Humanity International Ghana's (HHIG) intervention in the rural housing subsector. To understand and appreciate HHIG's intervention, field data collection and community interfaces were organised. Extensive use was made of the case study approach or narratology. Under this approach, six of the 29 local HHIG affiliates were studied using an exploratory approach for in depth probing. This study shows that the provision of housing units through HHIG's initiative has had a positive impact on poverty reduction through an enhanced housing environment, formation of micro enterprises, enhanced access to social services, skills transfer and improved security. As an object of consumption, the introduction of housing into rural economies in Ghana can have tremendous significant and positive impacts; implying that it can be used as an entry point in efforts aimed at reducing rural poverty in Sub Saharan Africa.

Ali, A. M. S. (2006). Population pressure, agricultural intensification and changes in rural systems in Bangladesh. *Geoforum*, 38(4), 720-738.

Sustainable agricultural growth is the key to rural system changes that include changes in rural bio-physical environment, economic infrastructure and social conditions. The present study has examined the temporal changes in 18 selected indicators of rural systems in Bangladesh during the period 1975-2000, and explored the influences of demographic, market forces, environmental, institutional and technological factors inducing and mediating such changes. An analysis of 64 district level published census data showed significant increase in agricultural intensity, cropping patterns, land productivity and farm income; decline in labor and technological productivities; and major improvement in rural housing, economic and social conditions during this period. Spatially, major agricultural growth and rural development were observed in districts with high population density, less constrained environments, and better access to markets, irrigation canals, and capital loans.

Aman, D., & Yarnal, B. (2010). Home sweet mobile home? benefits and challenges of mobile home ownership in rural Pennsylvania. *Applied Geography*, 30(1), 84-95.

Over half the mobile homes in the United States are located in rural America, where they are a popular but understudied alternative to site-built houses. Using tax assessment and mail survey data gathered for mobile homes in several rural Pennsylvania counties, we

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show that residents are overwhelmingly satisfied with mobile home life, but that they face unique challenges related to their housing choice. Survey data reveal issues of land tenure and financing, social stigma, and hidden costs of mobile home ownership, and demonstrate that mobile homes provide both opportunities and challenges for rural communities. (C) 2009 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Anthony, J. (2003). The effects of florida's growth management act on housing affordability. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 69(3), 282-295.

Several states have growth management laws, and many more are considering them. Multiple studies have confirmed that such laws may increase housing prices. However, higher housing prices do not automatically lower housing affordability. The research presented in this article examines the effect of Florida's Growth Management Act on housing affordability. Using two indices of housing affordability, with data from all 67 counties over a 16-year period, and after controlling for alternate hypotheses, this study finds that the Act had a statistically significant effect in decreasing the affordability of single-family homes. To help mitigate this negative effect, some policy interventions are suggested. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Anthony, J. (2006). State growth management and housing prices. *Social Science Quarterly*, 87(1), 122-141.

Objective. In the United States, growth regulations aimed at environmental protection and better quality urban areas have become very popular since the 1960s. Although many studies have examined the housing price effects of local and regional growth management regulations, none has examined the effects of a state law. Past research has also tended to be cross sectional, rather than longitudinal, and has frequently ignored alternate hypotheses that could explain housing price trends. The research presented in this article examines the housing price effects of Florida's Growth Management Act of 1985. Methods. Using secondary source data from all 67 counties of the state for the period 1980-1995 and employing pooled time series analysis techniques I test the hypothesis that the Act had an inflationary effect on single family house prices. Results. After controlling for alternate hypotheses such as population, income, and size of house, I find a statistically significant increase in the price of single family houses attributable to statewide growth management. Also, the demand side and supply side price inflationary effects of growth management are similar in magnitude. Conclusions. Since higher housing prices could become the Achilles heel of growth management programs and thwart their implementation, I suggest a few ways some of the price inflationary effects may be reduced.

Auh, S., & Cook, C. (2009). Quality of community life among rural residents: An integrated model. *Social Indicators Research*, 94(3), 377-389.

The purpose of this research was to explore the relationships among housing satisfaction, community attachment and community satisfaction and the complex mechanisms involved in predicting community satisfaction among residents in rural communities. The role of housing satisfaction and community attachment in predicting community satisfaction was of particular interest. A structural equation model of community satisfaction was tested with mail survey data drawn from a randomly selected rural sample of 974 households. The results of this study confirmed the influences and mediating role of community attachment and housing satisfaction in predicting community satisfaction. "Spillover" effects from "lower levels of life concerns" (e.g., satisfaction with local services, assessment of current

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housing conditions) in perceived community satisfaction were found that support previous research (Sirgy and Cornwell in *Social Indicators Research* 59:79-114, 2002).

Ball, M. (2000). Driving in neutral: Is it the way forward for housing policy? *Journal of Housing and the Built Environment*, 15(2), 131-137.

The 'libertarian' argument of Peter King aims to put tenure neutrality and a negative income tax in place of current government support for housing. However, formulating rules for tenure neutrality is hard and the negative income tax may require unacceptably high taxes. Real world complexity makes such simple rules with regard to housing difficult to achieve. Such complexity also helps to make a case for social housing.

Basolo, V. (2011). Inclusionary housing: The controversy continues. *The Town Planning Review*, 82(2), I.

Many local governments have limited, local revenues to provide direct subsidies for housing. [...] inclusionary zoning was a good fit for these localities, since it was possible to get new, affordable housing units without an outlay of cash.

Bogdon, A. A. S. (1997). Indicators of local housing affordability: Comparative and spatial approaches. *Real Estate Economics*, 25(1), 43-80.

This paper focuses on the measurement of local housing affordability problems. A number of different housing market indicators are offered that help identify the magnitude and nature of housing affordability problems and their geographic distribution. This interest is prompted by the predominance of housing affordability problems and the severity of the problem for many of the lowest income renter households. In addition, there is significant policy interest in "the national goal that every American family be able to afford a decent home in a suitable environment" (National Affordable Housing Act of 1990). This paper presents measures of the spatial distribution of affordability problems and the implementation of measures of the mismatch between the demand and supply of housing affordable to the lowest income households.

Bone, R. M., & Green, M. B. (1983). Housing assistance and maintenance for the metis in northern Saskatchewan. *Canadian Public Policy / Analyse De Politiques*, 9(4), 476-486.

Vers la fin des années 50, le déplacement des Métis de leur territoire vers de petits villages dans le Nord de la Saskatchewan a entraîné une crise du logement. Afin de remédier à ce problème social, le gouvernement fédéral et celui de la Saskatchewan ont conclu une série d'ententes par lesquelles ils allaient financer des programmes d'habitations populaires destinés aux familles pauvres et pauvrement logées dans les communautés métis isolées du Nord de la Saskatchewan. Dix ans après la signature du premier accord (1976), on a mené une enquête sur les conditions de logement, dont les résultats indiquaient que ce programme de propriété des logis avait amélioré la qualité et la grandeur des logements. Mais l'enquête indiquait aussi que ces métis propriétaires à faible revenu dépensaient peu d'argent pour l'entretien, ce qui expliquait l'état physique 'plus pauvre' de leurs logements, lorsque comparés aux logements du personnel du DNS. Dans cet article, les auteurs maintiennent que l'entretien inadéquat des logements modernes par leurs propriétaires métis est dû en grande partie au faible revenu des familles. Une solution serait une forme quelconque d'aide à l'entretien des maisons; plus coûteuse à court terme, cette solution permettrait de réduire plus long terme les coûts pour les contribuables et de s'assurer que des normes acceptables de logement sont maintenues dans de tels centres isolés. // By the late 1950s, the movement of Métis from the land to small settlements in northern Saskatchewan had

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created a housing crisis. To correct this social problem, the federal and Saskatchewan governments entered into a series of joint agreements to fund public housing programs for poorly-housed low income families in isolated Métis centres in the Saskatchewan north. Ten years after the first agreement was signed (1976), a housing survey was conducted and its results indicated that this program of homeownership had increased the quality and size of dwellings. However, this survey also indicated that these same low income owners spent little money on maintenance and this situation accounted for the 'poorer' physical conditions of their dwellings as compared to DNS staff housing. The authors argue that inadequate maintenance of these modern dwellings by their Métis owners is primarily related to low family income. One solution is some form of subsidized housing maintenance program which, while more costly in the short run, would minimize the long-run cost to the public purse and ensure an adequate standard of housing in these remote centres.

Bosselman, F. P. (1985). Pariah to paragon: Developer exactions in Florida 1975-85. (local government law symposium). *Stetson Law Review*, 14(3), 528.

Bramley, G., & Watkins, D. (2009). Affordability and supply: The rural dimension. *Planning Practice and Research*, 24(2), 185-210. doi:10.1080/02697450902827352

This article examines recent evidence on affordability, the need for affordable housing and patterns of housing supply across the urban-rural spectrum in England. It uses adapted versions of several models derived from previous research but incorporating relatively recent data to illuminate these issues. It is found that, whether measured at the local authority or ward level, rural areas are more affordable than urban areas, within broad regions and overall. Rural areas in the North and the Midlands have greater net needs mainly because of migration and a lack the supply of social housing. Rural areas (especially further north) have seen much more new building and net gains in housing stock over the past 10-20 years, and prices grew less in rural areas over the whole market cycle, despite evidence of continuing demand.

Bratt, R. R. G. (1991). Public housing authorities: Determining an appropriate role in a national preservation strategy. *Housing Policy Debate*, 2(2), 535-556.

Brereton, F., Scott, M., Bullock, C., & Clinch, J. P. (2011). Rural change and individual well-being: The case of Ireland and rural quality of life. *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 18(2), 203-227.

Much of rural Europe has witnessed vast changes over the past two decades, including major demographic and economic change. The question of how these changes have affected individual well-being and quality of life remains largely unanswered. This paper aims to shed light on this topic by employing both qualitative and quantitative research methods in the analysis of rural quality of life in Ireland, including focus groups, locally-specific surveys and two representative surveys of individuals carried out in 2001 and 2007. We use the respondents' self-reported life satisfaction level as a proxy for their well-being to examine the determinants of quality of life and also examine how attitudes have changed over this period. Results show a consistently high life satisfaction in rural Ireland. The greatest changes are witnessed in attitudes to the provision of facilities and services. Respondents' perceptions of the benefits and limitations of rural living remain constant between the two periods, focusing on quality of life and environmental issues. However, the main problems of rural living have shifted away from the cost of housing to access to healthcare and public transport. Issues that are found to be important at the local scale include economic indicators (for example, security of income, home ownership), dwelling

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characteristics, social factors (for example, belonging to the community) and environmental amenities (for example, access to green space, good-quality environment). The importance of these issues is born out by the analysis at the national scale. The paper concludes by exploring the policy implications of these findings.

Brian, R. L. (2006). Mandatory inclusionary zoning - the answer to the affordable housing problem. *Boston College Environmental Affairs Law Review*, 33(2), 383.

Affordable housing has always been a problem in the United States. Cities and towns originally engaged in forms of discrimination through exclusionary zoning to exclude low-income residents. While many of the social attitudes persist today, the question is how to encourage new affordable housing development. This Note introduces the concept of inclusionary zoning as a successful method for creating affordable housing. The Note examines the constitutional analyses used for land use ordinances. Then, the Note evaluates existing affordable housing programs, distinguishing between the eastern approach and the western approach. The eastern approach—represented by New Jersey, Massachusetts, and Montgomery County, Maryland—is based upon a "fair share" of affordable housing but lacks any planning requirement. The western approach, as illustrated by Oregon and California, is based upon community planning of all necessary elements including affordable housing, and have successfully required affordable housing development. Ultimately, the Note adopts a perspective that mandatory inclusionary zoning in all communities is the best option and should be valid under an impact fee-like analysis. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Bruce, D. (2003). *Housing needs of low-income people living in rural areas*. Ottawa: Canadian Mortgage Housing Corporation.

This research report summarizes the housing situations of low-income persons living in rural areas of Canada. It also identifies the barriers to addressing their housing needs, and the opportunities that exist in rural communities and small towns to address these situations. Methodology includes a literature review, a statistical review, and a 12 case studies of diverse rural communities across Canada, with informant interviews and document analysis.

Brunick, N. J., & Maier, P. O. (2010). Renewing the land of opportunity. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 19(2), 161.

This article focuses on two kinds of state and local government innovations: (1) inclusionary housing efforts to create and preserve affordable housing in mixed-income communities and in good locations; and (2) state and local efforts to generate new public and private investment for affordable housing.

Without inclusionary housing policies, our society will fail to create enough affordable housing in the right locations so that we can effectively deal with many of the issues intertwined with the affordable housing crisis—such as traffic congestion, concentrated poverty, regional economic competitiveness, sustainable development, clean air and water, and school quality. Without public dollars or public incentives to entice private dollars to the task, the private market will fall short in producing enough decent, safe, and affordable homes and apartments for all who need them. Without both tools acting together, we have little hope of moving closer to the goal of a nation where every community is a safe, vibrant, and sustainable place to live.

Calavita, N. N. (1997). *Inclusionary housing in California and New Jersey: A comparative*

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analysis. *Housing Policy Debate*, 8(1), 109-142.

Abstract: Many people have argued that inclusionary housing (IH) is a desirable land use strategy to address lower-income housing needs and to further the geographic dispersal of the lower-income population. In an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of IH, this article examines the experiences of New Jersey and California, two states where IH has been applied frequently over an extended period.

While the concept of regional "fair share" is central to both states' experiences, the origins of the programs, their applications, and their evolutions are quite dissimilar. IH originated in New Jersey from the famous Mount Laurel cases and in California from housing affordability crises and a legislatively mandated housing element. The experiences of both states indicate that IH can and should be part of an overall affordable housing strategy but that it is unlikely to become the core of such a strategy.

Cassell, M., & Hoffmann, S. (2009). Not all housing GSEs are alike: An analysis of the federal home loan bank system and the foreclosure crisis. *Public Administration Review*, 69(4), 613-622.

While the financial crisis of 2008 ultimately affected the range of U.S. financial institutions, it began with practices in home ownership finance. The Federal Home Loan Bank (FHLBank) System was the first instrumentality created by the U.S. government, in 1932, to sustain affordable home ownership finance. In this article, the authors ask what role, if any, the FHLBanks played in the subprime lending and securitization practices that precipitated the current crisis. The authors analyze publicly available FHLBank financial data in terms of a framework focused on the System's assets: advances; mortgage loans acquired from members; and investments, particularly in mortgage-backed-securities. They conclude that the FHLBanks did not contribute significantly to problematic practices. Nonetheless, they recommend consideration of three reforms to the FHLBanks to ensure a return to effective regulation and responsible, affordable home ownership finance.

Ceraso, K. (1999). Eyesore to community asset: Historic preservation creates affordable housing and livable neighborhoods. *Shelterforce*, (106)

A number of recent project have shown that the two goals of affordable housing and historic preservation are not antithetical. While historic preservation projects account for a small percentage of the affordable units in the U.S, the number of such projects is rising. This increase partly reflects a growing view of affordable housing development as part of a larger goal of community revitalization. This article explores the unique challenges and opportunities associated with the rehabilitation of historic properties for affordable housing.

Chislett, K. L., Green, M. B., & Bone, R. M. (1987). Housing mismatch for metis in norther saskatchewan. *The Canadian Geographer/Le Geographe Canadien*, 31(4), 341-346. doi:10.1111/j.1541-0064.1987.tb01660.x

Cho, S. H., Newman, D. H., & Wear, D. N. (2005). Community choices and housing demands: A spatial analysis of the southern appalachian highlands. *Housing Studies*, 20(4), 549-569. This paper examines housing demand using an integrated approach that combines residential decisions about choices of community in the Southern Appalachian region with the application of a Geographical Information System (GIS). The empirical model infers a distinctive heterogeneity in the characteristics of community choices. The results also indicate that socioeconomic motives strongly affect urban housing demands while

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environmental amenities affect those of rural housing demand.

Clendenning, J. G., Marcouiller, D. W., & Kedzior, R. (2002). Natural amenity-led development and rural planning. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 16(4), 515-542.

Rural America's economy, culture, and landscape have entered a period of sustained and dramatic change. Patterns of land use and the context of development are increasingly driven by natural resource-based amenity values. Planners face a new breed of economic, social, and environmental issues brought about by this rapid change in land use; driven, in large part, by demands for rural residential developments and recreationally-oriented land uses. This annotated bibliography has been compiled as a primer to the academic literature that relates to this phenomenon.

Cloke, P., Milbourne, P., & Widdowfield, R. (2001). Homelessness and rurality: Exploring connections in local spaces of rural England. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 41(4), 438-453.

Homelessness remains a neglected component of rural studies in Britain and Europe. Research has tended to skirt around the subject, focusing either on groups in need located within rural housing markets or on those people experiencing rural poverty living within conventional properties. In this paper we want to connect homelessness with rurality by drawing on key findings from recently completed research on rural homelessness in England. We want to make connections between homelessness and rurality in two main ways. Firstly, given the limited knowledge base on rural homelessness, we set out the overall extent and profile of homelessness in rural England based on an analysis of unpublished official statistics. We also highlight how homelessness in rural England is bound up with a great deal of spatial unevenness and suggest that it is through localized investigation that important connections between homelessness and rurality can be best understood. In the second part of the paper, we draw on findings from local research conducted in two rural districts in Gloucestershire to provide a range of evidence that points to the significance of the local spaces of rural homelessness. In particular, this work demonstrates the ways in which local structures of housing provision and socio-cultural and political processes in these districts impact on the nature and experiences of rural homelessness.

Cohen, J. J. R. (1998). Combining historic preservation and income class integration: A case study of the butcher's hill neighbourhood of Baltimore. *Housing Policy Debate*, 9(3), 663-697.

This article considers the tension that exists between the goals of historic preservation and the provision of affordable housing. Residential historic preservation is often associated with gentrification and displacement of low - income residents. The author examines ways historic rehabilitation tax credits can be used to develop mixed - income neighborhoods, focusing on the historic Butchers Hill neighborhood in Baltimore, Maryland, as an example of how maintaining affordable housing can be consistent with preservation efforts. He finds that historic preservation can serve as a catalyst for community revitalization if it is part of a comprehensive approach that limits the displacement of low - income residents. In Butchers Hill, residents who were restoring properties and residents who were attempting to preserve low - income housing worked together to negotiate compromise solutions that met the interests of both.

Cook, C. C., Crull, S. R., Fletcher, C. N., Hinnant-Bernard, T., & Peterson, J. (2002). Meeting family housing needs: Experiences of rural women in the midst of welfare reform. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 23(3), 285-316.

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Though sometimes overlooked, the availability, affordability, and quality of housing in rural communities are a potential barrier to transitioning from welfare to work. In this investigation we examine housing issues confronting 17 rural women and their families who were recipients of welfare benefits in 1997. Respondents' housing accounts illustrate the significance of reliance on both government housing subsidies and informal subsidies supplied by friends, family, and more distant relatives. The study focuses on concerns women have in meeting their families shelter needs and the complexities involved in doing so. The findings of the research suggest that additional housing policy initiatives, as well as a targeted research agenda are needed, especially for families whose welfare benefits are nearing termination.

Couch, C., Fowles, S., & Karecha, J. (2009). Reurbanization and housing markets in the central and inner areas of liverpool. *Planning Practice and Research*, 24(3), 321-341.

British cities appear to be moving from a period of counter-urbanization to a period of reurbanization. One reason for this appears to be the growth of residential development in city centres. At the same time as there has been a boom in city centre housing, many cities appear to have experienced housing market failure in parts of the inner urban area. Through a study of Liverpool this article considers the evidence to support the notion that reurbanization is becoming an established trend, and why. What is the relationship between this emerging central area housing market and the surrounding inner urban areas? What are the implications for planning practice? The article concludes that there is evidence of reurbanization, partly driven by the economic revival of the city centre economy. But this emerging housing sector caters only for a niche population and makes a relatively inefficient contribution to housing supply. However, with the exception of student housing, it appears to be segmented from and not adversely impacting upon the inner-area housing market. If the goal is to broaden the appeal of city centre living to a wider social spectrum and to increase the efficiency of its contribution to housing supply, then its provision needs to be more carefully planned in terms of housing mix, local environmental conditions and amenities.

Crook, A. D. H., Monk, S., Rowley, S., & Whitehead, C. M. E. (2006). Planning gain and the supply of new affordable housing in england: Understanding the numbers. *The Town Planning Review*, 77(3), 353.

The policy to generate land and finance for affordable housing through the land use planning system in England has now been in place for fifteen years - and is fast becoming the most important mechanism for adding to the stock of affordable housing. It is therefore an appropriate time to assess the extent to which the policy is achieving its objectives. To address this issue the paper draws on a number of complementary research projects to look at how the policy has developed and then at the evidence of outputs and outcomes. It first examines the numbers being achieved and the proportion of total output that this represents; it then looks at the regional and the tenure distribution of this output and lastly at the nature of other contributions made by developers. Finally the implications of the findings are discussed in the context of proposed policy changes. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Curran, D., & Wake, T. (2008). *Creating market and non-market affordable housing: A smart growth toolkit for BC municipalities*. Vancouver: Smart Growth BC.

This report, created for Smart Growth BC, contains a comprehensive overview of policies and practices to encourage the development and preservation of neighbourhoods that are

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affordable, diverse, and sustainable. It focuses on instruments and policies available to local governments, with a detailed analysis of legal and jurisdictional issues, strengths and weaknesses, and case studies and examples of their use.

Curry, N., & Owen, S. (2009). Rural planning in England: A critique of current policy: 1. *Town Planning Review*, 80(6), 575-596.

The article briefly explores the enduring primacy of agricultural planning over land use planning in rural areas in England since the Second World War. From this contextual overview, the paper critically evaluates in some detail a number of embedded land use planning principles that continue to sustain the residualisation of human welfare in rural areas and are antithetic to the broader principles of sustainable development that rhetorically at least are said to drive UK rural planning policy. The article concludes by calling for the realignment of rural planning principles and recommends a number of behaviour changes that would contribute to continuous improvement towards sustainable development in rural England. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Curtin, J. F., & Bocarsly, L. (2008). CLTs: A growing trend in affordable homeownership.

*Journal of Affordable Housing and Community Development Law*, 17(4), 367-394.

This article contains a comprehensive review of Community Land Trusts (CLTs) in the US, including their historical and political context, common issues facing CLTs, case studies of successful CLTs, and insights into future CLT development.

Daniels, N. (2003). Options for affordable housing new solutions to the housing crisis in the islands trust area. Victoria: Islands Trust.

This paper discusses the need for affordable housing in BC's Islands Trust area, and provides a review of the options that may be available in pursuance of this goal. Although there are some unique features of the Islands Trust area, this report contains important insights for other rural communities, especially high-amenity areas with rising land values and pressures created by tourism and vacationing.

David, R. P. (2009). Keeping the underclass in its place: Zoning, the poor, and residential segregation. *The Urban Lawyer*, 41(4), 787.

123 The most important functional ramification of keeping the underclass in center-city neighborhoods is containment. Because the underclass for the most part lacks rewarding and sustained employment, bourgeois interests do not exploit the underclass in the way they exploited the traditional agricultural and industrial working class.

Davis, J. E., & Demitrowitz, A. (2003). Permanently affordable homeownership: Does the community land trust deliver on its promises? A performance evaluation of the CLT model using resale data from the Burlington community land trust. Burlington: Burlington Community Land Trust.

This report contains a detailed analysis of the largest Community Land Trust in the U.S., examining its benefits in comparison to traditional homeownership. Between 1984 and 2002, the Burlington Community Land Trust (BCLT) in Burlington, Vermont developed 259 moderately-priced single-family houses and condominiums. All of these homes were sold to first-time homebuyers subject to durable controls over their occupancy and resale, controls designed to maintain their availability and affordability for low-income households far into the future. The first resale of a BCLT home occurred in 1988. By the end of 2002, the BCLT had overseen the resale of 97 houses and condominiums.

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This pool of resales provided a rare opportunity to evaluate the performance of a housing model that promises to secure the benefits of homeownership for persons of limited means, while achieving larger social goals like the preservation of affordability, the stewardship of public subsidies, and the stabilization of residential neighborhoods. There had been no systematic evaluation of these claims heretofore, because most of the nation's CLTs are still too new and too small to have had a significant number of resales. The BCLT was an exception. Its sizable portfolio of resale-restricted housing offered enough cases to assess how effective the BCLT had been in actually delivering – and equitably balancing – the individual benefits and the community benefits promised by its innovative model of homeownership.

- de Kam, G. (1998). Value for money: Quality and price of land for social housing in the Netherlands. *Netherlands Journal of Housing and the Built Environment*, 13(4), 453-475. The Dutch take pride in their policy on housing and the development of urban land. After the Second World War, the Housing Act – dating from 1901 – was elaborated into specific rules for physical planning and a system of subsidizing the production and management of a large number of social rented dwellings. The effectiveness of the Dutch approach was based upon the synergy of state interventions in physical planning, housing and land policy. This article analyses the performance of this system in two respects. Firstly, it looks at how the system affected the influence of prices of virgin land and of land development costs on decisions in physical planning, and what effect it had on prices of serviced land for social housing. This section is based on an analysis of Dutch land policy and the resulting land prices for housing over the entire post-war period. Secondly, this article considers what the Dutch system contributed to social integration in Dutch cities, and whether it gave lower-income groups access to locations with better quality than the free market would have offered. This second part of the study is based on empirical data on the socio-spatial development of The Hague and its region. Regarding the existing English literature on the successes of Dutch policy, the author suggests a more carefully balanced appraisal. This leads to some points for a research agenda for land policy in the Netherlands, given the rapid shift to market-led production in Dutch housing.
- de la Cruz, Edgar E. Ramirez. (2009). Local political institutions and smart growth: An empirical study of the politics of compact development. *Urban Affairs Review*, 45(2), 218-246. Using Florida survey data from 2002 and 2007, this article seeks to determine the characteristics of local governments that make them more or less inclined to engage in smart growth-related land-use regulations. The study draws on a range of theoretical traditions to motivate an empirical model of policy adoption, emphasizing the interaction between interest group politics and local political institutions as the primary explanatory factors. In addition, the article differentiates between types of smart growth regulations designed to promote a key smart growth principle – compact development – in terms of their redistributive consequences. The study finds some support for the notion that the adoption of smart growth practices is affected by the activism of interest groups and their interaction with local political institutions.
- Deane, L., & Smoke, E. (2010). Designing affordable housing with Cree, Anishinabe, and Métis people. *Canadian Journal of Urban Research*, 19(1), 51. Three levels of government are investing in the renewal or construction of affordable housing in Manitoba's inner-city areas. Much of this housing is targeted to communities

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that are predominantly Aboriginal. Little consultation has occurred about the underlying cultural assumptions of the design of these homes. This is in spite of the fact that the layout of a home may significantly direct the life ways of a family or affect their relationships to relatives or neighbours. Lack of consultation has proved problematic in some Indigenous communities, whereas in those few cases where consultation has occurred, the emerging designs have been significantly different from conventional designs. This article describes a four-year process of consultation on cultural concepts in the design of buildings intended for Aboriginal families in urban communities in Manitoba. Participatory design activities drew out numerous themes that, if incorporated into buildings, might help Indigenous families retain or recover their cultural values and lifeways. A number of these Indigenous themes have been incorporated in buildings that have already been constructed. The themes relate not just to the decorative features of the buildings but to conceptual assumptions underlying their design. The article concludes with some public policy recommendations. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Derbyshire, J. (2006). Bells bakery enters the house-building business. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 14(2), 34.

Any business based in an area that lacks affordable housing is likely to suffer recruitment and retention problems because its employees cannot settle. As a result, employees will often move to another city or town, where affordable housing is available, taking their skills and training with them. Cumbrian bakery Bells of Lazonby recently addressed this issue by working closely with a housing association to create affordable housing for all, and give young people and those on lower incomes the opportunity to settle in the area. They put great emphasis on training and development, with a high proportion of staff completing NVQ, management or activity-related qualifications. As one of the largest rurally-based employers in Cumbria, they play a full and active role in community affairs. The company also has strong links with the education sector. The operations director chairs the Eden Education and Business Partnership and the company has run successful work-related projects with primary and secondary schools.

Downs, A. A. (1991). The advisory commission on regulatory barriers to affordable housing: Its behavior and accomplishments. *Housing Policy Debate*, 2(4), 1095-1137.

Dumreicher, H. (2008). Chinese villages and their sustainable future: The european union-china-research project "SUCCESS". *Journal of Environmental Management*, 87(2), 204-215. China has 800,000 villages-one person out of seven on the globe is living in a Chinese rural settlement. Yet the global discussions about the situation in China is currently characterised by a disproportionate focus on the development of towns and until now circumstances have generally been neglected in the rural areas, where 70% of the Chinese population is still living. Within the 5 years of the SUCCESS project research, this set of actual problems has been considered and analysed under the principle of sustainability: "What to maintain?" "What to change?" were the overall research questions asked in the SUCCESS project; the researchers were looking for answers under a sustainability regime, respecting the need to raise the quality of life in the villages. Several interweaving processes were used to achieve results: the inter-disciplinary research process between many areas of expertise, the trans-disciplinary process between the researchers and the Chinese villagers, and a negotiation process that made the connection between these two processes. The introduction describes the basic sustainability definition that was orienting the whole study. The innovation lays mostly in the methodology: the inter-disciplinary

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research co-operation related to practice and to involving the affected communities is needed to manage the significant and growing imbalances between urban and rural areas regarding their sustainability. In the transdisciplinary work, the project developed "village future sentences" that describe the local outcome of the research as one step towards better theoretical understanding of the mechanisms that could lead to a sustainable future, and they also managed to start sustainability processes in the case study sites. The integrated approach of the project helped generating future scenarios for these villages covering all aspects of their development, including urban design issues. Out of these scenarios, the villages developed small projects that could be implemented during the research period. This work made an important impact on community thinking within these villages. However, it can also be seen as contributing to the dramatically changing development process in China, by finding a balance between traditional and contemporary approaches. In particular, the approach demonstrated a new, inter-disciplinary and trans-disciplinary negotiation processes whereby the local knowledge and the expert knowledge find common ground and outcomes. The article follows the hypothesis that only comprehensive concepts can contribute to an upgraded living standard, where living spaces and rural life should be recognised and esteemed in the future as a complement to urban lifestyles within the Chinese society. Innovative knowledge generation-such as the "systemic structure constellation" technique or the systems model approach-helped to bring out latent needs, hopes and potential of the villagers. Besides the practical usage of these implemented projects, the process leading there showed the stakeholders their own fields of action. One major impact of these projects is the visibility of the results, which is crucial for villagers' awareness, their self-confidence and their experience with a successful participation in decision-making processes. Another impact is the potential for replicating results of sustainability-oriented patterns throughout China, especially as three of the villages have been nominated official model villages. Scenarios of a sustainable future for Chinese villages were the objective of the SUCCESS project. The first condition for this future is the question whether they can persist into the future-and to picture the importance of the rural environment and living space as a relevant element of Chinese life that needs to get a better image and more attention from the authorities and from the public opinion. Therefore, the final sentence that the whole research consortium, composed of 17 scientific institutions from European Union and China, agreed upon as a common result for the SUCCESS project, is as follows: "China is composed of a rich diversity of villages with many attractive qualities and essential resources for the future growth of the whole country; we recommend that policy makers cherish the human and natural potential of the rural economy and environment so that villages provide the foundation for sustainable development of this progressive nation" [Dumreicher, H., 2006. SUCCESS-a sustainable future for Chinese villages. International Symposium "Chinese Villages and their Sustainable Future", University of Natural Resources and Applied Life Sciences, Vienna, January 16]. This sentence was used in papers that were sent to different Chinese authorities by the Chinese partners and found its way, as a sort of "unofficial Charta", towards governmental agencies at national and provincial levels. The team carried out a 5-year-research study in rural China, aiming at establishing future images under the premises of sustainability. But the basic topic that needed to be tackled with was the question whether at all those villages could persist in the coming decades of rapid development. Therefore, the first aim of the study was to establish the importance of the rural environment and living space as a basis for the future of China.

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Dunn, J., Hodge, I., Fitzgerald, M., & Monk, S. (2002). Barriers to participation in residual rural labour markets. *Work, Employment & Society*, 16(3), 457-476.  
doi:10.1177/095001702762217434

Structural change in rural areas has led to a differentiation in the ranges of experience of rural life. Within generally prosperous localities, some individuals may be unable to achieve what is widely accepted as an adequate standard of living. This article focuses on the barriers that individuals face with respect to participation in residual local labour markets in rural areas. A variety of factors influence capacity to participate. Empirical evidence is provided from a study that used in-depth interviews in two rural case study areas. The article assesses the barriers influencing labour market participation identified in the interviews, including the mismatch between skills and opportunities, recruitment practices, accessibility, the costs of labour market participation and housing. All may be influenced by the rural nature of the locations. The approach offers a framework for a qualitative analysis of labour markets from an individual perspective, avoiding the presumption of a common experience of a labour market determined by the general characteristics of labour market conditions.

Dustin, C. R. (2009). The structure and potential economic effects of inclusionary zoning ordinances. *Real Estate Issues*, 34(2), 1.

Inclusionary zoning ordinances encourage or require real estate developers to set aside a percentage of the units included in market-rate residential development projects for low- and moderate-income households. However, concerns have been raised that inclusionary zoning can constrain residential development and increase housing prices in some instances. Understanding its strengths and weaknesses is therefore essential to help policymakers craft regulations that expand housing opportunities, while being mindful of unintended economic consequences. The literature review presented in this article is designed to provide such an understanding. Policymakers must be aware of potential excise tax effects in the current economic environment because weak housing demand may prevent developers from passing regulatory costs on to market-rate home buyers. Inclusionary zoning may therefore stifle residential development and produce little affordable housing unless the ordinance balances any financial burden imposed on the private sector with offsetting economic incentives.

Dwyer, R. E. (2009). The McMansionization of America? income stratification and the standard of living in housing, 1960-2000.

Consumption patterns and living standards are relatively neglected in stratification research even though they are important indicators of material well-being. Consumption inequality is related to income and wealth disparities through complex processes not yet well understood. This paper addresses this gap by analyzing a striking shift in the standard of living in housing in the US that occurred at the same time as a substantial increase in income inequality. Houses became significantly bigger in the 1980s and 1990s just as inequalities deepened, reversing an earlier trend towards smaller houses. Diverse theoretical traditions in the consumption and housing stratification literatures explain this shift differently, and in particular posit very different effects of rising income inequality. I derive several alternative expectations from these traditions: two predicting that the increasing size of houses was broadly shared across income levels, while another expects it represented increasing divergence in living standards, paralleling the trend in income inequality. I use US Census and American Housing Survey data and several different methods to adjudicate between these theories. The results provide some support for each of

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the alternative expectations, but the most significant finding is that big house ownership became more concentrated among the affluent. A focus on living standards thus uncovers a key source of rising disparities at the turn of the 21st century with important implications for wealth stratification too since houses are the major debt and asset held by most Americans.

Edson, C. L., Iglesias, T., & Lento, R. E. (2011). Affordable housing - an intimate history.(legal guide to affordable housing development). *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 20(2), 193.

In 1918, Congress made the US Shipbuilding Corp the first federal entity in the affordable housing field by authorizing \$100 million to build 25 war-worker projects providing more than 5,000 homes. Previously, in 1892, Congress had authorized \$20,000 for a federal investigation of slum conditions. This bit of history reveals a pattern of housing programs and funding that continues to this day: affordable housing is not deemed to be an end in itself, but a way to serve another purpose -- or example, to house defense workers during the world wars, to create jobs during the Depression, to provide an antidote to civil unrest in the 1960s, or to stimulate the economy in today's Great Recession. This will not be a chronological history. Rather, it primarily addresses key areas: public housing, nonprofit and private-sector programs, tax incentives for housing, housing preservation, and low-income home ownership.

Farrell, M. (2005). RESPONDING TO HOUSING INSTABILITY AMONG NEWCOMERS. *Canadian Issues*, , 119.

Employment is an important factor in helping newcomers to settle and integrate into their host country. A number of studies that examine the employment outcomes of newcomers have indicated that current newcomers are experiencing greater difficulty than Canadian-born or previous newcomers in entering the labour market and in finding employment that is appropriate to the level of skill, education and experience. Refugee claimants may be at greatest risk due to documented delays in acquiring work permits.

Field, C. C. G. (1997). Building consensus for affordable housing. *Housing Policy Debate*, 8(4), 801-832.

At one time the national goal of affordable housing was a widely held consensus that led to decent housing for millions of Americans. Today, proponents of affordable housing must negotiate with diverse and sometimes hostile parties to secure project approvals. Discussions are frequently adversarial, and stalemate is too often the result. The consensus as collapsed. If progress toward affordable housing is to be made, proponents will have to recast the way they operate within this new environment. More than new financing plans or recommendations for regulatory relief are needed. Attention must also focus on the processes by which groups address divergent interests and come to agreement. "principled negotiation," a form of joint problem solving, when coupled with third-party intervention, offers a promising and effective means of dealing with this hostile environment"

Fitchen, J. M. (1992). On the edge of homelessness: Rural poverty and housing insecurity. *Rural Sociology*, 57(2), 173-193.

Homelessness in rural America is a problem hardly recognized, little understood, and only minimally studied by rural sociologists. This article, based on long-term field research in upstate New York, sets the problem of rural homelessness in context, explains the increase in rural poverty that puts more people at risk of homelessness, and examines some trends

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in rural housing that reduce the ability of poorer residents to secure adequate shelter. The nature of housing insecurity and the strategies poor rural people use to keep themselves from becoming literally homeless are noted. Interviews and questionnaires conducted among insecurely-housed low-income people and interviews and records supplied by agencies and institutions serving the poor provide the information on which arguments are based. The conclusion is that the definition of homelessness should be broadened for rural usage to encompass poor people on the edge of or at high risk of homelessness; also, programs to assist the homeless and prevent homelessness must be appropriate for rural situations. [ABSTRACT FROM AUTHOR]; Copyright of Rural Sociology is the property of Wiley-Blackwell and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use. This abstract may be abridged. No warranty is given about the accuracy of the copy. Users should refer to the original published version of the material for the full abstract. (Copyright applies to all Abstracts.)

Floryan, M. (2010). Cracking the foundation: Highlighting and criticizing the shortcomings of mandatory inclusionary zoning practices. *Pepperdine Law Review*, 37(3), 1039.

Forchuk, C., Montgomery, P., Berman, H., Ward-Griffin, C., Csiernik, R., Gorlick, C., . . . Riesterer, P. (2010). Gaining ground, losing ground: The paradoxes of rural homelessness. *The Canadian Journal of Nursing Research = Revue Canadienne De Recherche En Sciences infirmiÃres*, 42(2), 138-138.

The study examined rural housing and homelessness issues and looked at similarities and differences between rural and urban areas. It involved a secondary analysis of focus group data collected in a 2001-06 Community University Research Alliance study of mental health and housing. The findings highlight concerns regarding the lack of services, which can precipitate a move from a rural to an urban community. Inadequate transportation services often posed a challenge to rural residents attempting to access services. Many participants preferred rural living but felt they had to choose between residing where they wanted to and having access to essential services. In some cases entire families were uprooted in pursuit of services. Once in an urban environment, rural participants had ongoing difficulty obtaining employment, housing, and services, which in turn led to disappointment in their new environment. The primary reason given for entering the shelter system was lack of alternatives and supports. Increased services need to be allocated to rural communities so that a health promotion and illness-prevention model of care can replace the current emphasis on crisis management.

Gallent, N. (2009). Affordable housing in 'village england': Towards a more systematic approach. *Planning Practice and Research*, 24(2), 263-283. doi:10.1080/02697450902827428 Rural housing policies in England tend to focus on the generality of 'rural areas' or 'rural regions', leading to broad policy responses, or a concentration of effort (in dealing with the issue of rural housing affordability) in larger centres. Whilst there have been some attempts to focus on the needs of villages (notably through the planning exceptions approach), government has been accused of 'lacking conviction' in its response to recent dramatic changes in the 'social composition of rural areas', driven largely by concentrated gentrification in smaller village locations. This paper examines the means by which government seeks to provide affordable housing, and increase general affordability, in rural areas. It argues that a strategic approach to achieving housing affordability (triggering additional land allocations) that gave villages their a 'fair share' of development, coupled

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with continuing support for 'planning and affordable housing' policies and greater emphasis on working through community groups (particularly land trusts), may provide the bones of a more systematic programme of intervention in villages, which has been hitherto lacking in rural housing policy.

Gallent, N., & Robinson, S. (2011). Local perspectives on rural housing affordability and implications for the localism agenda in England. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 27(3), 297-307. Drawing on consultation meetings with eight community groups across rural England, this paper examines local perspectives on housing affordability, and the consequences of low levels of "within area" housing access for rural economies and communities, contrasting the reflective understanding of residents with normative and established perspectives on the same issues. Because it now seems likely that rural planning policy in England will, in some measure, be reconstructed from the bottom-up, prioritising local control, an analysis of residents' perspectives gives some insight into the shape of future policy intervention. The research reveals a highly nuanced understanding of affordability and the development needs of villages. Sometimes local views--particularly those of commuting or retired households--are dismissed as being motivated by NIMBYism. But this is a partial truth, with rural residents displaying reflective dissatisfaction with official perspectives on rural housing problems. (Contains 1 figure.)

Garciano, J. L. (2011). Affordable cohousing: Challenges and opportunities for supportive relational networks in mixed-income housing. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 20(2), 169.

For those currently looking for a silver lining during these challenging economic times, one may be the opportunity to reflect and rethink approaches to supportive community. In response to the loss of connection sensed by many individuals, the growing cohousing movement in the US now includes some of the most innovative, supportive, and sustainable residential developments in the country. This article first defines cohousing and explains how it differs from both typical market rate and affordable multifamily developments. Next, based on a 2010 nationwide survey of cohousing communities, it describes early attempts by existing cohousing communities to integrate affordable units for low-income families. A more detailed look at the cohousing-inspired Petaluma Avenue Homes, a first-of-its-kind, low-income housing tax credit rental development in California, serves as a useful case study of affordable cohousing. The challenges facing affordable cohousing are then described, followed by recommendations on how affordable cohousing can take the next steps toward being a critical piece of the community development picture.

Golant, S. M. (2002). Geographic inequalities in the availability of government-subsidized rental housing for low-income older persons in Florida. *The Gerontologist*, 42(1), 100-108. This article investigates the extent to which government-subsidized affordable rental units available to low-income older persons are unequally and unfairly distributed throughout Florida's counties. Primary data sources from the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development and the U.S. Census were analyzed using two location inequality statistical measures: quintile analysis and the Dissimilarity Index. Three comparison standards measuring the county locations of the community-wide low-income elderly and nonelderly populations were used to judge whether these patterns are geographically unfair. Compared with the overall locations of Florida's low-income older population, elder-occupied government-subsidized rental housing units are concentrated in fewer counties. On the basis of several standards, these affordable housing units are judged to be unfairly located,

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resulting in most of the state's low-income elderly population living in counties that are underserved by these accommodations. The findings offer other states and local areas guideposts to assess and compare the extent of geographic inequality and unfairness in the availability of their affordable senior housing opportunities. Why these inequalities exist and their implications for older persons are researchable questions.

Goodman, J. J. (1999). The changing demography of multifamily rental housing. *Housing Policy Debate*, 10(1), 31-57.

the residents of multifamily rental housing are different from both homeowners and single-family home renters, and these differences have implications for the housing market and for public policy. This article describes apartment residents today, discusses recent changes in their number and characteristics, projects their future growth and composition, and highlights business and policy implications of future changes.

For purposes of business and public policy, a segmentation of apartment residents into three submarkets is useful: the "affordable" market serving low- and moderate-income households, some of which receive government housing assistance; the "lifestyle apartment market" serving higher-income adult households; and the substantial "middle market." The number of apartment renters is likely to grow moderately over time. The combination of multifamily structure type and rental tenure form offers unique opportunities not only for provision of affordable housing but also for revitalization of downtown areas and balanced "smart" growth in suburban areas.

Grant, M. R., & Danso, R. K. (2000). Access to housing as an adaptive strategy for immigrant groups: Africans in Calgary. *Canadian Ethnic Studies*, 32(3), 19.

Immigration has been an important subject in both academic research and political debate in Canada, partly due to the fact that Canada is traditionally regarded as a "classic" immigration country. In addition, immigrants have become increasingly important to population growth and the geographical distribution of the population in the country. Yet still, this interest is driven by the impact immigration has on sending and receiving countries, especially the latter, as well as the immigrants themselves. The literature on cross-border population movements can be divided into two relatively separate categories. One focuses on the movements themselves while the other deals principally with the post-arrival and integration experiences of immigrant groups in host countries (Borgeg[Symbol Not Transcribed]ard et al., 1998). The subject of this study falls within the purview of the second category in that it explores the Calgary-based housing experiences of Africans, a small and relatively recent group of immigrants in Canada. The term "Africans" is used in this paper to refer to people who were born in sub-Saharan Africa and who later immigrated to Calgary.

Greenberg, M. M. (2001). Brownfield redevelopment and affordable housing: A case study of New Jersey. *Housing Policy Debate*, 12(3), 515-540.

A total of 779 New Jersey residents were surveyed to determine the number of people who during the next five years would be willing to move to housing built on brownfield sites that have been remediated to the extent that they pose no plausible brownfield-related health risk to residents. Fourteen percent of the respondents said they would be willing to move to and live in housing built on cleaned-up brownfields. These respondents were disproportionately relatively poor and young and resided in apartments and cities,

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especially cities where the city government was actively promoting brownfields. These respondents also did not like their current neighborhoods, did not feel threatened by the idea of living on a cleaned-up brownfield site, and trusted experts to advise them on the health risks involved.

- Greer, A. (2003). Countryside issues: A creeping crisis. *Parliamentary Affairs*, 56(3), 523-523. This article explores the idea of countryside crisis in Britain. Countryside crisis is contrasted with more conventional single-issue crises because of its multi-stranded and complex character. Its main components are the contemporary problems of the farming sector, BSE/vCJD, foot-and-mouth disease, and wider issues in rural society such as social exclusion and the provision of vital services. Public opinion, the media and pressure groups all shape the form of countryside crisis. Crisis management is influenced by how policy-makers and administrators see the problems and whether the components emerge suddenly or gradually. A combination of emergency measures, long-term policy action (business as usual) and institutional/procedural change have been deployed to handle countryside crisis in Britain. The broad conclusion is that its successful handling involves a reshaping of the relationship between agriculture and the wider rural world, which requires long-term and radical change rather than emergency measures and incremental tinkering.
- Halseth, G., & Rosenberg, M. (1995). Complexity in the rural Canadian housing landscape. *CANADIAN GEOGRAPHER-GEOGRAPHE CANADIEN*, 39(4), 336-352. Rural housing conditions and needs across Canada are as complex as the rural landscape itself, yet within the research literature rural housing is often treated as a single and unproblematic unit. This paper makes two arguments about rural housing research in Canada. The first is that the 'rural' is a complex housing landscape, not simply an undifferentiated 'other' in comparison to urban housing. The second is that this complexity has important implications for assessing changes to the local housing stock. The empirical content of the paper is drawn from three study areas in Canada where there is a mix of rural/agricultural and cottage area properties. Questions of housing stock change within these rural-recreational countryside examples are examined using questionnaire and building permit data. The findings presented here support the contention that the rural landscape is in fact a complex housing landscape, and also support the view that unless this complexity is recognized, a coherent portrait of rural housing will not emerge.
- Hammer, R. B., Stewart, S. I., Hawbaker, T. J., & Radeloff, V. C. (2009). Housing growth, forests, and public lands in northern Wisconsin from 1940 to 2000. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 90(8), 2690-2698. Rural, forested areas throughout the United States are experiencing strong housing growth with potentially detrimental impacts on the environment. In this paper, we quantify housing growth in Northern Wisconsin over the last sixty years to determine if growth rates were higher near public lands, which may represent an important recreational amenity. We used data from the U.S. Census to produce decadal housing density estimates, "backcasts," from 1940 to 2000 for northern Wisconsin to examine "rural sprawl" in northern Wisconsin and its relationship to forested areas and public lands. We integrated housing density estimates with the 1992/1993 National Land Cover Dataset to examine the relationship between rural sprawl and land cover, especially forests. Between 1940 and 2000, private land with <2 housing units/km<sup>2</sup> decreased from 47% to 21% of the total landscape. Most importantly, housing growth was concentrated along the boundaries of public lands. In 14 of the 19 counties that we studied, housing growth rates within 1 km of a public land

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boundary exceeded growth rates in the remainder of the county, and three of the five counties that did not exhibit this pattern, were the ones with the least amount of public land. Future growth can be expected in areas with abundant natural amenities, highlighting the critical need for additional research and effective natural resource management and regional planning to address these challenges.

Harsch, K., Soroka, K., Benjamin, J. S., Glenn, A. G., & Davis, P. (2009). Initiatives and tools for the preservation of affordable housing in Illinois. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 18(4), 403.

This article examines three State of Illinois programs and a somewhat lesser-known, yet formidable, statutory restriction on sales of federally assisted buildings that enhance the preservation of affordable housing within the state. The newest of these, the Illinois Affordable Housing Tax Credit Program, commonly known as the donation credit program, had been so widely pursued in connection with the development of affordable housing that the state modified its program requirements to ensure proper utilization of the credit throughout the state. The other two programs and the preservation statute alluded to above have had varied levels of impact but have all contributed to the retention of affordable units within Illinois. In Illinois, the preservation of affordable housing remains a top priority of Illinois Housing Development Authority, the City of Chicago, and other governmental entities; and the use of the donation credits has been a key factor in the success of that goal.

Hartman, C. C. (1998). The case for a right to housing. *Housing Policy Debate*, 9(2), 223-246.

America has the resources to guarantee everyone a right to decent, affordable housing, making real the now 50-year-old congressionally promulgated National Housing Goal. The issue is one of values—constantly expanding notions of social, civil, and economic rights—and can only be won through political struggle, as has been true historically of all rights expansions.

The costs of not attaining this right, to those suffering from substandard housing conditions and unaffordable costs as well as to society as a whole, should be acknowledged and offset against the increased government outlays required to attain this goal. Ways in which some housing rights now exist are identified as a basis for wider expansion to a true right to decent, affordable housing.

Heim C.E. (2001). Leapfrogging, urban sprawl, and growth management: Phoenix, 1950-2000. *The American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 60(1), 245-245.

Through a case study of Phoenix, Arizona, this paper examines how urban sprawl is linked to opportunities for capital gains. It focuses on “leapfrogging,” in which developers skip over properties to obtain land at a lower price further out despite the existence of utilities and other infrastructure that could serve the bypassed parcels. The paper examines patterns of growth since 1950 and planners' efforts to structure that growth. It discusses two programs that addressed consequences of leapfrogging: development impact fees to help pay for infrastructure costs of new development and an Infill Housing Program to encourage residential development on vacant land. It concludes with a brief discussion of the future of growth management in Phoenix.

Heins, S. (2004). Rural living in city and countryside: Demand and supply in the Netherlands. *Journal of Housing and the Built Environment*, 19(4), 391-408.

Rural living has great appeal among urban residents in the Netherlands. It echoes the rural idyll. Furthermore, there is a demand for rural living in or near urban areas, in the so-called pseudo-countryside. This paper investigates the demand for rural living. In

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addition, this paper seeks to find out how and to what extent suppliers in the housing market accommodate that demand. Besides building rural residential environments, suppliers try to influence preferences for rural housing through marketing techniques. Where possible, developers build certain types of houses for which they know there is a demand, as that yields the highest profits. Yet the supply of rural residential environments does not meet the demand. The tension between the two components can partly be explained by restrictive government policies. The creation of a pseudo-countryside, a residential environment with the characteristics of the countryside but not located there, might be a compromise.

Hirsch, J. (2005). Housing trust funds: Addressing america's affordable housing crisis. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 14(3), 218.

An overview of housing trust funds, particularly as they apply to and preserve housing developed and subsidized by the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

Hoch, C. (2007). How plan mandates work - affordable housing in illinois. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 73(1), 86-99.

I analyze the consequences of a recent statewide affordable housing planning mandate in Illinois. My survey of local officials uncovered widespread resistance and grudging compliance. At the mandate deadline, 36 of 49 prosperous suburban municipalities had the required plans, but most of these plans met the minimum legal requirements and failed to acknowledge prior exclusion or propose specific remedies. I find evidence of subregional collaboration among municipal officials, indicating they are aware of their interdependence though they remain strongly attached to local autonomy. My results demonstrate how unpopular the mandate was with local officials, potentially explaining why meeting its goals may require some time.

Hoch, C. C. (2000). Sheltering the homeless in the US: Social improvement and the continuum of care. *Housing Studies*, 15(6), 865-876.

The homeless problem now enjoys a settled if marginal place in U.S. domestic policy. Programs

to treat and remedy the homeless problem have also found acceptance and become integrated

within a "continuum of care." In this essay we argue that current ideas about the problem and its

solutions emphasize social mobility for the poor—a mobility that existing empirical research does

not support. The overemphasis on framing versions of social dependence as the problem has encouraged the use of shelters and social programs to change individual households rather than

increasing the kinds and amounts of low-rent housing available.

To illustrate the limits on mobility, we review current evidence on shelter use. Providing supportive housing to remedy the privations of the poor does make good sense, but mainly if it is

organized to strengthen social reciprocity among households in affordable residential communities. This not only requires social investment, but also innovative design and use of

affordable housing alternatives. A brief case study provides an example.

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- Hoffman, A. v. (2009). Housing and planning: A century of social reform and local power. American Planning Association. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 75(2), 231. The researcher aims to explore the relationship of housing reform to the field of urban and regional planning over the last century and understand why housing and planning reformers have been unable to achieve their goals. He surveys and synthesizes secondary and primary sources on the history of housing reform and the planning profession in the US. Over the last century local property owners, business leaders, and political officials have exploited the framework of the American political system to appropriate or defeat idealistic housing and planning schemes. Whether the reform was zoning, garden cities, public housing, urban renewal, or the integration of suburbs by income and race, parochial interests have deterred or diverted policies for their own ends. The weak point in carrying out progressive goals has been the inability to overcome local opposition.
- Hou, F. (2006). Spatial assimilation of racial minorities in Canada's immigrant gateway cities. *Urban Studies*, 43(7), 1191-1213. doi:10.1080/00420980600711993  
This study demonstrates that conventional expectations concerning patterns of residential spatial assimilation by racial minority immigrants are likely to be altered under conditions of persistent high levels of immigration. While cross-sectional studies conclude that the traditional assimilation model fits the experience of racial minority immigrants to Canada, a different picture emerges from longitudinal changes at the group level. Using a pseudo-cohort approach, it is shown that, for some racial minority immigrants, the level of residential dissimilarity from Whites in Canada's gateway cities has risen with time. Moreover, residential proximity to Whites is becoming less salient as a marker of spatial assimilation. Differences among racial minority groups in residential distribution and exposure to own-group neighbours only reflect variations in the degree of own-group preference and capacity to build affluent ethnic communities.
- Housing in greater vancouver: Analysis and strategies for affordability throughout the housing continuum. (2008).  
This report, created by The Social Planning Council of the North Okanagan, provides a detailed strategic analysis on the current state of affordable housing in Vernon, and recommendations for addressing affordable housing across different demographics and income levels. Though some of the specifics of the report are only relevant to Vernon, it provides an excellent example of a coordinated, strategic, and systematic analysis undertaken by a community that will help guide affordable housing policy and provision efforts by developers, non-profits, policymakers and planners. The SPCNO provides a coordinating role for community stakeholders to ensure that initiatives are strategic and coordinated. In order to further assist these groups and continue to build on the momentum, SPCNO focused on the following goals:
- Provide an overview of housing affordability in Greater Vancouver
  - Make recommendations for stakeholders on addressing gaps within each section of the housing continuum
  - Research financial models for partnerships between non-profits, developers, and different levels of government for attainable housing
- This report is meant to act as a review of what has been accomplished and provide a framework for where the community can focus next. The following recommendations are based on the strategic plans from various community committees as well as interviews with individual housing organizations. SPCNO will use the information gathered in this report to further assist community stakeholders in their efforts to address affordable and

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attainable housing issues in Greater Vernon.

Hulchanski, J. D. (1986). The 1935 dominion housing act: Setting the stage for a permanent federal presence in Canada's housing sector. *Urban History Review/Revue d'Histoire Urbaine*, 15(1), 19.

In the midst of the social, economic, and political turmoil of the 1930s a range of federal housing policy and program options were debated. After appointing a special housing committee of the House of Commons in February 1935, and then ignoring all its recommendations, the R.B. Bennett government adopted the Dominion Housing Act (DHA) in June 1935. This paper examines the development and implementation of the DHA and finds that the legislation was of little consequence to the housing sector and that it provided no benefits to lower income households. However, in terms of a long term precedent for defining an "appropriate" role for government in Canada's housing sector, the DHA is very significant. The key actors in designing the DHA, deputy Finance Minister W. C. Clark and the mortgage lending companies, including Sun Life's David B. Mansur, played a central role in defining housing policy into the early 1950s. Together they successfully protected the status quo from alternative policy options. Starting with the DHA, Canadian housing policy has, as a result, a long history of focusing more on "market welfare" than on "social welfare" approaches to housing problems.

Hulchanski, J. D. (1995). The concept of housing affordability: Six contemporary uses of the housing expenditure-to-income ratio. *Housing Studies*, 10(4), 471-491.

Hulchanski, J. D., Homeless Hub (Online service), University of Toronto, C. C., & Canadian Homelessness, R. N. (2009). *Finding home: Policy options for addressing homelessness in Canada*. Toronto, Ont.: Cities Centre Press.

Immergluck, D. (2011). Critical commentary. sub-prime crisis, policy response and housing market restructuring. *Urban Studies*, 48(16), 3371-3383.

Jacobus, R., & Abromowitz, D. M. (2010). A path to homeownership: Building a more sustainable strategy for expanding homeownership. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 19(3-4), 313.

Johnson, S. S. E. (1990). RTC's affordable housing program: Reconciling competing goals. *Housing Policy Debate*, 1(1), 87-130.

Jones, R., & Tonts, M. (2003). Transition and diversity in rural housing provision: The case of Narrogin, western Australia. *Australian Geographer*, 34(1), 47.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the changing dynamics of housing markets in an Australian rural community. With reference to the case of Narrogin, Western Australia, it argues that there is an increasing disjuncture between the social and demographic characteristics of rural residents and the modal form of housing in country towns, namely the detached family house. Factors contributing to this disjuncture include the ageing of the population, the loss of traditional blue-collar employment, sub-regional restructuring of service provision, retirement migration patterns, and growing acceptance of the particular housing needs of groups such as the aged, the disabled, young and indigenous people. While it is clear that there is currently something of a mismatch between the characteristics of the population and the housing stock in Narrogin, it is also evident that a combination of political, cultural and economic factors form a significant barrier to adjustment in the local housing market.

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- Josodipoero, R. (2003). Housing improvement projects in Indonesia: Responding to local demand. *International Journal of Environmental Health Research*, 13, S67-S72.
- For more than three decades, environmental health programmes in Indonesia have emphasized prevention and treatment of the high incidence of disease among villagers. One of the main causes of disease is the unhygienic conditions of typical rural houses - two-room constructions with dirt floors and walls of lightly fired bricks or woven bamboo skins. While most houses have few or no windows, the occupants frequently cook, eat, sleep and even keep animals in a single room. The main objective of the housing improvement programme was to improve air circulation and introduce more sunlight to kill bacteria, avoid dampness and eliminate smoke from cooking. The programme encourages villagers to construct a permanent floor, enlarge existing windows or insert new windows for good ventilation. This presentation will share the 'success stories' of housing improvement projects in Indonesia that adopted demand-responsive approaches instead of the conventional 'supply approach'. Through exercises like Wealth Classification and Social Mapping, a demand-responsive approach lets the community decide who is eligible for assistance, resulting in higher participation and accurate information on community demand and on materials needed. In addition to the successes, the failures will be discussed at field level. This presentation will discuss the lessons learned from: the World Bank-funded Kalisemut Case Study; government's Family Welfare Movement; Plan International's project in Yogyakarta, and AusAID-funded Sustainable Development through Community Participation Project in Lombok.
- Jourdan, D., Van Zandt, S., & Adair, N. (2010). Meeting their fair share: A proposal for the creation of regional land banks to meet the affordable housing needs in the rural areas of Texas. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 19(2), 147.
- Katz, B., Turner, M. A., Brown, K. D., Cunningham, M., & Sawyer, N. (2003). Rethinking local affordable housing strategies: Lessons from 70 years of policy and practice. Washington: The Brookings Institution Center on Urban and Metropolitan Policy; The Urban Institute. Efforts to provide affordable housing are occurring at a time of great change. The responsibilities for implementing affordable housing are increasingly shifting to state and local actors. The market and demographic changes in the country are complicating the picture, as sprawling jobs-housing patterns and downtown revivals in some places are creating demand for affordable housing for working families and immigrants in both cities and suburbs. To help state and local leaders design fresh solutions to today's affordable housing challenges, The Brookings Institution Center on Urban and Metropolitan Policy and the Urban Institute joined forces to examine the lessons of seven decades of major policy approaches and what these lessons mean for local reforms. This executive summary of the full report, funded by the John S. and James L. Knight Foundation, finds that past and current efforts to expand rental housing assistance, promote homeownership, and increase affordable housing through land use regulations have been uneven in their effectiveness in promoting stable families and healthy communities. The findings suggest guiding principles for local action, with important cautions to avoid pitfalls.
- Kautz, B. E. (2002). In defense of inclusionary zoning: Successfully creating affordable housing. *University of San Francisco Law Review*, 36(4), 971.
- Kelly, J. J., Jr. (2010). Maryland's affordable housing land trust act. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 19(3-4), 345.

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- Kendall, J. (2001). Circles of disadvantage: Aboriginal poverty and underdevelopment in Canada. *The American Review of Canadian Studies*, 31(1), 43.
- Statistics Canada figures for 1996 show the Aboriginal population at 799,010, with Indians comprising the majority of this population, followed by Metis, and then Inuit (Table 1). It should be noted, however, that according to Statistics Canada, "there was significant error introduced in the Census because of problems in fully covering the Aboriginal population," which resulted in clear indications of undercoverage (Ark Research Associates 1996, 11). Aboriginals, as a percentage of the total population, range from one percent in Quebec to 62 percent in the Northwest Territory. About 45 percent live in cities. Table 2 compares Aboriginals to other Canadians with respect to life expectancy, percentage of the population under fifteen years of age, fertility, and infant mortality. The significantly higher percent of the Aboriginal population under fifteen is an indicator of much higher birth rates; and, although Aboriginal birth rates have declined since 1970 (from about 5.7 per female to about 2.7 per female) the effect of past rates of population growth will be felt for some time to come (Four Directions 1997). Higher infant mortality rates and lower life expectancy among Aboriginals are related to several factors, including lack of access to adequate health care, particularly in remote locations, and high rates of substance abuse and suicide. Table 3 compares education, employment, income, and housing variables for First Nations communities (registered Indians living on reserves) with the total Canadian population in 1996. While these figures represent significant improvements since 1986 ([Robin Armstrong] 1999), there are obviously enormous differences between the two groups. Numerous other socioeconomic measures, including the percent of Aboriginals receiving social assistance (28 percent of those over fifteen); the rates of aboriginal incarceration--in provincial jails it is eleven times that of other Canadians; in federal penitentiaries, five times (Quinlan 1999, 73); and a host of social problems such as high rates of suicide and substance abuse, all tell the same story. All these figures point to a population experiencing a completely different level of development from that of the majority population, a level of development more closely resembling that of a third-world country.
- Khadduri, J. J. (1992). New matching requirements for housing programs: Intergovernmental conflict and the national affordable housing act of 1990. *Public Budgeting & Finance*, 12(4), 3-18.
- Kintrea, K., McAdam, G., & Clapham, D. (1993). Individual self-provision and the Scottish housing system. *Urban Studies*, 30(8), 1355-1369.
- This paper provides a preliminary examination of individual self-provision of housing in Scotland; that is, instances where individuals are directly involved in the production of their own house, rather than buying a house on the market. After a brief overview of the history of individual self-provision in Britain, the characteristics of the sector in Britain, and particularly in Scotland, are outlined. The core of the paper reports the results of a pilot survey of self-provision in Scotland. Four issues are examined: the type of self-provision; land availability; relationships with commercial interests; and local housing systems and access. It is concluded that self-provision is an important but mostly unrecognised source of new housing provision, whose incidence depends crucially on the nature of local housing systems and the extent to which planning policies are favourable in terms of land release and development control.
- Knaap, G. (1990). State land use planning and inclusionary zoning: Evidence from Oregon. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 10(1), 39-46.

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The resurgence of state land use planning in the 1980s has again stimulated debate over the virtues of centralized land use control. Unfortunately, the debate rages with little empirical evidence on substantive issues. This paper examines the relationship between state land use planning and inclusionary zoning in Oregon, and explores whether state planning fosters inclusionary zoning. The paper suggests that state planning in Oregon indeed fosters a limited form of inclusionary zoning. Because state planning occurs in a different political environment than local planning, the paper suggests, state land use planning differs substantively from local planning. Further, to the extent that similar political forces operate in other states, state land use planning offers the potential of overcoming a major obstacle to providing low-income housing.

Knaap, G. (1998). The determinants of residential property values: Implications for metropolitan planning. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 12(3), 267-282.

To inform metropolitan land use planning, this article reviews studies that examine the determinants of residential property values. The review suggests that property values provide a sensitive index of the effects of planning and the problems planning is designed to address. Furthermore, it reveals that planning can contribute to problems of housing affordability. However, this does not represent prima facie evidence that planning has failed; nor should the potential of such effects preclude the adoption of metropolitan plans. Instead, the evidence suggests that metropolitan planning can contribute to the solution of housing affordability problems as well as to their cause.

Krigman, Y. (2010). The role of community development corporations in affordable housing. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 19(2), 231.

Kushner, J. (2010). Affordable housing as infrastructure in the time of global warming. *Urban Lawyer*, 42-43(4), 179-221.

Kwasniak, A. J. (2004). The potential for municipal transfer of development credits programs in Canada. *Journal of Environmental Law and Practice*, 15(1), 47.

Transfer of development credits (TDC) programs provide a method of preserving rural landscape or urban areas by permitting the transfer of development potential from one area and conferring it on another. The owner of the restricted parcel receives development potential credit, which may be sold and used by a purchaser to increase development potential on another parcel, more suitable for development, all in accordance with the program. Unlike traditional zoning, transfer of development credits programs are designed to enable compensation for a landowner for the loss of development potential to carry out municipal preservation policies. They can provide economic incentive to preserve undeveloped land or other landscape features. The article deals with the question of whether municipalities in Canada may establish all aspects of TDC programs in the absence of specific legislative authority. It considers potential jurisdictional legal challenges to Canadian TDC programs, focussing on Alberta. It also assesses legal instruments currently available to municipalities to secure development restrictions.

Landis, J., & McClure, K. (2010). Rethinking federal housing policy. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 76(3), 319-348.

Problem: Federal housing policy is made up of disparate programs that a) promote homeownership; b) assist low-income renters' access to good-quality, affordable housing; and c) enforce the Fair Housing Act by combating residential discrimination. Some of these programs are ineffective, others have drifted from their initial purpose, and none are well

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coordinated with each other. Purpose: We examine the trends, summarize the research evaluating the performance of these programs, and suggest steps to make them more effective and connected to each other. Methods: We review the history of housing policy and programs and empirical studies of program effectiveness to identify a set of best principles and practices. Results and conclusions: In the area of homeownership, we recommend that the federal government help the nation's housing markets quickly find bottom, privatize aspects of the secondary mortgage market, and move to eliminate the mortgage interest deduction and replace it with a 10-year homeownership tax credit. In the area of subsidized rental housing, we recommend that the current system of vouchers be regionalized (or alternatively, converted into an entitlement program that works through the income tax system), sell public housing projects to nonprofit sponsors where appropriate, and eliminate some of the rigidities in the Low Income Housing Tax Credit program. In the area of fair housing, we recommend that communities receiving Community Development Block Grants be required to implement inclusionary zoning programs. Takeaway for practice: In general, we recommend that federal policy build on proven programs; focus on providing affordable housing for low- and moderate-income families and provide the funding to meet that goal; avoid grandiose and ideological ambitions and programs; use fewer and more coordinated programs; offer tax credits, not tax deductions; and promote residential filtering. Research support: Partial funding support was provided by the National Science Foundation.

Lang, R. R. E. (1997). Planning portland style: Pitfalls and possibilities. *Housing Policy Debate*, 8(1), 1-10.

Lang, R.,E., & Dhavale, D.,M. (2005). Micropolitan areas and housing values. *The Appraisal Journal*, 73(4), 413.

Micropolitan areas (Micros) are newly defined census geography, falling between metropolitan and rural in terms of their urban qualities. Micros significantly redefine the American landscape, placing much more of the US land area into "centered," as opposed to "non-centered," areas. This article examines the characteristics of Micros and their housing characteristics, affordability, and prices. Micropolitan areas contain more than 28 million people and they account for over a fifth of all US counties. Eastern micropolitan areas mostly lie between metropolitan areas, while Western ones may be isolated places far from big metropolitan areas. Micropolitan areas have slightly more affordable housing than the US average. Remote micropolitan areas, especially in the Great Plains states, have the most affordable housing as a group, while booming ones in the West are the least affordable. Micropolitan areas are not identical small towns. Likewise, micropolitan housing varies considerably ranging from some of the least to some of the most affordable places in the US to own a home.

Larcombe, L., Nickerson, P., Singer, M., Robson, R., Dantouze, J., McKay, L., & Orr, P. (2011). Housing conditions in 2 canadian first nations communities. *International Journal of Circumpolar Health*, 70(2), 141-153.

Housing conditions were assessed in 2 Canadian First Nations communities. Possible associations with tuberculosis (TB) were explored. Study design. Participatory community-based survey. Qualitative and quantitative data on housing and health were collected in the northern Den̄ community at Lac Brochet (LB), which has experienced endemic and epidemic TB, and the southern Ojibwa community at Valley River (VR), which has not. Results. 72 of 135 (53%) houses at LB and 57 of 95 (60%) houses at VR were enrolled. Houses in both communities were small (mean 882 and 970 sq. ft., respectively) compared

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to the Manitoba average (1,200 sq. ft.). Crowding was evident at LB (mean persons per room [ppr] 1.1) and VR (mean ppr 0.9). The provincial mean ppr is 0.5. However, only 49% of householders at LB and 19% at VR felt "crowded" in their homes. More than two-thirds of houses had absent or non-functional heat recovery ventilation systems. Mould was observed in 44% of LB houses and 19% of VR houses. At LB a significant association was found between the number of permanent residents in the house and the presence of self-reported latent or active TB, either currently or during residence in that house ( $p=0.001$ ). Houses that were studied in these 2 First Nations communities were predominantly small, crowded and in poor repair. An association was found between the number of persons in a house and self-reported TB. Improved housing conditions in First Nations communities are indicated to promote and sustain health as well as human and Indigenous rights.

Latimer, M., & Woldoff, R. (2010). Good country living? exploring four housing outcomes among poor appalachians. *Sociological Forum*, 25(2), 315-334.

In the wake of welfare reform, many poor people have exhausted their benefits and must now live with less government support. While all of these former welfare recipients are struggling, some are experiencing housing problems that are quite severe. This article uses survey data on former welfare recipients who have used up the maximum time limits for receiving welfare to better understand three core explanations for rural housing problems among the poor: community, individual, and family factors. We estimate models to weigh the relative effects of these factors on the likelihood of experiencing several housing outcomes, finding that rural location is the most consistent predictor of housing outcomes, predicting home ownership, and whether families reside in low-quality housing. We also find that individual and family factors affect the type of housing one has. We conclude that housing policies must be tailored to improve specific housing outcomes.

Lauber, D. (1976). In-zoning: A guide for policy-makers on inclusionary land use programs. *Urban Studies*, 13(2), 216-217.

Lee, J. (2000). From welfare housing to home ownership: The dilemma of china's housing reform. *Housing Studies*, 15(1), 61-76.

While the Chinese housing reform programme has been rigorously implemented along the direction of marketization and commodification, this paper argues that the reform process has generally neglected its impact on issues such as inequality and distributive justice. Other than its apparent effects on housing production and the improvement of the living condition within some big cities, this paper questions both the underlying values of some of those newly created housing reform institutions such as the Housing Provident Fund and the housing monetarisation policy. It is argued that China is now facing a similar dilemma as with many other Western countries on the question: how much the state should collectively provide housing and how much individuals should be responsible for themselves. It is further suggested that since the reform process is implemented from top-down directives, it often generates a far-reaching impact on the distributional front and, without the right values and corrective measures, social exclusions for vulnerable housing groups are bound to occur, notwithstanding that China is still one of the largest remaining socialist countries.

Legislative background: Recent action on affordable housing. (2007). *Congressional Digest*, 86(10), 302.

The House of Representatives recently acted on legislation that would significantly expand the Federal Government's involvement in affordable housing construction and

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maintenance. On Jul 31, the House Financial Services Committee approved, 45 to 23, H.R. 2895, the National Affordable Housing Trust Fund Act, introduced by its chairman, Barney Frank. The purpose of the fund would be to help build, refurbish, or maintain 1.5 million affordable housing units over 10 years. H.R. 2895 passed the full House by a vote of 264 to 148 on Oct 10, after Members rejected two amendments that essentially would have killed the bill. Related legislation of that act includes H.R. 1427--Federal Housing Finance Reform Act, and H.R. 1852--Expanding American Homeownership Act. Meanwhile, the Bush Administration opposes the creation of a trust fund, saying that it would siphon off funds from other programs that help low- and moderate-income families.

- Lewis, M., & Conaty, P. (2012). *The resilience imperative: Cooperative transitions to a steady-state economy*. Gabriola Island: New Society Press.
- We find ourselves between a rock and a hot place compelled by the intertwining forces of peak oil and climate change to reinvent our economic life at a much more local and regional scale. The Resilience Imperative argues for a major SEE (Social, Ecological, Economic) Change as a prerequisite for replacing the paradigm of limitless economic growth with a more decentralized, cooperative, steady-state economy.
- Lichter, D. T., & Brown, D. L. (2011). Rural america in an urban society: Changing spatial and social boundaries. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 37, 565-592.
- This review outlines several key aspects of the new rural-urban interface and the growing interpenetration of American rural and urban life. The historical coincidence of spatial and social boundaries in America is changing rapidly. This review highlights ( a ) the enormous scale of rural-urban interdependence and boundary crossing, shifting, and blurring-  
“along many dimensions of community life-”over the past several decades, and ( b ) the symmetrical rather than asymmetrical influences between urban and rural areas, i.e., on bidirectional relational aspects of spatial categories. These general points are illustrated by identifying 10 common conceptions of rural America that reflect both its social and economic diversity and its changing spatial and social boundaries. Here we emphasize symbolic and social boundaries-”the distinctions between urban and rural communities and people and the processes by which boundaries are engaged. Placing behaviors or organizational forms along a rural-urban continuum (or within a metropolitan hierarchy of places) or drawing sharp rural-urban distinctions seems increasingly obsolete or even problematic. We conclude with a call for new research on rural America and greater conceptual and empirical integration of urban and rural scholarship, which remains disconnected and segregated institutionally.
- Lipman, B. (2001). A job doesn't guarantee a home. *The Journal of Housing and Community Development*, 58(5), 35.
- Listokin, D. D. (1998). The contributions of historic preservation to housing and economic development. *Housing Policy Debate*, 9(3), 431-478.
- Listokin, D. D. (2001). Asian americans for equality: A case study of strategies for expanding immigrant homeownership. *Housing Policy Debate*, 12(1), 47-75.
- Lloyd, W. B. (2009). Federal preservation efforts: A bold step forward in the making? *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 18(4), 389.
- The production of privately owned affordable housing in connection with the federal Section 8 program from 1974 to 1983 was an extraordinary social accomplishment. During that time, under two programs alone (the new construction and the substantial rehabilitation

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programs), 800,000 units of housing were produced -- a massive public investment that produced truly affordable housing in a broad array of wealthy, poor, urban, and suburban communities. Additional Section 8 assistance to privately owned affordable housing was awarded through a variety of contemporaneous and subsequent programs: the Moderate Rehabilitation Program, the Loan Management Set-Aside Program, the Property Disposition Program, the Emergency Low Income Housing Preservation Act, and the Low Income Housing Preservation and Resident Homeownership Act of 1992 . The deep subsidy of the Section 8 program is the only program that offers the social, economic, and psychological benefits of housing stability and security to truly low-income tenants.

Long, H., Liu, Y., Wu, X., & Dong, G. (2008). Spatio-temporal dynamic patterns of farmland and rural settlements in su-xi-chang region: Implications for building a new countryside in coastal china. *Land use Policy*, 26(2), 322-333.

This paper analyzes the spatio-temporal dynamic patterns of farmland and rural settlements from 1990 to 2006 in Su-Xi-Chang region of coastal China experienced dramatic economic and spatial restructuring, using high-resolution Landsat TM (Thematic Mapper) data in 1990, 1995, 2000 and 2006, and socio-economic data from both research institutes and government departments. To examine the spatial patterns of farmland and rural settlements and their change over time, a set of pattern metrics that capture different dimensions of land fragmentation was identified. The outcomes indicated that, to a large extent, land-use change from 1990 to 2006 in Su-Xi-Chang region was characterized by a serious replacement of farmland with urban and rural settlements, construction land, and artificial ponds. Population growth, rapid industrialization and urbanization are the major driving forces of farmland change, and China's economic reforms played an important role in the transformation of rural settlements. China's "building a new countryside" is an epoch-making countryside planning policy. The focuses of building a new countryside in coastal China need to be concentrated on protecting the farmland, developing modern agriculture, and building "clean and tidy villages." Rural construction land consolidation and cultivated land consolidation are two important ways to achieve the building objectives. The authors argue that it is fundamental to lay out a scientific urban-rural integrated development planning for building a new countryside, which needs to pay more attention to making the rural have certain functions serving for the urban. In addition, the cultural elements of idyll and the rural landscape need to be reserved and respected in the process of building a new countryside in coastal China, instead of building a new countryside, which looks more like a city.

Lord, A. (2009). The community infrastructure levy: An information economics approach to understanding infrastructure provision under england's reformed spatial planning system. *Planning Theory & Practice*, 10(3), 333-349.

This review paper introduces a research agenda designed to invigorate interest in information economics as a conceptual framework within which to analyse the purported transition from regulatory land-use planning, such as that operating in England prior to 2004, to "spatial planning". In considering one specific area of reform-the management of infrastructure provision-a research agenda is introduced to investigate a specific policy instrument, the Community Infrastructure Levy. It is approached as a transaction cost, the determination of which is a function of how information is traded between counterparties. In conceptualizing important information asymmetries between local planning authorities and the development industry a case is made for further empirical research.

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- Lubka, L. (2001). Housing in rural america: Building affordable and inclusive communities. American Planning Association. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 67(1), 118.
- Lumina Services Inc. (2001). Linking affordable housing policies to usage: Case studies of municipalities in BC. Victoria: The Community Housing Land Trust Foundation.  
This report was created with a series of interviews with planners, policymakers, affordable housing advocates, and other groups. The report assesses inclusionary zoning, density bonuses, and comprehensive development zoning using this data.
- MacTavish, K., & Salamon, S. (2001). Mobile home park on the prairie: A new rural community form. *Rural Sociology*, 66(4), 487-506.  
Abstract Mobile home parks are an increasingly common form of residence for the rural poor. A rural central Illinois mobile home park and its residents seemingly possess featuresâ€”a distinct territory, a homogeneous population, and a collectively held rural ideologyâ€”that foster formation of a sense of community. Other factors, however, some unique to this relatively new rural residential form, present physical and social barriers that challenge park residents' construction of a sense of community. We use ethnographic data to describe daily life in a rural mobile home park and to determine who among its workingâ€”poor residents are most able to construct a sense of community, and thus to gain access to the potentially beneficial community social resources that are crucial to making a difference in the quality of their lives.
- Mahadeva, M. (2005). Reforms in housing sector in india: Impact on housing development and housing amenities. *Habitat International*, 30(3), 412-433.  
The housing sector in India for several decades faced a number of set-backs, such as an unorganized market, development disparities, a compartmentalized development approach and a deterrent rent control system. There was not even a concerted attempt to understand the housing problem let alone promote it. Reforms introduced in the sector during the 1990s, however, have overturned the situation to a great extent. The designing of a shelter policy, the organization of the housing finance market, the introduction of fiscal incentives, increased public investment, legal reforms and others initiatives have brought about a number of changes in the housing sector. Interestingly, these changes have been concerned with both reducing the housing shortage and increasing the number of quality housing stock besides increased access to various other housing amenities like safe drinking water, good sanitation and household electricity. However, the reform initiatives of the housing sector need to take deep roots and to go a long way to address the growing incidence of sub-standard and dilapidated housing stock for further minimizing the deprivations of housing amenities. This paper considers a few policy options towards addressing the challenges of the housing sector.
- Mallach, A. (2011). Rethinking affordable housing policy.(the legal guide to affordable housing development). *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 20(2), 241.  
If people were offered a choice between a public policy that ensured all low-income households sound, decent, albeit modest housing at a relatively affordable cost versus a policy that offered a few households high-quality housing or massive subsidies while leaving the great majority at the mercy of the marketplace, the author believes most would choose the former. American affordable housing policy, however, is the latter. It is a lottery where some lucky households benefit from hundreds of thousands of dollars in public subsidy, but most get nothing. The size of the housing subsidy pool, even with the long-awaited national housing trust fund, will not grow much in the foreseeable future. The key

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to a more equitable and productive future housing policy is to get better results from the money people already spend for lower-income households, for their neighborhoods, and for the housing market as a whole. For that to happen, they must make fundamental changes to national housing policy.

Marcoux, K. (2001). Bringing capital home to communities. *The Journal of Housing and Community Development*, 58(4), 16.

Meltzer, R., & Schuetz, J. (2010). What drives the diffusion of inclusionary zoning? *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 29(3), 578-602.

Social scientists offer competing theories on what explains the policymaking process. These typically include economic rationalism, political competition or power struggles, and policy imitation of the kind that diffuses across spatially proximate neighbors. In this paper, we examine the factors that have influenced a recent local policy trend in California inclusionary zoning (IZ). IZ programs require developers to make a certain percentage of the units within their market-rate residential developments affordable to low- or moderate-income households. By 2007, 68 percent of jurisdictions in the San Francisco Bay Area had adopted some type of IZ policy. We test the relative importance of economic, political, and spatial factors in explaining the rapid diffusion of IZ, across 100 cities and towns in the Bay Area. Consistent with an economic efficiency argument, results of hazard models provide some evidence that IZ is adopted in places with less affordable housing. However, political factors, such as partisan affiliation and the strength of affordable housing nonprofits, are even more robust predictors of whether or not a local government adopts IZ. There is no evidence of spatial diffusion in the case of IZ adoption; jurisdictions are not, on average, responding to the behavior of their neighbors. (C) 2010 by the Association for Public Policy Analysis and Management.

Meltzer, R., Been, V., & Schuetz, J. (2011). Silver bullet or trojan horse? the effects of inclusionary zoning on local housing markets in the united states. *Urban Studies*, 48(2), 297-329.

Many local governments are adopting inclusionary zoning (IZ) as a means of producing affordable housing without direct public subsidies. In this paper, panel data on IZ in the San Francisco metropolitan area and suburban Boston are used to analyse how much affordable housing the programmes produce and how IZ affects the prices and production of market-rate housing. The amount of affordable housing produced under IZ has been modest and depends primarily on how long IZ has been in place. Results from suburban Boston suggest that IZ has contributed to increased housing prices and lower rates of production during periods of regional house price appreciation. In the San Francisco area, IZ also appears to increase housing prices in times of regional price appreciation, but to decrease prices during cooler regional markets. There is no evidence of a statistically significant effect of IZ on new housing development in the Bay Area.

Mendelson, M. (2006). Building assets through housing. Ottawa, Ont: Caledon Institute for Social Policy.

In dozens of cities across Canada, the last few years have seen middle-class homeowners spellbound by the dizzying spectre of escalating prices for homes in their neighbourhoods. Today, some homeowners find themselves sitting on, or in, substantial wealth – seemingly far beyond the amount they could have accumulated by saving a few dollars every month. Anecdotal reports of ordinary families with assets worth a million dollars and more have fuelled the perception that the road to riches runs through owning a home. Is this gravy

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train real? And, if so, can lower-income Canadians also hitch a ride? This paper investigates whether home ownership is a reasonable financial strategy for low-income Canadians to increase their savings; describes current initiatives to assist low-income Canadians to own a home; and assesses the extent to which these initiatives are effective in helping low-income Canadians increase their savings.

Messinger, L. (2004). Comprehensive community initiatives: A rural perspective. *Social Work, 49*(4), 535-535.

This article challenges the notion that the comprehensive community initiative (CCI) is a singularly urban intervention strategy by comparing a rural comprehensive initiative with the literature on urban CCIs. Characteristics of CCIs in urban settings are discussed and compared with Warren Family Institute (WFI), a demonstration project in rural North Carolina. Findings support the thesis that the CCI has been implemented and found effective in rural settings. The author presents a comparison of the common complications faced by urban CCIs with those encountered during the planning, implementation, and evaluation of WFI. Differences between these two CCIs were rooted in demographic, geographic, and sociohistoric distinctions between rural and urban settings. Substantial similarities were seen between rural and urban CCIs, which suggests the need to broaden the discussion on CCIs to include research on rural initiatives in the CCI literature.

Mills, E. E. S. (1994). Performance of residential mortgages in low and moderate-income neighborhoods. *The Journal of Real Estate Finance and Economics, 9*(3), 245-260.

This paper presents the first data on performance of mortgages on residences located in low- and moderate-income neighborhoods of U.S. cities. It provides new data on delinquencies and foreclosure provided by a sample of lenders who are members of the National Association of Affordable Housing Lenders and who have lending programs established pursuant to the Community Reinvestment Act. Sample mortgages on multifamily dwellings perform comparably with national sample data, whereas sample mortgages on single-family mortgages perform much better than comparable national sample data. The findings of this paper demonstrate clearly that lending programs in low- and moderate-income neighborhoods can be viable. The findings do not, however, help to settle the issue as the racial or gender discrimination in mortgage origination. Copyright 1994 by Kluwer Academic Publishers

Miraftab, F. (2000). Sheltering refugees: The housing experience of refugees in metropolitan vancouver, canada. *Canadian Journal of Urban Research, 9*(1), 42.

Morton, L. W., Allen, B. L., & Li, T. (2004). Rural housing adequacy and civic structure. *Sociological Inquiry, 74*(4), 464-491.

One persistent problem that many small rural towns face is housing adequacy, which encompasses interior and exterior structural conditions; assessments of heating, cooling, and sanitation systems; and residence size relative to space needs. The creation and reproduction of vibrant rural communities is grounded in the capacity of citizens to solve local housing problems. We posit that towns with strong norms of mutuality, high information flows, and inclusive behaviors have a civic structure that produces the capacity to frame and resolve housing concerns. We find that perceptions of civic structure are a significant factor in explaining the variation in rural housing adequacy, net of income, age, and tenure. This implies that the social and political environment is an important influence on the quality of housing stock found in rural places.

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Mukhija, V., Regus, L., Slovin, S., & Das, A. (2010). Can inclusionary zoning be an effective and efficient housing policy? evidence from los angeles and orange counties. *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 32(2), 229-252.

Inclusionary zoning-requiring and encouraging developers to build some affordable housing in market-rate projects-is a growing but deeply contested practice. We evaluate the experience of inclusionary zoning programs in Los Angeles and Orange Counties, including their structure and elements, effectiveness in delivering affordable housing, and effect on housing markets and supply, to address the debate. We find that the programs vary but are not heavily demanding and include cost offsets. Low in-lieu fees, however, can be the weak link. Many of the mandatory programs are effective, if effectiveness is measured by comparing the affordable housing productivity of inclusionary zoning with other affordable housing programs. We found no statistically significant evidence of inclusionary zoning's adverse effect on housing supply in cities with inclusionary mandates. We conclude that critics underestimate the affordable housing productivity of inclusionary zoning, and overestimate its adverse effects on housing supply. Nonetheless, inclusionary zoning is no panacea and needs to be part of a comprehensive housing strategy.

Murray, M. S. (1997). Low-income renter housing: Another view of the tough choice. *Journal of Housing Research*, 8, 27.

This article describes a method that offers an alternative view of the affordability, quality and crowding choices facing low-income renters. It provides information on the housing tradeoffs made by low-income households and is directly applicable to the formation of housing policy. By using a sequential logit model, the research explicitly accounts for the increase in the provability of securing adequate, affordable housing.

Affordability problems clearly constitute the biggest hurdle for low-income renter household. Regional location is also a significant factor influencing the probability of multiple housing problems. For example, households in the wester United States are more likely to experience multiple housing problems. The receipt of housing assistance improves the housing condition for all low-income groups but helps very low income households the most. These results support the need for housing programs tailored to local housing conditions.

Neil, A. P., & Hart, T. (2011). Housing development and small town residential desirability: Valued aspects, resident attitudes and growth management. *The Town Planning Review*, 82(3), 317.

Although rural planning has implications for areas operating under constraint, this article considers the challenges faced by small towns in which rural housing growth has been concentrated. By investigating the valued aspects of residents and their attitudes towards/experiences of growth within two case study towns, the article explores the potential for the coexistence of housing development and small town residential desirability. The results have shown housing development to be unpopular where the quality of growth management was of most concern. Incremental developer-led housing growth has unsettled the functional balance of the towns, with its design adding little to aesthetic appeal, character or services. The results illustrate the need to improve growth management by adopting a more 'spatial' and local approach to strategy formation. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Nelson, K. K. P. (1994). Shortage of affordable housing? *Housing Policy Debate*, 5(4), 401-442.

Nelson, L. (2007). Farmworker housing and spaces of belonging in woodburn, oregon

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Geographical Review, 97(4), 520-541.

This article traces the history of efforts to build subsidized farmworker housing in Woodburn, Oregon, during the early 1990s. Although the northern Willamette Valley has been dependent on Mexican and Mexican American farmworkers since the 1940s, until the 1980s most of those workers had been migratory and lived in labor camps. Political economic transformations shifted these dynamics, causing an increasing number of farmworkers to settle permanently in towns such as Woodburn. Rising housing costs, in combination with skyrocketing demand for low-income housing, led to a housing crisis in the late 1980s. The Farmworker Housing Development Corporation, established in 1991, successfully built two housing projects in Woodburn despite fierce resistance from city leaders and many longtime residents. These housing projects not only provided safe and affordable housing for farmworkers but also claimed a space of belonging for a group profoundly marginalized in terms of economics, race, and legal status in Oregon and throughout the United States.

Nesslein, T. S. (2003). Markets versus planning: An assessment of the Swedish housing model in the post-war period. *Urban Studies*, 40(7), 1259-1282.

The purpose of this study is to present a comparative economic systems evaluation of the Swedish housing model. The evaluation examines success in achieving equity as well as efficiency goals and incorporates key comparisons with the market-oriented US housing model. From the late 1940s up to the major housing reforms of the early 1990s, a form of strong economic planning characterised the Swedish housing sector. By the early 1970s, the housing standard for all income-groups had been raised markedly and urban slums eliminated. Yet, Sweden's success came at huge resource cost while at the same time important equity goals were compromised. For example, Swedish building costs are among the highest in the world while in Sweden's major cities socioeconomic segregation is more pronounced than ever before in the post-war period.

Nicole Gurran, & Christine Whitehead. (2011). Planning and affordable housing in Australia and the UK: A comparative perspective. *Housing Studies*, 26(7-8), 1193.

Land use planning systems in Australia and the United Kingdom (UK) share a common history. In both nations, one objective of town planning has been to improve housing conditions for the urban poor and facilitate sufficient housing supply for growing post-war populations, with UK legislation serving as a model for Australia, at least until the Town and Country Planning Act 1947. Since this time however, approaches have diverged. In the UK, housing assistance and the land use planning system have co-evolved, with planning an important tool for securing affordable housing, particularly in England. In contrast, a deep cleavage between urban planning and housing policy persists in Australia. Drawing on a series of studies undertaken separately by the authors over the past decade which concentrate on Australia and England, the paper compares urban and housing policy in both nations, and examines planning system performance in securing new affordable homes. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Noya, A., Clarence, E., & Craig, G. (2009). *Community capacity building*. Paris: Centre for Entrepreneurship, SMEs and Local Development. doi:10.1787/9789264073302-en  
Community capacity building (CCB) is a fairly new term for an age-old good: enabling people to define their own destinies. This book presents and analyses some of the most interesting recent developments in the field of community capacity building, in a variety of OECD and non-OECD countries. The focus is on how CCB has effected change in three

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major areas: social policy (health, housing, community regeneration); local economic policy; and environmental policy. The book also outlines the common conditions required for CCB to take hold and thrive, allowing for the political voice of local communities to be clearly heard.

Optis, M., Shaw, K., Stephenson, P., & Wild, P. (2012). Mold growth in on-reserve homes in Canada: The need for research, education, policy, and funding. *Journal of Environmental Health, 74*(6), 14.

The impact of mold growth in homes located on First Nations reserves in Canada is part of a national housing crisis that has not been adequately studied. Nearly half of the homes on reserves contain mold at levels of contamination associated with high rates of respiratory and other illnesses to residents. Mold thrives due to increased moisture levels in building envelopes and interior spaces. Increased moisture stems from several deficiencies in housing conditions, including structural damage to the building envelope, overcrowding and insufficient use of ventilation systems, and other moisture-control strategies. These deficiencies have developed due to a series of historical and socioeconomic factors, including disenfranchisement from traditional territory, environmentally inappropriate construction, high unemployment rates, lack of home ownership, and insufficient federal funding for on-reserve housing and socioeconomic improvements. The successful, long-term reduction of mold growth requires increased activity in several research and policy areas. First, the actual impacts on health need to be studied and associated with comprehensive experimental data on mold growth to understand the unique environmental conditions that permit the germination and growth of toxic mold species. Second, field data documenting the extent of mold growth in on-reserve homes do not exist but are essential in understanding the full extent of the crisis. Third, current government initiatives to educate homeowners in mold remediation and prevention techniques must be long lasting and effective. Finally, and most importantly, the federal government must make a renewed and lasting commitment to improve the socioeconomic conditions on reserves that perpetuate mold growth in homes. Without such improvement, the mold crisis will surely persist and likely worsen. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Owusu, T. Y. (1999). Residential patterns and housing choices of Ghanaian immigrants in Toronto, Canada. *Housing Studies, 14*(1), 77-97. doi:10.1080/02673039983019

This study examines the spatial distribution, intra-urban mobility, and housing choices of Ghanaians in Toronto, to illustrate the residential behaviour of a recent group of African immigrants to Canada. The study finds that the majority of Ghanaian immigrants live in the older and newer suburban districts of the Toronto Census Metropolitan Area (CMA), with relatively few in the central cities. This finding is consistent with those of recent studies which indicate that the suburbs have become the primary reception centres for new immigrants to Canada. Within the suburbs, Ghanaians exhibit a high degree of concentration in specific areas and even in individual multi-family buildings. Analysis shows that this suburban emphasis as well as the intense local concentration is largely due to their need for affordable housing, the channelling effects of chain migration, the desire for proximity to fellow Ghanaians, and a housing search process that relies heavily on information and help from friends and relatives.

Padt, F. J. G., & Luloff, A. E. (2009). An institutional analysis of rural policy in the United States. *Community Development: Journal of the Community Development Society, 40*(3), 232.

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A managerial approach to community development is becoming quite common in contemporary rural policy in the United States. Central government is finding new ways for guiding decision making through the use of managerial techniques, including performance systems and evaluation tools. Concomitantly, managerial values—like local empowerment and entrepreneurship—are promoted at lower governance levels. This article assesses whether a managerial approach in rural policy institutionally supports rural development in practice. Findings indicate the federal government poses difficult institutional barriers to rural development and leaves little room for local initiatives as a result of managerial control. Community leadership is identified as a key factor in addressing and avoiding this risk.

Pagano, M. A., & Bowman, A. O. (1992). Attributes of development tools: Success and failure in local economic development. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 6(2), 173-186.

This article examines the attributes of local economic development policy instruments and asks whether these attributes can predict (1) project success as defined in archival data and in interviews of city officials, and (2) revenue generation as defined in conventional return on investment terms. Based on our analyses of quantitative and qualitative data from 40 city-supported development projects nationwide, the lesson for development projects designed or supported because of their revenue-generating potential appears to be that the city's economic condition is an important predictor of the revenue-generating success of a project. Further, the less complicated and the more routine or standard the bundle of incentives offered (especially by economically healthy cities), the greater the probability of revenue-generating success. Project success, however, is related to other factors. The more controversial the project, the more likely that down the road, the city will have an unsuccessful development project on its hands. Knowing the political risk of a project aids in predicting the success of the project.

Paterson, E., & Dunn, M. (2009). Perspectives on utilising community land trusts as a vehicle for affordable housing provision. *Local Environment*, 14(8), 749-764.

With lack of affordable housing being clearly identified as a social and economic exclusion issue for most communities, innovative ways of addressing this deficiency should be considered. Increasingly local communities are engaging with the possibility of direct provision themselves and discussion around this notion has profound implications for community cohesion. One community-based solution gaining popular support within communities, and with government ministers, is the Community Land Trust mechanism. This involves control and ownership of land to help ensure affordable housing is built and remains affordable in perpetuity for the community. The language and difficulties with definition of terms, together with the complexity of engaging relevant stakeholders in a changing policy and legislative framework can be problematic. This may lead to apparent lack of consensus within communities on the way forward. Perceptions of local housing issues and ways to address them are sometimes vague, sometimes diverse but rarely apathetic. This paper includes data from two case studies in North East England, which are examined using interviews with key players, as a means of seeking some practical solutions.

Payne, J. M. (2006). The paradox of progress: Three decades of the mount laurel doctrine. *Journal of Planning History*, 5(2), 126-147.

Judicial implementation of New Jersey's "fair share" housing doctrine in the Mount Laurel cases has been controversial because of the perception that the courts were intruding on

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policy and planning matters better left to the political branches. A paradox resulted. Strong judicial remedies were needed to break the political stalemate on issues of affordable housing, but voluntary compliance that could have avoided these stringent remedies became politically impossible for many municipalities because of the controversy over the courts' role. A new approach to fair-share compliance, called "growth share," has now been proposed, which seeks to break out of the paradox by giving deference to local governments on land use development issues so long as affordable housing opportunities are created simultaneously and in fair proportion to the actual growth experienced by each municipality. Potential strengths and weaknesses of this new approach are explored.

Pendall, R. R. (2000). Why voucher and certificate users live in distressed neighborhoods. *Housing Policy Debate*, 11(4), 881-910.

Peterson, J. (2011). Financial services perspective.(the legal guide to affordable housing development). *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 20(2), 223. Programs, perceptions, and philosophies relating to affordable housing have changed dramatically during the 75 years or so of the federal government's involvement in assisting to provide decent, safe, and sanitary housing for its needy citizenry. Although the American dream of homeownership has not necessarily been abandoned, it is now understood that many Americans will never own their own homes. There have been a plethora of multifamily rental assistance programs over the past decades, each epitomizing evolving philosophies. The Low Income Housing Tax Credit program has arguably been the most successful affordable housing program of the past several decades. Continuation of existing multifamily assistance programs is vital to the future of affordable housing. More favorable tax treatment of tax-exempt bond programs is needed to revitalize this once strong segment of affordable rental housing.

Phillips, M. (2004). Differential productions of rural gentrification: Illustrations from north and south norfolk. *Geoforum*, 36(4), 477-494.

This paper focuses attention on the making of space for rural gentrification, both discursively and materially. The paper emphasises the differential constructions of gentrification within urban and rural studies. Connections are drawn between production-side theories of gentrification, notions of the "post-productivist countryside"™ and studies that have related rural demographic change and gentrification with planning and property relations. Drawing on these three sets of ideas, the paper explores gentrification in rural Norfolk. It is argued that the contemporary geography of rural gentrification may in part reflect historic structures of landownership as well as settlement classifications associated with the land-use planning system. Country and District level analysis is followed up by detailed study of gentrification of two villages in Norfolk, which highlights how gentrified rural spaces may be produced in rather different way and through different agencies, and as a result takes different forms.

Planning for housing, 2004: An overview of local government initiatives in british columbia. (2004). Victoria: Ministry of Community, Aboriginal and Women's Services.

This report, published by the BC Ministry of Community, Aboriginal, and Women's Services, reviews local government affordable housing initiatives in British Columbia, based on a survey of 179 planners and chief administrative officers of local governments. In addition to an overview of strategies for affordable housing, it contains a special focus on small communities, housing for those with special needs, and addressing homelessness.

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Powe, N. A., & Hart, T. (2008). Market towns: Understanding and maintaining functionality. *Town Planning Review*, 79(4), 347-370.

Market or country towns play a crucial role in the functioning of rural and urban fields. However, faced with improvements in personal mobility and communication, and pressures from changes in the structure of their populations, their functionality is changing with their more traditional roles as service and employment centres being particularly challenged. As these traditional roles have contemporary relevance, in terms of reasons of social equity, economic viability and self-containment, this article considers the resultant challenges facing market towns. Using secondary data from over 200 towns, as well as more in-depth consideration of 11 case study towns, a framework of their functionality is developed from which challenges are explored. The results illustrate the complexity and diversity of such towns and the challenges faced in maintaining their functionality, providing a basis for comparison between towns, as well as a focus for policy development. The results suggest that although there is scope for planning policy to be more supportive to local need, support for the building of local capacity should be more realistic as to the time frame required for local capacity to develop. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Provo, J. (2009). Risk-averse regionalism: The cautionary tale of portland, oregon, and affordable housing. *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 28(3), 368-381. Looking for lessons for an emerging progressive regionalism, this article examines a stymied effort by a leading case of new regionalism to forge a regional consensus on affordable housing. It highlights a risk-averse streak in Portland, Oregon's regionalism, emerging when the region moved beyond implementation of state mandates in affordable housing. Such issues, with implications for social and economic equity, clearly engender controversy. Progressive action in these areas may require support from higher levels of government and a greater acceptance of conflict as a part of politics and governance, neither of which was on display in the Portland case.

Qadeer, M. A. (2000). Ruralopolises : The spatial organisation and residential land economy of high-density rural regions in south asia. *Urban Studies*, 37(9), 1583-1603. Many rural regions, extending over thousands of square kilometres, in parts of Asia and Africa, have population densities comparable to Western metropolitan areas. In these agrarian and poor regions, population density is precipitating thresholds for collective facilities and services on the one hand, and squeezing the provision of land for living on the other. Such regions have been named ruralopolises to underline the fusion of rural economic and social systems with metropolitan spatial organisations. Ruralopolises are the sites of urbanisation through implosion. This paper outlines the phenomenon of ruralopolises and explores their emerging forms of settlement and evolving residential land tenures. It is essentially a conceptual exploration of high-density rural settlement systems based upon examples and observations from south Asian ruralopolitan regions. Given the scale of ruralopolitan regions in the Third World, it appears that ruralopolises are another urban frontier ripening for spatial and infrastructural crises in the 21st century.

Rawding, C. (2007). A tale of two markets: Housing in east Lancashire<sup>1</sup>. *Geography*, 92(2), 97. The contrasting fortunes of the housing market in different areas of England is an issue of major political importance. Plans to build large numbers of new houses on greenfield sites in South East England have caused outrage and consternation in some quarters, as have proposals to demolish properties in areas of housing market failure. Using the housing market in East Lancashire as an example, this article investigates differences at regional

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and local levels, uncovering a much more complex situation than simplistic headlines might suggest. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

- Rex, T. R. (2000). Housing affordability worsens for low-income households. *Arizona Business*, 47(11), 5.
- Robert, L. L. (2003). Abolishing exclusionary zoning: A natural policy alliance for environmentalists and affordable housing advocates. *Boston College Environmental Affairs Law Review*, 30(3), 581.
- Exclusionary zoning limits residential development over large areas, and even entire cities or towns, to single-family housing on large lots. Exclusionary zoning is unfair to people and families of modest means (many of whom are members of racial or ethnic minorities) because it sharply limits where they can live and thus their access to jobs, education, and a good quality of life. For these reasons, exclusionary zoning was found to violate the New Jersey Constitution in the Mount Laurel case. But exclusionary zoning is also an environmental problem because it is a primary ingredient of the accelerating pace of urban and suburban sprawl. As a consequence, it is a major contributor to increased air and water pollution and habitat fragmentation. The Oregon planning program demonstrates how the abolition of exclusionary zoning promotes a more equitable range of housing choice in suburbs and simultaneously reduces environmental degradation associated with low-density urbanization. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]
- Robson, R. (2008). Suffering an excessive burden: Housing as a health determinant in the first nations community of northwestern ontario. *The Canadian Journal of Native Studies*, 28(1), 71.
- Rohe, W. W. M. (2001). The performance of non-profit housing developments in the united states. *Housing Studies*, 16(5), 595-618.
- Over the past two decades, non-profit organisations have played an increasingly important role in meeting the housing needs of low and moderate-income families. Not enough is known, however, about the performance of the housing developments sponsored by non-profit organisations. The purposes of the research described in this paper were: to assess the performance of a sample of housing developments sponsored by non-profit organisations in the US; to identify the factors that affect that performance and; to identify the lessons learned about effective project development and management. These questions are examined by studying the performance of 36 developments that received the Fannie Mae Foundation's Maxwell Award between 1989 and 1994. The results indicate that all the developments continue to provide decent, affordable housing for low-income persons. A major threat to the future viability of the rental and special needs developments, however, is the lack of adequate operating and replacement reserves. The most important factors in performance are stability in the leadership of the sponsoring organisations, local demand for affordable housing, the terms of the permanent financing and the screening and selection of tenants. Lessons learned from the experience of the developments studied and policy recommendations are presented.
- Rosenthal, L. A. (2009). The role of local government: Land-use controls and aging-friendliness. *Generations*, 33(2), 18.
- Since property values and quality of life are perceived to be at stake, city councils often host raucous public conflict over residential development proposals. The following regulatory barriers often impede such aging-friendly features: \* Zoning and subdivision ordinances

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restricting the types of homes that can be built. \* Limits on multifamily structures and manufactured housing. \* Minimum setbacks, square-footages and lot sizes, and maximum floor-area ratios. \* Controls on additions of accessory dwelling units (detached, garage, basement). \* Treatment of assisted-living operations as commercial and thus excludable from residential zones. \* Excessive parking requirements ignoring lower ownership and usage rates among aging people.

Under certain limited circumstances, residences maybe developed and marketed exclusively to customers age 55 and older. Aging-friendly planners should consider requiring "active-adult" developers do the following as a prerequisite to approval: (1) declare their intention to operate with age restrictions at the outset rather than shifting to that category late in the game to avoid school- impact exactions; (2) surpass minimum unit levels and densities (again to discourage mere school-fee avoidance); and (3) locate projects in growth- designated areas where water and sewer connections are already planned (Adler, 2006).

Rothwell, J. T., & Massey, D. S. (2010). Density zoning and class segregation in U.S. metropolitan areas. *Social Science Quarterly*, 91(5), 1123-1143.

Objectives. Socioeconomic segregation rose substantially in U.S. cities during the final decades of the 20th century, and we argue that zoning regulations are an important cause of this increase. Methods. We measure neighborhood economic segregation using the Gini coefficient for neighborhood income inequality and the poor- affluent exposure index. These outcomes are regressed on an index of density zoning developed from the work of Pendall for 50 U.S. metropolitan areas, while controlling for other metropolitan characteristics likely to affect urban housing markets and class segregation. Results. For both 2000 and changes from 1990 to 2000, OLS estimates reveal a strong relationship between density zoning and income segregation, and replication using 2SLS suggests that the relationship is causal. We also show that zoning is associated with higher interjurisdictional inequality. Conclusions. Metropolitan areas with suburbs that restrict the density of residential construction are more segregated on the basis of income than those with more permissive density zoning regimes. This arrangement perpetuates and exacerbates racial and class inequality in the United States.

Rubin, J. I. (1990). Affordable housing and municipal choice. *Land Economics*, 66(3), 325.

In this paper we examine the problem facing municipalities in one state, New Jersey, given a statutory goal that each community provide its "fair share" of affordable housing. One interesting aspect of this legislation is that municipalities can choose among a number of options, each with different economic and land-use consequences, in deciding how to fulfill their affordable housing obligation. The paper is organized as follows. Section I describes the origin of the affordable housing initiative in New Jersey and the options available to municipalities under the law. Section II briefly outlines alternative models of municipal decision making. Section III discusses the structure of the costs of each housing option. Section IV develops a model in which each community must decide how to meet its state-determined housing objective from among the available strategies. Section V examines the choices made by those municipalities which have received state approval of their affordable housing plan. Section VI provides a brief conclusion.

Rubin, J. I., & Seneca, J. J. (1991). Density bonuses, exactions, and the supply of affordable housing. *Journal of Urban Economics*, 30(2), 208-223.

This paper examines the use of density bonuses in the context of New Jersey experience and offers a general analysis of its policy implications.

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Section I briefly reviews the New Jersey Fair Housing Act and the role of density bonuses. Section II provides a graphical analysis of the economic effects of affordable housing exactions and density bonuses. Section III presents simulations of the effects of variations in housing market conditions, the density bonus, and the affordable housing exaction. Section IV gives a brief conclusion.

Saegert, S., & Benitez, L. (2005). Limited equity housing cooperatives: Defining a niche in the low-income housing market. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 19(4), 427-439.

This article examines the concept of limited equity housing cooperatives (LECs) and their potential niche in the housing stock of the United States. The authors discuss problems related to the success of housing cooperatives, as well as policy implications and opportunities for development of LECs. The research evidence that exists shows that LECs have a strong record of providing high-quality, safe, affordable housing for low- and moderate-income populations. The authors conclude that LECs constitute a valuable, if underused, form of housing ownership with the potential to improve the quality of life for certain low- and moderate-income households and to contribute to the physical and social quality of the larger community.

Sale, W. (2009). Effect of the conservatorship of fannie mae and freddie mac on affordable housing. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 18(3), 287.

On Sep 7, 2008, the Federal Housing Finance Agency (FHFA), under authority granted by the Housing and Economic Recovery Act of 2008 (HERA), placed the Federal National Mortgage Association (Fannie Mae) and the Federal Home Loan Mortgage Corporation (Freddie Mac) (collectively referred to as government-sponsored enterprises (GSEs)) into conservatorship. Conservatorship is a statutory process designed to stabilize a troubled institution with the objective of returning the (GSEs) to normal business operations. Under the conservatorship, FHFA is operating the GSEs and will continue to do so until they are stabilized. The root of the GSEs' problems, and the current economic crisis generally, is the high rate of default among home mortgages over the last two years. The conservatorship will have a lasting effect on the organization and roles of the GSEs and on the means by which they promote affordable housing. Despite the GSEs' financial turmoil and resulting conservatorship, their future roles in affordable housing appear to be secure.

Satsangi, M., & Dunmore, K. (2003). The planning system and the provision of affordable housing in rural Britain: A comparison of the Scottish and English experience. *Housing Studies*, 18(2), 201-217.

This paper compares recent experience in the use of the planning system to facilitate the provision of affordable housing in rural areas of Scotland and England. Following an introduction summarising key issues arising from the relevant literature, the paper first sets out the scale of need for rural affordable housing in the two countries and then summarises the differing planning policy frameworks. Scale of delivery is then addressed and an attempt is made to establish the extent to which differences in performance reflect variations in policy, delivery mechanisms or differing housing markets. The hypothesis is advanced that Scotland, although a more rural country, has made less use of planning policy to tackle issues relating to the need for rural social housing. In both countries scale of provision has lagged behind perceived need and a major reason for this would appear to be the tensions in planning policy between environmental and social sustainability objectives, with the scales so far weighted towards the environmental rather than the social

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imperative.

Satsangi, M. (2009). Community land ownership, housing and sustainable rural communities. *Planning Practice and Research*, 24(2), 251-262.

Land availability for affordable housing in rural areas is tied to competing discourses of sustainability that are set in the context of constructed idylls. This paper argues that the dominance of these myths owes to their support networks of power relations that govern the availability and use of key resources, amongst them land. The paper questions what happens to power relations when the land tenure regime changes and how this change impacts on the discourses of sustainability. It interprets the results of an initial investigation of community land buy-outs. The paper suggests that community purchase leads to a continuous renegotiation of power relations and to a rebalancing of the dimensions of sustainability. Community land trusts therefore emerge as sustainable models for tackling the question of land availability.

Sazama, G.,W. (2000). Lesson from the history of affordable housing cooperatives in the united states: A case study in american affordable housing policy. *The American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 59(4), 573.

Understanding the history of the affordable housing cooperatives in the U.S. helps one to understand the general history of American affordable housing policy. This paper contains a decade-by-decade summary of the history of affordable cooperatives. The affordable cooperative movement has evolved from ethnic and union groups which developed self-help cooperatives in the 1920s, through the federal funding of low-income cooperatives in the 1960s and 70s, to local nonprofit organizations using ad hoc packages of funds to organize cooperatives during the 1980s and 90s. As this history unfolds, it provides answers to contemporary policy questions affecting both cooperatives and affordable housing in general.

Scally, C. P. (2009). State housing finance agencies forty years later: Major or minor players in affordable housing? *Journal of Planning Education and Research*, 29(2), 194-212.

The gradual withdrawal of federal leadership in affordable housing has required states to step into an ever-widening gap in housing policy and finance. Much of this responsibility falls upon state housing finance agencies (HFAs). This article compares historical HFA roles with contemporary national trends and case study data and identifies five major roles played by HFAs today: financier, administrator/ monitor, planner, convener/coordinator, and policy innovator. HFA roles have been expanded through top-down political mandates, bottom-up interest group pressures, and complex institutional structures. The article also identifies several challenges to further change, including financial risk, interagency coordination, and agency transparency and accountability. HFAs have become major players in state affordable housing policy and suggests that planners, policy makers and advocates make better use of these agencies in implementing state affordable housing solutions.

Scally, C. P. (2012). The past and future of housing policy innovation: The case of US state housing trust funds. *Housing Studies*, 27(1), 127-150.

State governments are increasingly expected to help fill the gap between the demand and supply of affordable housing within the US. Little systematic attention has been paid to state housing strategies over the years, despite a lengthening record of policy innovation. This paper asks what factors influence state adoption of housing trust funds (HTFs), and if these factors differ based on how the trust fund is financed and which state agency is

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responsible for administering it. Utilizing an event history analysis of pooled cross-sectional data, the paper finds that whether or not a state adopts a HTF, who administers it, and how they fund it, varies based on rates of new, single-family development, the size of the black population, prior state housing expenditures, and citizen ideology. The broader implications of these findings are considered for future housing policy innovations beyond states and HTFs. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

- Schuetz, J., Meltzer, R., & Been, V. (2009). 31 flavors of inclusionary zoning: Comparing policies from san francisco, washington, DC, and suburban boston. *American Planning Association. Journal of the American Planning Association*, 75(4), 441.
- Problem: Over the past several decades, inclusionary zoning (IZ) has become an increasingly popular, but sometimes controversial, local means of producing affordable housing without direct public subsidy. The conversation about IZ has thus far largely ignored variations in the structure of IZ policies, although these variations can impact the amount of affordable housing produced and the effects of IZ on production and prices of market rate housing. Purpose: We provide a detailed comparison of the ways in which IZ programs have been structured in the San Francisco and Washington metropolitan areas and in suburban Boston. Methods: We create a unique dataset on IZ in these three regions by combining original data collected from several previous surveys. We use these data to compare the prevalence, structure, and affordable housing output of local IZ programs. Results and conclusions: In the San Francisco Bay Area, IZ programs tend to be mandatory and apply broadly across locations and structure types, while including cost offsets and alternatives to onsite construction. In the Washington, DC, area, most IZ programs are also mandatory, but have broader exemptions for small developments and low-density housing. IZ programs in the Boston suburbs exhibit the most heterogeneity. They are more likely to be voluntary and to apply only to a narrow range of developments, such as multifamily housing, or within certain zoning districts. The amount of affordable housing produced under IZ varies considerably, both within and across the regions. There is some evidence that IZ programs that grant density bonuses and exempt smaller projects produce more affordable housing. Takeaway for practice: Although variation in IZ program structures makes it hard to predict effectiveness, IZ's adaptability to local circumstances makes it a particularly attractive policy tool. IZ programs can easily be tailored to accommodate specific policy goals, housing market conditions, and residents' preferences, as well as variations in state or local regulatory and political environments. Research support: This article is adapted from a longer working paper written with financial support from the Center for Housing Policy, the research affiliate of the National Housing Conference.
- Schwartz, A. (1999). New york city and subsidized housing: Impacts and lessons of the city's \$5 billion capital budget housing plan. *Housing Policy Debate*, 10(4), 839.
- New York City has devoted far more resources to the development and rehabilitation of affordable housing than any other U.S. city, investing more than \$4 billion from 1986 to 1997. This article surveys the impact, status, and implications of New York's housing programs. It looks at correlations between publicly funded housing starts and changes in the housing stock, welfare rolls, and crime and at the economic impact of the city's housing investments within low-income neighborhoods. New York's housing programs have transformed neighborhoods, replacing large swaths of abandoned shells and vacant land with new housing and preserving thousands of buildings at risk of abandonment. While these housing investments correlate most strongly with reductions in vacant units and vacant lots, they also

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show significant correlations with reductions in welfare rolls and violent crime, but uneven economic impacts as well. New York's housing programs are important nationally less for the specifics of particular programs than for the institutional collaborations on which they are founded.

Schwartz, A. (2011). The credit crunch and subsidized low-income housing: The UK and US experience compared. *Journal of Housing and the Built Environment*, 26(3), 353-374. doi:10.1007/s10901-011-9227-8

This paper examines how the mortgage crisis and subsequent recession have affected subsidized rental housing in the United Kingdom and the United States. These two nations approach the housing needs of low-income households in very different ways and to very different degrees. In the UK, non-profit housing associations are pivotal to the production and management of affordable rental housing; in the US, the affordable housing system revolves mostly around a single program, the Low-Income Housing Tax Credit. Yet the crisis destabilized key parts of both countries' subsidy systems and raised important questions about their sustainability in the future. The UK responded sooner and arguably more effectively than the US to the crisis. However, over the longer term, the prospects for affordable housing development are likely to be more difficult in the UK than in the US.

Schwartz, H. (2011). Housing policy is school policy: Economically integrative housing promotes academic success in montgomery county, MD. *Education Digest: Essential Readings Condensed for Quick Review*, 76(6), 42-48.

Montgomery County, Maryland, operates one of the most acclaimed large public school systems in the United States. Although an increasing share of the population of this suburban school district just outside Washington, District of Columbia, is low income, and the majority of its students belongs to racial minority groups, the county graduates 9 in 10 of its students. Montgomery County's reputation as both an affluent area with good schools and a district that serves low-income students relatively well is firmly established. Much less known is the fact that it operates the nation's oldest and largest inclusionary zoning program--a policy that requires real estate developers to set aside a portion of the homes they build to be rented or sold at below-market prices. Building on the strength of the random assignment of children to schools, the author examines the longitudinal school performance from 2001 to 2007 of approximately 850 students in public housing who attended elementary schools and lived in neighborhoods that fell along a spectrum of very-low-poverty to moderate-poverty rates. In brief, the author finds that over a period of five to seven years, children in public housing who attended the school district's most-advantaged schools (as measured by either subsidized lunch status or the district's own criteria) far outperformed in math and reading those children in public housing who attended the district's least-advantaged elementary schools. In this report, the author describes the study, the findings, and their ramifications.

Scott, A. J., Shorten, J., Owen, R., & Owen, I. (2011). What kind of countryside do the public want: Community visions from wales UK? *GeoJournal*, 76(4), 417-436.

This paper assesses how far community led rural visions accord with the current thrust of rural planning policy delivery in the UK. Adapting conventional visioning methods, qualitative techniques were used on eight different communities across urban, exurban and rural Wales to elicit views relating to the kind of local countryside(s) that were desired. The results show that the communities' visions reflect an emerging consensus around local countryside priorities: multifunctionality, integration, wider countryside protection,

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development based on need, and local distinctiveness according with the thrust of current planning policy at national and local levels. However, there is a clear dichotomy between this and the reality of what communities actually experienced in developments affecting their countryside. Here, universal criticism was encountered over the type, pace and scale of development, the lack of rural specificity and the failure to take account of local community needs and priorities. It is hypothesized that tensions between national and local politics and stakeholder power relations are playing a crucial role in distorting the delivery of town and country planning. It is recommended that rural policy delivery must become more 'joined up' and rural proofed at national and local levels concomitant with a change in the operational culture of agencies at the forefront of rural delivery. Essentially, effective engagement of top down approaches synergising with bottom up community led ideas is long overdue.

Scott, M., & Murray, M. (2009). Housing rural communities: Connecting rural dwellings to rural development in Ireland. *Housing Studies*, 24(6), 755-774.

This paper explores the interaction between rural development policy and planning policies for rural housing within the context of Ireland. Drawing on an interpretive approach to policy analysis, the paper examines competing narratives of 'the rural' within the policy arena that underpin a fragmented approach to rural sustainable development. The evidence points to a disconnection between these spheres of public policy marked by a strained relationship between rural communities and regulatory planning, not least with regard to the preferred shape of the rural settlement pattern. It is argued that any housing policy for rural areas must give full regard to the social, economic and cultural attributes of rural life and not just the criteria of environment and landscape. In this context, partnership based local planning processes would enable the exploration of competing rural narratives to be re-orientated towards local needs, capacities and the perspectives of local people and the adoption of cultural, environmental and community values within the policy process.

Seyfried, W. (1991). Measuring the feasibility of a zoning bonus. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 57(3), 348-356.

A methodology for measuring the feasibility of a zoning bonus is described. This methodology, called sensitivity analysis of the rate of return on investment, has been applied to simple and complex decision making in the private and public sectors. The zoning bonus is a density bonus measured by the floor area ratio (FAR) and is a trade-off to a developer for a public benefit - low-income housing. Data for determining the internal rate of return were taken from 2 prototype buildings in Seattle, Washington's downtown office building district. Sensitivity analysis shows that the rate of return for the prototype buildings with the density bonus and the housing cost, determined by equivalent land or site cost, exceeded the rate of return at the base FAR without the density bonus. The results show that, if the rate of return at the base FAR is competitive with the rate of similar investments, or the market rate, a developer would have a windfall profit with the density bonus.

Shaw, D. P., & Ingram, M. (1990). The toothless watchdogs: Local authorities and the rural housing crisis in England and Wales. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 14(3), 377.

The issues relating to access to rural housing in the UK in terms of market forces and national and local planning policy are discussed. Recently, many of the more remote rural areas have been experiencing population increases; this migration turnaround is

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contributing to unprecedented house price increases. It has been recognized that an increasing number of newcomers are moving into these more peripheral rural areas on a more permanent basis. While the future of the county authorities currently is the subject of some debate, an important element of their strategic planning is ensuring that sufficient land is available for residential development for the next 5 years. The local authorities are able to provide guidance regarding the appropriate location of this development. It is hoped that low-cost housing in rural areas can be satisfied by 2 approaches that will only marginally involve local authorities: 1. Housing associations will become more substantial providers of social housing. 2. Low-cost housing would be provided for local needs at below-market rates.

Sherriff, R. (2010). Shared equity homeownership state policy review. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 19(3-4), 279.

Shoked, N. (2011). The reinvention of ownership: The embrace of residential zoning and the modern populist reading of property. *Yale Journal on Regulation*, 28(1), 91.

This article portrays the adoption of zoning laws as a turning point in US legal history where a new meaning was ascribed to the institution of ownership. It explores the historic 1926 decision of *Village of Euclid v Ambler Realty Co*, in which an ardently conservative Supreme Court upheld the constitutionality of residential zoning. Unlike existing explanations, which view the revolutionary decision either as a timely embrace of modern regulation or as the product of middle-class interests, this article perceives it as an outcome of the evolving image of private property. The entitlements associated with a property right in land became mostly concerned with assuring the homeowner's security -- protecting her from intrusions and changes in the residential environment. This change inevitably meant that property would entail less liberty of action than it had before, since an owner's activities could interfere with the stability of the neighborhood and the security of other owners.

Sirmans, G., Stacy, & Macpherson, D., A. (2003). The state of affordable housing. *Journal of Real Estate Literature*, 11(2), 133.

Affordable housing encompasses a substantial body of literature on a number of issues, including: 1. housing policy, 2. affordable housing supply, 3. barriers to homeownership, 4. measuring affordability, and 5. housing goals. Some major conclusions from the literature are: 1. Housing programs should be tailored to local housing conditions. 2. Minorities and immigrants are less likely to be homeowners even after controlling for income. 3. The number one housing problem is the lack of affordable housing for extremely low-income households. 4. A major impediment to homeownership is a lack of home buying and credit knowledge. 5. A major affordability indicator is housing cost burden (proportion of income paying for housing). 6. Pension investors reject affordable housing due to the low rate of return and too few projects. 7. Survey respondents are willing to live in housing built on cleaned-up brownfields.

Skaburskis, A. (2004). Decomposing Canada's growing housing affordability problem: Do city differences matter? *Urban Studies*, 41(1), 117-149.

This article examines the role of eight factors that affect the prevalence and incidence of housing affordability problems: geography, demography, migration/immigration/ ethnicity, income recipients, income source, employment and education. It develops bivariate probit models that use the 1991 and 1996 Canadian census public use microdata to predict the joint probability that a household spends more than half of its income on housing and that

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its income is below the poverty line. The conclusions show that city and regional differences are negligible after the effects of the factors common to all the cities have been accounted for. Changing employment levels and sources of household income are the most important factors explaining the prevalence and growth of housing poverty. While single parents have the highest incidence, the growth of the problem is mostly in the young non-family households. Migration, immigration and ethnicity play a role that is independent of the other factors. Education has almost no effect. The changes are in the underlying structures and in the variable profiles that differ remarkably across the factors. There were minor adjustments in the demographic and occupational profiles that would tend to reduce the problem but these are unlikely to stem its growth in the foreseeable future.

Skelton, I. (2000). Cooperative and nonprofit housing in winnipeg: Toward a re-engagement of the provision infrastructure. *Canadian Journal of Urban Research*, 9(2), 177.

The purpose of this paper is to work toward possible strategies against the morass that characterises much of contemporary social housing provision. It reviews recent contributions to the study of organisations providing housing and social services in order to identify models accounting for the dynamics of provision and adopts the perspective that the organisational forms through which service provision takes place may themselves have important consequences, not only for the housing provided, but also for the organisation of social life. The first part of the paper sets the context by briefly describing the different ways that social housing has been produced in Canada. It characterises an emergent period as one which is devoid of consistent public funding, with potentially significant legacies in terms of the physical and social infrastructures built up previously. Introducing recent literature from Europe and the USA, the second part outlines a number of analytical frameworks that have been applied in studying the organisation of production and alternative intervention strategies in social housing in these areas. The third part uses these frameworks to analyse the build-out of cooperative and nonprofit housing in Winnipeg, Canada. It is based on a survey of low-cost housing providing organisations as well as telephone and face-to-face interviews with people who were active in the cooperative and nonprofit programs in the city. The final part of the paper suggests that the term "provision infrastructure" as a useful analytical tool to characterise housing provision in Canada, and indicates ways in which the provision infrastructure developed in the past may be a significant factor in defining new pathways through which housing programs might operate in contemporary conditions.

Slaunwhite, A. (2009). Under pressure affordable housing in rural ontario. Ottawa, Ont: Canadian Policy Research Networks Inc.

Despite the outward migration of many Canadians from rural to urban communities, there remain significant challenges for low-income rural residents seeking affordable housing. Rural communities face geographic-specific obstacles to encouraging the development of affordable housing due to limited rental housing construction, an emphasis on single-family detached dwellings and homeownership, and population decline in some communities that may discourage government investment in affordable housing programs. In particular, youth, single parents, the elderly and low-income families face challenges to obtaining affordable housing in rural communities.

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This

paper seeks to raise our understanding of affordable housing issues in rural areas by summarizing

existing work on rural housing in Canada and examining the provision of affordable housing in

two communities contained within the United Counties of Leeds and Grenville in southeastern

Ontario: North Grenville and Rideau Lakes. The report concludes with recommendations for

municipal, provincial and federal governments to encourage the development of affordable housing in rural areas that address the place-specific challenges faced by communities that are

sparsely populated.

Smith, B. C. (2003). The impact of community development corporations on neighborhood housing markets: Modeling appreciation. *Urban Affairs Review*, 39(2), 181-204.

Housing investment activities of community development corporations (CDCs) can be associated with a positive impact on the residential real estate market within their respective service area. Relying on a pseudo-experimental approach, the appreciation rate of single-family housing in CDC treatment and comparison areas is tested with a traditional hedonic model with pooled data. The results suggest that the area that is served by the 12 established CDCs operating in Center Township in the city of Indianapolis experienced a higher overall appreciation in the mean residential home value from 1987 to 2000 than did a comparison area in Center Township not served by CDCs.

Somerville, C. T. (2001). Dynamics of the affordable housing stock: Microdata analysis of filtering. *Journal of Housing Research*, 12(1), 115.

This article identifies the factors that change the stock of market housing affordable to low-income households. During the past 15 years policy makers and academics have concentrated on the shortage of good-quality affordable housing for low-income households. Among the triggers of that interest are increased homelessness, the disappearance of rental units affordable to the least well off members of society, and the implications of growing income inequality. We take advantage of the panel nature of the metropolitan surveys of the American Housing Survey to model the movement of individual housing units in and out of the stock of units affordable to low-income households. The study develops a model of the effects of unit, neighborhood, and market characteristics, and conditions on the status of a unit over time. Empirical results suggest that movements are more sensitive to variation in neighborhood conditions than to unit characteristics or movements in market rents or prices. These neighborhood conditions include the share of rental units in the neighborhood, the affordable share of the total rental stock, and neighborhood incomes. In addition, overall movements in market house prices and rents appear to have little bearing on the movement of units in and out of the affordable housing stock. Rather, changes in rent for units with similar characteristics demonstrate a strong relationship to the movement of units. This suggests that the affordable housing submarket is not strongly integrated with the larger housing market. The article discusses the implication of these findings for policy and future research.

Song, S. (2000). Trends in affordable housing. *America's Community Banker*, 9(12), 37.

By all accounts the US is enjoying the longest period of economic growth in the country's

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history. Wall Street and Silicon Valley may be leaching countless millionaires into the gilded nest of the New Economy, but the working poor, along with more and more middle-income families, at the other end of the spectrum are still struggling to fulfill the most basic of needs--affordable housing. Affordable housing advocates like Ellen Lazar believe that federal funding dollars must be used to bring together efforts by community-based organizations, local government, banks and private companies to revitalize slumping neighborhoods. Perhaps the most crucial key to augmenting and preserving the increasing numbers of America's homeowners is to educate potential buyers--not simply to offer affordable housing, but to counsel families in "financial literacy" and help them become long-term homeowners who will rejuvenate neighborhoods block by block. [AUTHOR ABSTRACT]

Soroka, K. (2008). A brief analysis of the national housing trust fund. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 18(1), 13.

Stanton, T. (2009). Government-sponsored enterprises: Reality catches up to public administration theory. *Public Administration Review*, 69(4), 632-639.

Fannie Mae and Freddie Mac are insolvent and in government hands. Political forces led many lawmakers to neglect warnings from public administration academics and practitioners about the vulnerabilities of government-sponsored enterprises (GSEs). Private ownership combined with government backing let the two companies dominate their markets and the political process. GSEs successfully resisted bank-type regulation and capital requirements. The options now include restoring the two GSEs in some form, transforming them into temporary or longer-term wholly owned government corporations, or simply ending them. This article discusses the advantages and drawbacks of each option. Again, the public administration literature provides useful suggestions about organizational alternatives.

Stegman, M. A. (1991). Using the panel study of income dynamics (PSID) to evaluate the affordability characteristics of alternative mortgage instruments and homeownership assistance programs. *Journal of Housing Research*, 2(2), 161.

Using a specially constructed longitudinal data base from the panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), this article assesses the long-term affordability characteristics of alternative mortgage instruments and selected subsidy schemes intended to increase the number of poor families who can qualify for homeownership. The mortgage instruments analyzed include the adjustable-rate mortgage (ARM), the price-level-adjusted mortgage (PLAM), and the dual-indexed mortgage (DIM). Subsidy schemes include both deep- and shallow-interest subsidies modeled after the now-defunct Section 235 program and the National Housing Trust demonstration program contained in the National Affordable Housing Act of 1990 (NAHA) and a variation of the Bush Administration's Homeownership and Opportunity for People Everywhere (HOPE) initiative, also contained in NAHA. Affordability is analyzed for the period 1974-1983 using simulated changes in before-tax homeownership costs and actual changes in household income.

Stegman, M. M. A. (1995). Recent US urban change and policy initiatives. *Urban Studies* (Edinburgh, Scotland), 32(10), 1601-1608.

This paper provides an account of recent urban change and policy initiatives in the US. The paper describes how processes of global change have impacted upon economic activity and social life in the US, leading to the decline and isolation of inner-city areas. The urban, housing and community development policies of the Clinton administration, which aim to

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enable these communities to rejoin the economic mainstream, are then discussed. These strategies include: tackling homelessness addressing the problems of distressed public housing communities ; the expansion of affordable housing (with an emphasis on home-ownership); opening housing markets to all Americans regardless of race and ethnic origins; and, increasing the economic opportunities of inner-city populations.

Stein, S. I. (2010). Wake up fannie, I think I got something to say to you: Financing community land trust homebuyers without stripping affordability provisions. *Emory Law Journal*, 60(1), 209.

Individual homeownership, the backdrop of the American Dream, is often cited as a panacea of economic and social stability. Investment in and control over one's "castle," the story goes, creates neighborhoods and communities of involved, committed residents. Besides providing a stable place to live, homeownership allegedly serves as an important element of wealth accumulation and its expansion, especially among marginalized populations, has been a major goal of economic and social policy for decades. However, the recent foreclosure crisis and related economic collapse exposed vulnerabilities in the developed system of homeownership and mortgage financing-vulnerabilities so deep that they have left whole neighborhoods abandoned, and shaken economic stability across every income bracket. As a result, some analysts have begun to seriously question the virtues of—and sometimes to blame—policies that incentivize homeownership for people who traditionally cannot afford it. This Comment presents an existing model of affordable homeownership that has weathered the housing collapse with astounding resilience: the Community Land Trust (CLT). The CLT model aims to create community-based, affordable housing available in perpetuity. This Comment outlines the concepts and structures that underlie CLT affordability, exploring how the model operates within the context of American homeownership. In particular, it examines the tensions between the CLT model and the mortgage industry, focusing on the crucial but often difficult process of obtaining CLT homebuyer financing. Ultimately, the Comment suggests changes to the Fannie Mae CLT Uniform Mortgage Rider, an instrument originally developed to encourage lenders to loan money to CLT homebuyers, but which threatens the fabric of CLT resilience by stripping the model of its affordability provisions. The proposed changes suggest that these provisions survive foreclosure, lending stability to the CLT model and acknowledging the demonstrated resilience of CLT borrowers in the recent housing collapse. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Steven, M. V. (2010). Community economic development and rural america: Strategies for community-based collaborative development. *Journal of Affordable Housing & Community Development Law*, 20(1), 9.

Over the last two decades, community economic development (CED) has emerged as a distinct and impactful strategy for addressing the inequities that exist in their society. Reflecting a preference for place-based and locally defined projects, the CED strategy provides opportunities for individuals while offering a collective benefit for communities through market-based strategies, avoiding political pitfalls, and leveraging existing markets in a community. The first part of the article considers the definition of rural, looking at the range of definitions that are found for what is rural and describing the dynamics that are driving change in rural America. What emerges is more than a quantitative measure. Rural can be defined by more than population density and in such a way as to reflect the differences in access and resource allocation that persist in these communities. The second part of the article defines what community economic development

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means.

Sturzaker, J., & Shucksmith, M. (2011). Planning for housing in rural England: Discursive power and spatial exclusion. *Town Planning Review*, 82(2), 169.

This article examines the discursive construction and application of concepts of sustainable communities in relation to planning for housing in rural England, highlighting the role of the Campaign for the Protection of Rural England (CPRE) and the (now abolished) regional planning bodies. The paper draws on Lukes' 'third dimension' of power (language use) and Bourdieu's concept of 'symbolic violence'. It suggests that an 'unholy alliance' of rural elites and urban interests have wielded discursive power to define 'sustainability' on their own terms, which exacerbates the unaffordability of rural housing, leading to social injustice and spatial exclusion. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Talbert, C. T., Costa, N. L., & Krumbein, A. L. (2006). Recent developments in inclusionary zoning. *Urban Lawyer*, 38(3), 701-712.

The article focuses on development regarding inclusionary zoning in the U.S. With a continued shortage in housing, communities are faced with the challenge of providing affordable housing opportunities to their residents. The scarcity of affordable housing may be attributed to rising housing costs that greatly outpace the earning power of individuals and families as well as to housing construction that continues to lag behind demand. The inclusionary zoning programs appear to have produced around 100,000 affordable housing units nationwide. Criticisms on inclusionary zoning are discussed. Planning programs in several states are presented.

Talbert, C. T., & Costa, N. L. (2003). Inclusionary housing programs: Local governments respond to California's housing crisis. (symposium: Twists in the path from Mount Laurel). *Boston College Environmental Affairs Law Review*, 30(3), 567.

As anti-growth sentiment increases across the country, two laudable goals—affordable housing and environmental protection—are coming into conflict. This tension is most evident in California. Nine of the ten least affordable communities in the country are in California. California also has one of the most complicated and expensive environmental regulatory processes for development. This results in builders being unable to produce housing to keep up with demand, and an increase in the cost of those units that are available. "Smart Growth" is often proffered as the answer to this dilemma: by promoting more compact development, mixed-use and mixed-income neighborhoods, and creating jobs near housing and transportation, housing production will be available to meet the demand at affordable costs. While these principles may serve as a valuable planning guide, they are not a panacea. In this respect, local governments have used inclusionary housing programs as one tool to respond to this escalation of housing costs and probably will continue to do so. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Talbert, C. T., & Costa, N. L. (2005). Current issues in inclusionary zoning. (recent developments in land use, planning and zoning law). *The Urban Lawyer*, 37(3), 513.

Tester, F. (2009). Iglutaasaavut (our new homes): Neither "new" nor "ours": Housing challenges of the Nunavut territorial government. *Journal of Canadian Studies*, 43(2), 137.

The Government of Nunavut inherited from the Government of the Northwest Territories a long-standing problem affecting nearly every Inuk in the newly minted territory. The housing crisis in the new territory has a long history, dating back to the mid-1950s when Inuit in Frobisher Bay (Iqaluit) were first provided with wood-frame housing. A rapidly

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growing population, low incomes, the subsequent need for social housing, the cost of providing housing in a demanding physical environment, and ideologically driven biases in relation to housing as a market commodity are all factors that help explain the crisis inherited by the new administration. Serious problems of suitability, adequacy, and affordability confronted the Nunavut Housing Corporation, which is also facing a decline to zero over the next 30 years in Canada Mortgage and Housing Corporation's contribution to the existing social housing inventory. By August 2000, 1,100 families in Nunavut were waiting for some form of housing assistance. The demand for housing was projected to be 260 homes per year over the next 5-year period. Sixty percent of Nunavummiut live in public housing, 98% of whom are Inuit. This essay examines the problems that have confronted the Nunavut Housing Corporation—a stand-alone corporation—and looks at program and policy initiatives undertaken to address the situation, as called for by the Bathurst Mandate, tabled in October 1999, and establishing principles, goals, and objectives for the new government and the Nunavut Housing Corporation. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Tewdwr-Jones, M., Gallent, N., Fisk, M., & Essex, S. (1998). Developing corporate approaches for the provision of affordable housing in Wales. *Regional Studies*, 32(1), 85-91.  
Tewdwr-Jones et al discuss how planning and housing departments in Wales work together to improve the quality and supply of affordable housing.

Tyler Miller, K. (2001). Subsidized housing for the low-income functionally disabled elderly. *Journal of Real Estate Literature*, 9(1), 1.  
This article presents examines the housing needs of seniors who are functionally disabled, requiring the help of another person to perform at least one activity of daily living or an instrumental activity of daily living. The article provides a brief history of subsidized housing for the elderly, including public housing for the elderly, Section 202 housing, below-market interest rate subsidies, congregate housing service programs, HOME Investment Partnerships, and Section 515 Rural Rental Housing. The article pays particular attention to current trends that reduce funding for affordable senior housing. It also discusses home-based and community-based services available to functionally disabled seniors to allow them to live independently. The article concludes with a discussion of the typology of current subsidized rental housing options for these seniors as a model to aid current and future planners and policymakers in developing housing options that are affordable to this population. The article contains two exhibits.

Von Hoffman, A. (2000). A study in contradictions: The origins and legacy of the housing act of 1949. *Housing Policy Debate*, 11(2), 299.  
This article provides an overview of the history of the origins and first 25 years of the Housing Act of 1949. In this article, the author surveys the efforts to create housing and redevelopment policies that led to the framing of the bill, the fight over its passage, the struggles to implement its programs during the 1950s, its major achievements under the act, and the controversies that besieged its programs and led in 1973 to the suspension of the public housing program and the termination of the urban renewal program.

Waddell, P., Blanco, H., & Mathur, S. (2004). The effect of impact fees on the price of new single-family housing. *Urban Studies*, 41(7), 1303-1312.  
This paper provides new evidence on the effects of impact fees on housing prices, using an inventory of single-family housing sale transactions in the 38 cities and towns within King County, Washington, for the period 1991-2000. Although the effect of impact fees on housing

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prices has been examined previously, earlier studies have been limited by methodological deficiencies. This paper examines the effect of impact fees on new housing and their differential effect on housing price based on the quality of housing, and finds that the effect of impact fees on the price of new housing is quite significant and elastic, raising new home prices by about 166 per cent of the amount of the fee. The increase is 358 per cent for the higher-quality homes and is statistically insignificant for the lower-quality homes.

Wake, T. (2007). Review of best practices in affordable housing. Vancouver: Smart Growth BC. The purpose of this report is to review the range of affordable housing approaches used by local governments in select jurisdictions in Canada and the U.S. and to provide some preliminary comments about the effectiveness of these tools. This review will provide the backdrop for Smart Growth B.C. to work with other organizations, the development sector and local governments to develop an affordable housing strategy. This report suggests the need for more robust affordable housing initiatives that reflect the learning from approaches undertaken in the U.S. since the 1980's.

The report describes and reviews policies, programs, and strategies based on their frequency of use by local governments, identifies how each are used in the jurisdictions surveyed, and lists them in order of most frequent use. The report reviews a variety of policies, strategies, and models, including: Inclusionary Zoning, Density Bonus, Rent Restriction, Resale Price Restriction, Secondary Suite Policy, Housing Fund, Demolition Policy, Affordable Housing Strategy, Real Estate Escrow Interest Grant, Growth Management Strategy, Public Private Partnership, Housing Needs Assessment, Housing Organization, Land Banking, Waitlist System, Real Estate Transfer Tax Allocation, Co-operative Housing, Cohousing, and Community Land Trusts.

Wallace, J. J. E. (1995). Financing affordable housing in the united states. *Housing Policy Debate*, 6(4), 785-814.

This article addresses the problem of the gap in affordable housing in the United States and the efforts being made to address the gap. At issue are the forms of federal financial support for affordable housing and the relative roles of private, for-profit suppliers; local public housing agencies; and nonprofit, community-based developers in providing affordable housing. The primary U.S. vehicle for affordable housing production is currently the low-income housing tax credit. While this system has produced nearly 350,000 units of low-income housing, it has inherent inefficiencies relative to a direct capital grant and currently requires assembling mortgage financing from a number of sources. Congress and the Clinton administration have been reluctant to encourage much additional development by public housing agencies, and the capacity of nonprofit, community-based developers is still limited. Experiments are under way on a variety of credit enhancement and risk-sharing techniques.

Wang, L., Deng, L., & Shen, Q. (2011). The emerging housing policy framework in china. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 26(2), 168-183.

This article describes the emerging housing policy framework in China, which includes three major affordable housing programs and a heavily regulated housing finance sector. The three programs are the Economical and Comfortable Housing (ECH) program, the Housing Provident Fund (HPF) program, and the Cheap Rental Housing (CRH) program. For each program, the authors examine how it works and whether it has been effective in achieving its policy objectives. They also describe the characteristics of China's newly developed mortgage market and present some examples of the recent government efforts to

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regulate mortgage lending and to address concerns about potential real estate bubbles.

Warson, A. (2001). Wanted: Affordable apartments. [Providing statistics on the growing shortage of affordable rental housing in the United States, this article reports on efforts to address the problem on the part of a new Coalition for Affordable Rental Housing. The Coalition was formed at a national housing summit hosted by the Mortgage Bankers Association of America in March 2001. One of the Coalition's first priorities is to persuade Congress to increase, for the first time since 1992, the limits of multifamily mortgage loans insured by the Federal Housing Administration. The Coalition also will work on developing a well-capitalized, market-based new production tool for an affordable rental housing program, and will support a new multifamily production program geared to helping moderate-income families, such as firefighters, police officers, and teachers. A sidebar on the affordable housing crisis in Los Angeles accompanies the article.] *Mortgage Banking*, 62(2), 56.

Webster, C. (2005). The new institutional economics and the evolution of modern urban planning: Insights, issues and lessons<sup>1</sup>. *The Town Planning Review*, 76(4), 455.  
Urban planning is constantly in tension; always evolving and forever re-inventing itself. The history of modern urban planning is the story of society in search of ways of managing spontaneity. This is a conundrum to which there is no obvious or easy answer. Failing to understand it leads to planning that does not work. To understand how cities develop at the boundary between market forces and government policy it is necessary to understand the role of both kinds of institution in allocating property rights over scarce land and land-related resources. This paper examines these ideas, first with reference to some theoretical insights from the New Institutional Economics and secondly, by drawing lessons from the evolution of the British town planning system over the last hundred years. The discussion addresses key issues at the heart of the institutional design problem, including the question of how rights should be distributed between state and private property owners - including third parties affected by contracts between one or more other parties; how state rights should be allocated between different levels and spatial scales of governance; and, which institutional mechanisms should be used to exercise those rights most effectively and efficiently in the interest of achieving better co-ordinated cities. [PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Weeks, L. E., & LeBlanc, K. (2010). Housing concerns of vulnerable older Canadians. *Canadian Journal on Aging/Revue Canadienne Du Vieillissement*, 29(3), 333-347.  
Preparing for the future housing needs of older adults is imperative in countries with an aging population, but little is known about these issues among vulnerable older adults. This study used a qualitative approach to identify key housing concerns in this group. A total of 84 vulnerable older adults including Aboriginal elders, those with various disabilities, and ethnic minorities participated in 10 focus groups. The Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation's (CMHC's) standards of core housing need provided a framework for data analysis, along with the identification of additional key housing themes across and within groups of vulnerable older adults. The results provide insight into preferred housing characteristics, regardless of housing form. Additionally, the results provide insight into how to support vulnerable older adults who choose to remain in their homes and communities and how to help ensure that appropriate housing is developed that meets the needs of this diverse population.

Wehrwein, C., & Pollack, M. (2005). Health, housing, and public policy. *Health Progress* (Saint

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Louis, Mo.), 86(2), 21.

With federal funding of affordable housing declining, health care and housing organizations must work together to advocate sound policy and reasonable funding in this realm. Federal agencies like the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) and the U.S. Department of Agriculture traditionally have been the primary source of low income housing funds. But key housing programs like HUD's Section 8 have lost a significant amount of funding. Through advocacy efforts, health care and housing organizations can urge legislators to retain or restore these vital programs. They also can support the preservation of affordable housing units in order to counterbalance the trend of these homes being "lost to the market." Also, health care and housing agencies can partner to enhance housing services. Vulnerable populations-such as the elderly, individuals at risk for homelessness, those with disabilities, and the mentally ill-can benefit greatly from the supportive services that health care organizations can offer.

Williams, P. (1997). Inclusionary zoning and strategic planning *Australian Planner*, 34(1), 16-21.

Focus in this paper is placed on the issue of inclusionary zoning and developer contributions to provide affordable housing in the City West and Green Square urban redevelopment projects. Both are ambitious inner city urban renewal projects which form key parts of the New South Wales government's urban consolidation policy and also seek to maintain a social mix through the provision of social (i.e. affordable) housing.

Williams, P. (2000). Inclusionary zoning and affordable housing in sydney. *Urban Policy and Research*, 18(3), 291-310.

Focus in this paper is placed on the issue of inclusionary zoning and developer contributions to provide affordable housing in the City West and Green Square urban redevelopment projects. Both are ambitious inner city urban renewal projects which form key parts of the New South Wales government's urban consolidation policy and also seek to maintain a social mix through the provision of social (i.e. affordable) housing.

Wiseman, N. (1982). Planning for remote communities: A case study of housing need assessment. *Canadian Public Policy / Analyse De Politiques*, 8(2), 239-247.

This study deals with the problem of collecting demographic data and assessing housing needs in remote Northern communities. The specific case dealt with is a shared-cost federal-provincial survey project conducted in isolated Métis communities in northern Manitoba in the mid-1970s. There is a discussion of the problems of employing Southern data-collecting methods in such a setting. An inventory of alternative government sources of demographic and housing data for the communities is compiled and critically analyzed. In conclusion there is the suggestion that an alternative means of data collection would be to rely on community leaders. There are also observations made about the social and physical impact of government housing programs in the remote, native, North. // Cette étude soulève les problèmes de cueillette des données démographiques et d'évaluation des besoins en logement dans les communautés éloignées du Nord. Nous avons choisi le cas d'un projet d'enquête, financé à la fois par le gouvernement fédéral et la province, et effectué, au milieu des années 70, auprès des communautés isolées de Métis dans le Nord du Manitoba. Nous nous demandons d'abord s'il est justifié, pour une région comme celle-ci, d'utiliser les méthodes de cueillette des données employées dans le Sud. Ensuite, tout en les critiquant, nous faisons l'inventaire des autres sources gouvernementales pouvant nous permettre

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d'établir des données sur la population et le logement dans ces communautés. Il semble, en fin de compte, qu'une alternative à la présente façon de cueillir les données prendrait son appui sur les leaders des communautés. Nous ajoutons à cela quelques observations sur l'impact social et physique des programmes de logement gouvernementaux dans les régions autochtones éloignées du Nord.

Witten, J. D. (2003). The cost of developing affordable housing: At what price? (symposium: Twists in the path from mount laurel). *Boston College Environmental Affairs Law Review*, 30(3), 509.

It is not disputed that many of the nation's cities, towns, and tribal reservations, and their current or would be residents, are facing an affordable housing crisis. At issue is how municipal governments-the level of government within which housing gets built-can solve this crisis without exacerbating existing problems or creating new ones. This Article recommends the affordable housing problem be solved through a combination of time- and judicially-tested options and burden-sharing arrangements with the private sector, most notably through mandatory inclusionary-zoning requirements and the imposition of impact fees. It presents a critique of the approach taken by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts in its pursuit of affordable housing development. The Article recommends that states considering the Massachusetts "cramdown" methodology avoid the draconian and regressive tactics employed by the Massachusetts affordable housing statute. Rather, they should look to successful affordable housing programs employed by "plan states."  
[PUBLICATION ABSTRACT]

Ziebarth, A. C., & Meeks, C. B. (1998). Public policy issues and financing for rural housing. *Advancing the Consumer Interest*, 10, 11.  
Presents a study on federal housing policy which shifted dramatically with the Cranston-Gonzalez National Affordable Housing Act (1990). Background information on housing; Identification of the five properties which the National Homeownership Strategy addresses; What the housing policy focus on; Availability of houses; Indication that most households and families in the United States housing ownership signifies more than securing shelter.

Ziebarth, A. (2006). Housing seasonal workers for the minnesota processed vegetable industry. *Rural Sociology*, 71(2), 335-357.  
Abstract, The place where we live and work is a reflection of a complex set of economic conditions and social relationships. Very little information is available regarding housing for Minnesota's migrant workers. It is estimated that approximately 20,000 people migrate to Minnesota each summer to work in the production and processing of green peas and sweet corn. Obtaining adequate, affordable short-term housing for these workers and dependents accompanying them is a challenge. Many migrants end up living in over-crowded, substandard conditions that place financial burdens on their limited incomes. Using secondary sources, including a survey of 282 migrant workers, government documents, and media reports, this study provides a review of migrant workers' housing in four Minnesota counties where vegetable production and processing occur. The findings are then examined using Mitchell's Labor Theory of Landscape providing a potential explanation of the context and meaning of these housing conditions.

Zimmerman, J. N., Ham, S. (., & Frank, S. M. (2008). Does it or doesn't it? geographic differences and the costs of living. *Rural Sociology*, 73(3), 463-486.  
Abstract, The relative cost of living in rural areas has long been of interest to rural sociologists. Today, the popular perception is that rural prices are lower. This study

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examines geographic differences in the costs of living in Kentucky. The results indicate that, contrary to the popular perception, when prices of the same products and services were compared, there was no consistent pattern of lower prices in the rural counties. Furthermore, differences in the material conditions of rural living meant that there were additional costs that price comparisons alone did not capture.

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