
UNESCO, Brokers and Critical Success (F)Actors in Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage

1 In 2013 the world celebrated the tenth anniversary of the *Convention for the*
2 *Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage/Convention pour la sauvegarde du patrimoine*
3 *culturel immatériel*. The Convention was inspired by, but was also a reaction
4 against, the effects of the Convention for the Protection of the World Cultural
5 and Natural Heritage of 1972. The goals were to find new ways (“safeguard”) to
6 speak about, to valorize, to facilitate transmission and to deal with “traditional
7 culture” or “folklore”, to celebrate cultural diversity and to involve more actors
8 like communities and groups. There was also international pressure and drive
9 to construct an alternative for the notion of (protecting and promoting) “world
10 heritage” as it was used for monuments and landscapes, in Europe ... and the
11 rest of the world. On October 17th, 2003, the General Assembly of UNESCO
12 accepted the text after two years of intensive negotiations and working towards
13 a consensus between hundreds of diplomats and experts (anthropologists,
14 ethnologists, “volkskundigen”, linguists, legal experts, activists from NGOs,
15 ...). In 2006, after thirty countries had ratified it, the convention “entered
16 into force” (article 34 of that Convention). One of the first main challenges
17 was to make “operational directives”: interpretations of the vague wording in
18 the articles of the convention text, criteria, proposals to allocate funds and
19 to create instruments for implementing the convention ... Between 2006 and
20 2008 a series of meetings of the Intergovernmental Committee and many
21 working groups of experts were organized and facilitated by the Secretariat
22 (administration) of UNESCO, while more and more countries were ratifying
23 the Convention. During this period, many of the experts who had constructed
24 the convention text continued the discussion as members of the delegations
25 of Member States in the first Intergovernmental Committee, or as (in the
26 corridors participant) observers. The first version of a consolidated set of
27 operational directives that Committee members could live with (representing
28 a consensus), was ready in the early summer of 2008 and accepted by the
29 General Assembly in June 2008. Now the Convention was really activated.
30 As such, 2013 was not only the tenth birthday, but also the fifth operational
31 work year of the Convention and its “operational directives”. These operational
32 directives can be changed by the General Assembly of Member States and they
33 have been slightly amended and updated (in the first place the criteria and
34 procedures for the international lists mentioned in article 16 and 17 of the 2003

1 Convention) in 2010, 2012 and 2014. The last time the changes were partly
2 based on the result of an evaluation of the 2003 Convention and its operational
3 directives and how it was implemented in UNESCO and all over the world,
4 conducted by the *Internal Oversight Service of UNESCO*.¹ In the last meeting of
5 the Intergovernmental Committee in Baku and the General Assembly in Paris,
6 the challenge was raised to provide more guidance and operational directives
7 about safeguarding, addressing issues like sustainable development, tourism,
8 commercialization, but also to reconsider the role relevant non-governmental
9 organizations can take up in the implementation of the 2003 Convention.
10 In contrast to the 2003 Convention text, the operational directives can be
11 changed, expanded and reoriented.

12 **Tenth anniversary: an opportunity to explore key challenges,** 13 **constraints and possibilities**

14 In 2013, UNESCO launched a worldwide appeal to all stakeholders involved
15 in the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage to explore the key
16 challenges, constraints and possibilities related to its implementation.
17 The tenth anniversary offered a wide range of actors the opportunity to
18 organize and share activities at the occasion of the tenth anniversary of the
19 2003 Convention: feasts, symposia, campaigns, et cetera. A special web page
20 brought together and announced all the initiatives: <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/en/anniversary>. From the member state Belgium, more
21 specifically Flanders, an international colloquium was proposed and accepted
22 for the programme and the website. The title was “ICH brokers, facilitators,
23 mediators and intermediaries. Critical Success (F)Actors for the Safeguarding
24 of Intangible Cultural Heritage”. The event took place in Brussels, at FARO,
25 on November 6th, under the auspices of the Flemish UNESCO commission.
26 The main organizers were FARO, tapis plein and the Vrije Universiteit
27 Brussel/BREL, in cooperation with the Nederlands Centrum voor Volks-
28 cultuur en Immaterieel Erfgoed (the Dutch Center for Intangible Heritage)
29 and the ICH NGO Forum, the network of the NGOs attached to the UNESCO
30 Convention for the safeguarding of ICH (for whom cultural brokerage is in
31 fact the core-activity.) From Flanders the ICH network and platform www.immaterieelerfgoed.be
32 participated. The title of the “ICH network” refers to
33 a number of centers of expertise, based in Brussels and the Flemish region
34 of Belgium and that are cultivating the safeguarding intangible cultural
35 heritage paradigm: LECA-CAG-Het Firmament-Resonant-ETWIE-tapis plein
36 and FARO. As the contribution by Casteleyn, Janssens and Neyrinck to this
37 volume explains, the network also comprises the heritage cells in Flanders.
38

1 B. Torggler, E. Sediakina-Rivière and J.Blake, *Evaluation by the Internal Oversight Service of UNESCO's standard-setting work of the Culture Sector. Part I: 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage*. Paris, 2013.

1 The network consists of a series of professionals that all share and cherish
2 a profile and self-fashioning as “(cultural) heritage broker” and mediator.
3 The notion of brokerage characterizes both the organizations as well as the
4 people working there. In the Netherlands there is also a growing awareness
5 of issues connected with brokering heritage and culture, and that is why the
6 Dutch commission for UNESCO and the VIE joined the initiative begun by the
7 partners in Bruges and Brussels. Before the Dutch ratification of the UNESCO
8 Convention, VIE had already positioned itself in 2003 as a public folklore
9 institution, conceptualizing its work as “cultural brokerage”. In this VIE was,
10 just like the organizations in Flanders, inspired by discussions in the United
11 States on this same issue, as shown in a booklet produced by VIE which tried
12 to give a theoretical justification of its work, *Volkscultuur van en voor een breed*
13 *publiek*.

14 The collection of articles in this volume can partly be considered as
15 the “acta” or publication of the colloquium in Brussels in 2013. It has been
16 complimented with additional contributions and essays from actors in the ICH
17 NGO Forum. The announcement of the colloquium can still be found on the
18 UNESCO website and it explains what the intention was:

19 *“The 2003 Convention and the subsequent versions of the Operational Directives*
20 *have significant effects on cultural heritage practices and policies in many*
21 *nation-states and regions around the world. Which lessons can we draw from*
22 *the implementation and evaluation of safeguarding plans and programmes for*
23 *intangible cultural heritage? What works? What is missing? Can good practices*
24 *from other heritage fields be inspiring? What can we learn from experiences*
25 *in development aid, health care or other programmes, in which brokers and*
26 *facilitators are active?*

27 *The central hypothesis we will explore is that the role of mediators, cultural*
28 *brokers or facilitators is important for making safeguarding programmes and*
29 *other participatory heritage processes work and succeed. Several words describe*
30 *these roles and the skills required. The word “translators” refers to skills to find*
31 *common ground between professional discourses, methods and terminology*
32 *of “safeguarding” or “intangible cultural heritage” on the one hand and local*
33 *practices and group processes on the other hand. Do keywords like “cultural*
34 *brokerage” or “mediation” adequately describe these critical success (f)actors?*
35 *Are these processes limited to the world of NGOs or do they also form a challenge*
36 *for other organizations, institutions and networks?”*

37 Anniversaries are not funerals. By organizing the colloquium in 2013 and
38 by publishing this special issue in *Volkskunde*, we have many ambitions. The
39 first is to draw attention to specific roles and functions in processes and
40 networks regarding the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage, and to
41 provide sensitizing vocabulary and literature to talk about it. This new focus
42 on cultural brokerage is also important for other sectors as is illustrated in
43 the discussion about community involvement in museums and other heritage

1 institutions.² The second, specifically relevant for this journal, is the need
2 to see and inscribe the recent emergence of the paradigm of safeguarding
3 intangible cultural heritage in a long term perspective, in the history of the
4 relations between “popular culture” and “elite culture” since the 16th century. In
5 the literature that has been produced since the 1970s, concepts like “brokerage”
6 or “appropriation” have enriched the debate. It is time to connect the dots,
7 both to update and complement cultural history and to feed new disciplines
8 like cultural policy studies with a long term perspective and (positive and
9 often negative) experience.³ The third is to connect and confront bodies and
10 segments of that literature and the practices and models they discuss, not only
11 transdisciplinary but also interdisciplinary. It answers the calls launched by
12 Janet Blake⁴, Richard Kurin⁵ and others to exchange and accumulate experiences
13 of successful and failed projects. There is a need for many more case-studies
14 and examples, of description and also analysis of policy-experiments, such as
15 Flanders in the first decade of the 21st century, in order to make progress.

16 **Contributions in this issue**

17 Let us not forget who actually made, and now interprets, adapts, explains and
18 broadcasts the 2003 convention text, the operational directives, the forms, and
19 other instruments. They tend to be called experts, diplomats or other delegates,
20 but it would also be possible and plausible to describe the profile of the core
21 groups as “mediators” or “brokers”. They are constructing frames, telling stories
22 and combining different worlds. It is a group of practitioners, diplomats, civil
23 servants and politicians, constantly translating, highly skilled in the game
24 and art of building (on) consensus (building). They are good examples of

- 2 V. Golding & W. Modest (eds.), *Museums and communities; curators, collections and collaboration*. London, 2013. In Flanders and in the Netherlands the increased attention to this new kind of professional intermediaries can be illustrated with two practical guides, both published in 2010: *Nieuwe cultuurfuncties. Een urgente verkenning naar meerwaarde en typologie*. Amsterdam, 2010 and *Makelaardij in erfgoed. Praktijkkennis voor bruggebouwers*. Brussel, 2010.
- 3 See the research program proposed by M. Jacobs, “Bruegel and Burke were here! Examining the criteria implicit in the UNESCO paradigm of safeguarding ICH: the first decade”, *International Journal of Intangible Heritage* 9, 2014, p. 99-117; P. Burke, *Popular Culture in Early Modern Europe*. S.I. 2009; R. Muchembled, *L'invention de l'homme moderne. Sensibilités, mœurs et comportements collectifs sous l'Ancien Régime*. Paris, 1988 (in particular chapter II: “Le temps des médiateurs (XVI^e siècle)”); G. Rooijackers, *Rituele repertoires. Volkscultuur in oostelijk Noord-Brabant 1559-1853*. Nijmegen, 1994, passim on “bemiddelars”; W. Frijhoff, “Toeëigening: van bezitsdrang naar betekenisgeving”, *Trajecta* 6, 1997, p. 99-118; R. Chartier, “Culture as appropriation: Popular culture uses in early modern France”, in: S. Kaplan, *Understanding popular culture. Europe from the Middle Ages to the nineteenth century*. Berlin, 1984, p. 229-253; J. Paquette, “Theories of Professional Identity: Bringing Cultural Policy in Perspective”, in: J. Paquette (ed.), *Cultural Policy, Work and Identity. The Creation, Renewal and Negotiation of Professional Subjectivities*. Farnham, 2012, p. 1-24.
- 4 J. Blake, “UNESCO’s 2003 Convention on Intangible Cultural Heritage. The implications of community involvement in ‘safeguarding’”, in: L. Smith & N. Akagawa (eds.), *Intangible Heritage*. London & New York, 2009, p. 46-73, p. 66.
- 5 R. Kurin, “Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage: Key Factors in Implementing the 2003 Convention”, *International Journal of Intangible Heritage* 2, 2007, p. 10-20, p. 18.

1 international and interdisciplinary cultural brokers and in this case, as Marc
2 Jacobs argues in his contribution about development brokers, even members
3 of an epistemic community and “global-politique”. It is not by chance that
4 Richard Kurin or Chérif Khaznadar who were heads of delegations in UNESCO
5 developing the 2003 Convention, are also famous for developing programs of
6 culture brokerage or ethnoscenography. We argue that brokerage is the core
7 business of many of the key actors involved in the first decade of the 2003
8 Convention’s development. In this volume not only experts who have worked
9 in the delegations of member states take the floor, but also people connected
10 to NGOs who participate regularly in the meetings of the Intergovernmental
11 Committee or the General Assembly of the 2003 Convention. The contribution
12 by Jorijn Neyrinck makes clear that there are several challenges here. The
13 NGOs, even the organizations accredited by the General Assembly, are at
14 present hardly mobilized for developing the 2003 Convention. There is tension
15 between this under-use and the many principles of co-governance that are
16 cultivated in the 21st century in other fields and in the spirit of the convention.
17 Neyrinck pleads for using these resources by interpreting broadly the current
18 directives of the 2003 Convention. But as she emphasizes, these directives can
19 also be changed, evolve and improve. It is one of the objectives of this volume,
20 to feed and inspire these discussions. Introducing concepts like “brokerage”
21 (cum “translation”), “mediation”, or “facilitation” or naming the role of “broker”
22 or “mediator” in one or more operational directives, would be interesting. The
23 relevance thereof also becomes clear, as Janet Blake spells out because “the
24 intergovernmental ICH Committee of the 2003 Convention has an opportunity
25 to inform international law through its practice in relation to participation
26 and community involvement, not only in the narrow field of cultural heritage
27 protection but more widely in any areas such as environmental law.”⁶

28 Marc Jacobs claims that the experiences of public folklore and other forms
29 of working with actors in the field of popular culture have left interesting
30 traces and techniques that can be used to develop the notion of safeguarding
31 intangible cultural heritage. In this quest, one should not restrict the
32 discussion to the usual suspects, the disciplines that deal with traditional
33 culture, but also look at other disciplines. One technique we propose here is
34 to examine in which fields concepts like “brokerage”, “consensus building” or
35 “co-governance” have been used in order to identify disciplines and schools
36 that are not often mentioned or used (for instance in this journal). Among
37 other relevant disciplines and fields (like health care brokerage), the world of
38 development aid and development brokerage seems particularly interesting.
39 Marc Jacobs explores some of the recent discussions in development studies
40 and explicitly builds the bridge, in order to mobilize these insights. The book
41 *Development Brokers and Translators. The Ethnography of Aid and Agencies*, edited in
42 2006 by David Mosse and David Lewis, was one of the reference works that lead
43 to the conference in Brussels and to this publication. David Lewis was present
44 at the conference, embodying the bridge ambitions. His contribution to the
45 volume presents a reflection about a key player in the world of development

6 Blake, UNESCO, p. 67.

1 aid: non-government organizations. He shares the perspective of studying
2 them as cultural brokers with other authors. His contribution also makes clear
3 that the discussions and challenges should take a broader perspective than
4 just intangible heritage or the Western world. In this volume, Emily Drani
5 argues that NGOs are relevant and needed for safeguarding intangible heritage
6 in Africa and presents the case of the Cross-Cultural Foundation of Uganda.
7 Ananya Bhattacharya further develops the thesis that NGOs dealing with
8 intangible heritage should be considered in relation to debates on sustainable
9 development.

10 What happens when local festive culture and politics are suggestively
11 linked to both worldwide problems (like the heritage and the responsibility
12 concerning slavery and the slave trade a few centuries ago and discrimination
13 on the basis of skin colour) and instruments of *global-politique* (like improper
14 use of vague references to the United Nations and UNESCO) is shown in the
15 essay of Albert van der Zeijden, which deals with “controversial heritage”. Is
16 “invisibility” characteristic or necessary for effective brokerage or mediation
17 and what happens if a challenge comes into the spotlights? The case study
18 which Albert van der Zeijden presents is a good illustration of the changes,
19 problems and even conflicts that may occur when the 21st century UNESCO
20 symbolic capital is injected in a field of intangible cultural heritage/popular
21 culture, in particular in combination with attention from the press and new
22 media.

23 In several case-studies in this volume, the present situation in different
24 countries and settings is examined. Notwithstanding the fact that Canada has
25 not yet ratified the 2003 Convention, provinces like Québec or Newfoundland
26 and Labrador are top of mind in discussions about good practices among
27 specialists in safeguarding intangible cultural heritage. The fact that, even
28 though Canada is not a member of the General Assembly, Dale Jarvis was
29 recently selected by the Intergovernmental Committee to be on the advisory
30 body, speaks volumes. In this issue, Dale Jarvis presents the policy and
31 interesting practices in Newfoundland and Labrador. It is an excellent example
32 of what Marc Jacobs suggested in his contribution on the relevance of public
33 folklore for the heritage paradigm. Valentina Lapiccirrella Zingari shows
34 how cultural anthropology is taking up a similar role in Italy by cultivating
35 networks and exchanges of experiences in different contexts. Veronika Filkó
36 presents a case where a museum plays an important role in trying to mobilize
37 people. She focusses on the process of developing a national Inventory of
38 ICH in Hungary. The new challenges for museums in the safeguarding
39 paradigm are also addressed in the review of Marilena Alivizatou’s reflection
40 on this topic. Lothar Casteleyn, Ellen Janssens and Jorijn Neyrinck present an
41 interesting case-study of a phase of heritage policy experiments in Flanders
42 (Belgium). The positive experience in Flanders and the lessons that there are
43 no fixed formulas for safeguarding intangible cultural heritage but that it takes
44 much work on participatory processes and translations, formed the direct
45 incentive to set up the colloquium and to produce this volume. We do think we
46 are on to something, that cultural brokerage can be a critical success factor in
47 sustainable safeguarding processes and that cultural brokers (or whatever you

1 want to call them) really are, in many interpretations of these words, critical
2 success actors.

3 Using experiences with, and literature about, “brokerage”, “mediation” and
4 “facilitation” can work as an eye-opener and as incentives to further develop
5 the safeguarding intangible cultural heritage paradigm. The delegations of
6 States Parties and other countries could consider these suggestions. It would
7 moreover be in the spirit of the convention to mobilize as many relevant
8 and competent actors and knowledge as possible to conduct this debate.
9 The tenth anniversary of the 2003 Convention provided a good momentum
10 for many initiatives to be taken: the present volume of *Volkskunde* is one of
11 the tangible results. We explicitly draw attention to the evaluation report
12 by the Internal Oversight Service in 2013.⁷ Another peak moment – also
13 according to the Intangible Cultural Heritage Section of UNESCO itself – was
14 the meeting of experts and officials who were involved in its conception and
15 development at the “Chengdu International Conference on Intangible Cultural
16 Heritage in Celebration of the Tenth Anniversary of UNESCO’s Convention
17 for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage” on 14 to 16 June
18 2013. In several of the debates and in particular in the “Round-table 5: Open
19 questions and future directions” the potential of notions like “brokerage” and
20 “mediation” was explicitly put on the table.⁸ Earlier that year, from 10 to 11
21 January 2013, a follow-up meeting of the first ICH-researchers forum on 3
22 June 2012 (just before the Fourth session of the General Assembly) in Paris,
23 took place in Tokyo, focusing on the inscription criteria of the two Lists of the
24 2003 Convention. It yielded a highly critical set of papers, and also interesting
25 bridges towards less explored areas like safeguarding endangered languages
26 or the explicit reflection by Laurajane Smith about the question if and how
27 the 2003 Convention challenges the Authorised Heritage Discourse.⁹ On the
28 occasion of the following sessions of the Intergovernmental Committee in Baku
29 in December 2013 and the General Assembly in Paris in June 2014 there were no

7 IOS, *Audit of the Working Methods of Cultural Conventions*. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002232/223256E.pdf> (02-09-2014).

8 http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?meeting_id=00328

9 L. Smith, “The Intangible Cultural Heritage Convention, a Challenge to the Authorised Heritage Discourse?”, in: *Evaluating the Inscription Criteria for the Two Lists of UNESCO’s Intangible Cultural Heritage Convention. The 10th Anniversary of the 2003 Convention. Final Report*. Osaka, International Research Centre for Intangible Cultural Heritage in the Asia-Pacific Region, 2013, p. 122-128. Other participants – *cherchez le réseau* – in the conference and the publications were Toshiyuki Kono, Cristina Chavez, Apollinaire Anakesa, Panayiota Andrianopoulou, Antonio Arantes, Chiara Bortolotto, Matthias Brenzinger, Harriet Deacon, Rieks Smeets, Chérif Khaznadar, Kristin Kuutma, Ahmed Skounti, Wim Van Zanten. M. Jacobs, “Criteria, Apertures and Envelopes. ICH Directives and Organs in Operation”, in: *Evaluating*, p. 129-137 concluded with the appeal “Why not to start work on a missing Chapter IV of the Operational Directives (after moving directives about awareness-raising to a new chapter V), expanding on Decision 7.COM.7, 6 in combination with several suggestions in 7.COM.6 and many other sources? (...) Ten years after the launch of the successful 2003 UNESCO convention, it is high time to reconsider a series of issues, e.g. about stakeholder involvement, sustainable tourism and economics, that were presented in Washington D.C. in 1999 in the form of a critical Ten Years After evaluation of the failed 1989 Recommendation”. (p. 137)

1 new meetings of the ICH researchers forum, but there were meetings of the ICH
2 NGO Forum, a structure that gained considerable momentum as a platform for
3 communication, networking, exchange and cooperation for NGOs accredited
4 by UNESCO to provide advisory services to the Intergovernmental Committee
5 in the framework of the 2003 Convention. The website www.ichngoforum.org
6 develops a tool for networking and connecting among and with NGOs, and it
7 also sets up experimental fora like *Heritage Alive*, *methodologies in the field*, where
8 experiences of community involvement can be exchanged online. A number
9 of bridges that have been introduced in this issue in *Volkskunde*, in particular
10 to the work of scholars like David Lewis and David Mosse do offer interesting
11 prospects to reflect critically on the role of NGOs both in local, national,
12 regional and international settings and in what Marc Abélès called “global-
13 politique”.¹⁰ During the yearly meetings of this Forum, cultural brokerage in
14 theory and practice has been a recurring topic of discussion.

15 It is clear that much more research and critical analysis, about the roles,
16 differences and functions of brokers, networks and NGOs, or about the notion
17 of “safeguarding”, is needed and that there are no easy and ready-made
18 solutions. However, the debates can be richer and more fruitful, and have
19 a more sustainable and positive impact, by pooling resources, among ICH
20 researchers and ICH NGO networks, and all other stakeholders involved in
21 developing the safeguarding of intangible heritage.

10 See for instance A. Bebbington, S. Hickey and D. Mitlin, *Can NGOs Make a Difference? The Challenge of Development Alternatives*. London & New York, 2007; B. Cooke & U. Kothari (eds.), *Participation. The New Tyranny?* London & New York, 2004; C. Shore, S. Wright & D. Però (eds.), *Policy Worlds: Anthropology and Analysis of Contemporary Power*. New York, Oxford, 2011; D. Mosse (ed.), *Adventures in Aidland: The Anthropology of Professionals in International Development*. New York, Oxford, 2011 and the literature mentioned in the contribution of Marc Jacobs about development brokerage.

UNESCO, makelaars en kritische succes(f)actoren in de borging van immaterieel cultureel erfgoed¹

1 In 2013 vierde de wereld de tiende verjaardag van de Conventie voor de borging
2 van immaterieel cultureel erfgoed. De Conventie is geïnspireerd door, maar
3 was ook een reactie tegen de effecten van de Conventie inzake de bescherming
4 van het cultureel en natuurlijk werelderfgoed van 1972. Het was de bedoeling
5 om nieuwe manieren te vinden (vandaar het ongewone woord “borging”) om
6 te spreken over van wat toen nog aangeduid werd als “traditionele cultuur”
7 of “folklore” en om dat te valoriseren en de overlevering ervan te faciliteren,
8 om culturele diversiteit te celebreren en om bij dit alles meer actoren zoals
9 gemeenschappen en groepen te betrekken. Verder speelden de internationale
10 druk en het doorzettingsvermogen mee om een alternatief te formuleren voor
11 (de bescherming en promotie) van “werelderfgoed”, zoals dat UNESCO-label
12 werd gebruikt voor monumenten en landschappen, in Europa en zelfs in de
13 rest van de wereld. Op 17 oktober 2003 aanvaardde de Algemene Vergadering
14 van UNESCO de tekst, waaraan honderden diplomaten en deskundigen
15 (antropologen, etnologen, “volkskundigen”, taalkundigen, juridische experts,
16 activisten van NGOs...) twee jaar lang intensief gewerkt hadden en daarover
17 een consensus hadden bereikt. Nadat in 2006 dertig landen het verdrag hadden
18 geratificeerd, kon de Conventie van kracht worden en echt in werking treden.
19 Een van de eerste belangrijke uitdagingen was om “operationele richtlijnen”
20 te maken: het interpreteren en concretiseren van de vage formuleringen in
21 de artikels van de Conventie, criteria, voorstellen om fondsen toe te wijzen
22 en om instrumenten te creëren voor de uitvoering ervan. Tussen 2006 en
23 2008 waren er diverse bijeenkomsten van het Intergouvernementeel Comité
24 en werden vele werkgroepen van experts georganiseerd en gefaciliteerd
25 door het Secretariaat (administratie) van UNESCO, terwijl ondertussen
26 steeds meer landen de Conventie ratificeerden. Tijdens deze periode zetten
27 veel experts die de conventietekst hadden geconstrueerd de discussie voort,
28 ditmaal als leden van de delegaties van de lidstaten die zitting namen in het
29 Intergouvernementele Comité of de Algemene Vergadering, of aanwezig als
30 (vooral in de wandelgangen) invloed uitoefenende waarnemers. De eerste

1 De literatuurverwijzingen vindt men in de tekst M. Jacobs, J. Neyrinck & A. van der Zeijden, “UNESCO, Brokers and Critical Success (F)Actors in Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage”. Zie Inleiding in dit nummer van *Volkskunde*, p. 249-256.

1 versie van een geconsolideerde reeks operationele richtlijnen waarmee de
2 leden van het Comité konden leven (dus een consensus) was klaar in de vroege
3 zomer van 2008 en werd door de Algemene Vergadering aanvaard in juni 2008.
4 Nu kon de Conventie pas echt in werking treden.

5 Dat betekent dat in 2013 niet alleen de tiende verjaardag werd gevierd,
6 maar ook het vijfde operationele werkjaar van de Conventie en de operationele
7 richtlijnen, die kunnen worden gewijzigd door de Algemene Vergadering van
8 de lidstaten. Ze zijn ook effectief aangepast en bijgewerkt (in de eerste plaats
9 de criteria en procedures voor de internationale lijsten in artikel 16 en 17 van
10 de Conventie) in 2010, 2012 en 2014. De laatste veranderingen waren deels
11 gebaseerd op het resultaat van een evaluatie door de Internal Oversight Service
12 van UNESCO, van de Conventie van 2003 en de operationele richtlijnen en hoe
13 die kaderteksten in de praktijk waren gebracht. In de laatste bijeenkomsten van
14 het Intergouvernementeel Comité in Baku (2013) en de Algemene Vergadering
15 in Parijs (2014) werd de uitnodiging geformuleerd tot meer aansturing en betere
16 operationele richtlijnen met het oog op borging, waarbij ook uitdagingen zoals
17 duurzame ontwikkeling, toerisme en commercialisering aangepakt worden.
18 Tevens werd opgeroepen om de rollen die niet-gouvernementele organisaties
19 (nog niet) kunnen opnemen bij het implementeren van de Conventie opnieuw
20 te overwegen. In tegenstelling tot de in steen gebeitelde conventietekst uit
21 2003 zelf, kunnen de operationele richtlijnen immers wél worden gewijzigd,
uitgebreid en opnieuw georiënteerd.

22 **De tiende verjaardag: een kans om de belangrijkste uitdagingen,** 23 **beperkingen en mogelijkheden te verkennen**

24 In 2013 deed UNESCO een wereldwijde oproep aan alle belanghebbenden die
25 betrokken zijn bij de borging van het immaterieel cultureel erfgoed om samen
26 met hen de sleuteluitdagingen, knelpunten en mogelijkheden die gerelateerd
27 zijn aan de implementatie van de Conventie in kaart te brengen en te verkennen.
28 Resultaat was een groot aantal symposia, studiedagen, campagnes en andere
29 activiteiten die op een speciale webpagina in kaart werden gebracht: <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/en/anniversary>. Vanuit de lidstaat België, meer
30 specifiek Vlaanderen, werd een internationaal colloquium voorgesteld voor
31 het programma en de website. De titel was “Immaterieel cultureel erfgoed-
32 makelaars, facilitatoren, bemiddelaars en tussenpersonen. Kritische succes(f)
33 actoren voor de borging van immaterieel cultureel erfgoed”. Het evenement
34 vond plaats in Brussel, bij FARO, op 6 november 2013, onder auspiciën van de
35 Vlaamse UNESCO-commissie. De belangrijkste organisatoren waren FARO,
36 tapis plein en de Vrije Universiteit Brussel/BREL, in samenwerking met het
37 Nederlands Centrum voor Volkscultuur en Immaterieel Erfgoed (VIE) en
38 het ICH NGO Forum, het netwerk van de NGOs verbonden aan de UNESCO-
39 Conventie. Vanuit Vlaanderen participeerde het ICE-netwerk (ICE staat voor
40 immaterieel cultureel erfgoed, zoals ICH in het Engels) en het platform www.immaterieelerfgoed.be. De titel van het ICE-netwerk verwijst naar een aantal
41 expertisecentra, gevestigd in Brussel en in Vlaanderen die zich bezighouden
42 met het cultiveren van het paradigma van het borgen van immaterieel cultureel
43

1 erfgoed: LECA-CAG-Het Firmament-Resonant-ETWIE-tapis plein en FARO.
2 Zoals duidelijk wordt in de bijdrage van Casteleyn, Janssens en Neyrinck in
3 deze bundel, omvat dit netwerk verder ook de erfgoedcellen in Vlaanderen.
4 Het begrip makelaardij kenmerkt zowel de organisaties als de mensen die
5 er werken. Ook in Nederland is er sprake van een groeiende bewustwording
6 omtrent vraagstukken die verband houden met het bemiddelen van cultuur
7 en erfgoed. Dat is de reden waarom ook de Nationale UNESCO-commissie
8 in Nederland en het VIE zich aansloten bij het initiatief van de partners in
9 Vlaanderen en Brussel. Al vóór de ratificatie van de UNESCO-Conventie door
10 de Nederlandse staat had VIE zich in 2003 als “public folklore” instelling
11 gepositioneerd, actief in “culturele makelaardij”. VIE was in dit opzicht, net
12 als organisaties in Vlaanderen, geïnspireerd door de discussies in de Verenigde
13 Staten rond dit thema, zoals bleek uit de door VIE gerealiseerde publicatie
14 *Volkscultuur van en voor een breed publiek* (Utrecht, 2003).

15 De artikelen in deze thema-aflevering van *Volkscultuur* kunnen beschouwd
16 worden als de “acta” van het colloquium in Brussel in 2013, aangevuld
17 met extra bijdragen en essays van actoren uit het ICH-NGO Forum. De
18 aankondiging van het colloquium is nog te vinden op de UNESCO-website en
19 legt uit wat de bedoeling was: “De Conventie van 2003 en de daarop volgende
20 versies van de operationele richtlijnen zijn van grote invloed op de cultureel-
21 erfgoedpraktijken en beleidskeuzes in veel natiestaten en regio’s over de hele
22 wereld. Welke lessen kunnen we trekken uit de uitvoering en evaluatie van
23 de borgingsplannen en -programma’s voor immaterieel cultureel erfgoed? Wat
24 werkt? Wat ontbreekt er? Kunnen goede praktijken uit andere erfgoedvelden
25 inspirerend zijn? Wat kunnen we leren van de ervaringen in andere sectoren,
26 zoals ontwikkelingshulp en de gezondheidszorg en andere programma’s,
27 waarin makelaars en bemiddelaars actief zijn?”

28 De centrale hypothese die we willen onderzoeken is in hoeverre de rol
29 van bemiddelaars, culturele makelaars of facilitatoren, van belang is voor
30 het welslagen van borgingsprogramma’s en participatieve processen van
31 erfgoedwerk. Verschillende woorden beschrijven deze rollen en de vaardigheden
32 die daarvoor nodig zijn. Het woord “vertalers” verwijst naar vaardigheden om
33 een gemeenschappelijke grond te vinden tussen de professionele vertogen,
34 methodes en terminologie van “bescherming/borging” of “immaterieel
35 cultureel erfgoed” aan de ene kant en de lokale praktijken en groepsprocessen
36 aan de andere kant. Zijn trefwoorden als “culturele makelaardij” of
37 “bemiddeling” geschikt om deze kritische succes(f)actoren te omschrijven?
38 Zijn deze processen beperkt tot de wereld van de NGOs of vormen ze ook een
39 uitdaging voor andere organisaties, instellingen en netwerken?”

40 Verjaardagen zijn geen begrafenissen. Met het organiseren van het
41 colloquium in 2013 en het publiceren van de bijdragen in *Volkscultuur* hebben
42 we vele ambities. De eerste ambitie is om de aandacht te vestigen op
43 specifieke rollen en functies in processen en netwerken met betrekking tot de
44 bescherming van het immaterieel cultureel erfgoed. Daarvoor willen we een
45 sensibiliserende woordenschat bieden met relevante literatuur. De nieuwe
46 focus op culturele makelaardij is ook van belang voor andere sectoren, zoals
47 onder meer blijkt uit de discussie over het betrekken van gemeenschappen

1 bij musea en andere erfgoedinstellingen. De tweede ambitie, speciaal van
2 belang voor dit tijdschrift, is dat we de recente opkomst van het immaterieel-
3 erfgoedborgingsparadigma in een langetermijnperspectief willen plaatsen, in
4 de geschiedenis van de relaties tussen “volkscultuur” en “elitecultuur” vanaf
5 de 16^{de} eeuw. In de literatuur die is verschenen sinds de jaren 1970 hebben
6 begrippen als “makelaardij”/bemiddeling of “toe-eigening” het debat verrijkt.
7 Het is tijd om die punten te verbinden, zowel om de cultuurgeschiedenis bij
8 de tijd te brengen en aan te vullen als om nieuwe disciplines zoals cultuur-
9 beleidswetenschappen te voeden met een langetermijnperspectief en (van
10 positieve en vaak negatieve) ervaringen. Ten derde willen we clusters en
11 onderdelen van de wetenschappelijke literatuur, maar ook de praktijken
12 en modellen waarover ze schrijven, met elkaar verbinden, zowel op
13 transdisciplinaire als op interdisciplinaire wijze. Wij willen, om in te spelen op
14 vragen en oproepen van Janet Blake, Richard Kurin en anderen, ervaringen met
15 succesvolle en mislukte projecten verzamelen en uitwisselen. Er is behoefte
16 aan veel meer casestudies en voorbeelden, beschrijvingen maar ook analyses
17 van beleidsexperimenten, zoals in Vlaanderen in het eerste decennium van de
18 21^{ste} eeuw, om vooruitgang te boeken.

19 **Bijdragen in deze aflevering van Volkskunde**

20 Laten we niet vergeten dat diegenen die de conventietekst hebben gemaakt
21 en nu werken aan de herziening, het uitleggen of “uitzenden” van de teksten
22 rond de Conventie, de formulieren en andere instrumenten, doorgaans als
23 “experten”, “diplomaten” of andere afgevaardigden worden voorgesteld,
24 maar dat het ook mogelijk en zelfs zinvol is hen te karakteriseren als
25 “bemiddelaars” of “makelaars”. Zij bouwen aan kaders (“frames”), vertellen
26 verhalen en combineren verschillende werelden. Het is een groep van
27 beoefenaars, diplomaten, ambtenaren en politici, die voortdurend “vertalen”,
28 die zeer bedreven zijn in het spel en de kunst van het (bouwen op) consensus
29 bouwen. Het zijn goede voorbeelden van hedendaagse internationale en
30 interdisciplinaire culturele makelaars en die in dit geval, zoals Marc Jacobs
31 stelt in zijn bijdrage over de ontwikkelingsmakelaars, leden zijn van een
32 “epistemische gemeenschap” (een begrip dat Peter Haas heeft geïntroduceerd)
33 en de wereld van “global-politique” (een begrip gelanceerd door Marc Abélès).
34 Het is geen toeval dat Richard Kurin of Chérif Khaznadar, beiden prominente
35 leden van de nationale delegaties die de tekst van de Conventie onderhandeld
36 hebben, ook bekend zijn als ontwikkelaars van cultuurmakelaardij of
37 “ethnoscenografie”. Makelaardij (“brokerage”) was de *core business* van vele
38 sleutelactoren die in het eerste decennium actief waren bij de ontwikkeling
39 van de Conventie van 2003. In deze bundel komen niet alleen experts aan
40 het woord die hebben gewerkt in de delegaties van de lidstaten, maar ook
41 mensen die zijn verbonden aan NGOs die regelmatig de vergaderingen van
42 het Intergouvernementeel Comité of de Algemene Vergadering bijwonen.
43 De bijdrage van Jorijn Neyrinck maakt duidelijk dat er hier verschillende
44 uitdagingen liggen. De NGOs – zelfs die organisaties die geaccrediteerd
45 zijn door de Algemene Vergadering – worden op dit moment nauwelijks

1 gemobiliseerd om de Conventie mee te ontwikkelen. Er is een spanningsveld
2 tussen het onvoldoende gebruiken van NGOs en de vele principes van “co-
3 governance” die in allerlei beleidsvelden, maar ook in de geest van de Conventie
4 zelf, gecultiveerd en gepromoot worden. Neyrinck pleit ervoor alle beschikbare
5 hulpbronnen in te zetten, door de huidige richtlijnen breed te interpreteren en
6 waar nodig te veranderen, te laten evolueren en te verbeteren. Het is een van de
7 doelstellingen van deze publicatie om de discussies te voeden en te inspireren.
8 De introductie van begrippen als makelaardij, met een bijzonder bijklank van
9 “vertaling”/“translatie”, “bemiddeling”, of “faciliteren”, of het benoemen van
10 de rol van “broker” of “bemiddelaar” in een of meer operationele richtlijnen,
11 zou interessant zijn. Het belang daarvan mag duidelijk zijn, want zoals Janet
12 Blake nauwkeurig heeft omschreven, heeft het Intergouvernementeel Comité
13 van de Conventie van 2003 de kans om het internationaal recht te beïnvloeden
14 door zijn praktijk rond participatie en het betrekken van gemeenschappen,
15 niet alleen in het enge veld van de bescherming van cultureel erfgoed maar
16 ook breder in allerlei domeinen zoals milieurecht.

17 Marc Jacobs stelt dat de ervaringen van “public folklore” en andere vormen
18 van werken met actoren in het veld van volkscultuur boeiende sporen en
19 technieken hebben opgeleverd, die gebruikt kunnen worden voor het verder
20 ontwikkelen van de notie van het borgen van immaterieel cultureel erfgoed.
21 In deze zoektocht moet men zich niet beperken tot de voor de hand liggende
22 disciplines die zich bezighouden met traditionele cultuur, maar ook kijken naar
23 andere disciplines. Een techniek die we hier voorstellen is om te onderzoeken
24 in welke velden begrippen als “brokerage”, “het bouwen van consensus” of
25 “co-governance” gebruikt worden, zodat we ook scholen of disciplines die niet
26 vaak genoemd of gebruikt worden (bijvoorbeeld in dit tijdschrift) in beeld
27 krijgen. Denk daarbij aan disciplines en werkvelden zoals gezondheidszorg of
28 de wereld van de ontwikkelingssamenwerking en -makelaardij. Marc Jacobs
29 verkent enkele van de recente discussies en publicaties om deze inzichten te
30 mobiliseren. Het boek *Development Brokers and Translators. The Ethnography of Aid*
31 *and Agencies*, dat in 2006 verscheen onder redactie van David Mosse en David
32 Lewis, was een van de referentiewerken die de conferentie in Brussel in 2013
33 en deze publicatie inspireerde. David Lewis was aanwezig op de conferentie
34 en belichaamde zo de ambitie om bruggen te slaan. Zijn bijdrage aan de
35 publicatie biedt een reflectie over een belangrijke speler in de wereld van de
36 ontwikkelingshulp: niet-gouvernementele organisaties. Dit perspectief om
37 deze organisaties te bestuderen als culturele makelaars deelt hij met andere
38 auteurs. Zijn bijdrage maakt ook duidelijk dat de discussies en uitdagingen
39 een breder perspectief vragen dan alleen immaterieel erfgoed of de westerse
40 wereld. In deze bundel stelt Emily Drani dat NGOs relevant en nodig zijn
41 voor de borging van immaterieel erfgoed in Afrika, waarbij ze het voorbeeld
42 van de Cross-Cultural Foundation Uganda presenteert. Ananya Bhattacharya
43 bouwt voort op de stelling dat NGOs, die actief zijn rond immaterieel erfgoed,
44 ook in overweging moeten genomen worden in debatten over duurzame
45 ontwikkeling.

46 Wat gebeurt er als lokale feestcultuur en politiek op een suggestieve wijze
47 gekoppeld worden aan zowel wereldwijde problemen (zoals het erfgoed van

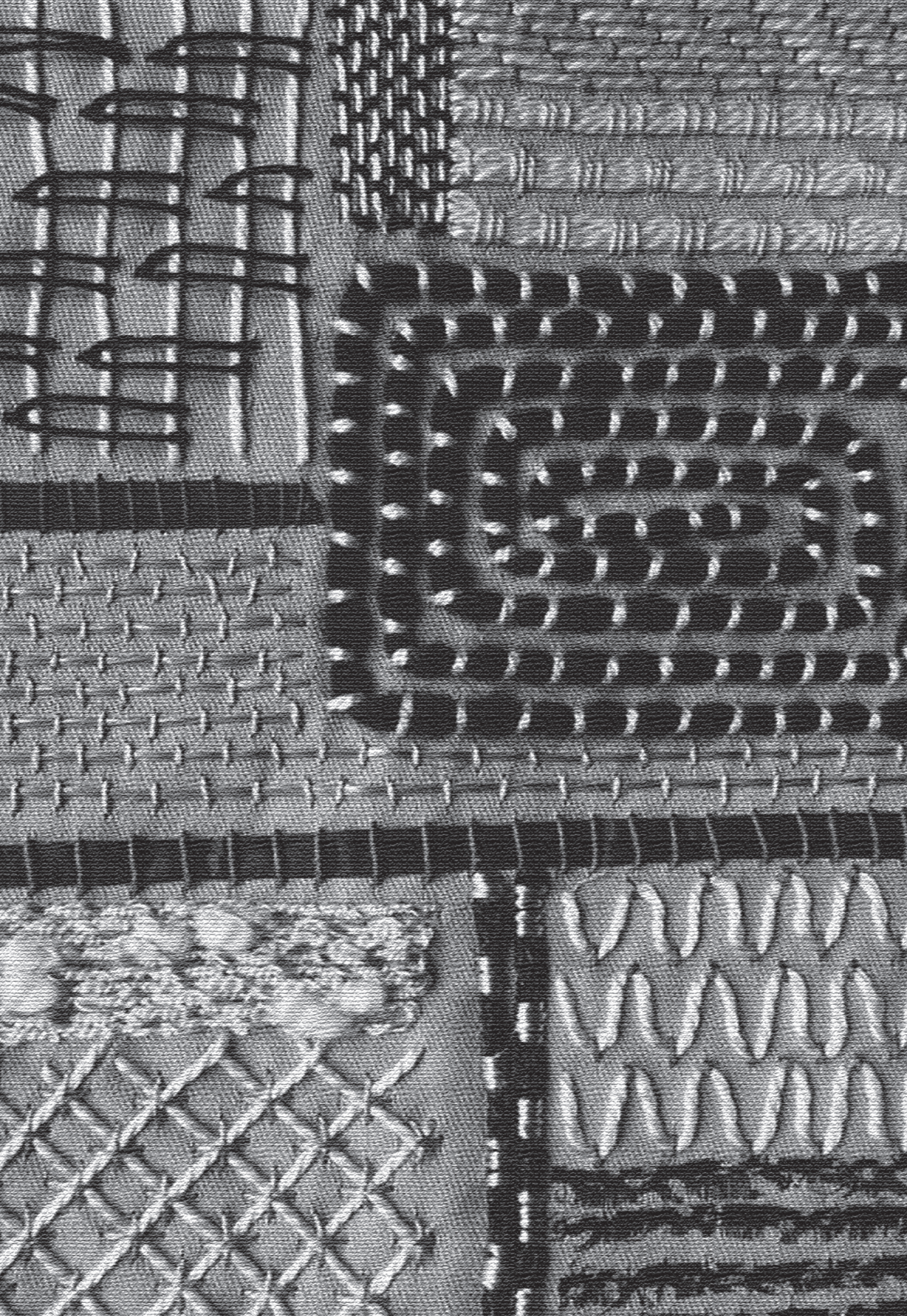
1 en de verantwoordelijkheid voor slavernij en slavenhandel van enkele eeuwen
2 geleden of discriminatie op basis van huidskleur) als de instrumenten van
3 hedendaagse “global-politique” (via vage verwijzingen naar de Verenigde
4 Naties en de UNESCO)? In het essay van Albert van der Zeijden komt het
5 begrip “controversieel erfgoed” aan bod. Is “onzichtbaarheid” een kenmerk dat
6 noodzakelijk is voor het realiseren van een effectieve vorm van makelaardij
7 of bemiddeling en wat gebeurt er wanneer de uitdaging in de schijnwerpers
8 belandt? De case study van Albert van der Zeijden biedt een goede illustratie van
9 de veranderingen, problemen en zelfs conflicten die kunnen optreden wanneer
10 in de 21^{ste} eeuw het symbolische kapitaal van UNESCO wordt geïnjecteerd in
11 het veld van immaterieel cultureel erfgoed/volkscultuur, in het bijzonder in
12 combinatie met de verhoogde aandacht van de pers en de nieuwe media.

13 In een aantal casestudies wordt de huidige situatie in verschillende landen
14 en contexten onderzocht. Ondanks het feit dat Canada de Conventie van
15 2003 nog niet heeft geratificeerd, komen provincies als Québec en Labrador-
16 Newfoundland snel op tafel als men het heeft over voorbeeldpraktijken van het
17 borgen van immaterieel erfgoed. Het feit dat – hoewel Canada geen lid is van
18 de Algemene Vergadering – Dale Jarvis onlangs door het Intergouvernementeel
19 Comité geselecteerd werd om zitting te nemen in een van hun adviesorganen,
20 spreekt boekdelen. In dit nummer presenteert Dale Jarvis het beleid en enkele
21 interessante praktijken in Labrador-Newfoundland. Het is een uitstekend
22 voorbeeld van wat Marc Jacobs stelt in zijn bijdrage over de relevantie van
23 *public folklore* voor het erfgoedparadigma. Valentina Lapiccirrella Zingari laat
24 zien hoe culturele antropologie een vergelijkbare rol op zich neemt in Italië
25 door het cultiveren van netwerken en de uitwisseling van ervaringen in
26 verschillende contexten. Veronika Filkó presenteert een voorbeeld waarbij een
27 museum een belangrijke rol speelt in het mobiliseren van mensen, onder meer
28 ten behoeve van de Nationale Inventaris Immaterieel Erfgoed in Hongarije. De
29 nieuwe uitdagingen voor musea worden ook behandeld in een recensie van
30 Marilena Alivizatou’s recente boek over dit onderwerp. Lothar Casteleyn, Ellen
31 Janssens en Jorijn Neyrinck presenteren een interessante casestudy van een
32 recente fase in het (experimenteel) erfgoedbeleid in Vlaanderen. De positieve
33 ervaringen in Vlaanderen en de lessen dat er geen vaste formules voor het
34 borgen van immaterieel cultureel erfgoed zijn, was een directe prikkel voor
35 het organiseren van het colloquium en het realiseren van deze publicatie. Wij
36 denken dat we iets op het spoor zijn, dat culturele makelaardij een kritische
37 succesfactor kan zijn in borgingsprocessen en dat culturele makelaars (of
38 hoe je hen ook wilt noemen) in vele betekenissen van die woorden, kritische
39 succesactoren zijn.

40 Het gebruikmaken van ervaringen met en literatuur over “makelaardij”,
41 “bemiddeling” en “faciliteren” kan werken als een eyeopener en een stimulans
42 zijn om het immaterieel cultureel-erfgoedparadigma verder te ontwikkelen.
43 De delegaties van de lidstaten en andere landen zouden deze suggesties in
44 overweging kunnen nemen. Het is bovendien in de geest van de Conventie
45 om zoveel mogelijk relevante en competente actoren en kennis te mobiliseren
46 om dit debat te voeren. De tiende verjaardag van de Conventie van 2003 bood
47 hiervoor een goed momentum. De huidige aflevering van *Volkskunde* is een

1 van de tastbare resultaten. Verder willen we expliciet aandacht vragen voor
2 het evaluatierapport van de Internal Oversight Service in 2013. Een ander
3 piekmoment – ook volgens de Sectie Immaterieel Cultureel Erfgoed van
4 UNESCO zelf – was de vergadering van experts en officiële vertegenwoordigers
5 die betrokken waren bij het ontwerp en de ontwikkeling van de Conventie,
6 in een internationale conferentie in Chengdu van 14 tot 16 juni 2013. In
7 verschillende debatten, en in het bijzonder in Rondetafel 5, kwamen begrippen
8 als “brokerage” en “bemiddeling” expliciet ter tafel. Een bijeenkomst van
9 onderzoekers in Tokio op 10 en 11 januari 2013 was een opvolgvergadering
10 na het eerste “ICH-researchers-forum” dat plaats had gevonden in Parijs op
11 3 juni 2012 (net voor de vierde sessie van de Algemene Vergadering). Die
12 leverde naast een aantal zeer kritische bijdragen ook interessante bruggen
13 naar minder verkende gebieden, zoals de borging van bedreigde talen, of de
14 expliciete reflectie door Laurajane Smith over de vraag of en hoe de Conventie
15 van 2003 de “Authorised Heritage Discourse” uitdaagt. Ter gelegenheid van de
16 volgende zittingen van het Intergouvernementeel Comité in Baku in december
17 2013 en de Algemene Vergadering in Parijs in juni 2014 waren er geen nieuwe
18 sessies van het ICH-onderzoekersforum, maar waren er wel vergaderingen
19 van het ICH-NGO-Forum, een structuur die wind in de zeilen heeft gekregen
20 als platform voor communicatie, uitwisseling en samenwerking van de NGOs
21 die door UNESCO geaccrediteerd zijn om in het kader van de Conventie
22 advies te verstrekken aan het Intergouvernementeel Comité. De website
23 www.ichngoforum.org ontwikkelt een tool om te netwerken en de verbindingen
24 tussen NGOs te versterken en zet ook experimentele fora op zoals *Heritage Alive*,
25 *methodologies in the field* waar ervaringen met het betrekken van gemeenschappen
26 online kunnen worden uitgewisseld. Diverse bruggen die in dit nummer van
27 *Volkskunde* worden voorgesteld, in het bijzonder het oeuvre van onderzoekers
28 zoals David Lewis en David Mosse, bieden interessante vooruitzichten om
29 kritisch te reflecteren op de rol van NGOs, zowel in lokale, nationale, regionale
30 en internationale contexten, en ook in Marc Abélès “global-politique”. Tijdens
31 de jaarlijkse vergaderingen van het ICH-NGO-Forum is culturele makelaardij
32 in theorie en praktijk herhaaldelijk een onderwerp van discussie geweest.

33 Het is duidelijk dat er veel meer onderzoek en kritische analyse nodig is over
34 de rollen en functies van makelaars, netwerken en NGOs, of over het begrip
35 “safeguarding”, maar ook dat er geen gemakkelijke kant-en-klare oplossingen
36 zijn. De debatten kunnen evenwel rijker en vruchtbaarder zijn en een meer
37 duurzame en positieve impact hebben, als de hulpbronnen gebundeld worden,
38 ook die van de onderzoekers en de ICH-NGO-netwerken, en alle andere partijen
39 die betrokken zijn bij de ontwikkeling van het borgen van immaterieel erfgoed.



Cultural Brokerage

Addressing Boundaries and the New Paradigm
of Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage

Folklore Studies, Transdisciplinary Perspectives and UNESCO

1 “How do we keep our disciplinary inheritance from going to waste?
2 We’ve built up a body of knowledge on specific genres and localities
3 and on larger histories and logics of cultural representation. We want
4 this used so that the wheel need not be reinvented by other disciplines.
5 And some of us might dare – on a good day, anyway – to claim more
6 autonomy for our scholarship.” (Dorothy Noyes, 1999)¹

7 Inter aliases

8 How do we keep our disciplinary inheritance from going to waste? The *fin-de-*
9 *siècle* lament of Dorothy Noyes, an American professor in folklore studies, is
10 more than ever valid and urgent in the second decade of the 21st century. In the
11 “field with many aliases”², which parts of the 19th- and 20th-century legacy of
12 *Volkskunde*, folklore research and the ethnology in “UNESCO Electoral Group
13 1” (Western and Southern Europe, USA & Canada) can still be used in the new
14 era and arena of intangible cultural heritage and the safeguarding paradigm?
15 Noyes’ question also applies to the groups, networks and associations of so-
16 called folklorists or amateurs who are engaged in and celebrate “folk dance”,
17 “folk costume” and “folk music”. Since 2003 they have all been diplomatically
18 invited to renounce their names and other old habits and to join the global
19 movement of safeguarding ICH. The thesis I present here is that they should
20 nevertheless also feel invited to bring and transfer at least some interesting
21 tools and experiences, such as the ones identified in the 1990s, with scholarly
22 words like “cultural (heritage and/or development) brokerage” on the one
23 hand, and practical “*ethnoscénologie*”³ (as was cultivated in the *Maison des cultures*
24 *du monde* in Paris, under Chérif Khaznadar) or “culture brokerage” (as was
25 promoted in the recent past by Richard Kurin at the Smithsonian Institution)
26 on the other hand.

1 D. Noyes, “Provinces of Knowledge; or, Can You Get Out of the Only Game in Town?”, *Journal of Folklore Research* 36: 2/3, 1999, p. 253-258, p. 255.

2 R. Bendix, “From Volkskunde to the ‘Field with Many Names’: Folklore Studies in German Speaking Europe”, in: R. Bendix & G. Hasan-Rokem (eds.), *Folklore Companion*. Oxford, 2012, p. 364-392.

3 C. Khaznadar, “Les Arts traditionnels”, in: *Les spectacles des autres. Questions d’ethnoscénologie II*. Paris, 2001, p. 17-24.

1 I do think it is worthwhile that folklore and folklore studies both go through
2 the pre- and liminal phase of a strict vocabulary regime (both in the sense of
3 slimming down, finding a new balance and respecting the temporary rules of
4 the rites of passage) that has started a decade ago. But the next (post-liminal)
5 decade (or two), feeding the new paradigm with tested terms (like cultural,
6 culture or development brokerage) is needed to sustainably develop the new
7 paradigm.

8 Noyes could not avoid bringing the colorfully overdressed, dancing and
9 noisy folklore artists into the picture while discussing public action and
10 brokerage. They are represented via a male protagonist of the world of “levend
11 volksleven” (living folklife), active in the IOV (International Organization of
12 Folk Art). She met him while visiting her brother, who married and lived in
13 Belgium. Her father-in-law’s neighbor was presented to her as the organizer
14 of folk dance festivals, including an international festival near Kortrijk. He
15 was then a pivotal figure and international correspondent in international
16 folk art networks and the owner of a specialized library that even included
17 publications (that she had never heard of before) from organizations in
18 her own and her husband’s (folk-dancing) backyard in the US. “He was the
19 Flemish representative to UNESCO’s heritage organization, of which I hadn’t
20 then heard and still know nothing ... Who is the effective cultural broker? He
21 is. Who is what the world recognizes as a folklorist? He is ... The man from
22 Flanders has more influence than I do ... he is the kind of person who calls
23 himself a folklorist, who is not ashamed of the word.”⁴ Without mercy – or
24 is it with a high dose of reflexivity – this American scholar questioned the
25 trending topics the academic world indulged in in the 1990s and confronted
26 them with the parallel universe of celebrating enhanced folk identity markers:
27 “But the population that was once central, the rural and provincial, has now
28 disappeared – or we wish it would. We’re all interested in the politics of a
29 Muslim headscarf in a French school, but we’re all embarrassed by this man in
30 Flanders with his clubhouse full of costumes. Unfortunately he keeps talking
31 and giving visibility to our outmoded concepts.”⁵

32 The 2003 UNESCO Convention deliberately tried to reject and outdate both
33 the vocabulary of traditional European folklore studies in the “metropolis”
34 and in “the provinces” on the one hand and that of folklore/folklorists on
35 the other hand. The “inter alia” description of the domains in article 2 of the
36 2003 convention covers part of the activities, subjects or even canons of these
37 actors and their disciplines. But the main purpose is not only research, but
38 also something called “safeguarding”. The global endeavor to cultivate a new
39 paradigm was one of “translation”, not only of expressing something in other
40 words, but also in the sense of a movement.⁶ The idea is captured in the title
41 of a book edited by David Mosse and David Lewis: *Development Brokers and*

4 Noyes, *Provinces*, p. 255-256.

5 Idem, p. 256.

6 M. Callon, “Some Elements of a Sociology of Translation: Domestication of the Scallops and the Fishermen of St Brieuc Bay”, in: J. Law (ed.), *Power, Action and Belief: A New Sociology of Knowledge?*. London, 1986, p. 196-223.

1 *Translators.*⁷ They, and I, refer to “translations” in the sense of the word as used
2 in actor-network theory, combined with processes of brokerage: *in casu*, an
3 attempt to move beyond simply describing, protecting and showcasing folklore
4 and traditional culture and to reboot the operating system. What makes it so
5 tricky to understand or even discuss what is happening today, is that partial or
6 superficial translations, in the sense of just replacing or superimposing words
7 while otherwise carrying on business as usual, are also possible.

8 This is a crucial issue in the current debate about the role of accredited
9 NGOs in the implementation and development of the new paradigm, and how
10 to evaluate them. It would for instance be an interesting but quite difficult
11 project to study what happened with the aforementioned “International
12 Organization of Folk Art” (IOV) (and in particular the content of the V),
13 not only in their global central bodies but also in the regional and national
14 member-organizations before and after the publication of the Operational
15 Directives of the UNESCO Convention in 2008. The IOV was founded in 1979
16 as the *Internationale Organisation für Volkskunst* (IOV) in the Flemish village of
17 Oostrozebeke and has branched out all over the world. Keywords were “*Volk*”,
18 “*Volkskultur*” and “*Volkskunst*”. Surely the evolution towards keeping the
19 abbreviation of a German name (instead of IOFA or IOFA&ICH) and an Austrian
20 legal address, but explaining it with an English name, speaks volumes? The
21 official discourse of the IOV that all its activities should result in world peace
22 is very much compatible with UNESCO-speak. Over the last few years the
23 organization has also started to use “intangible cultural heritage” as another
24 key term in its communication and marketing, although it has not replaced
25 “folk art” (which is a taboo term in the new UNESCO paradigm), in particular
26 in the national associations. In 2010, the IOV did obtain an accreditation as
27 an NGO on the basis of the easy criteria and superlight procedure foreseen in
28 the operational directives (2008) of the 2003 convention.⁸ But what does this
29 really mean? How does an organization like this deal with the “inappropriate
30 language” campaign run by the organs of the UNESCO Convention?⁹

31 And how does a discipline like “folklore studies” deal with a paradigm
32 that is whipped into shape by avoiding the central concept in the name of
33 the discipline itself? Let us not forget that, thanks to thorough deconstruction

7 D. Lewis & D. Mosse (eds.), *Development Brokers and Translators. The Ethnography of Aid and Agencies*. Bloomfield, 2006. See the article M. Jacobs, “Development Brokerage, Anthropology and Public Action. Local Empowerment, International Cooperation and Aid: Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage”, *Volkskunde*, this volume.

8 Compare the critical entry in the UNESCO NGO-database (consulted on 11/7/2014) <http://ngo-db.unesco.org/1/or/en/1100001553> with the file <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/doc/download.php?versionID=02459> and the accreditation by the General Assembly of the 2003 UNESCO Convention in 2010: <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?pg=00283&lg=en>

9 See the systematic references to inappropriate language in the documents of the Intergovernmental Committee on www.unesco.org/culture/ICH: for instance 5.COM 6 paragraph 26 (RL, 2010); 6.COM 13 paragraph 27 (RL, 2011), 7.COM 1 paragraph 24 (RL, 2012), Document 8.COM 8 paragraphs 26 (RL, 2013). The strategy is analysed in: M. Jacobs, “Is “folklore” “appropriate language” in the 21st century? The 2003 UNESCO convention in policy and practice: a new safeguarding paradigm”, *Folklore* (submitted in 2014).

1 work in the UNESCO Electoral Group I area by influential networks of avant-
2 garde interdisciplinary researchers in the last two decades of the 20th century,
3 this scientific discipline is to a great extent the source of the “inappropriate
4 language” strategy, via UNESCO, partly by means of torpedoing phenomena
5 covered by the 1989 UNESCO Recommendation on “folklore” and “traditional
6 culture”. The critical reflexive and deconstruction modus has tackled,
7 debunked, undermined, contaminated, exposed and problematized concepts
8 like “authenticity”, “ethnicity”, “folk”, “age old origins”, “pure”, “uniqueness”
9 etc. This movement peaked in the Low Countries at the end of the 20th century
10 and was marked by the attempt by the Meertens Institute in the Netherlands
11 to impose the concept of “Nederlandse etnologie” as an obligatory passage
12 point.¹⁰ But fifteen years later, this bid has ended and has been watered down to
13 “European ethnology”, “etnologie”, “antropologie”, “culturele studies”, “levend
14 erfgoed en cultuur van alledag”, “volkskunde” and other names, as flavors in
15 the field with many aliases. Some of the major effects of the cheeky attempted
16 move by the scholarly networks in and related to the Meertens Institute had,
17 paradoxically, a real impact on policies and legal frameworks. In Flanders, this
18 resulted in the inclusion of “etnologie” and the Meertens’ definition of popular
19 culture in the Flemish cultural heritage decree of 2008 and 2012. Via the Dutch
20 UNESCO Commission and the Flemish and Dutch delegations at the UNESCO
21 meetings, the sensitivity to and interventions in vocabulary had an effect on
22 the new UNESCO paradigm, in particular via the work on a glossary.¹¹

23 In the first ten years after the 2003 Convention was launched, dominant
24 segments of the “field with many names” and/or policy-makers in England, the
25 federal level in Canada, the Netherlands and Germany tried to ignore, neglect
26 or downplay the UNESCO instrument and the worldwide movement that was
27 stirred up. Would it blow over like the 1989 Recommendation’s gentle breeze
28 that wafted over the same subjects? It did not, but turned into a worldwide
29 front of successive hurricanes (let us call them Koïchiro, Noriko, Rieks, Frank,
30 Cécile, Irina *et al.*). Can more than 150 other nation states that ratified within a
31 decade and are at least trying to use the new instrument be wrong? While the
32 dominance of the Authorized Heritage Discourse continues to block progress
33 in English heritage networks in relation to UNESCO, policy-makers and a
34 snowball movement of heritage actors (like the VIE) in the Netherlands and
35 Germany have finally crawled into the global arena. In the United States, there
36 were the early involvement and reflexive comments by Richard Kurin, Barbara
37 Kirshenblatt-Gimblett and others, and the role and enormous impact of Frank
38 Proschan once he was recruited by UNESCO.

10 See T. Dekker, H. Roodenburg & G. Rooijackers (eds.), *Volkscultuur. Een inleiding in de Nederlandse Etnologie*. Nijmegen, 2000; M. Jacobs, “Afscheid van het volksleven: een stevige synthese”, *Mores. Tijdschrift voor volkscultuur in Vlaanderen* 1:4, 2000, p. 9-14; M. Jacobs, “Met als gevolg dat elke generatie opnieuw dat vak uitvindt’. Van een discipline met een millenniumbug tot een vak met een inleiding”, *Oost-Vlaamse Zanten. Tijdschrift voor volkscultuur in Vlaanderen* 76, 2001, p. 115-131 and M. Jacobs & G. Rooijackers, “Etnologie, volkscultuur, erfgoed en dagelijks leven”, *CULTUUR. Tijdschrift voor etnologie* 1-1, 2005, p. 3-21.

11 W. van Zanten (ed.), *Glossary Intangible Cultural Heritage*. The Hague, Netherlands National Commission for UNESCO, 2002 (<http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/doc/src/00265.pdf>).

1 But some transatlantic doors were slammed with a loud bang after the
2 acceptance of Palestine as a member of UNESCO in 2012. This resulted in the
3 US and Israel no longer paying the obligatory contributions and a de facto
4 budgetary attack by those countries on the work and structures of UNESCO. I
5 hope to be proved wrong, but I fear that these factors contributed to the fact
6 that the momentum has been lost for USA folklore studies in Group I to step in,
7 pick up and reinforce the role that was played around the turn of the century.

8 In this article I will not focus on the deconstructive iceberg of which the
9 “inappropriate language” remarks are just the tip. I will focus on a specific set
10 of experiences, concepts, practices and methods that were very present in the
11 decade before the 2003 Convention and that are more useful than ever today,
12 in the hope of linking it to and hooking it onto the following episodes of the
13 safeguarding paradigm. This is where “cultural brokerage” comes into the
14 picture.

15 **Forms of Public Intellectual Practice in the United States**

16 We should pick up several threads where they were left at the end of the
17 previous century, starting with the *Journal of Folklore Research*, in which the
18 essay by Dorothy Noyes that I quoted above was also published. In 1999, this
19 American journal published a special double issue under the title: “*Cultural*
20 *brokerage. Forms of Intellectual Practice in Society*”. In a follow-up article in the
21 2000 volume, Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett added comments. All this was the
22 fall-out of the conference “Public Folklore: Forms of Intellectual Practice in
23 Society” held in Bad Homburg in 1998, when American and German-speaking
24 European scholars confronted practices and discourses.

25 The first two sentences of the introductory essay to the 1999 issue by Regina
26 Bendix and Gisela Welz tell a whole story about 20th-century folklore studies:
27 “The contours of fields of learning and disciplinary labels share surface
28 similarities from one country to the next beyond the Western hemisphere. Yet
29 the particulars of knowledge production and the circumstances of the use and
30 absorption of societal knowledge remain nationally, regionally, sometimes
31 even institutionally specific.”¹² These remarks shatter the illusions about
32 universality that the hard sciences cherish and capture the reality of scientific
33 production in humanities departments. But would globalization, the World
34 Wide Web or the online web of science not change the game?¹³

35 In 1999, Regina Bendix and Gisela Welz reflected on the growing mobility
36 of people, things, ideas and instant electronic messages: a reconfiguration of
37 social geography marked by the growth of connections between people. A new
38 word was needed that could perform more functions than “public folklore”:
39 “The concept of cultural brokerage emerged as a joint preoccupation across
40 national boundaries and across academic and public sectors of work ... As
41 students of culture, no matter where we work, we are entangled in all that is

12 R. Bendix & G. Welz, “‘Cultural Brokerage’ and ‘Public Folklore’ within a German and American Field of Discourse”, *Journal of Folklore Research* 36: 2/3, 1999, p. 111-125, p. 111.

13 M. Jacobs, “A.V.E. Janus”, *Volkskunde* 113, 2011, p. 183-195.

1 contained in brokering, particularly social, political, ethical and – pervading
2 everything else – economic considerations.”¹⁴ In their late 20th-century
3 discipline of folklore studies (or *Volkskunde*), Bendix and Welz saw much more
4 readiness in the United States to confront the challenges of a globalizing
5 cultural economy head-on than in Europe.¹⁵ Had folklorists in America also
6 not been more successful in public institution-building and proposing ethical
7 and other guidelines for practice outside the academy?

8 Roger Abrahams debunked these aspirations and narratives, by skeptically
9 suggesting that run-of-the-academic-mill actors in folklore studies tend to
10 niggle and to think small. He even suggested that those who have been able to
11 think bigger (like the Dell Hymeses, Ralph Rinzlers, Bob Cantwells or Richard
12 Kurins) were not trained as folklorists, nor did they self-identify as such.
13 Abrahams dismisses and sweeps aside the dichotomy between public and
14 academic folklorists and sees it as a continuum, as part of the same repertoire:
15 “most public folklorists do not regard their professional pursuits as distinct
16 from the scholarly enterprise but rather as research that employs presentation
17 or representation, discursive strategies that are simply alternatives to the
18 specialized article, monograph, or book. This apparent opposition within the
19 field is made all the more problematic insofar as we share – with other cultural
20 disciplines – a decentering of our basic terms and a reconsideration of the
21 canon that has animated our proceedings for the last two centuries.”¹⁶

22 The crucial developments in the United States in the golden years of the
23 1960s and early 1970s have been described and examined at length elsewhere.
24 We are referring here in first place to the creation and realization of the
25 Folklore Programs of the Smithsonian Institution and in particular the Festival
26 of American Folklife since 1967. Also the Folk Arts Program in the National
27 Endowment of the Arts in 1973 sparked many initiatives. In the Library of
28 Congress in Washington D.C. the founding of the American Folklife Center in
29 1976 was the reward for the long-term lobby work by Archie Green.¹⁷

30 In 1987 a series of sessions of the American Folklore Society in Albuquerque
31 put the public folklore movement explicitly on the agenda. They tried to
32 avoid deepening the distinction between applied and unapplied (meaning
33 “academic”) folklore. So in 1987 they talked about “public folklore” as part
34 of the broader concept of “folklore studies”. A generation of scholars started
35 asking for inclusion and recognition and begged to be taken seriously by
36 masters and deans in academic corporations. This was reinforced in “Mistaken
37 dichotomies”, a famous intervention by Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, which
38 was published in *The Journal of American Folklore* in 1988. Together with other
39 articles it was included in a groundbreaking and pioneering book on *Public*

14 Bendix & Welz, *Cultural*, p. 111.

15 A notable exception is the work on intercultural communication, inspired by *Volkskunde*, propagated by Klaus Roth and his team in Munich.

16 R. Abrahams, “American Academic and Public Folklore: Late Twentieth-Century Musings”, *Journal of Folklore Research* 36:2/3, 1999, p. 127-137, p. 128.

17 See e.g. Abrahams, *American*, passim; R. Cantwell, *Ethomimesis: Folklife and the Representation of Culture*. Chapel Hill, 1993.

1 *Folklore*, edited by Robert Baron and Nick Spitzer and first published by the
2 Smithsonian Institution Press in 1992. Kirshenblatt-Gimblett identified four
3 aspects in the public folklore agenda in the 1980s: advocacy, representation,
4 art and critical discourse. She questioned the suggestion that folklorists
5 working in public sectors are so dependent on government funding that it
6 limited their critical potential or make them lose sight of the bigger picture:
7 “the emancipatory potential of folklore as praxis, that is, how what we do
8 as folklorists can be of socially redeeming value in ways that go beyond
9 celebration.”¹⁸ Kirshenblatt-Gimblett stated that the academy could fill that gap
10 if necessary and satisfy the need for a so-called critical discourse independent
11 of advocacy.

12 In 1999 Robert Baron proposed going beyond this limited program put
13 forward by Kirshenblatt-Gimblett and really transcending the dichotomy by
14 also questioning the distinction between practice and theory and by training
15 people in both. He regretted that “ethnographic” practice was marginal in
16 contemporary academic training and discourse.¹⁹ Photography, filming and
17 audio recording were and still are not really “practiced” a lot when training
18 as a folklorist. The transfer of theory or field history awareness, the eclectic
19 mobilization of concepts for sensitizing, debunking or deconstructing were
20 promoted actively: a good thing, but not enough. Baron called for hands-
21 on training in the art of documentation and representation, but also for
22 reflexivity. He argued for reflection on the importance of “inscription” (on
23 carriers like sound, letters or images) in (as the word implies) ethno-graphy.
24 Why not develop Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett’s thesis that “folklore is a
25 discipline made and defined by technology and especially by technologies
26 of communication”?²⁰ It is not only a matter of making a good recording,
27 but also being able to put it on stage. Folklorists should acquire the skills
28 that enable them to make sure that, for instance, sound checks are possible,
29 that appropriate sound amplification is present and that technicians work
30 adequately and are guided in the optimization of the interaction between and
31 the experience of musicians and the audience. He or she should know “when
32 and how to act in a mediative role to apply knowledge and expertise”. Through
33 cumulative experience, the folklorist acquires what Bourdieu calls “a feel for
34 the game”.²¹ This could be extended to making radio programs, television
35 programs and documentaries, literarily staging performances (on proscenium
36 stages). Baron emphasized the importance of cultivating “presentation skills”,
37 both to create a context for performances and to conduct workshops to enable
38 artists to do self-presentations. The mediation work in museums, including

18 B. Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, ‘Mistaken Dichotomies’, in: R. Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*. Jackson, 2007, p. 29-48, p. 33.

19 But do note the Cooperstown Graduate Program (CGP: <http://www.oneonta.edu/academics/cgp/index.html>), that after being established by Louis C. Jones and Bruce Buckley in the 1960s, was conducting interesting experiments and was offering an academic degree in American Folklore until 1979.

20 R. Baron, ‘Theorizing Public Folklore Practice – Documentation, Genres of Representation, and Everyday Competencies’, *Journal of Folklore Research* 36: 2/3, 1999, p. 185-201, p. 188.

21 Idem, p. 190.

1 community collaboration, should also be taken – and trained – seriously.²²
2 All this added up to presenting public folklore as a framework that includes
3 mediation, cultural brokerage, empowerment, use of old and new media and
4 mobilizing tested representational practices.

5 In the last article in the 1999 issue of the *Journal of Folklore Research*, Richard
6 Kurin made some crucial comments, pointing to the possibility of new fax-to-
7 fax communication (obsolete 15 years later) and the internet (in global use 15
8 years later) yielding postmodern global forms of folklore that coexist with the
9 efforts of elders to maintain the oral transmission of their tales: “While some
10 communities may be running from their past, others think they are running
11 toward it.”²³ Of course, these evolutions could be interpreted by folklorists and
12 other scholars as nice new trending topics for students and peer reviewed
13 articles, “subject matter as interesting grist for their professional mill”. But
14 Kurin believed that folklorists concerned with human cultural rights can
15 offer more activist contributions, not just as commentators, but taking more
16 responsibility: “Their brokerage is achieved through collaborative work..., a
17 matter of helping people grapple with institutions and situations of power. The
18 struggle and reconciliation with modernity, and now with postmodernity, is
19 seen by such brokers – with varying degrees of accuracy, and impact – from the
20 perspective of a cultural community and some of its exemplary practitioners.”²⁴
21 This is what public folklorists like Mary Hufford or Robert Baron were doing in
22 “a real-time ethnographic present”, brokering and translating between groups,
23 communities, policy-makers, politicians and professionals in different
24 disciplines. “Public folklore thus becomes an exercise of cultural democracy, a
25 way of carving out space, time, and value for the exercise of certain lifeways.”²⁵

26 **Culture brokerage and brokers according to Richard Kurin (1997)**

27 In 1997, Richard Kurin outed or self-fashioned himself as a “culture broker”.
28 He tried to distill some lessons from his experiences as the director of the
29 Smithsonian’s Center for Folklife Programs and Cultural Studies and in other
30 functions since 1976, and also from his fieldwork and publications as an
31 anthropologist in Punjab (Pakistan). While he was writing in the middle of the
32 1990s, he sensed a communication revolution taking place: “Home pages for
33 individuals, communities, institutions, and even nations have within a year
34 or two become a widespread electronic means of cultural self-representation,
35 of people brokering themselves.”²⁶ This would change and expand the
36 importance of “culture brokerage” as he defined it, as a form of “public cultural

22 An interesting development in the late 20th and early 21st century is the strong investment in developing programs on “folklore” in schools. See for instance the work done by Paddy Bowman of Local Learning: The National Network for Folk Arts in Education, see <http://locallearningnetwork.org/> and the handbook http://locallearningnetwork.org/index.php/download_file/-/view/323/

23 R. Kurin, “Time Has Come Today”, *Journal of Folklore Research* 36:2/3, 1999, p. 299-302.

24 Idem, p. 301.

25 Idem, p. 302.

26 R. Kurin, *Reflections of a Culture Broker. A View from the Smithsonian*. Washington & London, 1997, p. 270.

1 representation” (to mass audiences): exhibitions in museums, recording,
2 films, television, radio programs and more and more activities on the web.

3 Kurin shared experiences and lessons that have to be repeated over and
4 over again to newcomers, outsiders and newly appointed politicians and
5 policy makers: “Representations of peoples, cultures, and institutions do
6 not just happen. They are mediated, negotiated, and yes, brokered through
7 often complex processes with myriad challenges and constraints imposed by
8 those involved, all of whom have their own interests and concerns ... Making
9 these decisions necessitates due consideration of the meanings held by the
10 participants, the public and the press, the power of the people involved, and
11 the fiscal resources, expenditures and impacts. Like other forms of brokerage,
12 cultural dealings rely on an extensive base of knowledge, formal and
13 experiential, but they are, in the end, an art.”²⁷

14 Kurin borrowed the concept of “strategic brokering” from Robert Reich and
15 tweaked it to explain what he does: “Strategic brokers are symbolic analysts
16 – they manipulate symbols, they simplify reality into abstract images, which
17 are rearranged, juggled, experimented with, communicated to others, and
18 then transformed back into reality. The tools of the trade ... may allow for
19 communication, problem solving, and emergent innovation.”²⁸

20 Brokering culture is often a complex operation, multidimensional, with
21 unpredictable outcomes. For “volkskunde”, folklore studies, or management or
22 safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage, Kurin’s warning is clear: “Culture
23 brokers are bound by and caught up in the symbolic worlds of their institutions
24 and disciplines, often having to broker them as much as the “peoples” and
25 the “audiences” they bring together.”²⁹ Because they work in the open, in the
26 spotlights and with high visibility, the products and even the processes they
27 develop may upset curatorial and scholarly colleagues.

28 In the final chapter of his book, Kurin pleaded for a reconsideration of
29 the positions, methods and strategies of cultural workers in the 21st century.
30 He detected a problem in the 1990s (partly because of the introduction and
31 proliferation of websites and the internet in that decade): “Unfortunately,
32 cultural scholars and curators are being outgunned and eclipsed by politicians,
33 journalists, filmmakers, television procedures, theme park operators,
34 public relations firms, tour operators, corporate marketeers, novelists,
35 and Webmeisters. Even community groups, native peoples’ organizations,
36 and grassroots activists are out in front of scholars and curators in terms
37 of representing their cultures and brokering those representations with
38 larger publics – witness, for example, the profusion of Web sites for such
39 groups.”³⁰ Kurin admitted that the curators and scholars have a research-
40 based understanding of culture and erudition to contribute, reinforced by the
41 prestige value of their institutions, but he also emphasized that more is needed
42 if they want to remain relevant and useful voices, hands, minds and actors.

27 Idem, *Reflections*, p. 13.

28 Idem, p. 19.

29 Idem, p. 22.

30 Idem, p. 266.

1 The new developments and forms of globalization will also influence
2 state-formation processes. Kurin claimed that “culture affects the coherence
3 and viability of nations. This is not the “culture” of high society, the elite
4 arts, or the commercial media. Rather it is the culture of ordinary people as
5 expressed in daily life, on special occasions, and in trying times.”³¹ In the 19th
6 and 20th centuries, nations were forged, constructed and articulated, linked
7 to images of a population supposedly native, speaking a particular language
8 and wearing so-called national costumes. These forms of culture were used by
9 “nationalists” to fight against colonial powers or imperialist ambitions (as the
10 Baltic States demonstrated before and after 1989). As the new millennium was
11 approaching, Kurin also noticed more and more attempts to redefine national
12 culture in religious and often fundamentalist terms. On the other hand, in
13 addition to the proliferation of free trade zones and the development of, for
14 instance, the European institutions, Kurin saw the growing importance of
15 “institutions of globalism”, like the United Nations and UNESCO, which were
16 trying to define “a new global consensus. Global agreements and standards for
17 ethical and legal conduct, human rights, and environmental policy have been
18 forged and applied.”³² The new actors are not only supranational, but can also
19 be transnational or non-governmental organizations that can broad-cast their
20 message more easily and widely than before.

21 Looking ahead to the 21st century, Kurin predicted that the relations
22 between culture, tourism and economics would gain importance and take a
23 central place on the agenda: “Culture is increasingly commodified, packaged,
24 and marketed for use in a rapidly expanding culture industry. The ways in
25 which cultural production is exploited will be a key economic issue in the
26 early twenty-first century ... At issue is who does the representing to whom,
27 who makes money from it, and at what cost.”³³ Disneyfication, tourism,
28 entertainment and commercial displays will become more and more on the
29 agenda.

30 The search for balances between cultural conservation, environmental
31 preservation and economic development is on the agenda. Issues of cultural
32 property, benefit sharing, marketing or tourism have to be put in the picture:
33 “And despite what scholars, as purists, might like, local folks need money.”³⁴
34 Grassroots development agencies are learning: “that economic power can
35 be used to promulgate and preserve their culture and that their culture may
36 be valuable for fueling their economy.”³⁵ And in that front zone, brokerage is
37 important, as is not leaving it to chance: “In order for people to achieve local-
38 level cultural and economic viability, training and experience are helpful.

31 Idem, p. 266.

32 Idem, p. 270.

33 Idem, p. 272.

34 Idem, p. 274.

35 Idem, p. 275.

1 Strategic enhancement of local-level institutions, sometimes families and
2 clans, sometimes church groups, other times community organizations and
3 cooperatives, may be necessary.”³⁶

4 The threats and opportunities were clear, but there was a problem.
5 Anthropology, folklore studies and other disciplines were not ready at the
6 end of the 20th century. There were not, and still are not enough convincing
7 studies or literature: “There are few practitioners, little theory and a poor base
8 of useful research from which the world over can draw.”³⁷

9 **Local empowerment and international cooperation, according to** 10 **Kurin and McCann (1999)**

11 In addition to the special brokerage issue of the *Journal of Folklore Research* and
12 the *Reflections of a Culture Broker*, there is another thread from the late 1990s
13 we can pick up, another *view from the Smithsonian*, that is already inscribed in
14 the mainstream genealogies of the 2003 convention.³⁸ What went wrong with
15 the UNESCO Recommendation on the Safeguarding of Traditional Culture
16 and Folklore (Paris, 15 November 1989)? This was the central question of an
17 international conference at the Smithsonian Institution (Washington D.C.),
18 co-organized with the UNESCO Secretariat in 1999.³⁹

19 A Smithsonian think tank centered on Richard Kurin, Anthony McCann,
20 Anthony Seeger and others provided some remarkable answers. One of their
21 major recommendations was that the number of actors had to be expanded:
22 “The groups whose institutional activities are addressed by the 1989 document
23 are primarily research scholars and government cultural workers. These
24 must be expanded to include local groups of producers, non-governmental
25 organizations, and various private-sector institutions in the culture industry
26 whose business interests from research to marketing intersect with the
27 activities of folklore and traditional culture.” Although they do not mention this
28 intermediary role (in contrast, for instance, to the publications of Kurin I have
29 just discussed), there is a great need for brokers, translators and mediators to
30 facilitate this broad collaboration and to manage the combination of different
31 frames of reference, goals, agendas and interests.

32 A very nuanced observation the McCann group made in 1999, is more
33 topical than ever: “The creators and perpetuators of folklore and traditional
34 culture may need protection from market forces and/or support for alternate
35 forms of exchange if that is their desire; or they may need help in devising

36 Idem, p. 275.

37 Idem, p. 276.

38 N. Aikawa-Faure, ‘From the Proclamation of Masterpieces to the Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage’, in: L. Smith and N. Akagawa (eds.), *Intangible Heritage*. London & New York, 2009, p. 13-44 and N. Aikawa-Faure, ‘La Convention de l’UNESCO pour la sauvegarde du patrimoine culturel immatériel et sa mise en œuvre’, in: C. Khaznadar, *Le patrimoine culturel immatériel à la lumière de l’Extrême-Orient*. Paris, 2009, p. 13-46.

39 P. Seitel (ed.), *A Global Assessment of the 1989 Recommendation on the Safeguarding of Traditional culture and folklore: Local Empowerment and International Cooperation*. Washington D.C., 2001 and <http://www.folklife.si.edu/resources/unesco/index.htm>

1 ways to participate in the market, if that is their desire. The choice of protection
2 or participation is perhaps nowhere as problematic as in the area of tourism,
3 which can bring benefits to local communities if they can participate with
4 some degree of control and share in income generated, but which can also
5 have negative, culturally destructive side effects.”⁴⁰

6 In the article, the McCann group hinted at the fact there was something
7 problematic with old school folklore scholarship: “While it is nowhere specified
8 in that document, one could assume from reading the Recommendation that
9 it envisions a dangerous nineteenth-century idealization of “one nation, one
10 ethnicity”. This had to be avoided and neutralized, by opening up the scope.
11 Another expansion was needed in the description and more democratic access
12 to “the roles that are to be played by the different parties to the policy. Access
13 to those roles ... should not be assumed to be reserved for scholars.”

14 Looking back with the advantage of knowing what happened subsequently,
15 we have to emphasize that unfortunately the McCann team formulated their
16 suggestions and conclusions within the register and language of folk, folklore
17 and traditional culture, and failed to foresee how it would be done at UNESCO:
18 by a major translation trajectory centered on new interpretations of the concepts
19 of “safeguarding” and “intangible cultural heritage”. In their essay they bet on
20 a different horse and even tried to reject the concept of intangible cultural
21 heritage: “It is felt that some terms are used in the 1989 *Recommendation* to name
22 aspects of folklore and traditional culture in ways that embed them in practices
23 prejudicial to their continued existence. Principal among the questioned
24 terms is “intangible cultural heritage” itself. To be sure, the term makes sense
25 within the administrative logic of UNESCO, where it is theoretically equal and
26 opposite to “tangible cultural heritage”. But it is strongly felt that describing
27 folklore and traditional culture as “intangible” weakens its assessed worth.
28 The term does not define folklore in a way that implicates the significance
29 of its social role. The phrase “community-based culture” applied to folklore,
30 for example, implies shared values and resources for collective action.”⁴¹
31 Unfortunately they were not able to foresee the future article 15 of the 2003
32 UNESCO Convention and how the concept of “safeguarding” would be used, as
33 an empowered cluster of words, concepts, ideas and associations (indeed, like
34 community-based culture, which is implicit in the newly interpreted notion
35 of safeguarding).

36 At the Smithsonian conference in 1999, Lyndel V. Prott (UNESCO) already
37 defended a different point of view and argued in favor of using the concept
38 of intangible cultural heritage. She even came to the conclusion that: “While
39 some UNESCO Member States consider that the time has come for UNESCO
40 to create an International Convention for the safeguarding of intangible
41 cultural heritage after the manner of the World Heritage Convention of 1972,
42 presently applicable only to tangible (cultural and natural) heritage, it is

40 A. McCann, et al., “*The 1989 Recommendation Ten Years On: Towards a Critical Analysis*”, in: P. Seitel (ed.),
*A Global Assessment of the 1989 Recommendation on the Safeguarding of Traditional Culture and Folklore: Local
Empowerment and International Cooperation*. Washington D.C., 2001, p. 57-61, p. 59.

41 <http://www.folklife.si.edu/resources/unesco/mccann.htm>

1 premature to decide what form such a convention might take: preservation of
2 the intangible is more likely to need a different *sui generis* regime developed
3 for the specificities of this particular type of heritage.”⁴²

4 **The 2003 Convention, ethics and the market: freeze and defrost**

5 The negotiations at UNESCO headquarters between 2001 and 2003 did result in
6 a UNESCO convention on the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage. In
7 order to reach a consensus, a number of instruments and part of the inheritance
8 of *Volkskunde* and folklore studies were rejected, for instance most of the
9 “folklore and traditional culture” vocabulary. Other issues, challenges and
10 plans that were identified and highlighted in the texts of the 1990s mentioned
11 above were put, if not in quarantine, then at least in the metaphorical fridge:
12 to be defrosted and dealt with “later”. This was the strategy for reaching
13 consensus when negotiating not only the convention text itself, but also the
14 operational directives (in 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014). This was the case for dealing
15 with and finding solutions for dealing with the market and commercialization,
16 copyright issues, tourism, animal rights, health problems, cyber culture and
17 computer-mediated culture, “classical” European elite culture, ... It is also the
18 case for the love-hate-relationship with the notion of “world heritage”.

19 After more than a decade, the time has come to defrost. By a decision of the
20 General Assembly of the 2003 Convention in Paris in July 2014, these issues are
21 now finally on the agenda for discussion in the Intergovernmental Committee,
22 which may result, in 2016, in updating and expanding the operational
23 directives with a new chapter on sustainable development and directives about
24 marketing, tourism and other challenges. And, I hope, directives including the
25 missing link: the cultural (heritage) and development brokerage, mediation
26 and facilitation role.

27 Richard Kurin was able to make the switch, as he witnessed and supported
28 the negotiations of the 2003 UNESCO Convention in the expert meetings
29 and published some flanking articles. In 2004 he published an article in
30 which he condoned the translation process with the obligatory passage point
31 of intangible cultural heritage and the ousting of clusters of other words.
32 Kurin spelled out that “a technical, somewhat awkward term” (ICH) had been
33 selected and others deselected: henceforth, problematic terms would include
34 *inter alia* “folklore”, “traditional culture”, “folklife” and “popular culture”.
35 He remarked that “Many people – educated experts as well as community
36 members from around the world who hold such heritage – will not know what
37 “intangible cultural heritage’ means. Since the success of many safeguarding
38 efforts will depend upon public acceptance, disseminating and explaining
39 the term itself will take considerable efforts.”⁴³ Kurin presented an intelligent
40 analysis of the challenges, problems, high expectations and broad ambitions
41 of the convention. Over and over again he repeated that it would not be easy

42 <http://www.folklife.si.edu/resources/unesco/prott.htm>

43 R. Kurin, “Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage in the 2003 UNESCO Convention: a Critical Appraisal”, *Museum International* 56:1–2, 2004, p. 66-76, p. 67.

1 to make cultural workers and scholars seize the opportunity not just to go
2 back to business as usual (old school or armchair anthropology, *volkskunde*
3 or conservation, for instance) but to leave their comfort zone. Today, this
4 seems to me to imply considering “wicked problems”, “reflexive pragmatism”,
5 critical heritage studies, cultural brokerage or boundary spanning, to give a
6 few examples. Kurin invested his hopes in the convention bodies, such as the
7 intergovernmental committee, which hopefully will be able to galvanize (for
8 instance by specific calls for the registers in article 18 or intelligent modules
9 in the operational directives) “the intellectual tools and organizational efforts
10 which have lagged behind the need to safeguard intangible cultural heritage
11 around the world. Heretofore, experts have not developed the theory and
12 practice ... [for safeguarding or] using living cultural resources in a wise and
13 sustainable way for economic development. Fortunately, now, this deficiency
14 can be addressed.”⁴⁴

15 In 2007, Richard Kurin argued in favor of taking the 2003 UNESCO
16 Convention seriously, not to be blind to the imperfections, problems and
17 challenges, but nevertheless to move forward and try it out. But the existing
18 disciplines (whatever their aliases) that used to deal with the *inter alia* domains
19 of intangible cultural heritage (as defined by the convention), even in
20 interdisciplinary combinations, should be prepared to realize that they were
21 not sufficiently developed for the challenges at hand.

22 Did public folklore rise up to the challenge? As we have mentioned in the
23 introduction to this volume, James Bau Graves published a memorable book
24 in 2005 about the role cultural heritage brokers played in Portland in realizing
25 some of the ideals of cultural democracy, acting as facilitation agents linking
26 communities, groups and individuals to government structures, the media and
27 new audiences.⁴⁵ In a new preface added to the third edition of *Public Folklore*,
28 the editors looked back at the 1992 and 1996 editions and acknowledged that
29 the book emerged in the then booming field of public-sector folklore projects,
30 programs, and institutions on local, state and federal levels in the United
31 States. A sufficient critical mass had been reached in the 1990s to challenge the
32 academic world to take notice of the vibrant zone of professional practice and
33 of new sensitivities: “We viewed our practice as inherently collaborative in its
34 engagement with communities that were themselves increasingly interested
35 in safeguarding, presenting and documenting local cultural expressions.”⁴⁶
36 The connection between advocacy and public folklore that was present in
37 the contributions of Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, Archie Green and Robert
38 Baron in the 1992 version, was addressed in 2004 in a special issue of the
39 *Journal of Folklore Research* (JFR). The contributors defended the point of view
40 that academic hit-and-run interventions in communities and groups should
41 not be part of public folklore mores. Folklorists should try to champion
42 the tradition-bearers, groups and communities they work with and try to

44 Idem, p. 75.

45 J. Bau Graves, *Cultural Democracy: The Arts, Community, and the Public Purpose*. Urbana, 2005.

46 R. Baron & N. Spitzer, “Cultural Continuity and Community Creativity in a New Century”, in:
R. Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*. Jackson, 2007, p. vii-xx, p. vii.

1 mediate or resolve conflicts, e.g. concerning intellectual property. Here Baron
2 and Spitzer referred at length to the work of the WIPO (World International
3 Property Organization). They emphasized how the American Folklore Society
4 had contributed recommendations to the WIPO Intergovernmental Committee
5 on Intellectual Property and Genetic Resources, Traditional Knowledge. But
6 they did not go deeper into the diplomatic and political role the United States
7 has played for not reaching a kind of binding text or generously granting
8 developing countries a fair chance. Baron and Spitzer also referred to a “vibrant
9 international discourse” around the 2003 convention about the safeguarding
10 of ICH. They saw effects and critical changes in the nomenclature in American
11 states where “preservation” and “folklore” were traded in for “safeguarding”
12 and “intangible cultural heritage”. These changes are “more in sync with the
13 practice and world-view of most American public folklorists.”⁴⁷

14 On one side, there is an international demand for appropriate methods
15 and good practices in safeguarding intangible cultural heritage, in particular
16 involving participatory methods, theoretically informed practices and
17 brokerage. On the other hand, there are years of experience with such
18 methods and experienced program specialists in the United States. A win-
19 win combination seems evident.⁴⁸ Unfortunately, this intercontinental link
20 seems, as far as institutional and intergovernmental bridges are concerned,
21 to be moving more towards a lose-lose drifting apart. From 2011 onwards, the
22 unleashing of the prohibition under USA laws (dating back to 1990 and 1994)
23 on funding United Nations organizations that recognize a Palestinian state (as
24 UNESCO did in 2011) undermined a promising evolution over the previous two
25 decades.

26 Baron and Spitzer were right to write that “American public folklorists have
27 much to share about our experience with safeguarding and encouraging
28 traditions, and we could benefit from greater international awareness and
29 engagement. While UNESCO functions as a primary medium of exchange
30 for ideas and resources about culture everywhere else in the world, American
31 public folklore ... largely exists as an archipelago of self-contained community
32 and regional universes”.⁴⁹ Is Robert Baron right to suggest a downward shift in
33 public folklore in the US in recent years, which might have otherwise benefitted
34 from being dragged into the worldwide paradigm melee: “During the 1980s and
35 1990s, there was much public folklore scholarship of a theoretical character
36 about intervention, cultural brokerage, and framing, but there have been few

47 Idem, *Cultural Continuity*, p. xii.

48 Attempts to make that point can be found via <http://www.faronet.be/nieuws/recognizing-our-cultural-heritage-een-amerikaans-vlaamse-dialoog> ; see A. van der Zeijden, “Volkscultuur in de Verenigde Staten. Verslag van het Colloquium Visibility, Awareness, Dialogue: Learning from the USA”, *Levend Erfgoed. Vakblad voor public folklore & public history* 7:2, 2010, p. 34-37. It was also the quiet ambition of the exhibition in the Salle des Pas Perdus at UNESCO headquarters in April 2010: www.unesco.org/culture/ich/doc/src/05866-EN.doc.

49 Baron & Spitzer, *Cultural Continuity*, p. xiv.

1 such theoretical studies since.”⁵⁰ One of the most interesting positives is the
2 work done on ethical issues and codes in public folklore and anthropology,
3 in first place in the complex process of converting cultural traditions into
4 commodities and the question of how ethical marketing is possible.⁵¹

5 **Europe should not be “gleichgeschaltet”**

6 The 1999 issue of the *Journal of Folklore Research* was set up as a dialogue between
7 German-speaking researchers and networks of folklore studies in the United
8 States. There were incommensurabilities and problems of translation. Of
9 course, the instrumentalization and use that both national-socialist and
10 communist regimes made not only of “folklore”, “*Volkskultur*” and “traditions”,
11 but also of *Volkskunde*, has contaminated the concepts and the old instruments.
12 This affected the way of dealing with a concept such as “folklore” in previous
13 decades. At the Bad Homburg conference, Hermann Bausinger reminded
14 those present that in Germany after World War II, professional scholars had
15 (and have) “at the very least tried to keep themselves at a safe distance from
16 all those suspicious subjects wearing folk costumes, presenting folk songs,
17 or performing customs at big events.”⁵² Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett made
18 a fine analysis of the difficulties of finding common ground. In the USA, it
19 is hard to think about public folklore without public folklorists: “The public
20 folklorists are in the business of mediating cultural representations, while
21 the *Volkskundler* want to control how their terms and concepts circulate in the
22 public sphere. What *öffentliche Folklore* would seem to need is not an *öffentlicher*
23 *Folklorist*, but an academic *Volkskundler*.”⁵³ She even suggested that the German
24 scholars are caught in “a double bind. They insist that it is necessary to
25 maintain a distance from public uses of folklore, but complain about being
26 excluded or not respected as authorities in these matters.”

27 In 1999, Christel Köhle-Hezinger described her experience outside the
28 university as follows: “Rather unwillingly and unaware, I turned into a broker
29 – a translator, transmitter – and often enough I felt like a frustrated loser in
30 the public arena. “The public”, which in the seventies and eighties referred
31 mainly to local and regional museums and cultural boards, did not seem to like
32 (want? need?) our sermons, our pastoral guidance, or in my terms, our skills,
33 or our aims versus (in their terms or, rather, reproaches) our theoretical and
34 fundamentalist (sometimes meaning “moralistic”) discussions, laments and

50 R. Baron, “Sins of Objectification? Agency, Mediation, and Community Cultural Self-Determination. Public Folklore and Cultural Tourism Programming”, *Journal of American Folklore* 123:487, 2010 p. 63–91, p. 68.

51 P. Atkinson Wells, “Public Folklore in the Twenty-First Century: New Challenges for the Discipline”, *The Journal of American Folklore* 119:471, 2006, p. 5-18.

52 H. Bausinger, “Disengagement by Engagement: *Volkskunde* in a Period of Change”, *Journal of Folklore Research* 36:2/3, 1999, p. 143-149.

53 B. Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, Folklorists in Public: Reflections on Cultural Brokerage in the United States and Germany, *Journal of Folklore Research* 37:1, 2000, p. 1-21.

1 criticism.”⁵⁴ Later she decided to organize a research process “of” a village into a
2 dialogue and a negotiation with the people living there; not only as Geertz said,
3 not only research villages, but in villages, and to return not empty handed.
4 If the academic professionalization of a discipline refers to establishing a
5 monopoly on jobs (for one’s own graduates) in an emerging professional field,
6 establishing and controlling bodies of knowledge, procedures and terminology
7 and building institutions that organize the practical application of scholarly
8 knowledge in society, then what are we confronted with here?⁵⁵

9 The idea that the discipline could actually contribute to policy (and)
10 development in Western Europe in the sphere of migration, multi- or
11 intercultural relations, or other hot issues was not really high, if even present,
12 on the agenda of either scholars and policy-makers at the end of the 20th
13 century, “not only in Germany, but all over Europe”, according to Welz and
14 Bendix. Since 1945, Belgium and the Netherlands have no longer been part
15 of a German Empire and continental Europe is not only German-speaking.
16 Did these debates make any impression and did cultural brokerage and public
17 folklore have an impact on other regions?

18 In the Low Countries, there are a few scarce articles where echoes about the
19 public folklore movement in the United States or the brokerage debate can be
20 detected. A statement was made in 2001 by Herman Roodenburg, who decided
21 to reinforce the movement launched by the book *Volkscultuur. Een inleiding in de*
22 *Nederlandse Ethnologie*, by strategically publishing an article both in the journal
23 of the Nederlands Centrum voor Volkscultuur and that of the Flemish Center
24 for Popular Culture (VCV), which was founded in 1999.⁵⁶ It was an extended
25 presentation of the special “cultural brokerage” issue in the *Journal of Folklore*
26 *Research*, including other contributions by Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett and
27 Richard Kurin. Roodenburg noted in 2001 that the “public folklore” model was
28 largely unknown in the Netherlands and Flanders, and that in contrast to that
29 paradigm of “betrokkenheid” (commitment, engagement, “being drawn in”),
30 a position of keeping a distance and being suspicious of cultural policy and
31 amateur action was characteristic of the hard-core academic networks. In the
32 *Volkscultuur* book, “public folklore” was not “translated” into a chapter. In the
33 late 20th century, Han Voskuil and his colleagues had explicitly disconnected
34 the work at the Meertens Instituut from “applied folklore”, and even from the
35 predecessors of the Nederlands Centrum voor Volkscultuur. This “emphasizing-
36 the-boundary” work by Voskuil has been structurally reproduced and inherited
37 by his successors at the institute, splendidly isolating themselves from fully
38 embracing the full potential of the public folklore movement or, later, the
39 safeguarding paradigm. But Roodenburg’s initiative in 2001 seemed to provide
40 an opening, a grand gesture in a double article. The timing was right. For

54 C. Köhle-Hezinger, “Cultural Brokerage and the Public Sector: Response to Roger Abrahams”, *Journal of Folklore Research*, 36: 2/3, 1999, p. 138-142.

55 Bendix & Welz, *Cultural Brokerage*, p. 117.

56 H. Roodenburg, “Tussen distantie en betrokkenheid: “public folklore” en de volkskunde in Nederland en Vlaanderen”, *Mores. Tijdschrift voor volkscultuur in Vlaanderen* 2:1, 2001, p. 5-8 and idem, *Alledaagse Dingen* 11:1, p. 5-8.

1 instance, developments around the Huis van Alijn, the rebooted museum
2 for popular culture in Ghent, and the plans and dreams of a *Identiteitsfabriek*
3 *Zuidoost*, flirting with notions like “cultural biography”, animated by Gerard
4 Rooijackers (at that time also connected to the Meertens) seemed promising
5 at the time. Roodenburg also mentioned, alongside the museum, the future
6 potential of cyberculture and electronically mediated communities.⁵⁷ Parts of
7 Roodenburg’s original text were presented at a colloquium in the brand new
8 Limburgs Museum in Venlo on 13 October 2000. It was the location where Bart
9 Caron, as an advisor to the Flemish minister Bert Anciaux, announced plans
10 to launch the concept of cultural heritage as a central policy term in Flanders.
11 Both the *Volkscultuur* book and Roodenburg’s bridging text influenced the
12 discourse, and partly inspired the work of the former Vlaams Centrum voor
13 Volkscultuur and the heritage cells that tried to put some of these ideas into
14 practice. After 2001, the Meertens Institute did not opt to embark on a voyage
15 under the flag of cultural heritage or public folklore or anthropology and they
16 did not even try fully to surf the wave of safeguarding intangible cultural
17 cultural heritage. In the volume that was intended to succeed but (did not)
18 supersede the *Volkscultuur* book, room was made for a contribution about a
19 Dutch variant of so-called “public folklore”, which, in my view, was in fact more
20 a variant of “public history” in combination with historiography.⁵⁸ Framed in
21 the work of the Utrecht NCV, several actions, strategies and projects developed
22 under the flag of public folklore or even “folklore” itself.⁵⁹

23 **Windows of opportunity in Flanders: the golden age of heritage** 24 **brokerage (1999-2009), followed by the emergence of a discourse** 25 **about planning pains**

26 In the first decade of the 21st century, something special happened in heritage
27 policy in Flanders, in particular in relation to the combination of what in
28 France had been called *patrimoine ethnologique* since the 1980s, which UNESCO
29 started calling intangible cultural heritage and safeguarding, which Kees
30 Ribbens baptized “*alledaagse historische cultuur*” (a mix of everyday historical
31 culture and public history), and to which a 1998 Flemish decree, originating
32 in socio-cultural work with adults with a strong emphasis on participatory
33 methods and strategic planning and gradually moving towards a cultural
34 heritage frame of reference, applied the word “*volkscultuur*”.⁶⁰ In the late 1990s

57 M. Jacobs, ‘Folklore in Cyberië in het Jaar Twee Kilo’, *Volkscultuur Bulletin*, 26:3, 2000, p. 3-41.

58 A. van der Zeijden, ‘Public Folklore and the Construction of a Regional Identity in Newly Reclaimed Dutch Polders’, in: P.J. Margry & H. Roodenburg, *Reframing Dutch Culture. Between Otherness and Authenticity Reframing Dutch Culture*. Oxon, 2007, p. 59-81.

59 A. van der Zeijden, *De voorgeschiedenis van het Nederlands Centrum voor Volkscultuur. De ondersteuning van de volkscultuurbeoefening in Nederland 1949-1992*. Utrecht, 2000 and A. van der Zeijden, *Volkscultuur van en voor een breed publiek. Enkele theoretische premissen en conceptuele uitgangspunten*. Utrecht, 2004.

60 M. Jacobs, ‘Volkscultuur, een sector in beweging tussen sociaal-cultureel werk en cultureel erfgoed’, *Gids sociaal-cultureel en educatief werk* 32, 2001, p. 383-394; M. Jacobs, ‘La sauvegarde du PCI en Flandre: un changement de paradigme’, *Culture et recherche* 127, 2012, p. 52-53; M. Jacobs, ‘Actueel? Inclusief...’, in: *Alledaags is niet gewoon. Reflecties over volkscultuur en samenleven*. Brussel, 2002, p. 212-221.

1 and the 2000s this was combined with complementary policy, co-operation
2 and co-regulation between different levels of government and also with the
3 real and structural investments in networks and activities of consultants,
4 mediators, facilitators and cultural brokers. In this volume, three protagonists
5 of the more recent and current movement present and explain recent
6 instruments, experiments and platforms in the Flemish heritage field.⁶¹ In an
7 earlier publication, entitled ‘Synergie squared’, published in 2010, these and
8 earlier evolutions in the cultural heritage field in the first decade of the 21st
9 century were described and analyzed. In this publication I pointed out the
10 inspiration drawn from a result-oriented model of collaboration, consensus
11 building and agreeing, called the “polder model” in the Netherlands, and the
12 attempt to introduce a complementary policy at different government levels.
13 The importance of discussions among museum and policy workers in Ghent
14 at the turn of the century, but also the inspiration offered by actor-network
15 analysis and Bruno Latour, was captured in 2000 by Pascal Gielen in *Kleine*
16 *dramaturgie van een artefactenstoet*. As mentioned in the previous paragraph,
17 even the aforementioned publications about brokerage and public folklore
18 were referred to, Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett actually came and gave a very
19 influential master-class (led by Herman Roodenburg) for fifty key-players in
20 Flanders in 2002; the Dutch *Volkscultuur* book was used and a reflexive program
21 entitled *Alledaags is niet gewoon* organized by the King Baudouin Foundation led
22 to a publication. The heritage cells, and also an organization called the Vlaams
23 Centrum voor Volkscultuur, actually experimented with cultural brokerage.⁶²
24 The experiments and experiences were consolidated in the cultural heritage
25 decree in Flanders in 2008. They also made an impression and inspired the way
26 the Flemish government implemented the policy of the UNESCO Convention
27 for the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage, with the brokerage and
28 other options spelled out in a plan document by the Minister of Culture.⁶³

29 The first decade of the 21st century was a vibrant era of policy planning,
30 campaigns and co-regulation in the cultural heritage field, in particular in the
31 fields of “*volkscultuur*” and brokered heritage practices. The classic academic
32 disciplines like history or art history tried to keep their distance and, publicly
33 ignored, rejected, dismissed and criticized these evolutions of “*alledaagse*
34 *historische cultuur*” and cultural heritage practice, although exceptions such as
35 the public historians Bruno Dewever (University Ghent) and Peter Scholliers
36 (VUB) did try to build bridges. Outside the publication channels with footnotes

61 L. Casteleyn & E. Janssens, 10 years of experience in heritage mediation in Flanders (Belgium). From cultural heritage cells to a nationwide ICH-network, further on in this issue.

62 M. Jacobs, ‘Synergie² 2010. Het cultureel-erfgoedconvenant als hedendaags beleidsinstrument: een essay over zijn verleden en toekomst’, in: M. Jacobs, B. Rzoska & G. Vercauteren, *Synergie² 2010. Het cultureel-erfgoedconvenant als hedendaags beleidsinstrument*. Brussel, 2009, p. 11-98, with references to the influence of actor-network theory and Latour on p. 34-40 and 75-76, brokerage and public folklore on p. 60 and passim.

63 *The Government of Flanders’ policy on safeguarding intangible cultural heritage*. Brussels, 2010, see the version (with updated contact persons but stable content) http://kunstenerfgoed.be/sites/default/files/uploads/140415_het_beleid_van_de_vlaamse_overheid_voor_het_borgen_van_het_immaterieel_cultureel_erfgoed.pdf

1 (like *Mores* and its successor, *Faro. Tijdschrift over cultureel erfgoed*), workshops and
2 colloquia in the cultural heritage sector itself, there was hardly any academic
3 debate or reflection on notions like brokerage, translation (sociology) models
4 and the concept of a new cultural heritage paradigm in the 21st century.

5 One of the few exceptions was an article by Professor Bert De Munck
6 published in this journal in 2005. He was commenting on the implementation
7 and reinterpretation of the 1998 decree on “*volkscultuur*” and the new policy.
8 De Munck found it useful to dismiss the brokerage dimension as “non-
9 scientific” and also rejected the notion of “translation”.⁶⁴ De Munck admitted
10 that universities and university colleges did not adequately prepare students
11 for work in mediation or brokerage functions, but did not regret this. On the
12 contrary, he expressed his satisfaction with the fact that a higher education
13 program in the field of “*Europese Etnologie*”, public folklore or “*Cultureel Erfgoed*”
14 (cultural heritage) would not come anytime soon in Flanders, but that the
15 traditional disciplines like “history” would be able to hold their own. He even
16 developed the thesis that transdisciplinary cooperation would not enrich
17 the field, but only open doors for reductionism. Using an abstract detour via
18 Michel Foucault and Tony Bennet, he tried to shield history students (at the
19 University of Antwerp) from the skills of policy planning and implementation,
20 from involvement in historical practices in the wild and from real life. De
21 Munck linked this to the influence of Actor Network Theory and translation
22 sociology and the use Pascal Gielen made of this in his influential booklet
23 *Kleine dramaturgie voor een artefactenstoet. Omtrent Gent cultuurstad*. The concept of
24 translation was also rejected, as was the reinforcement of scientific research
25 in the work field.⁶⁵ De Munck warned against the fact that Actor Network
26 Theory might lead to “legitimizing” the involvement of scholars, research and
27 education in the cultural sector.⁶⁶ He rejected a suggestion by Albert Van der
28 Zeijden to reconnect with old notions like “folklore” and the possibility that
29 other actors than scholars embedded in academic institutions could define
30 what falls within that realm. In 2005, De Munck also rejected interdisciplinary
31 (and hence, *a fortiori* transdisciplinary) research about the new heritage
32 paradigm: “de begrippen individu (agency), cultuur(beleid) en etniciteit (of
33 identiteit) dienen daarbij centraal te staan. En belangrijk is deze begrippen

64 He equated and rejected “professionalisation” as a call for mediators: “Met professionalisering wordt onder meer de opleiding van “bemiddelaars” bedoeld, erfgoedwerkers die het beleid en de wetenschappen naar het werkveld vertalen enerzijds en de wensen en de verlangens “van onderop” vertalen naar beleidsmakers en wetenschappers anderzijds. Die vraag naar bemiddeling is niet wetenschappelijk van aard maar politiek. Ze komt niet uit het werkveld – in de honderden lokale verenigingen en afdelingen wordt ze eerder met argwaan bejegend – maar vanuit het beleid. Professionalisering zorgt voor een grotere greep van het beleid op het terrein. B. De Munck, “Microtechnologieën van volkscultuur. Europese etnologie in Vlaanderen tussen sector en di[s]cipline”, *Volkskunde* 106:4, 2005, p. 341-370, p. 347 with references to VCV and the Roodenburg article.

65 De Munck, *Microtechnologieën*, p. 362.

66 “De ANT rechtvaardigt de incorporatie van onderzoek en onderwijs (met betrekking tot cultuur) in de culturele sector zelf”: De Munck, *Microtechnologieën*, p. 362-363.

1 niet vanuit een inter- maar multidisciplinair perspectief te benaderen, zodat
2 de afzonderlijke disciplines blijven renderen.”⁶⁷

3 I should make it clear that I applaud the fact that De Munck identified a
4 number of the theoretical ambitions and sources of the new approaches, but
5 that I disagree with many of the suggestions, dichotomies and advice given
6 regarding heritage practice and policy and concerning the implications for
7 the academic world in Flanders; challenges and opportunities for education,
8 research and services to society. One remark I wish to make and confirm is
9 that there is a connection between the theories about cultural brokerage, the
10 social studies of science and technology and the theoretical underpinnings
11 of the heritage field in Flanders in the 21st century, but that there is a direct
12 connection, including in my own work as a scholar and heritage worker, in
13 applying these theories in historical research, that were subsequently also
14 mobilized in new fields and contexts.⁶⁸

15 But arguing in favor of reinforcing borders and discipline(s) and reproducing
16 distinction and privileges, rather than blurring differences, embracing and
17 stimulating interactions, cross-fertilization and hybridity, was not the only
18 vision, also not in this journal. In 2006, the American scholar Simon Bronner
19 published a reflection on the year of “folklore” in the Netherlands, in which he
20 qualified the 1999 cultural brokerage issue of the *Journal of Folklore Research* as
21 a failed attempt at trans-Atlantic communication. He was genuinely surprised
22 by the strong nationalism in the Netherlands in the 21st century, illustrated
23 by the national – orange – organization of a year of folklore, in contrast to the
24 focus on local communities and groups he ascribed to public folklore in the
25 USA. Another thing Bronner noted with surprise was that more than fifteen
26 years after Kirshenblatt-Gimblett’s “Mistaken Dichotomies”, the Netherlands
27 had still not overcome this divide and continued to cultivate a sharp distinction
28 between the Meertens and the NCV.⁶⁹ One of the scholars working in the
29 latter institution, Albert van der Zeijden, repeatedly questioned this divide

67 De Munck, *Microtechnologieën*, p. 368.

68 As I was one of the protagonists of the 21st-century cultural heritage movement in Flanders, I should point out that cultural brokerage and the concepts of translation sociology and actor-network theory were the central concepts in my PhD on power, networking and culture in the 17th century, defended in 1998, and that many of these ideas were explicitly proposed for social and cultural history in M. Jacobs, ‘Actornetwerk. Geschiedenis, sociale wetenschappen. De nieuwe Annales en het werk van Boltanski en Thévenot: een (re)viewartikel’, *Tijdschrift voor sociale geschiedenis* 22, 1996, p. 260-289. See also M. Jacobs, ‘Zonder twijfel dat waarschijnlijk... Ambachtelijke geschiedenissen in de Zuidelijke Nederlanden aan het einde van het “Oude Regime”’, in: C. Lis & H. Soly (eds.) *Werelden van verschil. Ambachtsgilden in de Lage Landen*. Brussel, 1997, p. 243-292 and M. Jacobs, ‘“La sottise héraldique”? Wapenschilden, “hulp”- en technowetenschap’, in: A. Vandewalle (ed.), *Te Wapen! Heraldiek, teken van gezag en identiteit*. Brugge, 2004, p. 9-27. For another example of combining history, heritage work and policy constructing, see M. Jacobs, ‘Bruegel and Burke were here! Examining the criteria implicit in the UNESCO paradigm of safeguarding ICH: the first decade’, *International Journal of Intangible Heritage* 9, 2014, p. 99-117.

69 S. Bronner, ‘The Year of Folklore, and Other Dutch Lessons in Public Heritage’, *Volkskunde* 107:4, 2006, p. 343-364.

1 by remaining in between them and in a recent contribution in *Volkskunde* he
2 actually used the term “cultural broker”.⁷⁰

3 In the last few years, in Flanders, there have been many organizations,
4 centers of expertise and heritage workers actually demonstrating and applying
5 cultural brokerage. The joint efforts of tapis plein, FARO, KATHO and others
6 to make visible these skills and experiments in many heritage organizations
7 resulted in an inspiring brochure: *Makelaardij in erfgoed. Praktijkkennis voor*
8 *bruggenbouwers* (Brokerage in heritage. Practical knowledge for builders of
9 bridges).⁷¹ But by then, the policy framework in Flanders had changed. The
10 corrosive notion of “planlast”, the burden of strategic planning or planning
11 pains, co-regulation and steering and being steered, was introduced into the
12 discourse of policy-makers and government officials in the lobby organization
13 for local authorities (of villages, towns and cities in Flanders, the VVSG) and
14 the Flemish level from 2009 onwards. The idea of supporting networks and
15 synergy, and the roles of mediators and cultural brokers could and can suffer
16 collateral damage or run the risk of being eliminated or actively forgotten. This
17 is why the booklet on “Synergy squared’ was published and why the *Makelaardij*
18 booklet was published. And, for me, this is also why an interpretation by some of
19 the protagonists of the experience in Flanders is documented and emphasized
20 in the present publication, at least as a statement, perhaps a testament, or
21 even as a “testament”.⁷² In Flanders, *Volkskunde* is no longer on the academic
22 curriculum, public folklore never was and the message of public history in
23 Flemish academia regarding participatory methods and theoretically founded
24 heritage practice has, so far, not updated publicly since the reaction by Bert De
25 Munck in 2005. Times are a-changing, quickly, and the further evolution of
26 the policy climate is uncertain, but the internationally rebooted safeguarding
27 intangible cultural heritage still seems, in 2014-2015, under development and
28 open for debate.

29 **From boundary-work to boundary-spanning**

30 One of the possible interpretations of so-called “boundary-work” in a
31 scholarly discipline is the defense of relative autonomy against scholars from
32 other disciplines and against amateurs. In folklore studies, Richard Dorson
33 incarnated this kind of attitude in his crusade against public folklore. It was
34 also directed against the backdoor of so-called applied science and combined

70 A. van der Zeijden, “Dilemma’s en vraagpunten met betrekking tot immaterieel erfgoed: het voorbeeld Allerzielen. Reflecties van een cultural broker’, *Volkskunde* 113:3, 2012, p. 343-359.

71 In an annex I (re)constructed a theoretical framework and foundation for his movement, in: M. Jacobs, Een compositie van doorgetrokken lijnen, schragende publicaties en moeilijke woorden, in: *Makelaardij in erfgoed. Praktijkkennis voor bruggenbouwers*. Brussel, 2011, p. 117-119.

72 I have used this neologism before, for another turning point: M. Jacobs, “Te-sta-te-ment. Duyfken, Willemynten, de Onderzoekker en de Verclaerder’, *Mores. Tijdschrift voor volkscultuur in Vlaanderen* 8:4, 2007, p. 13-26.

1 with the rejection of much social theory as an act of resistance against the
2 Trojan Cavalry called interdisciplinarity. In 1983 Thomas Gieryn introduced
3 an interpretation of boundary-work as a rhetorical style that constructs social
4 boundaries “demarcating intellectual activities accorded the prestige of science
5 from non-science or pseudo-science” in order to yield symbolic and material
6 capital.⁷³ This can, as Charles Briggs argued, be combined with Latour’s analysis
7 of scientific (boundary) work as the generation of textual-cum-social networks.
8 Dorson’s strategy was to claim distinct objects and subjects, methods, key texts,
9 professional societies and networks and places in the academic world, and not
10 so much to cultivate theory and embrace European theoretical fashions. Archie
11 Green, one of the protagonists of public folklore policy at the federal level in
12 the United States, provided an eye-opening testimony about how far Professor
13 Dorson went in his political battle, both in the 1950s against Botkin’s “applied
14 folklore” and in the 1970s against the USA folk-life bill on, and the concept of,
15 “public-sector folklorist”.⁷⁴

16 One of the consequences, according to Dorothy Noyes and Charles Briggs,
17 is that a heavy reliance on this kind of boundary-work produces “provincial
18 intellectuals, defined through their (self-)exclusion from what they characterize
19 as metropolitan sites of high theory production.”⁷⁵ Kirshenblatt-Gimblett noted
20 ironically that Dorson’s strategy of boundary-work and his reaction against
21 “both popularization and applied folklore [that] blurred the boundaries of
22 pure folklore scholarship and siphoned off intellectual talent” was relatively
23 successful, to the point where the academy produced more professionals than
24 it could absorb. Then the public folklore programs provided a way out: “The
25 tables had turned. The enemy became the solution.”⁷⁶ But the proliferation of
26 communication technology and computers causes many challenges. At the
27 turn of the millennium, a scholarly discipline created by boundary-work and
28 clinging to static concepts had become unsustainable.

29 In an article with the telling head title “I’m a Folklorist and You’re Not”,
30 Steven Zeitlin not only opted for advocacy as a central key-word but also for
31 more expansive strategies versus delimited strategies. The attitude expressed
32 in the title was the delimited strategy at its worst. The alternative was an
33 eclectic, inter- and transdisciplinary approach, seeking alliances, inviting other
34 approaches, in the hope, when it works, to expand the boundaries, audiences
35 and resources, but with the clear and present danger of losing the discipline in

73 T. Gieryn, “Boundary-Work and the Demarcation of Science from Non-Science: Strains and Interests in Professional Ideologies of Scientists’, *American Sociological Review* 48:6, 1983, p. 781-795.

74 See A. Green, “Public Folklore’s Name. A Partisan’s Notes’, in: R. Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*. Jackson, 2007, p. 49-63 and the historical analysis by R. Baron, “Postwar Public Folklore and the Professionalization of Folklore Studies’, in: R. Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*. Jackson, 2007, p. 307-337.

75 C. Briggs, “Disciplining Folkloristics’, *Journal of Folklore Research* 45:1, 2008, p. 91-10, p. 95.

76 B. Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, “Mistaken Dichotomies’, in: R. Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*. Jackson, 2007, p. 29-48, p. 31.

1 the shuffle.⁷⁷ As Zeitlin demonstrated with examples from the recent history
2 of public folklore and cultural policy, the whole repertoire of strategies can be
3 useful, on some occasions expansive and in other circumstances delimiting
4 and going for the trenches. It is a question of positioning oneself in the best
5 possible way as students and advocates of grassroots culture in the world,
6 and to try and select expansive or delimited approaches strategically. Zeitlin's
7 challenge is worth taking seriously: "We have long realized that folklore is in no
8 danger of becoming extinct, but we have yet to realize our potential to sustain
9 and foster – even in cyberspace – the fragile cultural ecology of the planet".
10 In 2008 Charles Briggs advocated strongly that the time for a new disciplinary
11 strategy had come: "theoretically-inspired boundary-crossing" or generating
12 "dialogic zones with adjacent disciplines". The key-concepts are "performance",
13 "community", "repertoire", and "transmission".⁷⁸ He even pushed the argument
14 by pointing out that "reified understandings of a theory's opposite, whether
15 defined as "local", "lived world", or "vernacular," are just as much products of
16 modernity as are "theory" ... we will need to extract the term vernacular from
17 its opposition to cosmopolitan."⁷⁹ Inspired by a remark by Wittgenstein that
18 boundaries can be treated as a game, Briggs argued for a new way of dealing
19 with these issues in universities, NGOs and international organizations and
20 state agencies: "Rather than creating boundaries based on discrete, fixed
21 objects and methods and spending our time defending them, trying to keep
22 folklorists in and intruders out, we might ... focus on maintaining a flexible,
23 playful relationship to boundaries, jumping over them in such a way as to
24 link and enrich the games being played on both sides."⁸⁰ In a recent overview,
25 Debora Kodish noticed that there are very few links or cross-references – and
26 vice versa – between public folklore and similar efforts like public history,
27 applied and public anthropology and the community arts movements. It is
28 paradoxical in view of the fact that the decentralized public folklorists situate
29 themselves explicitly at the border and describe their own work as brokering,
30 mediating and bridgework.⁸¹ A fascinating topic that can be further explored
31 is the issue of "shared responsibility" and to what extent "brokerage" is a key
32 factor in making it work in public folklore or history, oral history or on-line
33 participatory methods.⁸² Even if scholars try to get away with Eurocentric
34 concepts like "European ethnology" over and over again, studies that try to
35 suggest intercontinental oppositions (something typically "American" versus
36 typically European) have to stretch "pars pro toto" characteristics far beyond

77 See S. Zeitlin, "I'm a Folklorist and You're Not. Expansive versus Delimited Strategies in the Practice of Folklore", *Journal of American Folklore* 113, 2000, p. 3-19.

78 Briggs, *Disciplining*, p. 96-97.

79 Idem, p. 101.

80 Idem, p. 102-103.

81 D. Kodish, "Imagining Public Folklore", in: Bendix & Hasan-Rokem, *Companion*, p. 579-597, p. 587 and 589.

82 M. Frisch, *A Shared Authority: Essays on the Craft and Meaning of Oral and Public History*. Albany, 1990; B. Adair, B. Filene and L. Koloski (eds.), *Letting Go? Sharing Historical Authority in a User-Generated World*. Philadelphia, 2011.

1 the limit. More fruitful is using the key(words) like praxeology or a theory of
2 practice to open new doors, windows or corridors.⁸³

3 In this volume, I push this argument further towards transdisciplinary
4 zones, for which the concept of “boundary-spanning” has been developed.
5 Based on research into successful forms of collaboration in the United Kingdom
6 in response to interconnected and complex policy issues, Paul Williams
7 developed the concept to describe “a particular set of individual actors who
8 work within theatres of collaboration ... “boundary spanners’ because they
9 engage in “boundary spanning’ activities that cross, weave and permeate many
10 traditional boundary types, including organizational, sectoral, professional
11 and policy.”⁸⁴ It offers many possibilities for rethinking and reframing debates,
12 including tackling wicked problems, developing the idea of safeguarding and
13 participatory trajectories. It is one of the consequences of taking article 15 of
14 the 2003 UNESCO convention seriously. In 2007 Richard Kurin reiterated that
15 he welcomed the convention, and the world should try it out, but he doubted
16 if it could really fulfil all the expectations of safeguarding intangible cultural
17 heritage in the world. The main reason was that “the connection of intangible
18 cultural heritage to the larger matrix of ecological, social, technological,
19 economic and political relationships is too complex, too multi-faceted and
20 nuanced to be reduced to the simple formula proposed by the 2003 treaty. The
21 problem is, we do not have anything better.”⁸⁵

22 But there is hope. The academic heritage disciplines and their applied
23 versions (like public folklore) and the daily practice and experience of heritage
24 workers have yielded a whole repertoire of tested methods, techniques,
25 modules and service that work to address and solve simple or tame problems
26 and incidents. One of the advantages of intangible cultural heritage is that
27 solutions can often be found by the groups and communities themselves,
28 without activating a safeguarding frame of reference. In an empathic
29 contribution to public folklore (studies), Frank Proschan remarked that “Folk
30 traditions persist in such communities in large part because they provide
31 preexistent solutions that can be applied to recurrent problems.”⁸⁶ Among
32 the traditional skills and knowledge that are now part of intangible cultural
33 heritage, there are forms of consensus-building, participatory methods and
34 dealing with complex problems, by mobilizing the competences of a whole
35 community, that seem compatible to or provide inspiration for “safeguarding”,
36 like the consensus-building techniques of the Six Nations in North America,

83 See for instance the attempt in S. Bronner, “Practice Theory in Folklore and Folklife Studies’, *Folklore* 123, 2012, p. 23-47 to explore a distinction between “performance” (US) and “practice” (Europe): “The differentiation of European ethnological scholarship from American folkloristic work informed by practice and performance has been previously noted by Peter Jan Margry and Herman Roodenburg in their “reframing” of Dutch cultural Studies with reference to the influence of American methodologies(p. 23).

84 P. Williams, *Collaboration in Public Policy and Practice. Perspectives on Boundary Spanners*. Bristol, 2012, p. 1.

85 R. Kurin, “Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage: Key Factors in Implementing the 2003 Convention’, *International Journal of Intangible Heritage* 2, 2007, p. 10-20, p. 18.

86 F. Proschan, “Field Work and Social Work. Folklore as Helping Profession’, in: R. Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*. Jackson, 2007, p. 145-158, p. 147.

1 the Ubuntu in Southern Africa, and the polder negotiations and compromise-
2 skills in the Low Countries.⁸⁷ And for really complex problems like the one
3 Kurin hinted at, there are new developments and experiments in dealing with
4 “wicked problems”, for which participatory methods and pooling information
5 are crucial.⁸⁸

6 Combining all these theories, methods and problems in an eclectic and
7 inclusive manner: that is what 21st-century “critical heritage studies” or –
8 on a good day, anyway – folklore studies are all about: a “postdiscipline of
9 inclusions”.⁸⁹ Roderick Lawrence explained that transdisciplinarity tackles
10 complexity and heterogeneity, challenges knowledge fragmentation, and
11 accepts local contexts, uncertainty and the context-specific negotiation of
12 knowledge. And – particularly relevant for the safeguarding ICH paradigm –
13 he claims that “transdisciplinary knowledge is the result of inter-subjectivity
14 ... It is a research process that includes the practical reasoning of individuals
15 (... it) requires close and continuous collaboration during all phases of a
16 research project ... what is called “mediation space and time” or “border
17 work”.⁹⁰ Moreover it is usually action-oriented, dealing with real-world
18 problems and feeding the decision-making processes in society. Disciplinarity
19 is a 19th-century inheritance and restraining path (and folklore is one of the
20 examples). Multi- and interdisciplinarity are late 20th-century practices.
21 Transdisciplinarity could be what the 21st century will need. Cultural brokerage
22 is what is needed to make this work: a crucial part of the new safeguarding
23 paradigm and repertoire of skills. At present, the umbrella concept of “critical
24 heritage studies” is (temporarily) available and promising. It builds several
25 traditions in countries like Canada, Australia, the Scandinavian countries,
26 but also the United States of America. For the latter state, Gregory Hansen
27 recently suggested that “Heritage studies arose out of a movement emerging
28 during the 1990s when in response to growing public heritage programming
29 and interdisciplinary initiatives in universities, scholars in American studies,
30 history, anthropology, sociology, folklore, and art sought opportunities
31 for students to merge academic approaches with professional training and

87 See M. Mille Bojer, et al., *Mapping Dialogue. Essential Tools for Social Change*. Milton Keynes, 2008; W. de Liefde, *Ubuntu. In der Gemeinschaft Lösungen finden und Entscheidungen treffen*. München, 2006 and the unexplored potential of building on trajectories like M. Abélès, (ed.), *Des anthropologues à l'OMC. Scènes de la gouvernance mondiale*. Paris, 2011; D. Holmes & G. Marcus, “Cultures of Expertise and the Management of Globalization: Toward the Re-Functioning of Ethnography”, in: A. Ong & S. Collier (eds.), *Global Assemblages: Technology, Politics, and Ethics as Anthropological Problems*. Oxford, 2005, p. 235-252. Safeguarding participatory safeguarding techniques is one of the most challenging, promising and little explored fields in anthropology and ethnology.

88 J. Conklin, *Dialogue Mapping: Building Shared Understanding of Wicked Problems*. Chichester, 2006; <http://www.faronet.be/blogs/jacqueline-van-leeuwen/goeteborg-5-makelaars-voor-onverwachte-groepen>

89 Jacobs, *Actueel?*, p. 220.

90 R. Lawrence, “Beyond Disciplinary Confinement to Imaginative Transdisciplinarity”, in: Valerie Brown et al., *Tackling Wicked Problems. Through the Transdisciplinary Imagination*. London-Washington D.C., 2010, p. 16-30, p. 17-18.

1 integrating areas of culture, history, and art into their courses of study.”⁹¹
2 It derives a lot of power from being linked to a very influential academic
3 network around the *International Journal of Heritage Studies*. It is the network
4 of Laurajane Smith that tries to take a step further and explore the power of
5 adding critical to pull in many sciences. It is open and broad enough to bring
6 together the inheritances of the classic scholarly disciplines that deal with
7 the past, heritage and actors involved. It also allows to combine interesting
8 methodologies and applied sciences, including actor-network analysis or
9 translation sociology helps to think and work with materiality, intangibility
10 and networks.⁹² Important is the fact that it is even open to thinking in terms
11 of wicked problems or the “new kid on the block’ in policy studies – boundary
12 spanners – and able to integrate and prioritize participatory methods, not only
13 to cultivate the paradigm of safeguarding intangible cultural heritage, but also
14 to sustainably develop and cope with uncertainty. It offers for the time being
15 the best chances to valorize and safeguard a useful part of the inheritance of
16 the disciplinary field with many aliases.

91 G. Hansen, “Heritage Studies’, in: *Encyclopedia of American Studies*. Baltimore, 2014), [http://eas-ref.press.jhu.edu/view?aid=813.\(1/09/2014\)](http://eas-ref.press.jhu.edu/view?aid=813.(1/09/2014))

92 R. Harrison, *Heritage: Critical Approaches*. London & New York, 2013.



Understanding the Role of Non-government Organizations (NGOs) as Cultural Brokers

A Review of Approaches

1 The role of intermediary or broker is not one that has always tended to receive
2 a good press. Brokers may all too often come to be seen as untrustworthy
3 middlemen (or women) who create unnecessary costly distance between
4 individuals and the desired transactions they are seeking to complete. Yet
5 brokers may also serve as connectors, integrating and bringing together diverse
6 social economic and political actors in order to achieve goals that neither
7 would be able to achieve individually, or filling information gaps in ways that
8 may offer a more complete representation of a cultural objective or strategy.
9 This contribution provides a brief rationale for thinking about the role of non-
10 governmental organizations (NGOs) as potentially productive brokers in the
11 context of improving non-tangible cultural heritage at the level for policy and
12 practice, and sets out some key ideas and concepts. The Convention for the
13 Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage was adopted by UNESCO in 2003,
14 and by 2013 had been ratified by 151 states. The concept of intangible cultural
15 heritage refers to knowledge, oral representations, traditions and skills that
16 communities recognise among their cultural heritage.

17 Non-government organizations (NGOs) have in recent decades come to
18 be viewed as important actors across a range of fields, from international
19 development and human rights to arts and recreation. NGO roles as cultural
20 brokers have become increasingly of interest in the worlds of policy.

21 **Understanding NGOs**

22 The term “NGO’ is a relatively new one, despite the fact that various forms of
23 voluntary, non-profit or charitable organization have long existed across most
24 societies. The acronym NGO dates back to the establishment of the United
25 Nations (UN) system in 1945, when it denoted observer status in UN processes
26 that was given to selected international non-state actors. This was a precise
27 usage, but “NGO’ has since become a somewhat vague term used in both broad
28 and narrow senses. It can refer to diverse groups, from small community-
29 based organizations to larger increasingly professionalized types of agency.
30 This includes international NGOs, national developing country organisations,
31 and local level grassroots membership or self-help organisations. NGO is
32 often used interchangeably with “voluntary’, “non-profit’, “civil society’, and

1 “community-based’ organization, each of which has distinctive cultural and
2 ideological roots. At its narrowest, NGO can be used to mean the sub-group of
3 third sector organizations working in development and primarily funded by
4 the international aid system.¹

5 Definitions of NGOs can therefore pose something of a challenge, since
6 there are different ones that variously focus on NGOs’ *legal* characteristics
7 (the nature of an organization’s formal registration status within a particular
8 context), *economic* characteristics (its source of resources) or *functional*
9 characteristics (the types of activities that it undertakes). For the past decade or
10 so Salamon and Anheier’s² “structural/operational’ comparative international
11 definition of the non-profit organization has given some basic help in this task
12 by emphasising an organisation’s observable features, suggesting five crucial
13 characteristics: it needs to be *formal*, that is, institutionalized with regular
14 meetings; *private* in being institutionally separate from government (though it
15 may get resources from government); *non-profit distributing*, with any financial
16 surplus generated not accruing to owners or directors; *self-governing* and
17 managing its own affairs; and finally *voluntary*, and even if volunteers are not
18 used as such, a degree of voluntarism in the management of the organization,
19 such in the form of a voluntary board.

20 Although NGOs are not new, their activities were largely invisible in
21 development discourses until the middle of the 1980s. At this point they were
22 “discovered’ and courted by two interest different groups. First were those
23 who, disillusioned with the lack of results from mainstream development
24 organisations and projects around the developing world, began to herald NGOs
25 as independent thinkers capable of developing alternative radical development
26 approaches. NGOs were linked into emerging rights, citizenship and “civil
27 society’ ideas. Second were the ascendant neoliberals, who began celebrating
28 NGOs as private, non-state actors that could play useful roles within the
privatisation agendas that were now being rolled out around the world.

29 **NGOs as brokers, entrepreneurs and intermediaries**

30
31 Alongside the emphasis on NGOs as organizations that could implement
32 policies and activities in new and improved ways, there was implicit in the
33 attraction of both these groups the idea also of NGOs as “intermediaries’ or
34 “brokers’. The idea of brokerage has traditionally carried both positive and
35 negative connotations in development and policy circles.

36 The Manchester School of anthropology contributed to the work of
37 development sociologist Norman Long³ which focused attention not only
38 on the structural characteristics of development processes and institutions
39 but also on “the responses and lived experiences of the variously located and
40 affected social actors’ involved in development interventions. Long has for

1 D. Lewis, *Non-Governmental Organizations, Management and Development*. London, 2014.

2 L. Salamon & H. Anheier, “In search of the non-profit sector: in search of definitions’, *Voluntas* 13, 2:125-152, 1992.

3 N. Long, *Development Sociology: Actor Perspectives*. London, 2001, p. 14-15.

1 many years drawn attention within development studies to the importance of
2 taking an “actor-oriented perspective’ to the study of development activities.
3 Drawing on the interactionist tradition of British anthropology, he developed
4 an influential set of ideas about the importance of brokers and networks based
5 on an anthropological understanding of social relationships “as the outcome
6 of face-to-face interaction between particular individuals who are engaged in
7 a series of transactions that evolve over time.”⁴ This was later elaborated into
8 the idea of the productive power of knowledge “interfaces’, seen as critical
9 points of intersection between different social fields, domains or lifeworlds
10 where social discontinuities based on differences in values, social interests
11 and power are found.⁵

12 In the context of the sub-field of development NGOs, it has long been
13 claimed that such organizations bring a flexibility and agility to processes that
14 when dominated by government institutions often remain bureaucratic and
15 monolithic. NGOs were seen as functioning as flexible actors that could build
16 relationships with communities in ways that were often beyond the capacities
17 of mainstream government structures and institutions, either because these
18 were mired in clientelism and patronage, or because organizational structures
19 were highly rigid. Thomas Carroll’s⁶ influential work on NGOs in Latin America
20 highlighted their intermediary or “bridging’ roles in development. This multi-
21 country study of NGO work alongside government and farmers presented
22 a positive view of intermediaries rather than exploitative “middlemen’ as
23 organizations offering “outside independent and sympathetic assistance
24 and with a support structure that provides both vertical power linkages and
25 horizontal networks of civil engagement.” (p. 181)

26 NGOs have also come to be viewed as a sub-set of the wider “third sector’,
27 a term used to refer to those organizations or groups that are neither formally
28 part of government nor business. Within the overall framework of policy, NGOs
29 may deliver services, sometimes in partnership with government or business,
30 or they may contribute to the formation of policies themselves, either directly
31 by participating in agenda setting and framing, or indirectly by working at
32 community level to build demand from local citizens for change or for better
33 implementation. This has produced a view of NGOs as “policy entrepreneurs’ in
34 which organizations play important roles within policy processes, since policy
35 is not a merely technical process but a socially mediated one that is instead
36 constituted by processes of “dialectical argumentation and persuasion’.⁷ NGO
37 roles are part of the relationships that they are able to build and maintain
38 with citizens and other stakeholders, and “the normative values and social
39 visions that they seek to actualize’. Within Adil Najam’s model of policy
40 entrepreneurship, NGOs are seen as playing four main interlinked roles – as
41 monitors, advocates, innovators and service providers, while policy processes

4 N. Long, *An Introduction to the Sociology of Development*. London, 1977, p. 177.

5 Idem, p. 177.

6 T.F. Carroll, *Intermediary NGOs: The Supporting Link in Grassroots Development*. Hartford, 1992.

7 A. Najam, “Citizen organizations as policy entrepreneurs’, in: D. Lewis (ed.), *International Perspectives on Voluntary Action: Reshaping the Third Sector*. London, 1999, p. 147.

1 are staged into agenda setting, policy development and policy implementation
2 – any which or all may be open to the four NGO roles described.

3 Finally, the perspective on brokerage and translation in development
4 outlined by Mosse and Lewis⁸ builds further on these perspectives. It focuses on
5 the multiplicity of interactions produced by decentralising and denationalising
6 imperatives of neoliberalism, and in which a range of meanings and identities
7 are under constant negotiation. Here the idea of translation is added to the
8 concept of brokerage, drawing on Bruno Latour's work, in order to reveal more
9 of the process of construction of policy worlds and development practices. In
10 this perspective brokerage is seen as concerned as much with representations
11 and identities as with material resources: "Brokers deal in people and
12 information not only for profit in the narrow sense of immediate reward, but
13 also more broadly in the maintenance of coherent representations of social
14 realities and in the shaping of their own identities." (p. 16)

15 NGOs are actors positioned at the interface of the making of development
16 worlds, and Latour's concept of translation within actor network theory helps
17 us to understand how the heterogeneous range of people, ideas, and objects
18 involved in development encounters interact to produce coherent ordered
19 representations of social reality.

20 **Case example and discussion**

21 The case of the Aga Khan Trust for Culture's (AKTC) work in Stone Town
22 in Zanzibar illustrates the productive potential of NGO type organizations
23 operating as skilled intermediaries within local and national community
24 development processes. Stone Town possesses a unique and complex mix of
25 African, Arab, Indian and European cultural influences that are embodied in
26 both tangible and intangible forms of heritage and contemporary social and
27 economic relationships. It is a World Heritage site containing a wealth of
28 significant buildings and public spaces.

29 As part of the organisation's activities around the restoration of Stone
30 Town, innovative work was carried out first on the restoration of the town's
31 historic Old Dispensary building and later on the sixty-year old Forodhani
32 Park. The aim was to both improve local infrastructure and to enable people,
33 particularly those with less secure livelihoods, to feel proud of their culture
34 and community by "preserving a unique heritage and use of open space".⁹

35 Within what is now an extremely densely populated heritage site, the local
36 waterfront park area provided a much needed public space for six decades.
37 Originally known as Jubilee Gardens, the park contains a diverse range of
38 trees and plants, and attracts both locals and tourists in large numbers. It
39 serves as a much-needed public space, as a meeting place, a leisure facility
40 and a place where a range of for civil discourse and interaction takes place.

8 D. Lewis and D. Mosse (eds.), *Development Brokers and Translators: The Ethnography of Aid and Agencies*. Bloomfield CT, 2006.

9 Aga Khan Trust for Culture, *The Revitalization of Forodhani Park. Project Brief*. Geneva, 2008.

1 The park is also economically significant for local livelihoods. There are local
2 businesses, including street-food vendors and informal sector traders who
3 sell tourist paraphernalia. By the 1990s, however, Forodhani Park (as it later
4 became known) had fallen into a state of disrepair. There had been little proper
5 maintenance carried out by local authorities, and the area's capacity and role
6 as a public, civic space was being gradually eroded and displaced by private
7 interests.

8 Taking a view that "not only can public spaces be self-sustaining, but they
9 can be catalysts for economic and social development and overall positive
10 change'AKTC decided to build on the earlier work in Zanzibar to embark on
11 the comprehensive rehabilitation of Forodhani Park as part of Stone Town's
12 heritage. From 2001 the project focused on a wide range of activities including
13 the restoration of the park's walkways and landscaping, the park's associated
14 infrastructure (including sewage, lighting and drains); providing support
15 for local small enterprises including street vendors, and re-extending public
16 space in the park to improve its utilization as civic amenity and its visibility as
17 cultural heritage. In this way the intervention created new jobs and stimulated
18 the local economy (particularly in the informal sector), improved the state of
19 local civic amenities, and also contributed to the overall strengthening of the
20 profile of Zanzibar as a tourist destination. The subsequent challenge has been
21 to build a sustainable future for the park among the various public, private and
22 civic stakeholders who use it.

23 AKTC had worked in Zanzibar since 1989, undertaking several successful
24 projects including the restoration of the Old Dispensary (now known as the
25 Stone Town Cultural Centre), the Customs House, and Kelele Square. Over time
26 partnerships were built with local actors such as the Government of Zanzibar
27 and international actors such as the Ford Foundation. Part of this work involved
28 designing and implementing training sessions for almost a hundred people to
29 improve conservation practice and the traditional construction methods used
30 by craftsmen, builders and Government workers. By then restoring a number
31 of local buildings that were on the point of collapse, it became possible to
32 demonstrate a set of preservation techniques that could be used to preserve
33 the site, and to generate rehabilitated housing stock where more than fifty
34 poor local households could also be re-housed. Other non-governmental actors
35 have supported these efforts within an integrated approach, including the Aga
36 Khan Fund for Economic Development (converting sea front buildings into
37 the Zanzibar Serena Inn) and the Foundation (strengthening local health and
38 education services).

39 Consultation and observation carried out by AKTC was also useful in
40 identifying local needs for better forms of social housing, more available work
41 for people engaged in traditional crafts, and jobs for small traders. The result
42 of consultations and information gathering was that "it became clear to all
43 parties that an important part of the patrimony of Stone Town was in need
44 of revitalization'. In addition to providing financial resources, an important
45 part of the work was that of intermediation between a complex set of local
46 stakeholders including local community members, the government, local
47 authorities, small traders, local civil society groups.

1 It is of course important to note that such work would be unlikely to be
2 successful when undertaken by outside NGOs with little familiarity with an
3 area. This work was underpinned by a long historical relationship between
4 the organization and the area, and by a deep understanding of the cultural
5 context. The Aga Khan Development Network (AKDN) and its institutional
6 predecessors have had a presence in Tanzania and Zanzibar for more than a
7 century. The relationship began formally in 1905 with the establishment of
8 the first Aga Khan Girls School in Zanzibar. Later, in recognition of AKDN's
9 record of commitment to supporting the country, the government signed an
10 Agreement of Co-operation in 1991. With the agreement renewed in 2001,
11 AKDN had achieved a position from which to make significant contributions
12 to Tanzania's planned policy and development agendas across the economic,
13 social and cultural spheres. For example, the agency's other work has included
14 rural development interventions in Lindi and Mtwara regions, provision
15 of healthcare and nursing education inputs in Dar es Salaam, and the
16 rehabilitation of infrastructure and public space in Stone Town.

17 **Conclusion**

18 This brief article has sketched out a conceptual framework for understanding
19 and utilizing the NGO role as intermediary organizations with the potential
20 to make productive contribution to the challenges in improving efforts to
21 safeguard Intangible Cultural Heritage. Beginning with an overview of the
22 complex definitional and operational worlds of the non-governmental sector,
23 the discussion then moved to the anthropological field of brokerage and policy
24 in which NGOs increasingly play important roles. Finally, the paper moving
25 from brokerage as an analytical framework to explore normative concerns an
26 draws briefly on an example of an intervention that combines both tangible
27 and intangible forms of cultural heritage. Using actor-network theory,
28 these constituent parts can be seen to be made up of a diverse set of actants
29 through which representation of social and cultural life are constructed and
30 maintained. While it is important to note the diversity of NGO capacities and
31 knowledge and the need to avoid essentialized views of such organizations, it
32 is argued that NGOs and NGO-type organizations can be viewed as potentially
33 agile intermediaries, capable of brokering ideas and representations that can
34 contribute usefully to the strengthening of ICH.

Development Brokerage, Anthropology and Public Action

Local Empowerment, International Cooperation and Aid:
Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage

1 “...coherent policy narratives in the organisations studied are often
2 produced, without a master plan, from an existing repertoire created
3 in preceding sessions and meetings by a large variety of actors from
4 governments, international administrations, NGOs and corporations.
5 Drafts are tamed until they become acceptable and polite ... This world
6 of texts negotiated almost to the letter created, paradoxically, a fuzziness
7 that can be filled by interests and power relations.” (Müller 2013)¹

8 “By expanding beyond the study of brokers at the interfaces of the
9 development apparatus to include ‘translation’ in the making of
10 development worlds, ... making a contribution to an anthropology
11 of ‘the global’ that is concerned with new forms of transnational
12 connection between ‘people, information and ideas.’” (Mosse & Lewis,
13 2006)²

14 The title of the 1999 assessment report of the UNESCO Recommendation on
15 the Safeguarding of Traditional culture and folklore (1989) spells out two
16 effects, challenges or even goals of the 2003 UNESCO Convention: “local
17 empowerment” and “international cooperation”.³ Let us add “in particular in
18 view of the need of developing countries”. Article 16 of the Convention (the
19 representative list, in view of visibility, awareness-raising and dialogue) is, at

1 B. Müller, “Introduction – Lifting the Veil of Harmony. Anthropologists Approach International Organisations”, in: B. Müller, *The Gloss of Harmony. The Politics of Policy-Making in Multilateral Organisations*. London, 2013, p. 1-22, p. 8.

2 D. Mosse & D. Lewis, “Theoretical Approaches to Brokerage and Translation in Development”, in: D. Lewis & D. Mosse (eds.), *Development Brokers and Translators. The Ethnography of Aid and Agencies*. Bloomfield, 2006, p. 1-26, p. 2.

3 P. Seitel (ed.), *A Global Assessment of the 1989 Recommendation on the Safeguarding of Traditional Culture and Folklore: Local Empowerment and International Cooperation*. Washington D.C., 2001 and <http://www.folklife.si.edu/resources/unesco/index.htm>

1 the end of the day, just the carrot to make the donkey walk and pull the cart.⁴ Is
2 it not the primary objective to interest states, donors, sponsors, politicians, the
3 media and rich actors in safeguarding heritage and making a better world, not
4 only to stimulate peace and mutual understanding, but also for development
5 and solidarity? If we take this seriously and move beyond a folklore studies
6 perspective and folk art for folk art's sake, then the idea of brokerage becomes
7 even more important. In the present discussion this is directed towards
8 sustainable development, benefit sharing and all the ethical issues involved.

9 Among the recommendations of the assessment of the 2003 UNESCO
10 Convention by the UNESCO Internal Oversight Service in 2013, an interesting
11 model is identified: "It establishes "heritage communities" and groups as
12 the key actors in all safeguarding efforts, with the Government assuming
13 a facilitation and support function. Key instruments in this framework
14 are the methods of mediation/cultural brokerage and networking among
15 different types of stakeholders at all levels ..., organizations work as cultural
16 brokers/mediators, facilitating, supporting, raising awareness, and building
17 the capacities of heritage communities and groups. The results of all these
18 efforts are the recognition of ICH as a cultural policy area, the empowerment
19 of communities, groups and individuals to safeguard their ICH ... support
20 communities through cultural brokerage and by providing opportunities for
21 networking."⁵ The quote comes from a presentation of policy and practice in a
22 (so-called) developed (part of a) state in Western Europe: Flanders in Belgium,
23 in a chapter on the participation of groups, communities and individuals. But
24 what about developing countries, developing aid and urgent needs of a social
25 or economic nature?

26 In the second chapter of the assessment report, the relevance of the 2003
27 Convention is discussed. Three main points are chosen and highlighted in
28 the analysis. In first place, and evidently the core business is the relevance to
29 International discourse and practice in the area of Intangible Cultural Heritage.
30 In second place the authors (Barbara Torggler, Ekaterina Sediakina Rivière and
31 Janet Blake) make use of this report to suggest and advocate the priority of
32 and an emphasis on gender issues. Gender challenges are important, of course,
33 but, according to me, not always relevant to the 2003 Convention and vice
34 versa. I do share their view about the strong relevance of development, with
35 special emphasis on the importance of culture to sustainable development.
36 The conclusion however was that not much work had been done: "Knowing
37 about and appreciating the linkages of ICH and sustainable development is

4 M. Jacobs, "Criteria, Apertures and Envelopes. ICH Directives and Organs in Operation", in: *Evaluating the Inscription Criteria for the Two Lists of UNESCO's Intangible Cultural Heritage Convention. The 10th Anniversary of the 2003 Convention. Final Report*. Osaka, 2013, p. 129-137 and the other contributions to this very special and critical volume.

5 IOS, IOS/EVS/PI/129 REV, B. Torggler, E. Sediakina Rivière & J. Blake, *Final Report. Evaluation of UNESCO's Standardsetting Work of the Culture Sector; Part I – 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage*. Paris, 2013, p. 42. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002230/223095E.pdf> (07-08-2014).

1 one thing, consciously building on such linkages in practice or even creating
2 such linkages where they do not yet exist is a wholly different challenge ...
3 There is certainly a need to research the relation between ICH and sustainable
4 development (and vice versa) in more depth in the future.”⁶

5 I argue for taking a look at the lessons learned in international development
6 aid and devoting special attention to cultural brokerage and mediation. In the
7 assessment, it was stated that “a further factor plays a key role with regard
8 to the integration of ICH (and culture in general) in sustainable development
9 policies/legislation and programs. This has to do with the ability of the culture
10 sector to make a compelling case for the link between ICH and sustainable
11 development. A lot of awareness raising and lobbying will be needed in the
12 future to demonstrate this link and to convince non cultural stakeholders to take
13 action. This will require the culture sector to use a “language” that addresses
14 these other sectors and to look at these linkages from their perspective,
15 rather than from the perspective of culture. In other words, there is a need
16 for culture experts to put themselves in the shoes of other sectors and to look
17 at ICH through the lens of sustainable development. Only then will culture
18 stakeholders be able to identify openings for the integration of ICH into other
19 policy areas, and to make concrete practical suggestions for how to go about
20 it. This of course, will require culture experts to team up with sustainable
21 development experts and practitioners whenever knowledge of several sectors
22 is required.”⁷ It is unclear whether these suggestions are limited to internal
23 use (domestic, regional or national policy) or, as we claim, are also, with high
24 priority, relevant to international development and to supporting developing
25 countries. In any case, (“cultural” or “heritage”) brokerage could be part of that
26 language. Furthermore, let us take the message and the emphasis in article
27 18 of the 2003 Convention very seriously and look for methods that: “best
28 reflect the principles and objectives of this Convention, taking into account
29 the special needs of developing countries.” Let us also not forget resolution
30 5.GA 5.1 of the General Assembly of the 2003 Convention, organized in Paris
31 in July 2014, which welcomed Decision 8.COM 13.a of the intergovernmental
32 committee in Baku to draw up “a new chapter on the Operational Directives
33 on safeguarding intangible cultural heritage and sustainable development at
34 the national level ... for examination by the Assembly at its sixth session”. Not
35 only the special needs, but also the experiences *in* developing countries can be
36 taken into account, as well as international cooperation. It is clear that a shared
37 vocabulary and translation, and mediation, will be needed, and a specific type
38 of “broker” provides an interesting bridge.

6 Ibidem, p. 15: the whole relevance chapter is found on pages 9-19.

7 Ibidem, p. 29, leading to the recommendation 2: “Promote increased NGO and community involvement in the development of policy, legislation, safeguarding plans and sustainable development plans.” And 3: “Enhance cooperation with sustainable development experts for integrating ICH into non cultural legislation and policy, and for other work related to ICH and sustainable development.”

1 Brokerage, power, history and anthropology

2 This article does not focus on lobbyists or the power-brokers in the banking
3 sector or the military-industrial complex nor on the World Trade Organization
4 or other protagonists of commercial capitalism in the “global-politique”.⁸ It
5 does not turn the spotlight on the new breed of 21st-century power brokers,
6 like the so-called “flexians”: people who accumulate different roles, cross
7 borders between private and public sectors, and are major influencers; the
8 people with many business cards on offer (academic, NGOs, government,
9 independent consultant etc.). If they operate together, flexnets emerge,
10 with “scholars for dollars”, shadow lobbyists operating in fields like foreign
11 policy, national and international security, financial regulation and health
12 care reform.⁹ We will zoom in on the not-for-profit institutions, NGOs and
13 other organizations that work with groups and communities and try to
14 contribute to development processes, to mitigate the effects of that other type
15 of globalization, inequality and power struggles. The goal is both to gain an
16 insight into effective development brokerage in local groups and communities
17 and to contribute to a better understanding of the effects, work, potential and
18 functioning of UNESCO and the 2003 Convention. Here a concept formulated
19 by Marc Abélès is useful: global-policy (in French, “*global-politique*”, hence also
20 with a possible translation or interpretation as “politics”), which is not the
21 same as international politics; “le global-politique est un ensemble d’instances
22 de négociation et de prise de décision ... dans un régime d’anticipation et
23 port[ant] le signe de l’incomplétude. Il ne peut pas être circonscrit en termes de
24 rapport de forces, ni pensé comme une forme supra-étatique, mais comme un
25 inducteur de normes, de concepts transversaux, de paramètres de discussion,
26 de termes de négociation qui se diffusent dans les pores des sociétés et
27 infusent les esprits qui les gouvernent. Le global-politique n’est pas seulement
28 un espace où s’échangent des arguments: on y négocie des orientations qui
29 vont progressivement s’imposer aux niveau local et national.” Abélès called
30 it a powerful cocktail of diplomacy, expertise, decision-making, policy and
31 a platform where transnational organizations and counter-power meet: “un
32 ensemble d’activités qui comprennent la diplomatie et la prise de décisions dans
33 un domaine déterminé ... mais, au-delà, la production et la mise en circulation
34 de normes, de concepts qui circulent entre le global et le local, ainsi que la
35 construction d’un espace public planétaire où se confrontent organisations
36 transnationales et contre-pouvoirs issus de la société civile.”¹⁰

8 M. Abélès, “Le global-politique et ses scènes”, in: M. Abélès (ed.), *Des anthropologues à l’OMC. Scènes de la gouvernance mondiale*. Paris, 2011, p. 111-140; D. Holmes & G. Marcus, “Cultures of Expertise and the Management of Globalization: Toward the Re-Functioning of Ethnography”, in: A. Ong & S. Collier (eds.), *Global Assemblages: Technology, Politics, and Ethics as Anthropological Problems*. Oxford, 2005, p. 235-252.

9 J. Wedel, *Shadow Elite: How the World’s New Power Brokers Undermine Democracy, Government, and the Free Market*. New York, 2001; J. Wedel & S. Chandra, “Courtage international et institutions floues. Des rôles multiples, ambigus et contradictoires dans les relations russo-américaines”, *Actes de la recherche en sciences sociales* 151, 2004, p. 115-125; http://janinewedel.info/harvardscholarly_ACTES.pdf.

10 M. Abélès, “Introduction”, in: M. Abélès (ed.), *Des anthropologues à l’OMC. Scènes de la gouvernance mondiale*. Paris, 2011, p. 15-31, p. 24-25.

1 These notions function in a postcolonial version of globalization, but the
2 concept of “brokerage” was first used for studying colonial figurations and the
3 management of empires. In anthropology, several case-studies on colonial
4 governance empirically detected the importance and functions of go-betweens
5 like local chiefs and religious leaders. Two of the first publications by two
6 scholars who were to become global superstars in anthropology in the second
7 half of the 20th century, pioneered the use of the concept of (power-)brokers.

8 On the one hand, Eric Wolf investigated how communities become
9 integrated and fit into larger complex structures like nation states (in this case
10 Mexico). As early as 1956 he highlighted the importance of intermediaries
11 in different phases of history: “The study of these “brokers” will prove
12 increasingly rewarding, as anthropologists shift their attention from the
13 internal organization of communities to the manner of their integration into
14 larger systems. For they stand guard over the crucial junctures or synapses of
15 relationships which connect the local system to the larger whole.”¹¹ Wolf made
16 some very sharp observations: “The position of these “brokers” is an “exposed”
17 one, since, Janus-like, they face in two directions at once. They must serve
18 some of the interests of groups operating on both the community and the
19 national level, and they must cope with the conflicts raised by the collision of
20 these interests. They cannot settle them, since by doing so they would abolish
21 their own usefulness to others. Thus they often act as buffers between groups,
22 maintaining the tensions which provide the dynamic of their actions.”¹²

23 On the other hand, in 1960 Clifford Geertz presented an interesting
24 case-study on the evolving role of “kijaji” in the emerging Indonesia, from
25 a “key broker role within the great Islamic tradition” to that of “politicized
26 schoolteacher, the key broker role within modern nationalism. It is upon his
27 ability to fuse these two that the future of Islam in Indonesia as a political
28 and social force rests.”¹³ Notice not only that Geertz launched the concept of
29 “cultural broker” but also the technique of tracking changing roles, functions
30 and contexts.¹⁴

11 E. Wolf, “Aspects of Group Relations in a Complex Society: Mexico”, *American Anthropologist* 58:6, 1956, p. 1065-1078, p. 1075.

12 Wolf, *Aspects*, p. 1076.

13 C. Geertz, “The Javanese Kijaji: The Changing Role of a Cultural Broker”, *Comparative Studies in Society and History* 2:2, 1960, p. 228-249.

14 In relation to the functioning of the Intergovernmental Committee of the 2003 Convention and the way “sustainable development” was put on the agenda, see M. Jacobs, “Notes on the Balinese Cockfight. Consensus play, diplomats and experts in the 2011 meeting of the UNESCO Intergovernmental Committee for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage”, in: L. Turgeon (ed.), *The Politics and Practice of Intangible Cultural Heritage*. Montreal, 2014 (at press), to be combined with G. Marcus, “Geertz’s Legacy. Beyond the Modes of Cultural Analysis of His Time: Speculative Notes and Queries in Remembrance”, in: J. Alexander, Ph. Smith and M. Norton (eds.), *Interpreting Clifford Geertz. Cultural Investigation in the Social Sciences*. New York, 2011, p. 131-144 and R. Smeets, “On the Third Source of Guidance for the Implementation of UNESCO’s Intangible Heritage Convention”, in: *The First ICH-Researchers Forum. The Implementation of UNESCO’s 2003 Convention. Final Report, 3 June 2012*. Paris, 2012, p. 71-86.

1 In the 1960s and 1970s, scholars like James Scott (to name yet another guru,
2 who would later launch the concept of public and hidden transcripts, also useful
3 tools in UNESCO-studies), did research on clientelism and the importance of
4 brokerage to make states and other political systems work.¹⁵ Amsterdam-based
5 anthropologists including Anton Blok and Jeremy Boissevain used the concept
6 of the “broker” in their studies of power struggles, politics and mafia in villages
7 and towns in Malta and Sicily.¹⁶ Their work received a lot of attention from
8 historians and brokerage concepts have been applied in social, political and
9 cultural history, in both the early modern and modern eras.¹⁷ This was explicitly
10 the case in a number of inspiring studies of the functions of early modern
11 royal and other courts, but also in art history in the 16th and 17th centuries.¹⁸ The
12 concepts of brokerage were connected to patronage, clientelism and indirect
13 forms of power based on services, obligations and access to powerful figures.
14 Kettering showed how important clientelism, patronage and brokerage were
15 to understanding how the French monarchy functioned in the 17th century.
16 Clientelism describes a system of patron-broker-client ties and networks, in
17 which a broker mediates between separated parties, using resources he does
18 not always directly control, often involving people who can provide access to
19 power. Kettering identified characteristics of the system and underlined that
20 “Brokerage is a role that can be played by someone who is a patron, a broker,
21 and a client: he can play two roles at the same time as patron-broker or broker-
22 client, or one role at a time. The duality of their role as patron-brokers or
23 broker-clients, however, sets brokers apart from ordinary patrons and clients,
24 who have direct, personal relationships and operate within one milieu: they do
25 not cut across physical, social, or political distances.¹⁹ She emphasized that it
26 was an instrument, also for the king and ministers, to make the power system
27 work in a state that was not completely centralized: “The French provinces were
28 only partially under royal control for most of this period. So the crown had to
29 supplement its authority with patron-broker-client ties that functioned inside
30 and outside the institutional framework: they were used to manipulating
31 political institutions from within, to operate across institutions, and to act
32 in place of institutions. They were interstitial, supplementary and parallel
33 structures. Brokers mediated between the provincial power structure and the
34 national government in Paris, performing the critical function of linkage in a
35 state with a weak central government ... Brokers in early modern France did

- 15 See S. Schmidt et al., *Friends, Followers, and Factions: A Reader in Political Clientelism*. Berkeley, 1977 with a bibliography presented by J. Scott. Do take note of his book J. Scott, *Domination and the Arts of Resistance: Hidden Transcripts*. New Haven, 1990 and the reference in Mosse & Lewis, *Theoretical*, p. 16.
- 16 J. Boissevain, *Friends of Friends, Networks, Manipulators and Coalitions*. Oxford, 1974; A. Blok, *The Mafia of a Sicilian Village, 1860-1960: A Study of Violent Peasant Entrepreneurs*. New York, 1974.
- 17 See for instance: J. Boutier, “Les courtiers locaux du politique – 1789-1792”, *Annales historiques de la Révolution française* 297, 1994, p. 401-411, inspired by the work of T. Bierschenk, J.-P. Olivier De Sardan, Giovanni Levi and S. Kettering.
- 18 See for instance J. Cole, “Cultural Clientelism and Brokerage Networks in Early Modern Florence and Rome: New Correspondence between the Barberini and Michelangelo Buonarroti the Younger”, *Renaissance Quarterly* 60:3, 2007, p. 729-788.
- 19 S. Kettering, *Patrons, Brokers, and Clients in Seventeenth-Century France*. New York, 1986, p. 4.

1 not see themselves as brokers, however; we have the advantage of hindsight in
2 that.”²⁰ In the Low Countries these concepts have also been applied to the study
3 of 17th-century political and cultural systems.²¹

4 But the concept should not be restricted to just one phase in history
5 of nation states or governance, but can also be applied in other periods,
6 characterized by more centralization and bureaucratization. Empirical
7 research shows that even in recent history and today bureaucrats can become
8 brokers and brokers bureaucrats and that this is probably necessary to make
9 the systems function. Kettering had already pointed out that a very centralized
10 state structure like France in the 1970s and 1980s also relied on these functions.
11 Sydney Tarrow showed that “the implementation of national policies toward
12 local government requires initiative at the local level to direct goods toward
13 particular communities and to capture resources from the state. In filling this
14 function, the mayors act as policy brokers at the grass-roots level.”²²

15 The concept of brokerage proved not only useful when analyzing processes
16 within states or empires, but also between states and empires, both in the
17 distant past and in recent history.²³ The notion of intercultural mediators in the
18 context of expanding European empires or immigrant nations in continents
19 other than Europe has recently been studied intensively.²⁴

20 Another category of brokerage roles (and/or literature about them) is
21 related to the integration and connection of endogenous populations, whose
22 environment was colonized by outsiders, to an intercontinental framework,
23 ranging from first contacts to frontier interactions. In the United States of
24 America, the concept of cultural broker had been embraced in that field of
25 research since the 1980s and in particular since a publication by Daniel Richter
26 in the *Journal of American History* in 1988 with the word “cultural broker” in the
27 title and dealing with intercultural politics between settlers in New York and the
28 Iroquois in the 17th century. Richter emphasized that the Iroquois Great League
29 of Peace (Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas and Senecas) was a complex
30 and shaky cluster of relationships and regular negotiations and ceremonial
31 exchanges, as well as overlapping interconnections with kin groups and other
32 networks. “For both New York and the Five Nations, then, personal connections
33 among brokers for kin groups, political factions, and local communities were
34 crucial for internal unity. Not surprisingly, similar mechanisms characterized

20 Idem, p. 5.

21 For a combination of translation sociology (actor-network theory), network theory and cultural brokerage, see M. Jacobs, *Parateksten, netwerken en conventies in de Spaanse Nederlanden en Franche-Comté (1621-1678): de familie Chifflet uit Besançon*. Brussel, 1998.

22 Kettering, *Patrons*, p. 228-229.

23 See the contributions and bibliographies in M. von der Höh, N. Jaspert & J. Rahel Oesterle (eds.), *Cultural Brokers at Mediterranean Courts in the Middle Ages*. Paderborn, 2013.

24 See for instance E. N. Rothman, “Genealogies of Mediation: ‘Culture Broker’ and Imperial Governmentality”, in: E. Murphy et al. (ed.), *Anthrohistory. Unsettling Knowledge, Questioning Discipline*. Ann Arbor, 2011, p. 67-79 and E. N. Rothman. *Brokering Empire: Trans-Imperial Subjects between Venice and Istanbul*. Ithaca, 2011.

1 their interactions with each other.”²⁵ Richter connected his attempts to
2 understand how the imperial powers of the early-modern world-system tried
3 to absorb native peoples into that system with concepts from social network
4 theory and anthropology, e.g. those of Geertz and Boissevain. In particular, the
5 intermediaries between Indian/Native American culture and mainstream US
6 culture (with its European origins), received much attention from a cultural
7 brokerage perspective. A very interesting case, in view of similarities between
8 the consensus-building diplomatic transactions among the early modern Five
9 (and later Six) Nations on the one hand and the post-1945 United Nations
10 (and UNESCO) on the other, is the role interpreter-mediators of Native Indian
11 origin played in colonial America, in the negotiations between the Iroquois
12 and the Dutch, and later the English, in New Amsterdam/New York and
13 Pennsylvania. They did much more than just translate to and from English.
14 They used and facilitated the bridging of intercultural differences so as to
15 come to agreements.²⁶ In 1994, Margaret Connel Szasz edited a volume about
16 cultural intermediaries between Indians and people from Europe and other
17 continents, featuring biographies of cultural brokers (including William
18 Frederick Cody, alias Buffalo Bill) who were operating in early modern and
19 19th- and 20th-century North America and Mexico. In a new edition, seven
20 years later, she noted that the concept of cultural brokerage had proliferated
21 in American ethnohistory: “These studies all reconfirmed the importance of
22 cultural intermediaries in *our shared past*”.²⁷

25 D.K. Richter, “Cultural Brokers and Intercultural Politics: New York-Iroquois Relations”, 1664-1701, *The Journal of American History* 75, 1988, p. 40-67, p. 45; D.K. Richter, “Ordeals of the Longhouse: The Five Nations in Early American History”, in: *Beyond the Covenant Chain: The Iroquois and Their Neighbors in Indian North America, 1600-1800*. Syracuse, 1987, p. 11-27.

26 N. Hagedorn, “A Friend to go between Them”: The Interpreter as Cultural Broker during Anglo-Iroquois Councils, 1740-70”, *Ethnohistory* 35, 1988, p. 60-80; B. Hosmer, “Reflections on Indian Cultural ‘Brokers’: Reginald Oshkosh, Mitchell Oshkenaniew, and the Politics of Menominee Lumbering”, *Ethnohistory* 44, 1997, p. 493-509; N. Hagedorn, “Faithful, knowing, and prudent: Andrew Montour as Interpreter and Cultural Broker, 1740-1772”, in: M. Connell Szasz, *Between Indian and White Worlds: The Cultural Broker*. Norman, 2001, p. 44-60; M. Meuwese, “For the peace and well-being of the country”: *Intercultural mediators and Dutch-Indian relations in New Netherland and Dutch Brazil, 1600-1664*. PhD diss., University Notre Dame, 2003, p. 11-12; M. Meuwese, “From Intercolonial Messenger to Christian Indian: The Flemish Bastard and the Mohawk Struggle for Independence from New France and Colonial New York in the Eastern Great Lakes Borderland, 1647-1687”, in: K.S. Hele (ed.), *Lines Drawn Upon the Water: First Nations and the Great Lakes Borders and Borderlands*. S.l., 2008, p. 43-63; M. Meuwese, “Pragmatic Agents of Empire: Dutch Intercultural Mediators among the Mohawks in Seventeenth-Century New Netherland,” in: B. Jacob Kaplan, M. Carlson, L. Cruz (eds.), *Boundaries and their meanings in the history of the Netherlands*. Leiden and Boston, 2009, p. 139-154. For later examples of female cultural brokers, see for instance: V. Sherer Mathes, “Helen Hunt Jackson as Power Broker”, in: Szasz, *Between*, p. 141-157.

27 Szasz, *Between*, p. XI. See also the intelligent comments in J.Weibel-Orlando, “Review of: *Between Worlds: Interpreters, Guides, and Survivors* by Frances E. Karttunen; *Between Indian and White Worlds: The Cultural Broker* by Margaret Connell Szasz”, *Ethnohistory* 42, 1995, p. 659-662.

1 These examples show that an increasing number of case-studies on
2 different periods in history and different regions on several continents are
3 being published that refer to “cultural brokerage” or concepts like intercultural
4 intermediators or translators. I do believe it is worthwhile not only to
5 continue to work in that direction, but also to bring these examples together
6 in a new genealogy, or even history, of cultural mediation or of concepts
7 like intercultural communication or safeguarding. New combinations of
8 converging lines are possible, which makes the global history of brokerage
9 relevant to today’s critical heritage studies. But we can also refer to links to the
10 history of the divergence between popular and elite culture in Europe²⁸ or the
11 active research tradition concerning brokerage in the Mediterranean countries
12 and the recent research into colonies and empires that I mentioned in the
13 previous paragraph. It makes sense to add historical resources and criticism to
14 the field, in particular those of previously colonized independent states.

15 **Development brokerage and anthropology in a world with** 16 **developing countries**

17 In the rest of the article we explore the potential of the paradigm of cultural
18 brokerage for UNESCO. UNESCO had been structured by and structured the
19 blocks and logic of the Cold War world since the 1940s. The UNESCO electoral
20 groups are one of the most visible forms of heritage of the Cold War period, and
21 this path-dependency has also had its effect on the 2003 UNESCO Convention,
22 its operational directives and its implementation today. In the same period
23 the idea and practices around something called a “Third World” and relations
24 between developing countries (rather than colonies) and (former) colonizing
25 countries emerged and proliferated.

26 A relevant context or reading matrix here is that of decolonization and of
27 changing frames of reference from “development” (economic, social etc.) to
28 “sustainable development” (a challenge for all countries), including attention
29 to bio- and cultural diversity, since the 1990s. In order to organize the
30 historical narrative, Brandecker proposed designating 1961 as a milestone: the
31 year the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
32 was founded, the USAID gained presidential approval and when, in Germany,
33 a Ministry for Development Aid was founded. After the Oil Crisis of 1973/1974
34 in particular and in the light of the difficulties developing states had repaying
35 their loans, lenders and donors gradually opted for more pinpointed projects
36 that could be monitored and which avoided going through state channels
37 overseas (south of the *Mare Nostrum*). After 1989, the fall of the Iron Curtain
38 changed the game even more, as the option of governments in developing
39 countries relying on streams of financing and development aid from the USSR

28 M. Jacobs, “Bruegel and Burke were here! Examining the criteria implicit in the UNESCO paradigm of safeguarding ICH: the first decade”, *International Journal of Intangible Heritage* 9, 2014, p. 99-117.

1 communist block was no longer a significant alternative.²⁹ After the Cold
2 War, and since the 1990s, this made the world of development aid even more
3 fragmented and open to negotiation over and management of specific projects
4 and goals. In configurations (if we may use Norbert Elias' network concept)
5 where intermediaries became more and more important.

6 All these evolutions in colonial and post-colonial settings have been studied
7 in anthropology and other social sciences that were themselves transformed
8 by this re-framing and repositioning, in particular in the European universities
9 in former colonial states. I shall now focus on two specific clusters. On the
10 one hand there is the German-French-francophone (postcolonial) ("Africa")
11 network, the Bierschenk-Olivier de Sardan-APAD cluster, which since the
12 1980s has been working on "*courtage*" and in particular on the "*courtier local*
13 *en développement*". On the other hand there is the British-Dutch-Anglophone
14 mega ("India") cluster around Mosse-Lewis. In fact they mutually refer to and
15 reinforce each other, yielding the building blocks we need.

16 **Courtage in Africa**

17 Let us first zoom in on Africa. In 1991, a network of researchers working on
18 and/or in post-colonial *Afrique* set up APAD, the *Association euro-africaine Pour*
19 *l'Anthropologie du changement social et du Développement*.³⁰ In 2000 the collaboration
20 yielded a book with a title that speaks volumes: *Courtiers en développement. Les*
21 *villages Africains en quête de projets* (2000). How do villages or regions in African
22 states attract resources from European or other governments, brokers or
23 NGOs? Brokers (in French: "*courtiers*") are crucial in this process. Describing
24 and analyzing this role is the major contribution of APAD. They explicitly
25 aimed at actors, if possible individuals, whose mediating, translating and
26 brokering actions made a difference in real life, in villages, in particular by
27 mobilizing and distributing resources. These processes have become more
28 and more important after the colonial period in Africa, in particular since
29 the 1970s. The relations between African and European countries and hence
30 the framing, legitimation and expectations regarding the flow of resources,
31 incomes and investments changed in the post-colonial period, and *a fortiori*
32 in the post-communist era (although the new episodes today involving what
33 China is doing in Africa are once again changing the rules of the game and
34 what is at stake: new challenges for researchers to integrate into a long-term
35 story).

36 Thomas Bierschenk and Jean-Pierre Olivier de Sardan introduced a series
37 of metaphors and concepts such as "*courtiers en développement*" to understand
38 how this actually functioned. They appropriated the concept from the oeuvre

29 <http://www.oecd.org>; N. Brandecker, *Les courtiers locaux en développement à la lumière des nouvelles perspectives: Une proposition pour un élargissement du concept analytique du courtier*. Université de Provence, 2009, p. 14-15.

30 <http://www.association-apid.org/>. For an historical review of the work of APAD-members, see T. Bierschenk, "Historiciser et localiser les approches. Anthropologie et développement", *Bulletin de l'APAD* [31-32], 2010, p. 161-192 (21-01-2014).

1 of Jeremy Boissevain and the Amsterdam school on Mediterranean villages
2 and regions (Malta, Sicily etc.) and built on it. They coined and operationally
3 defined the concept of local development brokers: “Par “courtiers locaux du
4 développement”, nous entendons les acteurs sociaux implantés dans une
5 arène locale qui servent d’intermédiaires pour drainer (vers l’espace social
6 correspondant à cette arène) des ressources extérieures relevant de ce que l’on
7 appelle communément “l’aide au développement”.³¹ The local brokers of the
8 development projects tried to act as representatives and spokespeople and to
9 translate needs of the population and/or environment where they were active,
10 or actually living, for external donors so as to get them interested and willing
11 to grant money for projects. They accompanied the flow of resources towards
12 and in local networks in a specific local, power-laden setting (arena). They
13 did not possess or directly control the resources for development, but they did
14 have contacts with the people or institutions that do, and they usually had
15 more information about the transaction than the other parties.

16 In these studies, the idea of “*courtage collectif*” was also explored, in the sense
17 of a “*chaîne de courtage*” or brokerage chain. But brokerage by institutions or NGOs
18 was also considered. Inevitably, and luckily, the whole chain of development
19 from donor to village people came into the picture. In order to encapsulate
20 these evolutions, Nora Brandecker proposed a broader definition, leaving out
21 the adjective “*local*”: “Par courtier en développement, nous entendons tous
22 les acteurs sociaux, qui négocient en tant qu’intermédiaire neutre entre les
23 bailleurs de fonds et les bénéficiaires d’aide au développement.”³² The word
24 “actors” makes it possible to describe both chains, associations, NGOs and
25 other actors in a brokerage perspective. There is an argument for adding the
26 “non-governmental” dimension to the word “development broker”, meaning
27 not part of the administrative or political apparatus of a nation state. The idea
28 would be to really emphasize the quality of “third party”, also and in particular
29 in the so-called developed countries. Brandecker remarks: “On trouve dans
30 les pays développés des exemples d’agence de courtage étatique ou semi
31 étatique telles que les chambres de commerce, les agences d’information pour
32 les consommateurs ou autre médiateurs. Toutefois – en règle générale,– les
33 fonctionnaires travaillant dans les ministères et les employés des bailleurs de
34 fonds ne peuvent pas être considérés comme des courtiers.”³³ One of the reasons
35 for this, a point I wish to emphasize, is the question of final responsibility
36 and the fact that in the end a minister or a whole government can be held
37 responsible or accountable for mistakes, criticism or even a bad outcome
38 caused by the actions of members of the administration. This aspect in the
39 “brokerage” story, for instance in the whole debate about the role of NGOs and
40 state-parties in the 2003 Convention, deserves more reflection and attention.

31 T. Bierschenk, J.-P. Olivier de Sardan, “Les courtiers locaux du développement”, *Bulletin de l’APAD* 5, 1993, p. 71-76, p. 71.

32 Brandecker, *Courtiers*, p. 16.

33 Idem, p. 19.

1 Normally the broker can be paid for his or her services (time, skills etc.), but
2 cannot really “profit” from it, in the sense of skimming off part of the profit.
3 There is a disconnect between the resources whose movement is facilitated
4 and the payment, in this case of non-commercial brokerage (as for example
5 in real estate brokerage). In the APAD studies of African cases, we do see that
6 the brokers can profit indirectly from the fact that resources are going to their
7 regions. Here we are also in the sphere of transformations between symbolic,
8 social and cultural capital that at some point in time can be cashed in and
9 transformed into economic capital.

10 One of the African protagonists in this French-German scholarly network
11 is Bako Arifari.³⁴ He focused on the interlocked nature of several networks and
12 brokerage roles. In the APAD network, he also described “regional development
13 brokers” that were operating in regional networks and in local arenas: they
14 often do not reside in the village or in the “local arena” but visit occasionally.
15 “*Bi-appartenance arénale*” is the concept Bako Arifari coined to characterize
16 these actors, rather than the metaphor “implanted” in the region to which they
17 channel resources. For these people, it can be important to be part of a national
18 government or administration where information circulates and where access
19 to influential persons is possible.

20 If we follow the broadened definition proposed by Nora Brandecker and
21 follow the network up to the international scale, we can discover development
22 brokers with a “*multi-appartenance arénale*”, among which are international
23 arenas. This kind of national and international brokers have a great impact
24 on the construction of reality, in the translation process in the actor-network
25 theory sense of the term, to mobilize the resources, in particular for cultural
26 brokers from Europe who are trying to facilitate the development process and
27 often meet (potential) local or national brokers. But consultants from the Nord
28 especially cannot always build up a series of local contacts, due to very short
29 stays as “fly-in, fly-out consultants”. These activities are based on interlocking
30 broker activities, which is certainly the case in the UNESCO context.

31 The four characteristics the APAD school uses to analyze the capacities or
32 competences of local development brokers also apply, but in a more abstract
33 way, to the other levels: 1) rhetorical, 2) organizational, 3) scenographic,
34 4) network capacities. Being able and willing to set up a useful representation
35 (the third competence) is important in convincing or seducing potential
36 donors. The skills needed to present small, feasible projects and stage them
37 to make them visible, ones in which villagers can perform or simply warmly
38 welcome external visitors (who report to the funding agencies) are crucial,
39 either by making the reality visitable or by fabricating a suitable reality. The
40 brokers have to be able to address the power-holders, to be flexible enough
41 to deal with different actors and to package it in a convincing manner. This
42 includes “translation” into the correct jargon and register (avoiding taboo

34 The fact that Nassirou Bako-Arifari was called back from his academic life in Europe studying brokerage and development to become, in 2011, Benin’s Minister for Foreign Affairs, African Integration, Francophonie and Beninese Abroad, sheds a whole new light on his previous and present work.

1 words, sticking to the vocabulary of the 2003 Convention and the 2014
2 operational directives, *i.e.* as long as the 2016 version, which may contain
3 new words regarding sustainable development and ... brokerage, is not yet
4 available).

5 The 2003 UNESCO Convention on the one hand involves a top-down reboot
6 operation by means of a severe limitation of vocabulary, but on the other,
7 thanks to article 15 of the Convention, it is an invitation to devise bottom-up
8 solutions and approaches. This is why brokers who are also “translators” are
9 so crucial. This is very compatible with a point made by Bako-Arifari quoting
10 Olivier de Sardan: “Il ne s’agit donc pas d’une ingénierie sociale classique, où
11 les experts partent de modèles souvent prédéfinis qu’ils appliquent à divers
12 contextes ... l’approche est modulée en fonction des savoirs locaux, des
13 pratiques et expériences quotidiennes des acteurs ... La médiation sociale
14 permet de combiner les exigences de l’intervention avec les exigences de la
15 qualité d’une recherche anthropologique préalable qui ne “s’arrête pas avec
16 le diagnostic initial mais se poursuit tout au long de la phase opérationnelle
17 dans un registre de recherche-action informant au fur et à mesure l’action des
18 nouvelles observations et analyses, permettant ainsi de prendre en compte les
19 fluctuations du champ social en fonction des enjeux et des contingences.”³⁵

20 **Critical perspectives on development aid and the importance of** 21 **brokerage and translation: Mosse and Lewis**

22 Development seemed a stable concept with which to explain the relationship
23 between the West and the rest since the Second World War. But in the last decade
24 of the 20th and the first decade of the 21st century, widening cracks appeared in
25 that image. Cultural dominance seemed implicit in the idea of development.
26 British anthropologists did interesting work on globalization, power and
27 development, both in the United Kingdom and in former British colonies,
28 focusing on NGOs, brokers, development aid and management discourse in
29 the post-Cold War period. Many of the nice and warm buzzwords that also
30 flourish in the epistemic community of UNESCO have been questioned and
31 deconstructed. From participation and participatory approaches to the idea
32 of buzzwords themselves: a battery of critical analysis is available.³⁶ Even a
33 buzzword with high priority in the strategies of the organs of the 2003 UNESCO

35 N. Bako-Arifari, “La médiation socio-anthropologique entre savoir et action. Plaidoyer pour un métier de médiateur en action publique», in T. Bierschenk et al. (eds.), *Une anthropologie entre rigueur et engagement. Essais autour de l’oeuvre de Jean-Pierre Olivier de Sardan*. Leiden, Paris, 2007, p. 175-200, p. 194.

36 See among other contributions to the volume: D. Mosse, “‘People’s Knowledge’, Participation and Patronage: Operations and Representations in Rural Development”, in: B. Cooke & U. Kothari (eds.), *Participation. The New Tyranny?* London-New York, 2004, p. 16-35; A. Bebbington, S. Guggenheim, M. Woolcock, “Concepts: Their Contexts and their Consequences”, in: A. Bebbington, M. Woolcock, S. Guggenheim, E. Olson (eds.), *The Search for Empowerment. Social Capital as Idea and Practice at the World Bank*. Bloomfield, 2006, p. 261-287; A. Cornwall and K. Brock, “Beyond Buzzwords. ‘Poverty Reduction’, ‘Participation’ and ‘Empowerment’ in Development Policy”, in: , [http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/\(httpAuxPages\)/F25D3D6D27E2A1ACC12570CB002FFA9A/\\$file/cornwall.pdf](http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/(httpAuxPages)/F25D3D6D27E2A1ACC12570CB002FFA9A/$file/cornwall.pdf)

1 Convention got the deconstruction treatment in development anthropology.
2 Is capacity-building a one-way indoctrination of values? According to
3 Giles Mohan, capacity-building actually often means strengthening areas
4 that ensure the compatibility, reception and success of pre-determined
5 interventions set by actors in a development strategy. But there is also the
6 possibility of moving beyond these rigid external frameworks by building on
7 what exists in the community or the group, even resulting in a hope that the
8 “whole capacity-building process is about confidence in the village in order to
9 say “No” to organizations that do not meet the village’s requirements.”³⁷ Of if I
10 may add, to offer a “wicked problem” approach and hence bring new needs for
11 participatory and eclectic safeguarding techniques into the picture.³⁸

12 An extremely valuable element in these new kinds of ethnography is
13 the reality check, e.g. as applied to project planning or interventions. The
14 researchers observed that interventions are not usually simply an execution
15 of a specified plan of action with expected outcomes, but an ongoing,
16 socially constructed and negotiated process. They discover that participatory
17 methods take time, a lot of negotiation and can produce less “elegant looking”
18 solutions. In a study of the confrontation of traditional practices and actors
19 in garbage collection and attempts to implement a modern, privatized solid
20 waste management system in Cairo, Jamie Furniss, arrived at an important
21 suggestion: “Instead of designing picture-perfect master-plans, participation
22 emphasizes a detailed, needs-driven rather than elegance-driven approach.
23 In this sense it can be said to be a bottom-up process, more in the nature of
24 the common law, building piecemeal solutions to specific cases into a larger
25 system, rather than trying to impose the elegance of a prefabricated system
26 onto all the myriad cases it may encounter. Planning is a term that should be
27 associated more with an expertise-derived system of authority.”³⁹

28 A series of conferences in Manchester (1992, 1994, 2005) allow us to trace
29 the scaling-up of ambitions and impact of NGOs in the world of development
30 and poverty reduction since the 1990s. This evolution among NGOs, involving
31 their being drawn into an international figuration and effectively teaming up
32 with national and international (state) entities, led to legitimation problems
33 and criticism. New challenges and roles for NGOs were identified in a move
34 from “development as delivery” to “development as leverage”. At the 2005
35 Manchester conference, the 21st-century changes were assessed, as the room
36 for manoeuvre had been changed (constrained) by the security agenda after
37 the attacks by Al Qaeda and other terrorists, neo-liberalism, and the political
38 criticism of NGOs, particularly in the South. Part of the story of “leverage”
39 or “raising” awareness would imply developing new capacities and skills

37 G. Mohan, “Beyond Participation: Strategies for Deeper Empowerment”, in: D. Lewis & D. Mosse (eds.), *Development Brokers*, p. 153-167, p. 167.

38 V. Brown et al., *Tackling Wicked Problems. Through the Transdisciplinary Imagination*. London-Washington D.C., 2010.

39 J. Furniss, “Private Sector Reform of Egyptian Solid Waste Management”, in: G. Gómez, A. Corradi, P. Goulart, R. Namara (eds.), *Participation for What: Social Change or Social Control?*The Hague, 2010, p. 52-75, p. 72.

1 like bridging or mediation. Next to concerns about the effective benefits for
2 poor people and countries and the accountability of NGOs, Michael Edwards
3 identified the following key challenges:

- 4 - “How to mobilize a genuinely inclusive civil society at all levels of the world
5 system, as opposed to a thin layer of elite NGOs operating internationally ...
- 6 - How to ensure that gains at the global level are translated into concrete
7 benefits at the grassroots, translating abstract commitments made in
8 international conferences into actions that actually enforce rules and
9 regulations on the ground.”⁴⁰

10 One of the protagonists of the recent critical development studies movement,
11 David Mosse, worked as an anthropologist-consultant on a British aid project
12 in rural India in the 1990s. He sublimated his experience in a thick transcript
13 and eclectic transdisciplinary study, called an “ethnography of aid policy and
14 practice”.⁴¹ His book did touch a nerve: aside from his supporters, some of his
15 former colleagues in the consultancy business and some of his academic peers
16 criticized the work and even tried to prevent the publication.⁴² He did not
17 evaluate the success or impact of the development trajectories and projects in
18 a classic way: he tried to demonstrate how “success” or “impact” is constructed.
19 People familiar with the style of ethnographic research and writing in actor-
20 network analysis will recognize the influence of Bruno Latour: “[It] requires the
21 constant work of translation (of policy goals into practical interests; practical
22 interests back into policy goals), which is the task of skilled brokers (managers,
23 consultants, fieldworkers, community leaders – the subjects of this book)
24 who read the meaning of a project into the different institutional languages
25 of its stakeholder supporters, constantly creating interest and making it real
26 (cf. Latour 1996: 86). The problem is that this diversity and the multiplicity
27 of interests (and the needs to be met) themselves destabilize and militate
28 against coherence. ... The ethnographic task is also to show how, despite such
29 fragmentation and dissent, actors in development are constantly engaged in
30 creating order and unity through political acts of composition.”⁴³

31 Mosse goes very far in his analysis and takes no prisoners, coming to a
32 number of radical and extremely clear and acute propositions, that are indeed
33 eye-openers but leave little room for maneuver, enrolment or mobilization,
34 romantic enthusiasm, or the motivation of actors working on projects or in

40 M. Edwards, “Have NGOs ‘Made a Difference?’ From Manchester to Birmingham with an Elephant in the Room”, in: A. Bebbington, S. Hickey and D. Mitlin (eds.), *Can NGOs Make a Difference?* London, 2007, p. 38-54, p. 43.

41 D. Mosse, *Cultivating Development. An Ethnography of Aid Policy and Practice*. London-Ann Arbor, 2005.

42 See also D. Mosse, “Politics and ethics: ethnographies of expert knowledge and professional identities”, in: C. Shore, S. Wright & D. Però (eds.), *Policy Worlds. Anthropology and the Analysis of Contemporary Power*. Oxford, 2011, p. 50-67.

43 Mosse, *Cultivating*, p. 9.

1 development programs.⁴⁴ He deconstructs, exposes and unmasks, but also urges
2 against abandonment, and for learning lessons and enhancing reflexivity. He
3 ends his tabula rasa with the statement that “The ground of anthropological
4 practice has changed fundamentally in the past two decades. The fact that
5 anthropologists are no longer justified as value-free and objective observers,
6 the source of politically neutral and authoritative scientific knowledge
7 puts anthropology back into historical power relationships. In relation to
8 international development, this provides opportunities, if not obligations, for
9 engagement and self-critical reflection, for hope and critical understanding –
10 neither of which is possible without close encounters with the administrative
11 politics of development practice.”⁴⁵

12 One could deduct several critical success factors for a project. First it is
13 useful to create a compelling story about the events, to be able to explain
14 events and actions as part of the bigger program and planning, as the results
15 of a participatory approach. While implementing the projects, tools like forms,
16 videos, photos and visits (with visitors that reinforce and confirm the leading
17 stories once back in the office) help to shape and express the plan and the claim
18 of the major representation. It is all a question of aiming and positioning the
19 local projects in the agendas and frameworks of the donors.

20 Just like his colleague David Lewis, David Mosse has recently published
21 a whole series of articles and volumes on NGOs, policy, development and
22 globalization: recommended reading and eye-opening material for critical
23 heritage studies.⁴⁶ In these publications, on the ethnography of how policy,
24 international projects, development and other processes work, the activities
25 and roles of “brokers” are identified frequently. According to Lewis and Mosse,
26 an actor-oriented approach leads to greater insight about “intermediary actors
27 or brokers operating at the “interfaces” of different world-views and knowledge
28 systems, and reveals their importance in negotiating roles, relationships and
29 representations. By managing both strong and weak ties (Granovetter, 1973) in
30 these negotiations, social actors “steer or muddle their ways through difficult
31 scenarios, turning “bad” into “less bad” circumstances.”⁴⁷ Mosse and Lewis
32 pointed out an association in the metaphor of translation, namely the effect
33 of “the production and protection of unified fields of development ... the
34 appearance of congruence between problems and interventions, the coherence

44 Idem, p. 14-20 “Proposition 1: Policy primarily functions to mobilise and maintain political support, that is to legitimise rather than to orientate practice”; Proposition 2: Development interventions are not driven by policy but by the exigencies of organisations and the need to maintain relationships.; Proposition 3: Development projects work to maintain themselves as coherent policy ideas (as systems of representations) as well as operational systems; Proposition 4: Projects do not fail; they are failed by wider networks of support and validation; Proposition 5: “Success” and “failure” are policy-oriented judgements that obscure project effects.”

45 Idem, p. 243.

46 See the list of major publications by Mosse <http://www.soas.ac.uk/staff/staff31472.php> and Lewis <http://www.lse.ac.uk/researchandexpertise/experts/profile.aspx?KeyValue=d.lewis%40lse.ac.uk>

47 Mosse & Lewis, *Theoretical*, p. 10.

1 of policy logic, and the authority of expertise". This is realized by actors
2 through acts of composition. In order to study this, actor-network theory is
3 mobilized, in particular the constructions and perspectives of Bruno Latour.

4 The publication of *Development Brokers and Translators. The Ethnography*
5 *of Aid and Agencies*, edited by Lewis and Mosse in 2006, can be considered
6 as a milestone. Reflexivity is key. The bold idea was that "ethnographic"
7 (anthropological) research can provide development aid managers and
8 policy-makers with useful reflective insights into the practice and impact
9 of their projects and activities. They combined translation sociology in the
10 Bruno Latour school with interactionist anthropology in the UK. Following
11 the actors, an actor-oriented approach is also an important method for the
12 Manchester school of anthropology. Furthermore, they built on the work
13 done by Bierschenk and others on "courtage". It led them to distinguish
14 three ways of connecting development and anthropology. First there is the
15 instrumental engagement of professionals in so-called applied anthropology.
16 The introduction and application of notions like "social capital", "better
17 implementation" and "effectiveness" are symptoms of this perspective. The
18 second way is called "populist", and strongly emphasizes so-called participatory,
19 alternative or bottom-up approaches and local knowledge and capabilities,
20 and denigrates top down and mainstream science and technology. Here one
21 finds the champions of participative learning and working together. Lewis and
22 Mosse refer to working via NGOs and to the school of Robert Chambers in the
23 1980s and 1990s, but also underline that global players like the World Bank
24 quickly appropriated these references. The third perspective is "critical" and
25 "deconstructive". The protagonists see development as a historically-specific
26 power discourse by "the West" over the "developing world" or the so-called
27 Third World.

28 Lewis and Mosse propose an alternative, a counterprogram for anthropology
29 and development by advising practitioners to 1) "refuse to frame the relationship
30 in simple instrumental terms (as "better implementation") and instead pay
31 equal attention to the social processes of policy and the informal relationships
32 and real-life situations of development workers"; 2) make a distinction between
33 approaches characterized by naïve ideological populism ("the unqualified
34 valuation of indigenous knowledge and community tradition") and that of
35 methodological populism (the anthropological disposition to prioritize local
36 points of view as a relevant perspective), without ignoring local divisions and
37 contradictions, social relations and diverging strategies of actors; 3) on the
38 need to make the same distinction between blind and ideologically biased
39 deconstruction operations and methodological deconstruction perspectives,
40 with greater attention to the strategies and tactics of the (local) actors and
41 intermediaries involved. An important change that Lewis and Moss see is that
42 today's policymakers and deconstructivist critics interact and learn from each
43 other, and that this can lead to recombination, starting with a change of the
44 scope when defining the problem."⁴⁸

48 Mosse & Lewis, *Theoretical*, p. 1 and 3-7.

1 How is it possible that the role of the cultural broker, which seems so
2 crucial, as a missing link or a critical success factor, was and for the time being
3 is still not included or even mentioned in the operational directives of the 2003
4 UNESCO Convention? It is time to draw attention to this role and to think it
5 through by expanding the number of case-studies and publications about this
6 role. It is a question of visibility. David Mosse rightly drew attention to the fact
7 that there is a huge challenge here: “The participatory turn in international
8 development has made the constitution of expert development identities yet
9 more complex. Professionals of participatory programmes have to deny or
10 conceal their own expertise and agency (and their practical role in programme
11 delivery) in order to preserve an authorized view of themselves as facilitators
12 of community action or local knowledge, as “catalysts”, hastening but not
13 partaking in the reaction ... Where ... expertise requires self-effacement, it is
14 harder to constitute professional identities.”⁴⁹

15 **Development brokers, heritage communities and public action**

16 In this article I have presented recent work on development brokerage and I
17 argue the case for not ignoring this important body of work and the global
18 challenges that come into the picture and onto the agenda, in this case also
19 in the “world” of heritage studies, volkskunde and cultural policy. What
20 the publications of David Mosse, David Lewis and the APAD group have in
21 common is a very critical approach (exposing, explaining, debunking etc.) but
22 at the same time urging that it should not be left at this exercise, but that
23 action should actually be taken, to plan, to do, to check, to evaluate and to act.
24 Is this not what the new emerging field of critical heritage studies needs to
25 deserve the description? This is why a very broad and eclectic transdisciplinary
26 perspective is necessary. This can be combined with something like critical
27 sustainable development studies. In social anthropology on development
28 aid in Africa, the special category of “*courtiers locaux en développement*” is
29 approached as the interface between senders/donators and receivers of aid,
30 but also as actors that capture “*la rente de développement*”. This is part of a hard
31 analysis of a section of African politics, exploring the borders of corruption
32 and the difficulties of finding a suitable ethical attitude. The variety of this
33 process under the sustainable development paradigm has been called “*rente*
34 *verte*”, a term is used to capture the brokerage role in the case of the “Man
35 and Biosphere” program of UNESCO. Since 1981, UNESCO has classified the
36 national park of the Saloum Delta as a Biosphere reserve and the “*mise en*
37 *scène*” dimension of managing such a construction was studied critically.⁵⁰

49 D. Mosse, “Introduction. The Anthropology of Expertise and Professionals in International Development”, in: D. Mosse (ed.), *Adventures in Aidland. The Anthropology of Professionals in International Development*. New York-Oxford, 2013, p. 1-32, p. 17. This can also be an official expectation oftowards NGOs with a brokering role (e.g. www.faronet.be).

50 M. Ranoux, “Les courtiers verts et le développement soutenable: le cas de la réserve de biosphère du Delta du Saloum au Sénégal”, in : L. Auclair et al., *Le retour des paysans?: à l’heure du développement durable*. Aix-en-Provence, 2003, p. 333-349.

1 The four clusters of competence in brokerage roles that Bierschenk identified
2 (rhetorical, organizational, scenographic and relational) are also useful for a
3 “sustainable development” discourse.

4 In the discussion about the relevance of the 2003 UNESCO Convention for
5 the global and glocal urgency of and sensitivity to sustainable development,
6 the world should perhaps not only limit itself to savoring nice examples on
7 a representative list of intangible cultural heritage, but prioritize the most
8 important word in the Convention: “safeguarding”. For this, “brokerage”
9 competences will be needed, in particular when trying to deal with the spirit
10 of article 15 of the Convention. Nor is it only by chance that another word
11 cluster around the notion of development, which situates the convention
12 in contemporary “global-politique”, is mentioned in an article (18) of the
13 Convention, about best practices: “taking into account the special needs of
14 developing countries”. This is why it is time for less disciplinary comfort and
15 more transdisciplinary critical and reflexive exchange. An important new
16 breakthrough is the work done by anthropologists about what happens in the
17 context of UNESCO meetings. These studies have yielded important vistas
18 about recent evolutions. For instance, a recent conclusion by Birgit Müller
19 as an introduction to collection of similar articles deserves careful attention:
20 “Many UN organisations have started to go beyond the role of an intermediary
21 and claim the role of “strong broker” or “objective broker”, basing their strength
22 on “competence” and “knowledge”, in short on the capacity of being an expert,
23 who can claim a superior normative and technical authority over donor and
24 receiver countries alike.”⁵¹

25 In a reflection on anthropology in and by scholars from Africa, Nassirou
26 Bako-Arifari preferred to talk about “public action” rather than “development”,
27 because it can refer to interventions from both the outside (of the nation, the
28 region or a location) and the inside. It refers to more initiatives that those of
29 Western ministries or big NGOs for development aid and includes many local
30 or decentralization initiatives. Bako-Arifari complains that anthropologists
31 and other social scientists in and outside Africa are usually not well trained to
32 take up such tasks. He speculates that a new professional has to be developed
33 that can ensure sufficient quality in the production of scientific data but is also
34 able to see and listen, understand, and respond to urgent needs in the field:
35 “Ce nouveau métier pourrait être celui de “médiateur social” qui, en alliant
36 professionnalisme anthropologique et compétence opérationnelle, constituerait
37 “le chaînon manquant” dans l’articulation entre savoirs en sciences sociales
38 et demande du monde de l’action en général.”⁵² His call that this cannot be
39 business-as-usual by local animators or the occasional consultant with a
40 background as a sociologist or anthropologist, but has to be reinvented and
41 developed, is very much compatible with the calls for rebooting the notion
42 of safeguarding in the context of the 2003 UNESCO Convention. He doubted
43 that the anthropologists working primarily in academia would make the
44 difference, due to the evaluation system (screening the production of articles,

51 Müller, *Introduction*, p. 11.

52 Bako Arifari, *Médiation*, p. 176.

1 PhDs and students, and not the positive impact on society or the globe)
2 and the impression of getting one's white academic gloves dirty is kind of
3 compromising.⁵³ The exceptions that confirm the rules are, according to Bako-
4 Arifari, professors like Olivier de Sardan and his APAD (anthropologists for
5 development and social change), but even their conferences and the texts they
6 yield remain in a scholarly arena. But the real dynamics could, according to
7 him, come from universities in several African countries (Benin, Niger, Mali,
8 Senegal *et al.*) where the number of students studying anthropology and
9 sociology is booming in the 21st century. Many of the young people taking
10 up the study (which used to be associated with colonialism and Western
11 domination) explicitly indicate that they do not want to go for a strictly
12 academic career as researchers but desire to work in applied action. What do
13 old and contemporary Anglo-Saxon or French theories and habits have to
14 offer them and will it suffice or satisfy? This is why Olivier de Sardan used
15 the concept of the "missing link" outside comfort zones. Bako-Arifari tries
16 pushing the insights in order to actually forge and force the chain links that
17 are necessary, not only from applied sociology but also applied anthropology.
18 They should have high standards so that theory and methods can be developed
19 by experiences and experiments in practice, also in Africa and by Africans.
20 Exploring the possibilities in the field of health and healthcare seems very
21 promising, and in addition to negotiating, mutual translation and brokerage
22 skills, this goes a long way towards what the Organs of the 2003 Convention
23 are currently calling for.

24 This dimension of "public action" is present in the definition of a heritage
25 community in the 2005 Council of Europe Framework Convention on the Value
26 of Cultural Heritage for Society, but has hardly been developed or explored.⁵⁴
27 It offers another bridge between Europe and the rest of the world, between
28 different types of action and development, and if not between the old Siamese
29 twins of anthropology and European ethnology, then certainly as a challenge
30 for critical heritage studies.

53 M. Jacobs, "A.V.E. Janus", *Volkskunde* 113, 2011, p. 183-195.

54 <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/en/Treaties/Html/199.htm>

Beyond the Conventional

How to Foster Co-production for Safeguarding ICH

1 Notwithstanding the strongly state-driven *international* or intergovernmental
 2 framework that is constitutive for UNESCO, the Convention for the
 3 Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage 2003 cultivates an alternative
 4 paradigm. This is not only because – after years of preliminary reflections,
 5 efforts and tentative recommendations¹ – this new Convention made room for
 6 “traditional and popular culture” in the existing series of UNESCO’s cultural
 7 conventions. It is above all because this Convention introduced a deeply
 8 participatory approach in cultural work set up by (united) nations: The 2003
 9 Convention urged for the involvement and – prior and informed – consent
 10 by ICH practitioners, by individuals, groups or communities concerned,
 11 whenever the Convention would be interacting with elements of intangible
 12 cultural heritage. By affirming the Convention, the States Parties in one and
 13 the same movement gave away their prerogative of “governing”, turning it
 14 into a Convention shared with involved communities ... It might therefore
 15 even be a sound assertion that the UNESCO Convention for the safeguarding
 16 of ICH opened up a 21st Century approach on “heritage” as it cast its shadow
 17 on the older cultural Conventions dating back further into the 20th Century.

- 1 In 1973, UNESCO’s culture sector, following a request to the Director-General of UNESCO by the Government of Bolivia to add a Protocol for the protection of folklore to the Universal Copyright Convention (UNESCO/WIPO), undertook examining the safeguarding of this heritage globally. <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/?pg=00308> (26.08.2014) and http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13141&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html (26.08.2014). It took 16 years of analysis and debate among experts and government representatives before the *Recommendation on the Safeguarding of Traditional Culture and Folklore* was adopted in 1989 by the General Conference at its 25th session. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001323/132327m.pdf>; (26.08.2014). For further reading on the realization of the 2003 Convention, consult: N. Aikawa-Faure, “From the Proclamation of Masterpieces to the Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage”, in: L. Smith and N. Akagawa, *Intangible Heritage*. London & New York, 2009, p. 13-44; N. Aikawa-Faure, “La Convention de l’UNESCO pour la sauvegarde du patrimoine culturel immatériel et sa mise en oeuvre”, in: C. Khaznadar, *Le patrimoine culturel immatériel à la lumière de l’Extrême-Orient*. Paris, 2009, p. 13-46.

1 Indeed, the 2003 Convention could be stated to be deeply democratic in its
2 participatory principles and in the spirit of the Convention.²

3 But the proof of the pudding is in the eating, of course. Is the Convention
4 turning out to be as participatory in its continuous and day-to-day
5 implementation, in the resulting policy implementations in the many States
6 Parties at national level, in the behaviour of key institutional actors, in the
7 fields of active tradition bearers and heritage communities? In 2013 the
8 UNESCO Internal Oversight Service (IOS) started up a process of evaluation
9 of the goals, methods and impact of six UNESCO conventions in the field of
10 culture.³ This comprehensive audit of UNESCO's standard setting work kicked
11 off by evaluating the second-youngest offspring in the family of Cultural
12 Conventions: the 2003 Convention. The enquiry – even if it may not be a
13 complete or balanced representation – at least engaged with the diverse range of
14 stakeholders involved in the implementation of this Convention. Next to many
15 state-related actors, this also includes many non state stakeholders including
16 NGOs, representatives of tradition bearer associations, and academics.

17 The resulting report⁴ reads fairly straightforwardly in its conclusions and
18 recommendations. This can definitely partly be attributed to the fact that this
19 report has been made up by an internal UNESCO service (this is not an era
20 for UNESCO to draw a veil over weaknesses) hoping for better in the longer
21 term. Regarding the current constraint of financial resources for UNESCO
22 and in extension for governments more generally, the context doesn't really
23 favour the retention of governance close(d) and exclusively to governmental
24 institutions. On the contrary it may invoke reflection on more open systems
25 of sharing governance for the Convention and its implementation -sharing
26 workload, costs, risks and responsibilities (which should imply consequently
27 also sharing ownership, opportunities and benefits). In any case, the explicit
28 formulation of the paradigmatic challenges in the IOS report can't be dismissed
29 for further development:

30 “although community participation is at the heart of this Convention, it
31 has proven to be one of the most challenging aspects in its implemen-
32 tation, and one area with a lot of room for improvement.⁵ (...) The
33 dangers of not ensuring sufficient participation of communities are

2 Article 15 in the Convention's text explicitly expresses this participatory emphasis:

“Article 15 – Participation of communities, groups and individuals: Within the framework of its safeguarding activities of the intangible cultural heritage, each State Party shall endeavour to ensure the widest possible participation of communities, groups and, where appropriate, individuals that create, maintain and transmit such heritage, and to involve them actively in its management.”
<http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?lg=en&pg=00006> (26.08.2014).

3 IOS, *Audit of the Working Methods of Cultural Conventions*. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002232/223256E.pdf> (25-05-2014). <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/about-us/how-we-work/accountability/internal-oversight-service/who-we-are/> (25-05-2014).

4 IOS, *Final Report. Evaluation of UNESCO's Standard setting Work of the Culture Sector; Part I – 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage*. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002230/223095E.pdf> (25-05-2014).

5 Ibidem, § 182, p. 42.

1 obvious. Since communities, groups, individuals are the main creators,
2 practitioners and transmitters of their ICH, their lack of participation
3 might result in the inability of communities to have ownership of the
4 safeguarding process, the misinterpretation and misrepresentation of
5 the ICH and its associated meaning by other stakeholders, fossilisation
6 of the element, over-commercialisation, lack of transmission and the
7 consequent loss of its viability, etc. Of course, community participation
8 alone is not a guarantee that all will go well, but it is one of several
9 factors that increase the likelihood that the implementation of the
10 Convention will be successful.”⁶

11 Apart from the failing policy frameworks in the nation states, the most
12 prominently mentioned reasons mentioned by the IOS to explain why
13 communities are not sufficiently involved, include “lack of awareness about
14 the principles of the Convention; weak community capacities to self-organise,
15 to design and implement safeguarding activities; lack of networking and
16 exchange of experience between communities and between communities
17 and other stakeholders; and inadequate mechanisms for consultation
18 and participation of communities in policy development, inventorying,
19 nominations, safeguarding programmes etc.”⁷ Is it due to communities’ own
20 fault or failure? Words like lack of, weak capacities, or inadequate mechanisms,
21 leave much room for improvement? The problems identified can be seen as
22 challenges, expressing the need for capacity-building, for competencies of
23 “translation”, “mediation”, “facilitation”, “bridging”, “networking ...”⁸

24 Taking a look more closely at the stated reasons, a need for related
25 competencies of translation, mediation, facilitation, bridging, networking ...
26 is evident in order to be capable of fostering the objectives of the Convention.
27 Regarding the above-mentioned conclusions, it may not be surprising that
28 that further on in the report the IOS highlights the role of NGOs for future
29 development in implementing the Convention’s objectives. NGOs are situated
30 and profiled as mediators and bridges between various actors⁹: “many State
31 Parties are facing multiple challenges in implementing the 2003 Convention,
32 one of them related to the involvement of communities in safeguarding
33 measures, another to the consultation and involvement of communities in
34 the development of policies, legislation and safeguarding plans. NGOs can
35 play an important role in this as the mediators and “bridges” between various
36 actors. Many specialized NGOs not only have an excellent understanding of
37 the Convention and relevant expertise, but are also connected to both local

6 Ibidem, § 184, p. 42-43.

7 Ibidem, § 183, p. 42.

8 For the combination of “brokerage”, “mediation” and “translation” see D. Mosse & D. Lewis, “Theoretical Approaches to Brokerage and Translation in Development”, in: D. Lewis & D. Mosse (eds.), *Development Brokers and Translators. The Ethnography of Aid and Agencies*. Bloomfield, 2006, p. 1-26 and several contributions to this special issue of *Volkskunde*, like M. Jacobs, “Development brokerage, anthropology and public action. Local Empowerment, International Cooperation and Aid: Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage”, in this issue.

9 Ibidem, chapter 6.2.2, “Partnerships with accredited non-Governmental organisations”, p. 60-61.

1 communities and Government. Their ability to link up the two should therefore
2 not be underestimated.”¹⁰ Whatever current restraints and drivers favouring an
3 enhanced implication of NGOs, it nevertheless remains significant: Four out
4 of 24 Recommendations resulting from the IOS audit concern and strengthen
5 NGOs’ activities related to the Convention, on national and international
6 levels.

7 Actually, the Convention itself is proposed as a “medium”, or a “bridging”
8 tool: “The Convention provides a platform that builds bridges between the
9 various stakeholders involved (Government, communities, NGOs, heritage
10 institutions, academia, and others).”¹¹ But what does this mean? On the long
11 term its (street) credibility will depend on its ability to provide effective
12 answers and solutions for the current challenges related to the participatory
13 model it proclaims. Our thesis is that strengthening the mediating and bridging
14 capacity of the 2003 Convention is crucial. It will not happen spontaneously:
15 cultural brokers or boundary spanners connecting the dots and acting as a
16 catalyst in the exchanges and projects in that network are needed.

17 What is at stake concerns the symbolic capital of the Convention’s work,
18 and the values and extent of sharing it: in how far admission and governance is
19 shared from a united nations’ framework with a narrow or wider playing field
20 of diverse civil society and intermediary actors in between the governments
21 and tradition bearers.

22 Advancing the importance of related roles and capacities as mediation and
23 bridging – briefly bundled in concepts like “cultural brokerage” or “boundary
24 spanning”¹² – the following chapters take a closer look to the current position
25 and working situation of NGOs active along side and within the context of the
26 2003 Convention. The last part of this article proceeds to a set of reflections
27 resulting in a potential approach and suggestions of co-productive capacities
28 for enhancing this mediating feature of the 2003 Convention.

29 **Openings and backdoors in the Convention’s Texts**

30 In the UNESCO 2003 Convention’s text and its Operational Directives (2008,
31 2010, 2012, 2014) “non-governmental organizations” are not frequently
32 mentioned. The Convention’s entries on NGOs are limited to a short
33 formulation on the accreditation of “competent NGOs” to deliver advisory
34 services to the Intergovernmental Committee (i.e. involvement of NGOs on the
35 international level). Another notice in the Convention concerns the national
36 level, expressing the expectation to state parties to organize the participation
37 of (among others: communities, groups and) “relevant NGOs” to identify and
38 define the various elements of the intangible cultural heritage present in the
39 state’s territory.

10 Ibidem, § 253, p. 59.

11 Ibidem, § 37, p. 10.

12 See Jacobs, “Cultural Brokerage, addressing boundaries and the new paradigm of safeguarding intangible cultural heritage” in this issue.

1 But who recognizes? Which competences? Competence in safeguarding?
2 How far does competence in a field of ICH reach? Competent in dancing?
3 In organizing dance festivals? In documenting or in teaching dances? In
4 developing policy for dance groups? Are we talking about the members or
5 employees of the organization or of the organization itself? Or in giving policy
6 advice? In evaluating safeguarding programs? The goal in article 9 is “to act
7 in an advisory capacity to the Committee”. Importantly, according to article 9
8 § 2, the intergovernmental committee (the delegations of 24 nation-states) can
9 propose, change and/or interpret the criteria to answer these questions. And
10 what does “relevant” mean in relation to NGOs? Who decides about relevance?
11 Who will benefit? How long is an organisation relevant and what happens if it
12 is no longer considered so? The way the articles are formulated, not only acting
13 in capacity of providing “advice” (about safeguarding) but all safeguarding
14 measures mentioned in article 2, paragraph 3, could be accessed. So there are
15 several backdoors for NGOs to try and manoeuvre themselves in or, via new
16 operational directives or what Rieks Smeets called the third source of guidance
17 (forms, instructions, correspondence....) to be mobilized and invited.¹³ As a
18 masterpiece of compromise and consensus building, there are many loopholes,
19 loose ends, and attachment points that can be developed into platforms and
20 bridges.

21 *THE 2003 CONVENTION TEXT’S entries on NGOs:*

22 *II. Organs of the Convention*

23 *Article 9 – Accreditation of advisory organizations*

- 24 1. *The Committee shall propose to the General Assembly the accreditation of*
25 *non-governmental organizations with recognized competence in the field*
26 *of the intangible cultural heritage to act in an advisory capacity to the*
27 *Committee.*
28 2. *The Committee shall also propose to the General Assembly the criteria for and*
29 *modalities of such accreditation.*

30 *III. Safeguarding of the intangible cultural heritage at the national level*

31 *Article 11 – Role of States Parties Each State Party shall:*

- 32 (a) *take the necessary measures to ensure the safeguarding of the intangible*
33 *cultural heritage present in its territory;*
34 (b) *among the safeguarding measures referred to in Article 2, paragraph 3,*
35 *identify and define the various elements of the intangible cultural heritage*
36 *present in its territory, with the participation of communities, groups and*
37 *relevant non-governmental organizations.*

13 R. Smeets, “On the Third Source of Guidance for the Implementation of UNESCO’s Intangible Heritage Convention”, in: *The First ICH-Researchers Forum. The Implementation of UNESCO’s 2003 Convention. Final Report, 3 June 2012, Paris, France, Sakai-City.* Paris, 2013, p. 71-86.

1 Up to now (the 2014) version, the paragraphs of the Operational Directives
2 (OD) in which NGOs are mentioned¹⁴ are a mere specification of practical and
3 procedural aspects of the above-mentioned Convention's articles, in a limited
4 interpretation. But this can always be changed and expanded, in particular in
5 view of the invitation to work on new directives, perhaps even a whole chapter,
6 on sustainable development, economics and tourism.¹⁵ There are many ways
7 to create the platform for bridging and connecting, for safeguarding, as
8 mentioned before.

9 One of the area of opportunities concerning the roles NGOs can play in
10 implementing the 2003 Convention's objectives, are the *inter alia* passages in the
11 texts of the Convention and the OD which more often happened to be added in
12 the Convention's texts. In chapter III of the OD about the participation of non-
13 governmental organizations at the national level (Convention Art. 11), it is stated
14 that "States Parties shall involve the *relevant* non-governmental organizations
15 in the implementation of the Convention *inter alia* in identifying and defining
16 intangible cultural heritage" but the paragraph continues to say "and in other
17 appropriate safeguarding measures, in cooperation and coordination with
18 other actors involved in the implementation of the Convention". Notice the
19 combination of "shall" and "may"-language in OD § 96 that specifies that
20 "accredited non-governmental organizations who, according to Article 9.1
21 of the Convention, shall have advisory functions to the Committee, may be
22 invited by the Committee to provide it, *inter alia*, with reports of evaluation as
23 a reference for the Committee (...)". On both national and international level
24 these *inter alia* leave some space for potential contributions by NGOs that had
25 not been literally identified before by the parties involved.

26 In another way OD § 91 defining the criteria for accreditation of NGOs
27 (related to Article 9 in the Convention) leaves much room for diverse types
28 and varieties of NGOs to be accredited.¹⁶ It has previously been discussed on
29 several occasions why this happened to become such a wide and open door
30 for NGOs to request accreditation. It is not that the possible effects of this
31 open door were overlooked at the time of its formulation. On the contrary,
32 it is an open secret of this 2003 Convention's process of coming into being,
33 that the engaged States parties wished to avoid at any cost that the scenario of
34 the World Heritage Convention would repeat itself.¹⁷ The experience of having
35 (only) three (nominative) NGOs in the 1972's Convention's text, which have
36 profoundly been determining the methods and selection processes of the
37 World Heritage work in the states parties, was like a nightmare hovering over
38 the making of this younger offspring of Heritage Conventions. Paradoxically,

14 *Operational Directives for the implementation of the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Heritage*, in casu: II.1 (d); III.2.1-90; III.2.2-91-99; IV.1-123 (d), <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/en/directives> (26-08-2014).

15 See Jacobs, *Development*, in this issue.

16 *Ibidem*, OD § 91, "Criteria for the accreditation of non-governmental organizations".

17 See for further reading on these debates the reports of the Intergovernmental Committee Meetings between 2006 and 2008, <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?lg=en&pg=00367> (26.08.2014); illustrative is item 8 (138-190) in document ITH/08/3.COM/CONF.203/5, reporting the summary Records of the Third Session of the 3.COM Meeting in Istanbul.

1 driven by the abhorrence of introducing an oligarchy, the contrary has been
2 happening to the ICH Convention. In the first operational years, starting
3 in 2008, the number of demands for accreditation has been growing at the
4 same high speed as the number of ratifications by States. If counted only in
5 numbers, NGOs would soon be outnumbering the States impressively¹⁸...
6 Realizing however that the opportunities to deliver the determined advisory
7 services to the Committee have been firmly restrained¹⁹, the motives for the
8 enormous amount of requests for accreditation probably have to be sought
9 after elsewhere.

10 **To be accredited, to be involved, or to be recognized?**

11 Speaking as one of those people actively involved in the accredited ICH NGO
12 activities and networks, it has been my experience how a major driving force
13 behind the speedy flood of accreditation requests from NGOs seems to be
14 similar to the one behind the vast affluence of nomination files for the UNESCO
15 Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity. (Besides,
16 both the number of accreditation requests and the number of nomination files
17 have repeatedly been said to be untenable given the current budget and staff of
18 the ICH secretariat and taking into account the existing mechanisms provided
19 by the Convention). UNESCO's Convention for the safeguarding of ICH bears
20 high moral and symbolic value. As it is simultaneously expressing and trying
21 to organize fairly egalitarian, participatory and democratic ideals, cherishing
22 cultural identity and diversity, and promoting sustainable development, the
23 appeal of this UNESCO ICH Convention turns out to be compelling, almost
24 irresistible for numerous people and organizations ... It illustrates how the
25 Convention can rely on significant public support and civil stakeholders.

26 The movement of NGOs trying to join and link up with the Convention
27 first of all can be read as an expression of identification and involvement. It
28 is a declaration of engagement; it's a step into real supranational networks
29 and their processes of exchange and development of safeguarding; it's a
30 firm statement of identifying with the methodological, dynamic and future-
31 oriented approach that it carries out to this broader "Heritage world (with
32 capital H)" that rather focuses on conservation of a heritage to be preserved
33 from the passing of time...

18 At the closing of the 8.COM Intergovernmental Committee in Baku, 2013, the number of accredited NGOs was 156.

19 *Document ITH-13-8-1.COM-14.b-EN*, p. 7, <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?lg=en&pg=00473> (25-05-2014): "14. Participation of NGO representatives in the work of the Consultative Body: According to paragraph 26 of the Operational Directives, accredited NGOs participate in the Consultative Body charged with evaluating nominations to the Urgent Safeguarding List, proposals for the Register of Best Safeguarding Practices and requests for International Assistance greater than US\$25,000 and with providing recommendations to the Committee concerning such files. Following the principle of equitable geographic distribution and the duration of the mandate of members of the Consultative Body, only 6% of all accredited NGOs (10 NGOs in total) have served on the Consultative Body to date."

1 Secondly, the flood of NGOs naturally gives expression to the considerable
2 (albeit geographically unbalanced) initiatives, commitment and presence of
3 NGOs active in the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage “in the field”
4 all over the globe. The greater part of these non-governmental initiatives have
5 been active for many years or even decades²⁰, working on ICH processes and
6 with(in) ICH communities and harbouring a lot of practical knowledge and
7 specialist expertise to be valued in the brokering between communities and
8 states/the Convention. They had been waiting for this Convention to come
9 and to valorise their missions and the related cultural expressions they were
10 supporting and safeguarding long before it was recognized by the international
11 community. This leads us to a third dimension of the accreditation wave: the
12 quest for “recognition”, in particular by an organization like UNESCO.²¹ This
13 (probably unintentional) function that the UNESCO accreditation for NGOs
14 fulfils, should not be underestimated. It is comparable to the force of attraction
15 of the Representative List, allowing actors to benefit from the effects of the
16 symbolic capital of UNESCO via a very light procedure. Indeed this Convention
17 proclaims full participation of involved heritage communities, groups and
18 individuals, to reinforce ICH transmission and safeguarding; but was (or is)-it
19 also prepared to empower NGOs, to (better) serve these goals?

20 **To read and to (re)write Adaptive²² texts: Operational Directives** 21 **for Managing the Convention**

22 The quest for recognition and the effect of “recognition by accreditation”
23 brings us back to some earlier remarked (and remarkable) wordings in the
24 Convention and the Operational Directives concerning NGOs. I am referring
25 to the wording of “competent NGOs” to be accredited on the international
26 level (Convention Art. 9) or “relevant NGOs” to participate on the national
27 level (Convention Art. 11). Although OD § 91a states that “non-governmental
28 organizations shall have proven competence, expertise and experience in
29 safeguarding (as defined in Article 2.3 of the Convention) intangible cultural
30 heritage belonging, inter alia, to one or more specific domains;” which is a
31 quite strict formulation, this is not really being checked; no proofs are asked
32 about the very specification and competence and expertise and experience in

20 Ibidem, p. 5: “9. Duration of existence is based on the date of the founding of the organization as indicated in its request for accreditation. To date, 74 accredited NGOs have stated that they have worked for more than 20 years, 58 have existed for more than 10 and fewer than 20 years and 24 indicate that they have existed for 10 years or fewer.”

21 As is stated by NGOs in the NGO Statement ICH-8.COM made in Baku 2013: <http://www.ichngoforum.org/wp-content/uploads/8COM-Baku-NGO-STATEMENT-ENG.pdf> (26.08.2014).

22 Adaptive co-management is an approach for governance of social-ecological systems, combining the iterative learning dimension of adaptive management and the linkage dimension of collaborative management in which rights and responsibilities are jointly shared. Complementarities among concepts of collaboration and adaptive management encourage an approach to governance that encompasses complexity and cross-scale linkages, and the process of dynamic learning. Adaptive co-management thus offers considerable appeal in light of the complex systems view. More: http://www.resalliance.org/index.php/adaptive_comanagement (25-05-2014).

1 safeguarding ICH. This OD § 91a might turn out to be the key paragraph when
2 the General Assembly revise the criteria for accreditation. The Operational
3 Directives will probably change, being completed or specified in order to meet
4 the revised competences needed for NGOs to deliver advisory services to the
5 IGC. The Operational Directives are adapting and fine-tuning the general,
6 fixed principles of the Convention's text in response to evolving insights and
7 contexts. This adaptive feature is a process of learning by doing or in this case
8 "learning by implementing". And however slow and tough the process, these
9 evolving Operational Directives²³ illustrate the potential of adaptive (co-)
10 management present in the Convention, resulting from the interaction of the
11 organs of the 2003 Convention.²⁴

12 The criteria in the ODs²⁵ up to date explicitly mention that NGOs "shall
13 have a local, national, regional or international nature, as appropriate." It
14 remains a question in how far this principle will really persist in the future. In
15 line with the vision of the Convention one could argue nonetheless how this
16 abovementioned "local, national, regional or international nature" of NGOs
17 is an approach to stick with, as the same logic is mirrored for example in the
18 principles of the Representative List. It is not a List of the "top heritage" of
19 humanity, but develops a "representative" overview of the diversity of human
20 cultural expressions. It is not assessing the value of the intangible heritage on
21 its range or reach, on its scale or scope, but displays local heritage elements
22 with parity of esteem to supranational phenomena of ICH. After years of
23 debate a compromise (decisions 7.COM)²⁶ was reached that "the "right" scale
24 or scope of elements of intangible cultural heritage depends on the diverse
25 contexts of the implementation of the 2003 Convention and its mechanisms
26 at the national and international levels" and recommended "that States Parties
27 be attentive as to what scale is appropriate for what purposes."²⁷ Why would
28 the scope and scale of the work and expertise of NGOs be evaluated differently
29 than the one of elements, or communities, if in the end it all revolves around
30 appropriate ways leading to safeguarding equivalent intangible heritage in its
31 diversity of contexts? The work and expertise of NGOs, whether they be local,
32 national, regional or international in scope or scale, can be as relevant for the
33 implementation of the Convention on its national and/or international level,
34 as far as the elements of ICH brought into view also result from this rationale.
35 Furthermore, during the 8.COM Intergovernmental Committee Meeting in
36 Baku (2013) the Committee decided to strengthen NGO participation in the

23 *Evaluating the Inscription Criteria for the Two Lists of UNESCO's Intangible Cultural Heritage Convention. The 10th Anniversary of the 2003 Convention* (Final Report. Osaka: International Research Centre for Intangible Cultural Heritage in the Asia-Pacific Region).

24 R. Smeets, *On the Third Source of Guidance for the Implementation of UNESCO's Intangible Heritage Convention* (In The First ICH-Researchers Forum. The Implementation of UNESCO's 2003 Convention. Final Report, 3 June 2012, France, Sakai-City). Maison des Cultures du Monde & IRCL. Paris, 2012, p. 71-86.

25 *Operational Directives for the implementation of the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Heritage* II.1 (d); III.2.1-90, <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/en/directives> (25-05-2014).

26 <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?lg=en&pg=00497> (25-05-2014).

27 *document ITH-12-7.COM-Decisions-EN.doc*, <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?lg=en&pg=00430> (25-05-2014).

1 implementation at all levels²⁸, and to recall and encourage States Parties to
2 promote increased NGO and community involvement in the development of
3 policy, legislation, and safeguarding and sustainable development plans.²⁹
4 This was repeated during the debates of the 5th General Assembly of 2014
5 (5.GA, Paris, June 2014). Consequently it makes sense to raise the question of
6 how far UNESCO has a role to play or a responsibility to take fostering both
7 decisions in its implementation, for example by more formally acknowledging
8 or “recognizing” these “relevant” NGOs in its body of symbolic value.

9 The modalities of such “recognition” might be differentiated along, of course.
10 There is no necessity to confine it to the current formula of “accreditation”.
11 Several options may be developed, regarding for example formulas of
12 “associated partners of the ICH Convention”³⁰, or other forms of correlation
13 that exist already for the Clubs, Centres and Associations by UNESCO³¹... Any
14 of these can be evaluated, weighing advantages and drawbacks. As long as
15 one keeps an eye on the objectives any form of recognition should ultimately
16 serve in this respect: to strengthen NGO participation in the implementation
17 at all levels; that is to empower the position and contexts for NGOs to develop
18 their intermediary activities in the(ir) field of ICH, respecting all along the
19 independence of the non-governmental organizations.

20 **Recognition vs. Independence**

21 Let’s be honest: the need for independence calls for a delicate balance, and it
22 is not an easy requirement to fulfil. To illustrate the complex and potentially
23 tense relations of the dimension of “recognition” versus dimensions of
24 “independency” or “intermediary roles” somehow, the following is one such
25 possible scenario for alternative modalities of “recognition” of NGOs that was
26 reflected on by currently accredited NGOs gathered in the ICH NGO Forum.³²
27 The idea discussed was whether it would be a good option to differentiate
28 between a first (international) level of accreditation and a second type of
29 accreditation at “national” level. Many questions were raised. What if UNESCO

28 *Document ITH/13/8.COM/Decisions*, p.70, Decision 8.COM 14.b, <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?lg=en&pg=00473> (25-05-2014):

“4. Recognizes the diversity of experiences and competencies with which NGOs contribute to the implementation of the Convention at the local, national and international levels and the need to strengthen NGO participation in the implementation of the Convention at all levels.”

29 *Ibidem*, p. 70: “5. Recalls that States Parties shall involve the relevant non-governmental organizations in the implementation of the Convention, and encourages States Parties to promote increased NGO and community involvement in the development of policy, legislation, and safeguarding and sustainable development plans.”

30 http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/NGO/pdf/Official_partnership_brochure_Eng.pdf (25-05-2014).

31 <https://en.unesco.org/countries/associations-centres-and-clubs-unesco> (25-05-2014).

The Clubs, Centres and Associations are established under the aegis of the National Commissions for UNESCO, these Clubs, Centres and Associations are grouped into national, regional and international networks, for the purpose of acting in UNESCO’s fields of competence at the grass root level.

32 <http://www.ichngoforum.org/about-us/> (25-05-2014).

1 would be accrediting only large international NGOs, and at a second level a
2 recognition would take place of ICH NGOs within the States Parties? How
3 could one make sure that NGOs transcending a national perspective or scope
4 (e.g. NGOs working on minority culture or on trans-border culture) would not
5 be overlooked? How would it be guaranteed that not only nationally accepted
6 NGOs would be selected and divergent NGOs would be obstructed? How
7 would it be guaranteed in such a context that NGOs remain involved with the
8 (international) working of the Convention itself – to be aware of the need and
9 possibility to complement the information of periodic reports, to keep watch
10 over aspects such as the correct involvement and participation of the bearers
11 and communities, prior and informed consent, ... Specifically for those roles
12 of guarding some of the founding and conditional participatory principles
13 of the Convention, it seems indispensable to have UNESCO offering a form
14 of recognition and empowerment to withstand and denounce situations of
15 infringement. The UNESCO framework brings in a sort of “third space”; it
16 realizes a triangular or delta connection in which as much UNESCO as the
17 States Party as the NGO can thoroughly fulfil their role maintaining sound and
18 balanced relations.

19 Thus, some linkage with the transcending, supranational position of
20 UNESCO seems recommendable at some point if we wish to maintain the
21 important effects of recognition and empowerment, strengthening NGOs in
22 their safeguarding activities at any geographical level, and linking them to this
23 international network of safeguarding practices and custodians.

24 Of course different types and procedures of accreditation and/or recognition
25 could be envisaged and developed, sparing the UNESCO ICH Secretariat from
26 administrative burdens.

27 **Inter alia**

28 The words *inter alia* in the Operational Directives could be tackled to increase
29 the dedication of NGOs acting in an advisory capacity to the Committee, not
30 confined to deliver advisory services only for the Evaluation Body advising
31 on nomination files, but to be implicated in a broadened range of activities,
32 assignments and domains, serving the goals of the Convention. The current
33 Operational Directives do not yet offer adequate tools on how to organize such
34 potential multiplication of functions and contributions by NGOs (and other
35 intermediary actors). There is a risk that the number and roles of civil society
36 actors within the Convention’s mechanisms would be reduced. But is this not
37 what should be avoided? It is my conviction that this would be the opposite
38 of the solution that is really needed in order to fully develop the participatory
39 potential of the Convention, the 2003 safeguarding paradigm in general and
40 the convention in particular could use “adaptive co-governance”, to be realized
41 in co-production by the stakeholders at all levels involved. The following
42 paragraph, introduces some perspectives that can inspire and encourage
43 further development of such approaches to co-production.

1 Sustainable futures are Made in co-production

2 “To be truly transformative, co-production requires a relocation
3 of power (...) This necessitates new relationships with front-line
4 professionals who need training to be empowered to take on these new
5 roles.”³³

6 What do current debate and experimental practices in city-making policy,
7 socio-ecological sustainable development, health care organization and
8 the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage have in common? Recently,
9 similar insights and movements of transition are perceivable in diverse
10 neighbouring societal fields. They share a quest for sustainable/resilient (in
11 its objectives) and collaborative/co-productive (in its ways or means) answers
12 to the challenges they face. These challenges appear to become ever more
13 complex, interconnected and multi-layered. The experience and high degree
14 of interconnectedness between local, regional and global processes add useful
15 complexity that needs to be appreciated and grasped in research, policy-
16 making and everyday practice.³⁴

17 Challenges of wellbeing are not to be solved with classic answers of
18 welfare only. Consider the Vitality Index³⁵, a survey combining quantitative
19 and qualitative factors to model the human experience of a city. How do
20 people actually live and participate in a city? What do residents like? What
21 are their desires and dissatisfactions? In 2011 the vitality Index ranked 35
22 cities in the United States. The ranking showed that quality of life is deemed
23 highest in cities combining welfare and a participatory society: dimensions
24 of social justice and cohesion, the balance of economic goals with quality of
25 life, a promotion of diversity and a cross-cultural environment, imaginative
26 solutions to deal with human distress, a proper balance between old and new,
27 and greener quietness and dynamism ...

28 And if cities reflect the play of power, as Charles Landry suggests³⁶, those
29 cities ranking high in the vitality index, show a high level of co-production
30 or co-management in their organization. Edna dos Santos-Duisenberg, former
31 Chief of the Creative Economy Programme of UNCTAD, states it as follows³⁷:

33 R. Alba & L. M. Wallace, “What is co-production?” in: *The Health Foundation*. London, 2010, p. 3.

34 See e.g. illustrative contributions in: L. Magee, A. Scerri, P. James, J.A. Thom, L. Padgham, S. Hickmott, H. Deng, F. Cahill, “Reframing social sustainability reporting: Towards an engaged approach”, *Environment, Development and Sustainability* (Springer), vol. 15.2012, 1, p. 225-243; J.-P. Voß, D. Bauknecht, R. Kemp (eds.), *Reflexive Governance for Sustainable Development*. Edward Elgar, 2006; A. Amin, “Surviving the turbulent future. Environment and Planning”, *Society and Space* 31:1, 2013, p. 140-156.

35 <http://creativecities.org/the-vitality-index/> (25-05-2014).

36 L. Charles, *The Art of City-Making*. Virginia, 2006.

37 E. dos Santos-Duisenberg, fragment from a lecture to the occasion of the CURE (Creative Urban Renewal) Summerschool “Cities. Crisis? Creativity!”, June 2013. http://www.cure-web.eu/uploads/media/2013_CURE_Utrecht_Edna_dos_Santos.pdf (25-05-2014).

1 “Who has the responsibility to make our cities?
2 - politicians? usually have shorter-term thinking
3 - urban planners? technical knowledge is not enough
4 - engineers and architects? set standards, guidelines
5 - environmentalists? may overlook economic aspects
6 - sociologists? will emphasize the human dimension
7 City making should not be a job but a collective undertaking, involving
8 all – including the local citizens.”
9

10 It is a growing conviction that multiple challenges that do not seem to get solved
11 at national level, could be more efficiently addressed at city-level, mobilizing
12 the cooperation of other cities as networks of practical knowledge and policies
13 of transformation. Indeed, cities are often operating in a context of incubation
14 in relation to (themes and models of) societal change. Is it possible to learn
15 from these developments in the neighbouring field of city making for the field
16 of Intangible Cultural Heritage? We try to grasp some of the key dimensions
17 hereafter, relating them to policy and practice of ICH, before concluding on
18 potential and effective synergies:

19 **On Commons and Communities**

20 The notion of “commons” is emerging again as well in political philosophy
21 as in cultural studies and law studies. As the concepts of commons and
22 intangible cultural heritage are closely related in their principles, it may reveal
23 an enriching approach to further develop the conceptual and operational
24 framework of the Convention in the coming decade(s).³⁸ There is the rise of
25 “creative commons” related to copyright discussions. There is also the notion
26 of “common” in “community” as mentioned in the 2003 ICH Convention; or the
27 common in “the Flemish Community” – the policy entity bearing responsibility
28 for personal affairs in the federal state of Belgium among which Culture was
29 one of the first policy-fields to be developed together with e.g. education.³⁹
30 This indicates already how much culture is conceived as a “common resource”,
31 expressed in language, traditions, knowledge and skills, and not to be claimed
32 or restricted to private authorship or ownership. We may recall how a threat of
33 privatisation of ICH commons has been a starting point and motive for creating
34 the 2003 Convention, following the incorporation of the indigenous folksong
35 from the Andes in Simon and Garfunkel’s *El condor pasa* (1970)⁴⁰, up until today

38 An important contribution on ICH and commons is the work of Francesca Cominelli. See among others: F. Cominelli, *L’Economie du Patrimoine Culturel Immatériel: Savoir-faire et métiers d’art en France*, Thèse pour l’obtention du Doctorat en Sciences Economiques. Ecole doctorale d’Economie Panthéon-Sorbonne, 2013.

39 P. Gielen (a.o.), *De waarde van Cultuur* (Rapport, Rijksuniversiteit Groningen). Brussel, 2014, p. 93.

40 Further Reading: V.T. Hafstein, “Protection as Dispossession: Government in the Vernacular”, in: D. Kapchan (ed.), *Cultural Heritage in Transit, Intangible Heritage as Human Rights*. Philadelphia, 2014, p. 25-57; V.T. Hafstein, “Claiming Culture: Intangible Heritage Inc., Folklore ©, Traditional Knowledge™”, in: D. Hemme, M. Tauschek, R. Bendix, *Prädikat “Heritage”: Wertschöpfungen aus kulturellen Ressourcen*. Münster, 2007, p. 81-119.

1 one of the most sold music albums, but without return to the rightful “owners”
2 as they did not have any formal ground for this ownership on a common
3 they share and transmit as a community ... Such a process of “enclosure of
4 the commons”⁴¹ is a driver for UNESCO to empower communities by offering
5 them a formal framework acknowledging and almost “materializing” by a
6 commodification of these cultural commons into “intangible cultural heritage”
7 to be protected by States Parties and the International Community alike. Even
8 if questions concerning intellectual property rights remain to be solved, the
9 2003 Convention offers hope to set commons free in the sense of “free speech”
10 – a free space of conversation for persons and groups involved – as well as in
11 the sense of “free” meaning to urge “the free and prior consent” of those same
12 persons and groups involved (the community) before anything can happen
13 using or inflicting the cultural intangible good or common. The consequence
14 is that a free space of exchange and transmission needs to be protected or
15 safeguarded, facilitated and supported for anyone sharing these commons. At
16 last, “free” would not necessarily mean “without a cost” in the sense of “free for
17 consumption”, but it would primarily signify a fair and evenly shared use and
18 return for practitioners and transmitters of these cultural expressions.

19 It is recommended that the reflections on commons for the ICH field are
20 further developed. This would reinforce the ICH discourse, embedding it in
21 broader contexts of shared challenges in other domains of society. It could
22 also strengthen the (critical?) niche in heritage studies that is elaborating
23 on conceptual but paradigmatic changes in thinking about heritage for the
24 21st Century, positioning scholarship within practice contexts and bringing
25 the productive character of knowledge⁴² to the fore. This is formulated in the
26 following words of P. Alfonso Gonzalez:

27 “In other words, scholars should become mediators between
28 communities, institutions, markets and knowledge practices. (...) What
29 matters (...) is to preserve the immanence between communities and
30 their heritages to guarantee their reproduction and livelihood (...)”
31 rather than just documenting their fragmentation, criticizing their
32 commodification or, worse, measuring the values of heritage and paving
33 the way for touristification processes. This sort of ontological politics
34 does not only aim to preserve the “given” heritage, but rather to construct
35 it in ways that maintain the immanent relation between communities
36 and “the things they consider to be worthy of being valued” (Novelo
37 2005, p. 86). This precludes the alienating meta-cultural split between
38 objects and subjects that characterizes processes of enclosure of the

41 M. Hardt & A. Negri, *Commonwealth*. Cambridge, 2009. Hardt and Negri renew the fashionable idea of the common. By the idea of “the common, they designate not merely the natural resources that capital seeks to appropriate, but also “the languages we create, the social practices we establish, the modes of sociality that define our relationships”, which are both the means and the result of biopolitical production.

42 B. Latour, “A textbook case revisited: knowledge as mode of existence”, in: S. Jasanoff (ed.), *The Handbook of Science and Technology Studies*. Cambridge, 2007, p. 83-112.

1 commons. (...) Exploring heritage as a commons requires us to carry
2 out in-depth empirical research in specific heritage contexts while at
3 the same time evolving internal disciplinary knowledge practices.”⁴³
4 Some of the most inspiring work on commons was produced by Elinor
5 Ostrom who also launched the concept of co-production.⁴⁴

6 **On co-production, co-management and the reorganization of** 7 **power**

8 Co-production is a concept appearing widely in discussions about social
9 governance and public value production. It was defined by Governance
10 International as “the public sector and citizens making better use of each other’s
11 assets and resources to achieve better outcomes and improved efficiency.”⁴⁵
12 The term co-production as it was originally coined in the late 1970s by Elinor
13 Ostrom and colleagues, radically reframed the potential role of “users” and
14 “professionals” in the process of producing services, and was later developed
15 by Edgar S. Cahn in the concept of “core economy” framing specialized services
16 dealing with crime, education, care, health and so on to be all underpinned by
17 the family, the neighbourhood, community and civil society.

18 The concept of co-production was not launched to promote civic
19 consultation or participation. It should be made clear that its point was not
20 to involve people more in decision making; it was to encourage every actor
21 involved to use the human skills and experience they have to help broaden and
22 deepen public services so that they are no longer the preserve of professionals,
23 but a shared responsibility, both building and using a multi-faceted network
24 of mutual support.⁴⁶ A new agenda emerged from this thinking; challenging
25 the way professionals are expected to work, and policy-makers who are setting
26 targets as indicators of success; It was a call for an alternative way of doing
27 things and improving (and explaining why) things not going so well. This made
28 a shift from output to outcome. Those origins of the concept of co-production
29 risk making it linger in a context and vision of “public service”, which does not
30 fully fit the assets of intangible heritage, which are not a service to be delivered
31 but a commons to be safeguarded. We might however also conceive the policy
32 making as the service intended. This brings again the aspect of involvement in
33 decision-making and sharing of power to the forefront.

43 P. Alfonso Gonzalez, “From a given to a construct, Heritage as a commons”, https://www.academia.edu/3492529/From_a_Given_to_a_Construct_Heritage_as_a_Commons (25-05-2014).

44 For an elaborate bibliography on commons and related concepts: <http://www.collective-action.info/> (26.08.2014).

45 <http://www.govint.org/our-services/co-production/> (25-05-2014).

46 New economics foundation. “Co-production: A manifesto for growing the core economy”. London, 2008. <http://www.neweconomics.org/publications/entry/co-production> (25-05-2014).

1 Co-management

2 Another concept to bring forward here is co-management, the joint management
3 of commons. Co-management integrates multiple and complex local,
4 regional to national or even supra-national interests. Civic, social, economic,
5 ecological, political actors and agencies are envisioned interacting. In contrast
6 to co-production, the point of co-management is clearly about involvement
7 in decision-making. It is often formulated in terms of some arrangement of
8 power sharing between the State and a community of resource users. There
9 often are multiple local interests and multiple government agencies at play,
10 and co-management can hardly be understood as the interaction of e.g. a
11 unitary State and a homogeneous community.⁴⁷

12 Whether co-production or co-management, or other variants of co-
13 governance concepts, the key point being emphasized here is the fact that the
14 wording of “co” not only designates a convivial and collaborative attitude, it
15 also presumes to take the producing and managing together seriously. To be
16 truly transformative, co-production requires at a certain point also relocations
17 of power.

18 The risk of focussing too strongly on the normative side of co-production
19 or co-management, is to overlook the processes at work. Therefore, viewing
20 the approach of co-management as a continuous problem-solving process,
21 implying negotiation, deliberation and joint learning in problem solving
22 networks seems apt. Co-production should be read as a different way
23 management tasks can be organized and distributed concentrating on the
24 function, rather than the structure, of the system. Such an approach highlights
25 that power sharing is the result of the process, not the starting point.

26 Next to all this, it remains important to pay attention to the boundary
27 conditions in which co-production or co-management is realized. The Dutch
28 sociologist Justus Uitermark⁴⁸ studying the functioning and evolution of civic
29 society organizations, noted how much a long-term continuity of policy for
30 civil society organizations, as well as the roles played and methods adopted
31 therein by professional mediators or brokers in the forming and development
32 of networks and activities, are decisive for understanding also success and
33 failures of civic society activities in these social landscapes. The same boundary
34 conditions will clearly also affect the ability of civic actors to be present and
35 engage in co-productive and co-managing relationships with national bodies
36 or in international contexts. This is one more argument for UNESCO to reflect
37 on its supranational importance in acknowledging and engaging in modes
38 of recognition of NGOs at all levels, thereby strengthening indirectly and in
39 the long term “community capacity to self-organise”, “networking” and “the
40 exchange of experience between communities and other stakeholders” (e.g. in
41 the IOS evaluation).

47 L. Carlsson & F. Berkes, “Co-management: concepts and methodological implications”, *Journal of Environmental Management* 75, 2005, p. 1698.

48 Uitermark, Justus (2014) “Verlangten naar Wikitopia”, Oratie als bijzonder hoogleraar samenlevingsopbouw, 10 januari 2014, <http://www.justusuitermark.nl> (25.05.2014).

1 **On adaptive policies and practice: to co-evolutionary** 2 **development**

3 As a final dimension, I wish to bring into view the importance, opportunities
4 and challenges of adopting an adaptive, co-evolutionary vision and approach
5 on the policies and practices of this Convention. Can the Convention be
6 developed as a big, multi-layered and multi-dimensional, problem-solving
7 network? A learning network in which continuous problem solving processes
8 (for adaptive contextual safeguarding) involve extensive deliberation,
9 negotiation and joint learning within multidimensional ICH networks of
10 policy agencies, communities, civil actors and other sectors. Such complex
11 processes in the current working of the Convention are already recognized, but
12 what is proposed here is that it could/should be positively cultivated as “a way
13 of being”, an inherent vision and methodology of developing the Convention’s
14 work. Maybe this is what the abovementioned IOS report referred to as the
15 need for a theory of Change.⁴⁹

16 This also relates to another important challenge facing the Convention and
17 in extenso many of the elements of ICH it stands for: to link between ICH and
18 sustainable development. It is an interesting “turn” brought by the concept of
19 “safeguarding” the Convention proposes (as distinguished from “protecting”):
20 searching for new and adapted ways to respect, integrate and make flourish
21 (over and over again) a diversity of skills, habits, traditions and knowledge
22 transmitted to us through past generations, it brings into view a future-
23 oriented development of actual cultural (heritage) practices. One could thus
24 say the concept of safeguarding adds a valuable perspective to the search for
25 sustainable development: affirming the dimension of living futures to valuable
26 pasts/heritage; joining the aspiration of a vital “resilience” and continuous
27 dynamics of development to a more protective “sustainability” that is hoping
28 to preserve resources from the past and is primarily driven by an attitude of
29 prudence.

30 Conceptualizing the Convention as a co-evolutionary learning and operating
31 network brings up the need for multi-dimensional and interdisciplinary
32 approaches, just as new, cross-cutting agendas and interdisciplinary
33 cooperation will be needed to face the complex challenges of sustainable
34 development, soundly and vitally balancing social, cultural, ecological and
35 economical dimensions. Research in sustainable development evolutions
36 shows how social-ecological systems act in a nonlinear manner and are
37 strongly strongly coupled, complex and evolving integrated systems, bringing
38 up the need for multi-dimensional, learning and future-oriented governance
39 systems: “Two useful tools for resilience-building in social-ecological systems
40 are structured scenarios and active adaptive management. These tools require

49 IOS, *Final Report. Evaluation of UNESCO’s Standard setting Work of the Culture Sector; Part I – 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage*, § 184, p. 6.
<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002230/223095E.pdf> (25-05-2014).

1 and facilitate a social context with flexible and open institutions and multi-
2 level governance systems that allow for learning and increase adaptive capacity
3 without foreclosing future development options.”⁵⁰

4 This brings me to conclude by pointing out how in such a learning, adaptive,
5 co-evolutionary approach of co-production, one of the larger challenges
6 remaining for the 2003 Convention for the safeguarding of intangible cultural
7 heritage is to connect different sorts of learning and knowledge. Scientists,
8 practitioners, policymakers all have different ways of acting and expressing
9 in the world, so social capacity to support the collaboration and translation
10 among them are critical.⁵¹ Bridging organizations provide competences and
11 forums for the interaction, translation and adaptation of these different
12 kinds of knowledge, and the coordination of other tasks that enable co-
13 operation: accessing resources, bringing together different actors, building
14 trust, resolving conflict, and networking. Social learning is one of these tasks,
15 essential both for the co-operation of partners and an outcome of the co-
16 operation of partners. It occurs most efficiently through joint problem solving
17 and reflection within learning networks. Through successive rounds of learning
18 and problem solving, learning networks can incorporate new knowledge to deal
19 with problems at increasingly larger scales, with the result that maturing co-
20 management arrangements become adaptive co-management in time.⁵² Such
21 an approach of shareable knowledge between communities, states, researchers
22 mediated, connected and translated by bridging organizations will be key to
23 make some of the most interesting and instruments of the 2003 Convention
24 really work: the idea of sharing safeguarding experiences and (best) practices.

25 **Conclusion**

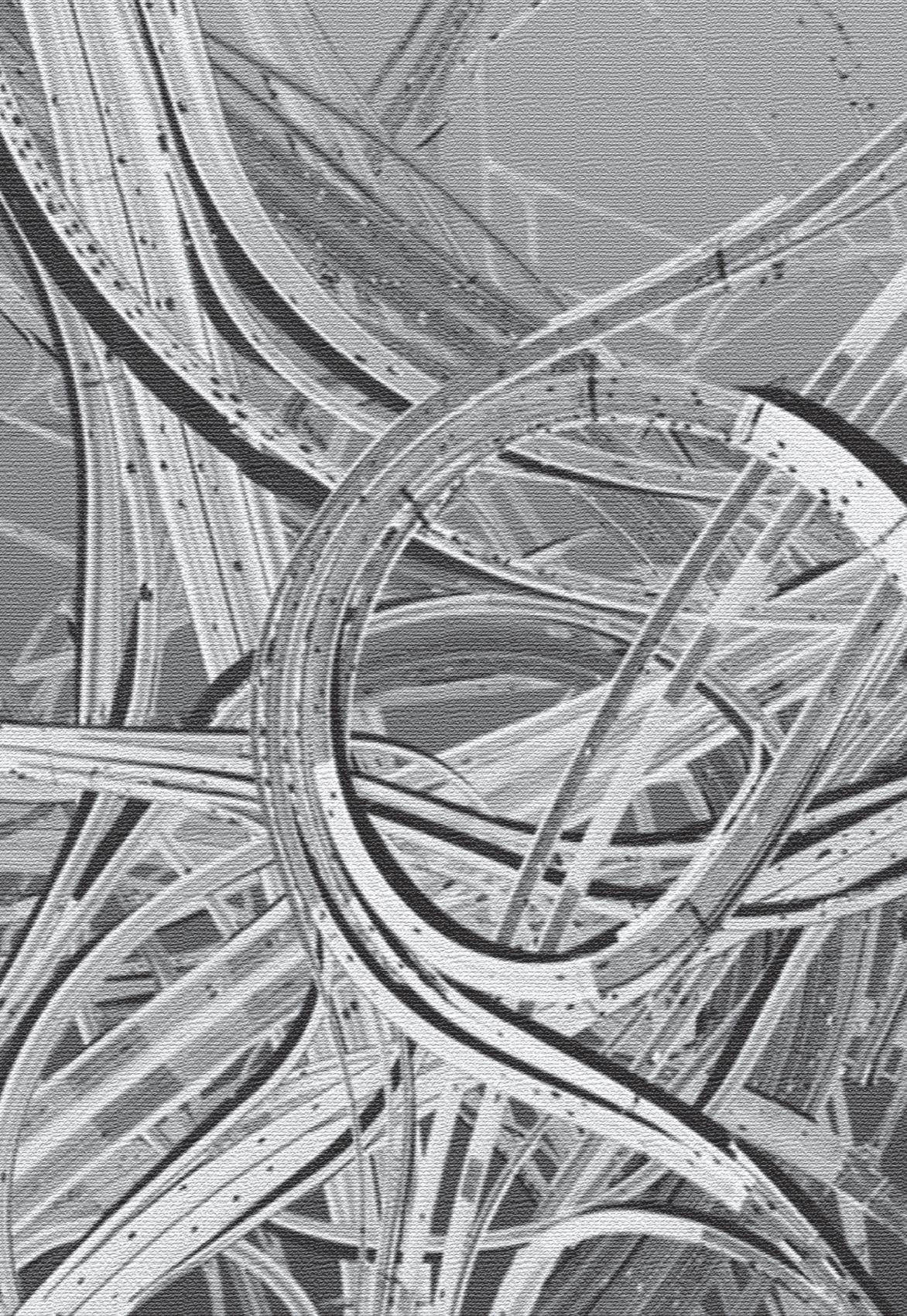
26 To foster the 2003 Convention to its potential (and) deeply participatory
27 spirit, safeguarding the commons of intangible cultural heritage of many
28 individuals, groups and communities all over the world, I have put forward
29 the need for a multi-dimensional, learning and future-oriented governance
30 system, the approach of the Convention as a co-productive and co-evolutionary
31 instrument. This is a plea to move beyond “the conventional” and fully bring
32 the 2003 Convention to blooming as a “medium” or “bridging tool” operating
33 with many layers and dimensions of stakeholders and actors co-governing,
34 co-managing and co-producing the Convention’s work of safeguarding. A

50 C. Folke a.o. (eds.) “Resilience and Sustainable Development: Building Adaptive Capacity in a World of Transformations”, *Ambio: A Journal of the Human Environment* 31:5, 2002, p. 437-440.
<http://www.bioone.org/doi/abs/10.1579/0044-7447-31.5.437?journalCode=ambi> (25.05.2014).

51 C. Wyborn, “*Governing Adaptively Part III: Co-productive Capacities*”, <http://www.thepacificexchange.net/governing-adaptively-part-iii-co-productive-capacities/> (25.05.2014).

52 F. Berkes, “Evolution of co-management: role of knowledge generation, bridging organizations and social learning”, *Journal of Environmental Management* 90:5, 2009, p.1692-1702.
http://forestpolicy.com/wp-content/uploads/2010/11/berkes_2009_adaptive-co-management.pdf (25.05.2014).

1 consequence of the shared processes of learning and efforts, is sharing and
2 opening up the symbolic capital of this UNESCO Convention with vital
3 partners making the Convention work at all levels. In this regard it is only a
4 logical next step to strengthen the cooperation and the functioning of bridging
5 organizations such as NGOs in the 2003 Convention in the coming years.
6 The near future will show off how far “united nations” making a Convention
7 for safeguarding the dynamics of cherished heritages practiced, owned and
8 transmitted by individuals, groups and communities all over the world, are
9 ready to share governance and step into more complex, more resilient futures.



Integrating Culture in Planning and Action for Sustainable Development

The Role of ICH NGOs

1 NGOs have earned a key place in the global development agenda owing to
2 their ability to effectively harness social capital for articulating and advocating
3 citizens' rights, interests and demands. The NGOs working in the realm of
4 intangible cultural heritage across the globe, referred to as ICH NGOs in the rest
5 of this document, have pioneered innovative solutions to address developmental
6 challenges using culture based approach. They have enabled the participation
7 of traditional bearers and practitioners in safeguarding efforts. Their efforts
8 have also led to a strong, sizable and valuable productive sector comprising of
9 creative and cultural resources and activities across the world. They have also
10 played a critical role in enabling marginalized communities participate fully in
11 their cultural life thus strengthening pluralism and reducing conflict. The ICH
12 NGOs vary in terms of stature, constituency, objectives, geographical coverage
13 etc. Some NGOs are community based organizations which are representative
14 of traditional ICH bearers. Others play a facilitating role supporting capacity
15 building, safeguarding and strengthening of value chain for creating of
16 creative industries and mediation in representation of culture. Some are non-
17 governmental counterpart of governmental bodies. (www.ichngoforum.org)

18 The international community now acknowledges culture as a "driver and
19 enabler of development" and its critical role in supporting socio-economic
20 development and social inclusion. In the following paragraphs we first delve
21 into how culture contributes to sustainable development and take a look at
22 standard setting instruments and international initiatives for integrating
23 cultural dimensions in developmental framework. We then present the possible
24 roles and action areas for ICH NGOs as harbinger of sustainable development
25 using cultural capital as assets for transformative action.

26 **Culture and Sustainable Development**

27 Sustainable development implies equitable environmental, economic and
28 social well being for today and tomorrow. Cultural heritage, creative industries,
29 sustainable cultural tourism and cultural infrastructure contribute to improved
30 income and job opportunities especially for women who are the traditional
31 bearers of ICH and youth. As per UNCTAD data published in May, 2013, total
32 world trade of creative goods and services amounted to US\$624 billion. (UNDP,



1 2013). Cultural tourism is an interesting case study. With number of annual
2 tourists exceeding one billion, tourism represents 9% of world gross domestic
3 product (GDP), 30% of total exports and services and one out of eleven jobs. As
4 per World Bank, 25% of tourism revenue goes to people below the poverty line
5 in some of the poorest countries and tourism employs young people at almost
6 twice rate than other industries. (UNGA, 2014)

7 Revitalization of ICH leads to strengthened cultural identities, improved
8 self esteem and pride among the indigenous communities leading to social
9 inclusion. The process empowers marginalized communities to participate
10 fully in social and cultural life and they get a platform for acting as social
11 and political agency. Increased social capital and active citizenship fosters
12 inclusive development. As Irina Bokova said in a recent debate on Culture and
13 Development, “Culture can foster participation and craft a more balanced and
14 meaningful development model *for the people and by the people.*” (UNGA, 2014)

15 Multicultural exchange and interaction through festivals, collaborative art
16 workshops and cultural tourism promotes cultural pluralism, social cohesion
17 and peace through multicultural dialogue leading to shared understanding
18 and greater empathy for the “other”. Global partnerships forged through
19 transnational flow of creativity, multi cultural and multi national dialogue
20 and exchange give people the right to access their own heritage as well as that
21 of others.

22 Protection and preservation of cultural diversity, biodiversity and
23 rejuvenation of traditional systems of resource management contributes to
24 environmental sustainability. In Africa for example, traditional leaders and
25 doctors are vital in gaining confidence to strengthen the health care sector, to
26 combat HIV and to enhance education (UNGA:2014). Culture based livelihoods
27 and enterprise also contribute to green economy as they are inherently based
28 on intellectual resources and entail low resource consumption. Quality

1 education enriched by culture transmits shared values, knowledge and skills
2 and supports lifelong learning.

3 ICH is all about people, so investment on ICH directly benefits communities,
4 helps in strengthening identity as well as cultural diversity, skill development
5 and empowerment, developing creative enterprise, and generating new
6 resources. Thus investment on ICH is critical for achieving all 3 pillars of
7 sustainable development and a natural corollary is the significant role of ICH
8 NGOs in achieving the goals of sustainable development.

9 - ICH → Skill → Enterprise → Resource generation → Sharing

10 - ICH → Identity → Owing development charters → Impact on MDGs

11 - ICH → Recognition → Social Inclusion → Pride → Aspiration → Safeguarding

12 - Investment on ICH → Development of eco-system enabling Growth →
13 Sustainable Development

14

An Example from India

15

16 In this context I would like to share about our initiative called “Art for Life’ or
17 AFL in India. In 2004, we initiated AFL with 3200 folk artists living in the state
18 of West Bengal (in eastern India) with an aim of developing an eco-system for
19 revival and rejuvenation of traditional art skills as livelihood. The project was
20 supported by the Eastern Zonal Cultural Centre, an autonomous institution
21 under the Ministry of Culture, Government of India. It was funded as a special
22 project under the rural livelihood scheme of the Government of India (2005-
23 2008). European Union supported initiatives for facilitating multi cultural
24 exchange and development of community led creative hubs during 2009-11.
25 The model was replicated in the neighbouring state of Bihar (supported by the
26 Bihar State Rural Livelihood Project, JEEViKA) with 1500 people.

27 During the project initiation stage the art forms were dying owing to lack of
28 opportunity to perform or practice. There was little respect or recognition for
29 the artists and the youth at large had lost interest to learn their traditions. There
30 was meagre or no income from the art forms. AFL focused on strengthening
31 art skills under the aegis of the traditional experts or Gurus, facilitation of
32 new innovations through multicultural and multi regional exchange and
33 collaborative workshops, documentation and dissemination, promotion
34 through participation in regional, national and international forums as well
35 as development of artist villages as destinations using village festivals as a
36 tool. The initiative has covered around 12 folk songs and dance, folk theatre
37 and folk painting traditions of West Bengal and Bihar and all the art forms
38 are rejuvenated. Indicators are improved opportunity to perform, improved
39 income from performance, lower average age of artists with the young taking
40 interest, rejuvenation of the skill transmission systems, increased number of
41 artist groups practicing and performing together and greater awareness on the
42 art forms. The artists are nowadays connected to diverse networks, ranging
43 from local to international, providing patronage and support. The platforms
44 for showcasing vary from traditional to new innovations. As for example, scroll
45 painters of Bengal called Patuas are commissioned to paint on new themes
and even illustrations for comics. Bauls & Fakirs who sing about attaining

1 the divine through love for humanity have found a place in international Sufi
2 Festivals.

3 The monthly income for the 3200 families in West Bengal has increased
4 from less than 10 US\$ in 2005 to 80-120 US\$ in 2013. The leading Patuas or
5 Fakiri singers now earn on an average 300-500 US\$ per month. AFL has also led
6 to inclusive development. As income opportunities improve, the confidence of
7 folk artists increases and they gain public respect. This encourages the artists
8 to integrate more fully in society and take part in the development process. The
9 Bauls and Fakirs for example had been traditionally a target of mistrust and
10 harassment by mainstream orthodox society due to their free society living
11 style. Their children were earlier often not allowed to enter school. As the
12 popularity of their music has grown through the project intervention, Baul-
13 Fakir musicians have now acquired a new identity. The artists have travelled
14 to Europe, Africa and various Asian countries and have become the pride of
15 the villagers. The villages have evolved as cultural tourism destinations. The
16 annual village Fakiri fair at Gorbhanga draws tourists from across the globe.
17 Other outcomes of AFL interventions are improved quality of life in terms
18 of living condition, health, sanitation and access to electricity, improvement
19 in school education for the children, improved mobility and socio economic
20 status of women. The villages of the Fakiri singers and the Patuas have evolved
21 as heritage tourism destinations and this has augmented economic opportunity
22 for the larger community. Development of micro economies centering local
23 cultural assets has also led to reduced migration.

24 **Culture and Post-2015 Development Framework**

25 Today we are in a critical phase in human development, when nations are
26 reviewing their progress towards Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and
27 shaping a new post 2015 development agenda. There has been a paradigm shift
28 in development strategies which are moving away from industrial/ production
29 intensive models to human centered sustainable approaches. When the MDGs
30 were adopted in 2000 by the United Nations General Assembly in its resolution
31 55/2 the importance of culture was not explicitly recognized. However since
32 then several instruments have been adopted by the international community
33 to strengthen the linkage between culture and development.

34 UNESCO approved the Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity (2001),
35 the Convention for Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003) and the
36 Convention on the Diversity of Cultural Expressions (2005). Reports have been
37 prepared by UNDP and UNCATD on culture and development and creative
38 economy. The Outcome Document of the 2010 MDG Summit recognized
39 the contribution of culture in achieving MDGs. The UN General Assembly
40 Resolutions in 2010 (65/166) and 2011 (66/208) recommended mainstreaming
41 of culture into development policies and strategies. The increasing trend of
42 integration of culture in development agenda is manifested at the level of
43 United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) where we see
44 culture is included in 70% of UNDAF work plans by early 2012 in comparison
45 to 30% in the 90's (UNESCO International Congress, 2013). The outcome



1 document of the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development
2 (Rio+20) and the 2013 ECOSOC Annual Ministerial Review acknowledged the
3 importance of culture and cultural diversity for sustainable development. The
4 International Congress “Culture: Key to Sustainable Development” held in
5 Hangzhou at China in May 2013, specifically focused on understanding the
6 linkages between culture and sustainable development in view of the post-
7 2015 development framework. The World Culture Forum held at Bali had
8 deliberations on the impact of culture on the three dimensions of sustainable
9 development – environmental, economic and social.

10 However developing a shared understanding and recognition on integrating
11 culture explicitly in global, regional and national policy frameworks still
12 remains a challenge. Various international cultural agencies are now advocating
13 for recognizing culture as a fourth pillar of sustainable development in future
14 development frameworks. So far culture is not mentioned as a focus area of the
15 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In October 2013, four global cultural
16 organizations – the International Federation of Arts Councils and Culture
17 Agencies, Agenda 21 for Culture, Culture Action Europe and the International
18 Federation of Coalitions for Cultural Diversity have published a plea for the
19 integration of culture as a Millennium Development Goal in the United Nations’
20 post-2015 agenda. Finally The United Nations General Assembly adopted by
21 consensus a resolution (68/223) on culture and sustainable development on
22 20 December 2013, that asks Member States and all UN organizations to “give
23 due consideration to the role of culture and sustainable development in the
24 elaboration of the post-2015 development agenda”. The increased attention to
25 culture in the UN system under UNESCO’s leadership was appreciated. (UNDP
26 2013, UCLG 2013, UNGA 2013)
27



1 **Areas of Action**

2 ICHNGOs are already working for community capacity building for management
3 of local assets, building community based organizations/institutions and
4 strengthening their business and managerial skills. While their role as cultural
5 mediators have so far dealt with safeguarding and representation of heritage,
6 they now have the significant tasks of raising awareness among decision
7 makers on the importance of the cultural dimension of development policies
8 and also enabling participation of traditional bearers and practitioners in
9 policy making processes so that appropriate owned creative economy policies
10 are adopted. Key areas of action as detailed in the following paragraphs are
11 mapping of cultural resources, building evidence on socio-economic gains
12 resulting from revitalization of cultural assets, mediation and linkage between
13 different stakeholders including the Government and the communities and
14 supporting capacity building for management of arts and heritage at various
15 levels.

16 **Mapping Cultural Resources**

17 The community of practice on safeguarding ICH has developed standards for
18 inventorying of ICH elements. To link cultural resources with development
19 agenda, it is imperative to create databases on the ICH practitioners. In India,
20 for example, there is no statistical data on the number of artists and cultural
21 practitioners in the country nor is there any information on contribution of
22 the cultural sector in terms of employment and GDP. The National Census
23 of India does not have any classification for artists or crafts persons, nor
24 does India's National Industry Classification have any economic activity
25 categorization pertaining to performing art or crafts. As a result the creative
26 artistic skills of a large part of population remain mostly unrecognized. Owing
27 to poverty and lack of scope for performance and practice in changing socio

1 cultural environment, the practitioners stop nurturing the art form leading to
2 loss of heritage and cultural diversity. Mapping of cultural resources including
3 the traditional bearers and practitioners is critical not only for drawing up
4 effective plans for revival but also identifying benchmarks for monitoring
5 project outcomes and assessing creative talents and community assets.

6 ***Establishing enabling legislative and regulatory environment***

7 ICH NGOs have a key role in mediating necessary conditions for flourishing
8 of creativity, recognition of artists, artisans and traditional knowledge bearers,
9 and addressing the needs for minorities, disadvantaged groups, indigenous
10 people and women. Culture based development programmes have contributed
11 to establishment of supportive legislative and regulatory frameworks. In
12 Cambodia for example, the Living Human Treasures (LHT) concept led to the
13 implementation of a royal decree for implementation of a national LHT system.
14 In China a major achievement is inclusion of culture based ethnic minority
15 development in policy recommendations for the 12th Five-Year Plan on Social
16 and Economic Development of Ethnic Minority Areas. (MDG-F, 2013)

17 Inequality is a challenge in creative economy. Though ideas and creativity
18 are globally sourced, the global North has largely greater control over
19 distribution. In India for example, although considerable efforts were made
20 since independence for promotion of the diverse cultural heritage of the
21 country, funding support was limited for folk arts or craft. The eleventh plan
22 implemented during the period 2007-2012 was influenced by the 2003 and
23 2005 Conventions and focused on cultural diversity. It recommended that

24 “all forms of art and culture should have an equal footing and deserve
25 financial and other support. ... Accordingly, the imbalances in flow
26 of funds for various activities under promotion and dissemination
27 of performing arts will have to be set right, particularly in favor of
28 vanishing folk arts and crafts that cannot be pitted against classical arts
29 to compete for resources and media attention.” (planningcommission.
30 nic.in)

31 Countries are at present in different stages of enabling supportive policy/
32 institutional and regulatory environment at the national level. The Creative
33 Economy Report identifies five categories as follows:

- 34 - Countries with coherent creative economy policy having human centered
35 approach
- 36 - Countries with consumption driven “essentially economistic creative
37 industry agenda”
- 38 - Countries having sector driven and/or limited frameworks despite
39 recognition of the creative industries paradigm
- 40 - Countries which despite awareness have not adopted creative industries
41 paradigm owing to the nature of their cultural sectors
- 42 - Countries which have not as such recognized the creative economy as such.
43 (UNDP,2013)

1 Weak governance is another challenge to access of schemes and programmes
2 Governments may have on offer for grass root small and medium sized creative
3 enterprise. The latter also need greater efforts to support value chains.

4 ***Networking and Sharing of Knowledge and Practices***

5 Lack of evidence based analysis and absence of comprehensive statistical
6 framework for integrating culture in development have hindered inclusion of
7 culture in development framework. Building a knowledge community of ICH
8 NGOs is important for access to the wealth of experience developed, sharing
9 of best practices and tools and better alignment of strategies and action for
10 lobbying for inclusion of culture. Currently in absence of systematic sharing
11 platform such knowledge is not open for public access. Knowledge management
12 is also critical for developing clear guidance and monitoring mechanisms and
13 capacity building “to identify, formulate culture and development projects and
14 implement them through more adequate, more relevant and more informed
15 methodologies that meet project realities and objectives directly.’ (MDG-F:
16 2013). The ICH NGO community can catalyze such efforts by working together
17 to develop concrete delivery based projects along with identification of
18 indicators for improved assessment and monitoring of impact.

19 ***Strengthening Management of Arts Organizations, Institutions and*** 20 ***Cultural Heritage***

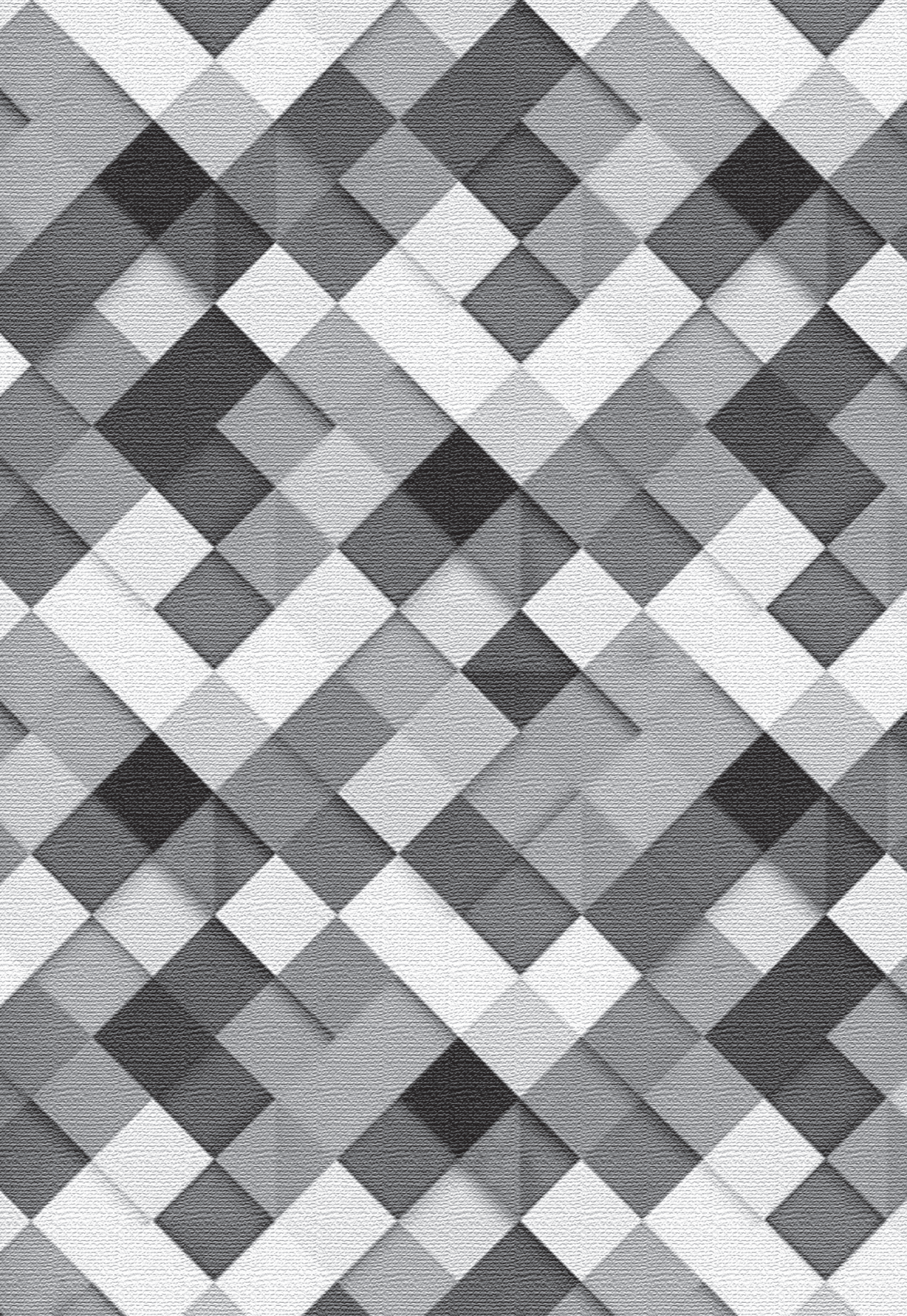
21 Research and capacity building for arts management are two other areas
22 where the ICH NGOs may contribute. Evidence building necessitates macro
23 level research on the cultural sector and its linkage with social and economic
24 sectors. ICH NGOs have already contributed in developing artist/community
25 based organizations managing cultural resources and nurturing creative
26 enterprise. By working closely with research and academic institutions they
27 can develop networks to support interdisciplinary research and training for
28 producing able managers and institutions.

29 **Conclusion**

30 The ICH NGOs can become catalysts in sustainable development where people
31 can “lead the lives they have reason to value” through full participation in
32 cultural life (UCLG,2013). Culture has the potential of developing a micro-
33 economy, creating opportunity for transformative development where
34 people labeled as “unskilled’ or “lacking employable skills’ in conventional
35 development pathways become stakeholders in creative economies. ICH NGOs
36 are equipped with knowledge, experience, resources and community linkages
37 to innovate delivery based programmes and projects addressing both cultural
38 rights and sustainable development aspects. Their efforts will be leveraged
39 through creation of effective platforms for knowledge sharing and networking.

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Dealing with Black Pete

Media, Mediators and the Dilemmas of Brokering Intangible Heritage

1 Since 2013, the NGO the Dutch Centre for Intangible Heritage (VIE) has
 2 had a key-role as facilitator, mediator and coordinator in the field for the
 3 implementation of the 2003 UNESCO Convention in the Netherlands. Among
 4 other things, VIE takes care of the Dutch National Inventory of Intangible
 5 Heritage. The Netherlands was relatively late in ratifying the Convention. Right
 6 from the start, in the beginning of the 21st century, there were debates about
 7 the UNESCO Convention, in particular about the original list of Masterpieces
 8 and later the representative lists. One of the remarkable features was that the
 9 feast of Saint Nicholas (or Sinterklaas) was used over and over as an example,
 10 in particular for pleading that phenomena not be frozen, even though this was
 11 and is not the method nor the goal of the Convention. While the discussions and
 12 negotiations that eventually led to the final text of the Convention in October
 13 2003 were just starting in Paris in 2001, opinions about the opportunity to
 14 propose “Saint Nicholas’ as a masterpiece¹ and counterarticles with the title
 15 “UNESCO threatens the Feast of Saint-Nicholas’ were already being published
 16 in one of the leading newspapers in the Netherlands. In this last article the
 17 Dutch ethnologist P. J. Margry argued that in the new millennium even the
 18 question of Black Pete had been sufficiently discussed and negotiated not be a
 19 problem anymore.² During the last few months of 2013 the question of Black
 20 Pete was front page news and a headline story in the television and radio news
 21 for days. With the new role in relation to the UNESCO Convention, VIE was
 22 in the centre of the debate. The heated debate focused on the black assistant
 23 of Saint Nicholas.³ Saint Nicholas is the most popular family feast in the

- 1 K. Epskamp and P. Nas, “UNESCO moet Sinterklaas redden’, *NRC*, 04-12-2001, <http://vorige.nrc.nl/krant/article1579112.ece>. Epskamp and Nas argued that the Dutch Saint Nicholas feast should be nominated as an example of Dutch Intangible Heritage, at the same time unique as well as threatened.
- 2 <http://vorige.nrc.nl/krant/article1579306.ece> P. J. Margry, “UNESCO bedreigt sinterklaasfeest’, *NRC*, 06-12-2001. “Het behoeft eigenlijk geen betoog: onderzoek van de laatste jaren ook door het Meertens Instituut wijst uit dat van een werkelijke bedreiging van Sinterklaas in het geheel geen sprake is. De concurrentie met het kerstfeest heeft bijvoorbeeld de viering van Sints verjaardag zelfs sterker geïmponeerd. Ook de discussies, nadrukkelijk gevat in een kader van politieke correctheid, over de figuur van Zwarte Piet, lijken anno 2001 ritueel uitonderhandeld en achter de rug. Het sinterklaasfeest heeft zijn conjuncturele hobbels van de late 20e eeuw genomen en heeft zich duidelijker geprofileerd.’ See also the reply <http://www.nrc.nl/handelsblad/van/2001/december/08/unesco-en-de-sint-7568372>
- 3 A. van der Zeijden & I. Strouken, *Sinterklaas in the Netherlands: a beleaguered tradition*. Bilthoven, 2014.

1 Netherlands and is celebrated every year on 5/6 December. From the 1980s
2 onward, migrants from the former Dutch colonies Surinam and the Antilles
3 have expressed a growing displeasure on the – in their opinion – stereotypical
4 fashion in which Black Pete is cast in a servant role.⁴ In their view it reflects
5 and even reinforces and encourages the impression of the inferior position of
6 black people in this country. In 2013 activists took legal action in Amsterdam
7 to ban the Black Petes from the official welcoming of Saint Nicholas in the
8 capital. Members of the National Platform of Dutch Slavery Past wrote letters
9 of complaint to the United Nations about the figure of Black Pete and an alleged
10 link to slavery and racism. The attention UNESCO was generating for similar
11 traditions all over the world, under the new flag of intangible cultural heritage,
12 had been one of the reasons for raising complaints to the UN Working Group
13 on Human Rights on People of African descent, to which “it [was] reported that
14 in relation to the acceptance of the UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding
15 of Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2012 by the Netherlands, proposals have
16 been made to declare the Dutch Cultural Historical Tradition “Santa Claus and
17 Black Pete” as Immaterial Cultural Heritage.⁵ In their opinion this would be an
18 official recognition of Black Pete.⁶

19 Even before the procedure itself had started, the chairman of the UN
20 Working Group, Verene Shepherd, already presented her personal opinion on
21 Dutch television that Black Pete “was definitely racist”, a remnant of the Dutch
22 colonial past. The discussion exploded. Black Pete dominated the discussions
23 in the Dutch media for over two months. On Facebook there was a petition
24 in favour of Black Pete, which received two million likes in two days. The
25 discussion, which started in October 2013, had never before been as heated.
26 During the process, after the intervention of the UN and throughout the
27 enormous debate, VIE got a lot of questions from the press and from people
28 who asked VIE to take a stance in the issue, in favour or against Black Pete and/
29 or in finding a solution for this difficult dilemma.

30 VIE could not stay out of this discussion because it touches their core
31 business: (facilitating and mediating) safeguarding intangible cultural
32 heritage. VIE opted for a stance in line with its own professional expertise and

4 For a survey of the history of the discussion see J. Helsloot, ‘Het feest. De strijd om Zwarte Piet’, in: I. Hoving and others (ed.), *Veranderingen van het alledaagse 1950-2000*. Den Haag, 2005, p. 249-272.

5 Letter of the Chair-Rapporteur of the Working Group on people of African descent to the Dutch government, 17 January 2013. See: [https://spdb.ohchr.org/hrdb/23rd/public_-_AL_Netherlands_17.01.13_\(1.2013\).pdf](https://spdb.ohchr.org/hrdb/23rd/public_-_AL_Netherlands_17.01.13_(1.2013).pdf)

6 In reaction to the questions put forward by the UN Working Group the Dutch Ambassador and Permanent Representative to the United Nations Roderick van Schreven, who reacted on behalf of the Government of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, found it expedient to underline that “the allegations are incorrect. The Dutch Authorities have not submitted the Sinterklaasfestival as a nomination proposal to UNESCO. To avoid all sensitivities it was added that “The Dutch Government is aware that Black Pete is considered by some to be offensive.” [https://spdb.ohchr.org/hrdb/24th/Netherlands_10.07.13_\(1.2013\).pdf](https://spdb.ohchr.org/hrdb/24th/Netherlands_10.07.13_(1.2013).pdf). As this reaction was kept low profile it played no role in the public debate. For the letter see: [https://spdb.ohchr.org/hrdb/24th/Netherlands_10.07.13_\(1.2013\).pdf](https://spdb.ohchr.org/hrdb/24th/Netherlands_10.07.13_(1.2013).pdf). It was only very much later that one of the Dutch newspapers found out that there was an official response of the Dutch government, even published on the internet.

1 tried to answer the question on the supposedly racist character of Black Pete in
2 a well documented and empirically informed way. VIE has done a lot of research
3 on the history of the Saint Nicholas feast in the Netherlands.⁷ Time and again
4 VIE experts gave explanations of the historical background not only of the Saint
5 Nicholas feast and iconography, but also of Black Pete, who appears to have been
6 invented by the Dutch former schoolmaster Jan Schenkman (1806-1863) in the
7 nineteenth century. Black Pete was never depicted as a slave but rather, in the
8 beginning, as Saint Nicholas' little helper in the background. As it turned out,
9 after the Second World War Black Pete developed to become the indispensable
10 mainstay of Saint Nicholas, his manager without whom Saint Nicholas would
11 be rather helpless. VIE tried to explain from the inside how this peculiar way of
12 celebrating Saint Nicholas evolved during the last two centuries.⁸ In this sense
13 VIE positioned itself as a documenter of and commentator on traditions, and
14 also as a reliable source of knowledge about these intricate questions. From
15 the perspective of intangible heritage safeguarding it is interesting that VIE
16 treats Saint Nicholas as a living tradition, with an open end. This fits in with
17 the UNESCO interpretation of traditions since 2003: always evolving, always
18 changing.

19 The Meertens Institute, the Dutch academic institution which researches
20 everyday culture in the Netherlands, acted comparably. On their website they
21 created a page called "Dossier on Black Pete" on which the Meertens Institute
22 presented a number of articles on the history of Black Pete, notably by Meertens
23 scholar John Helsloot, who is the leading scholar in this field.⁹ In a special
24 part of the "Dossier" the Meertens Institute presented and answered some
25 "frequently asked questions", such as "How popular is the Saint Nicholas Feast
26 in the Netherlands?" "Since when is Saint Nicholas accompanied by a little black
27 servant and is there a connection with slavery" (a question that Meertens also
28 answered in the negative: Black Pete was never a slave but merely the helper
29 of Saint Nicholas.)¹⁰ At the same time the answer to the question "whether
30 Black Pete must be considered racist", was that "an unequivocal answer is not
31 possible" but it was also noted 'that we cannot avoid the fact that Black Pete is
32 considered racist not just by members of ethnic minorities but also by scholars

7 VIE has published several articles on the history of Saint Nicholas in their popular magazines *Traditie* and *Immaterieel Erfgoed*. In 2008 Albert van der Zeijden published the little booklet *Suikergoed & surprises. Over Sinterklaas* vol. 2 of the series *het Alledaagse leven*. Zwolle, 2008.

8 See for instance the following VIE comments in newspaper interviews: "De traditie: in dertig jaar zijn Sint en Piet al behoorlijk veranderd", *NRC*, 19-10-2013; "Hooft wie klopt daar eigenlijk", *De Volkskrant*, 21-10-2013. Albert van der Zeijden gave a quick overview of changing popular images of Black Pete during the last two centuries: "Zwarte Piet = levend monument. Waarom ook tegenstanders deze fantasiefiguur eigenlijk positief zouden moeten waarderen", published on the internet 18-10-2013. <http://www.albertvanderzeijden.nl/publicaties/Albert%20van%20der%20Zeijden%20Zwarte%20piet%20=%20monument.pdf>

9 <http://www.meertens.knaw.nl/cms/nl/nieuws-agenda/nieuws-overzicht/202-nieuws-2013/144369-dossier-zwarte-piet>

10 "De zwarte knecht in het boekje van Jan Schenkman uit 1850 is derhalve niet op te vatten als een huisslaaf, maar als een knecht in betrekking." The Frequently Asked Questions can be found on: <http://www.meertens.knaw.nl/cms/nl/nieuws-agenda/nieuws-overzicht/202-nieuws-2013/144371-faq-zwarte-piet>



1. First appearance of a black helper in the childrens book of Jan Schenkman (1850)

1 and intellectuals.¹¹ That at least one of the scholars of the Meertens Institute
 2 thinks the same, was demonstrated in an article of John Helsloot, which was
 3 also presented on the Meertens website, which deconstructed Black Pete as
 4 essentially racist, “Zwarte Piet and Cultural Aphasia in the Netherlands”,¹²

5 As the discussion dragged on, both groups dug themselves into entrenched
 6 positions. VIE tried to play and cultivate its facilitating, reflexive and mediating
 7 role, which, during the process, evolved into a call for dialogue, in which VIE
 8 suggested possible ways of compromise. It did so by presenting the proposals
 9 of others, for instance of the actor Erik van Muiswinkel, who proposed to make
 10 Black Pete less black, to make him more acceptable to the critics.¹³ This was also

11 “Op de vraag of Zwarte Piet racistisch is, kan geen eenduidig antwoord gegeven worden, maar men kan niet om het feit heen dat Zwarte Piet zowel door vertegenwoordigers van minderheidsgroepen als door wetenschappers en intellectuelen als racistisch ervaren wordt.’ Dossier on Black Pete on the Meertens Website.

12 J.I.A. Helsloot, “Zwarte Piet and Cultural Aphasia in the Netherlands’, *Quotidian. Journal for the Study of Everyday Life* 3, 2012, p. 1-20.

13 See for instance: “Hou het hoofd koel in Pietendiscussie’, *Spits*, 23-10-2013; I. Strouken, “Een toekomst voor de Sint’, *Noord-Hollands Dagblad*, 29-10-2013. Van Muiswinkel plays on television the role of Chief Pete accompanying Saint Nicholas.

1 the stance of the mayor of Amsterdam, Eberhard van der Laan. His reaction
2 was that he could understand the sensitivities on both sides and therefore
3 advocated dialogue, looking for a model to which everyone could relate, but
4 without violating the Saint-Nicholas tradition itself.¹⁴ Later on, this was also
5 the suggestion of the UN experts, who proposed a respectful national debate in
6 which the Dutch government should take the lead.¹⁵ It was suggested in some
7 offstage deliberations, that the organisation of a national debate, could be a
8 role for VIE. In issues like Black Pete, cultural brokers are naturally inclined to
9 look at it from both sides and thus tend to promote a dialogue and opt for a
10 compromise.

11 VIE's mutual understanding-oriented position was not always easy to
12 maintain. This became clear during the Dutch television show *Een Vandaag*,
13 broadcasted on 26 October 2013, when the Saint Nicholas Society made a big
14 issue out of a supposed action by VIE, which was accused of having obstructed
15 a possible inclusion of the Saint Nicholas feast in the National Inventory of
16 Intangible Heritage.¹⁶ Already in the early part of 2013, so before the heated
17 debate, the Saint Nicholas Society had presented a candidature file of the
18 Saint Nicholas Feast for the procedure that can lead to inscription on the
19 Dutch National Inventory. Following the procedures closely, the independent
20 audit commission attached to the National Inventory advised VIE to ask the
21 Society for a more elaborate treatment of the Black Pete issue, as a subject that
22 should be addressed because it might endanger the future of this tradition.
23 This suggestion to include the issue of Black Pete in the safeguarding or
24 special heritage care plan, was now transformed into a supposedly political
25 stance of VIE.¹⁷ To make things worse, words like 'heritage care plan' are not

14 In the end it was decided that the official welcoming in Amsterdam could go through, but that Black Pete should alter somewhat his appearance: no curly hair but straight hairs, and no ring in his ear because it could be (hinein)interpreted as referring to the Dutch colonial past, to the chains of slavery.

15 <http://www.getmixed.fm/index.php/nieuws/652-black-pete-sinterklaas-un-experts-encourage-respectful-national-debate-on-dutch-tradition>

16 The alarming news heading read: 'Black Pete was the stumbling block. Centre for popular culture prevented Saint Nicholas becoming world heritage'. http://www.eenvandaag.nl/binnenland/47615/zwarte_piet_was_struikelblok. For the misconception that the UNESCO Convention on the intangible heritage is about 'world heritage' see M. Jacobs, "UNESCO heeft beslist: Sinterklaas kan geen werelderfgoed worden' (23-10-2013), <http://www.faronet.be/blogs/marc-jacobs/unesco-heeft-beslist-sinterklaas-kan-geen-werelderfgoed-wordsen>

17 VIE tried to counter the allegation of the Saint Nicholas Society with an official press communication to the national news agency ANP, which was also placed on the Facebook page of VIE. VIE communicated that the proposal for the National Inventory had in fact been very much encouraged by VIE, but that in a heritage care plan about this feast, you cannot escape saying something about the discussion on Black Pete. "Centrum voor Volkscultuur wil Sinterklaasfeest op de immaterieel erfgoedlijst", official press communication to ANP, also on the Facebook page of VIE (26-10-2013), <http://perssupport.nl/apssite/persberichten/full/2013/10/26/Centrum+voor+Volkscultuur+wil+Sinterklaasfeest+op+de+immaterieel+erfgoedlijst> and https://www.facebook.com/pages/Nederlands-Centrum-voor-Volkscultuur-en-Immaterieel-Erfgoed/246301218713465?hc_location=timeline. See also an interview with VIE director Ineke Strouken in *De Telegraaf*: "Ineke Strouken: Ik kreeg de Zwarte Piet", *De Telegraaf*, 23-11-2013.

1 easy to communicate in a time of hot debate, when the public expects clear
2 opinions and statements.¹⁸ In their proposal for the National Inventory the
3 Saint Nicholas Society had proposed to keep the tradition “as it is’, that is to
4 say: including Black Pete. Possibly they wanted to use the National Inventory
5 to conclude the discussion on Black Pete once and for all. Although incorrect
6 and not in the spirit of the 2003 UNESCO Convention, it is often assumed
7 that if something is recognised as a tradition, it is heritage that may not
8 be altered. The same thing happened in Spain, with the ongoing debate on
9 the acceptability of bullfighting. The actions of animal activists against this
10 tradition resulted in a petition in favour of the tradition, signed by more than
11 600,000 people. After a debate in parliament it was decided to adopt a national
12 plan with the main objective to get bullfighting on the representative list of the
13 intangible heritage.¹⁹

14 The Advisory Board of VIE proposed a restrained approach, with a focus
15 on VIE’s expertise on traditions. This not only means giving information on
16 the history of the tradition but also inform the public on the detail of the 2003
17 UNESCO Convention and about safeguarding intangible cultural heritage.

18 In 2014 VIE started a new project by interviewing important stakeholders
19 on *their* opinions about a future proofed Saint Nicholas feast. The work was
20 done by an independent researcher.²⁰ In his report an overview was made of
21 the values that supporters and critics attach to the Sinterklaas celebration and
22 which elements of Black Pete provoke discussion. It confirmed that many
23 Sinterklaas supporters are of the opinion that Black Pete has nothing to do
24 with racism and that the critics still have insurmountable problems with Black
25 Pete. But the researcher also sensed a growing awareness of the need for a
26 compromise. Most of the people interviewed expected that Amsterdam would
27 start the experimenting. In fact the organizing committees (also in cities other
28 than Amsterdam) had already started in early 2014 with the preparations for
29 the Saint Nicholas festivities of December 2014. They asked themselves what
30 they could do to organise something which can have the support of the larger
31 part of the Dutch population, if possible avoiding or countering suggestions
32 about racism. That there is a problem became clear on the third of July 2014,
33 when an Amsterdam Court judged that in 2013 the Mayor of Amsterdam
34 should have been more careful in giving permission for the official welcoming
35 in Amsterdam of Saint Nicholas and his Black Petes and should have taken
36 into consideration that Black Pete can be perceived as an encroachment in the
37 private life of coloured people, because of its negative stereotyping of black

18 One of the comments on the VIE Facebook page read: “Look at the words they use: ‘points of concern’ (kneelpunten), ‘controversial heritage’ (weerbaarstig erfgoed), ‘National Inventory’, ‘the Saint Nicholas Society’, ‘the director of VIE’. It suggested to this commentator that a bureaucratic institution was taking over. “SIGH: If people and organisations find themselves more important than the children who are the real issue, we are on the wrong track..” [“ZUCHT: Als mensen en organisaties zichzelf belangrijker vinden dan de kinderen waar het om gaat dan zijn we heel erg op de verkeerde weg bezig...”].

19 <http://www.globalpost.com/dispatch/news/afp/130212/spanish-parliament-moves-protect-bullfights>

20 G. Kozijn, *Zwarte Piet een verkennend onderzoek naar een toekomstbestendig Sinterklaasfeest*. Utrecht, 2014.



2. Welcoming Sinterklaas and the Petes in Amsterdam 2012

1 people. This was based on the interpretation of emails from the Netherlands
2 Institute for Human Rights, a research report of the statistics bureau of the
3 City of Amsterdam itself and on statements by the plaintiffs.²¹

4 **An engaged practice**

5 What lessons can be learned from this bumpy experience of a facilitating
6 NGO? Lately a lot has been said about the role of NGOs within the UNESCO
7 Convention on the Safeguarding of the Intangible Heritage. In the IOS report,
8 which was discussed in Baku in December 2013 during the Intergovernmental
9 Committee meeting, NGOs are mentioned in relation to the implementation
10 of safeguarding measures and in strengthening the communities. But the
11 IOS report also highlights another role of the NGOs, that of “mediating and
12 building bridges between various actors.”²² The role of NGOs seems to be
13 especially useful when tackling issues which are controversial and dealing
14 with divides within society that need to be bridged.²³ The case of Black Pete
15 is a good starting point to discuss this aspect of cultural brokerage, which

21 <http://uitspraken.rechtspraak.nl/inziendocument?id=ECLI:NL:RBAMS:2014:3888>.

22 <http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/doc/src/ITH-13-8.COM-5.c-EN.doc>

23 On “controversial” or “contested” heritage there is a large body of literature. See for instance H. Silverman (ed.), *Contested cultural heritage. Religion, nationalism, erasure and exclusion in a global world*. New York, 2011. See also L. Smith & N. Akagawa, “Introduction”, in: idem (eds), *Intangible Heritage*. London, 2009, p. 5.

1 might be one of the great challenges of cultural brokerage at the start of the 21st
2 century. Looking back on the discussion about Black Pete we can distinguish
3 a number of reasons why this form of brokerage is so challenging. Some of
4 them have to do with the changing political circumstances, others with a new
opinion landscape, with a prominent role for the media.

5 First of all the issue of Black Pete teaches us that intangible heritage can
6 be inextricably tied up with politics.²⁴ Black Pete is reframed by new ethnic
7 groups reinterpreting and questioning the formerly sacrosanct Dutch heritage
8 where others want to defend it because they see and celebrate it as “their’
9 heritage. As Laurajane Smith rightfully observes, in an influential collection
10 of essays on intangible heritage, experiencing intangible heritage has become
11 part and parcel of the dilemmas of modern multicultural society.²⁵ Black
12 Pete has different meanings for different segments of society. It means the
13 discussion is not always easy. Where opponents talk about racial stereotypes,
14 the advocates of Black Pete see it as just an innocent family pastime with
15 deep historical roots and for which they harbour precious memories from
16 their own youth. To attain their objectives the aspiring new groups used all
17 possible means. It started with a media offensive in which Black Pete was
18 challenged, while poking into the open wound of the Dutch slavery past. In
19 2013 it also became a judicial battle, when the Amsterdam Court was asked to
20 ban the official welcoming of Saint Nicholas and his Black Petes. On the other
21 side of the spectrum the supporters of Black Pete tried to use UNESCO as a
22 defence mechanism, as also seen in the example of the Spanish bullfighting.
23 In between there is the public at large which reacts to all of these stimuli by
24 means of Twitter and Facebook. There were even demonstrations organized,
25 for instance in The Hague, 26 October 2013 on the Malieveld.

26 The political implications of intangible heritage mean that cultural brokers
27 should always be reflexive ... and should take into account “social relationships
28 in all their messiness, taking account of action, process, power and change’,
29 as Emma Waterton and Laurajane Smith put it in a critical review for the
30 *International Journal of Heritage Studies*.²⁶ It also means that they have to reflect on
31 their own role in the process. As Richard Kurin has rightly remarked, cultural
32 brokers should situate themselves in a contemporary world “of multiple,
33 if not contending, cultural narratives’ and give up the illusion of a singular,
34 monological reality.²⁷ But where she (or he) should position herself is not
35 always clear. What most of the Saint Nicholas fans would expect from the
broker is help for them to defend the tradition, including Black Pete, against

24 About the political instrumentalization of Saint Nicholas and Black Pete in connection with intangible heritage already see L. Meijer-Van Mensch & P. van Mensch, ‘Proud to be Dutch’ Intangible Heritage and National Identity in the Netherlands’, in: M. L. Stefano and others (eds.), *Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage*. Woodbridge, 2012, p. 125-136.

25 Smith & Akagawa, *Introduction*, p. 5.

26 E. Waterton & L. Smith, ‘The recognition and misrecognition of community heritage’, *International Journal of Heritage Studies* 16, 2010, p. 4-15, see especially p. 5: “What we want to suggest instead is a politically engaged and critical conception; one that engages with social relationships in all their messiness, taking account of action, process, power and change.’

27 R. Kurin, *Reflections of a Culture Broker. A view from the Smithsonian*. Washington & London, 1997, p. 281.

1 all criticism. On the other hand they should also take into account possible
2 minority views on the subject. As David Mosse and David Lewis have shown,
3 “bottom-up approaches’ with special attention to minority groups, which are
4 not always well represented in the dominant heritage discourse, have always
5 been important in cultural brokerage.²⁸ The concept of cultural brokerage
6 was proposed for the agenda of European ethnology during a conference on
7 public folklore in Bad Homburg, 1998.²⁹ During this symposium most of the
8 German Volkskundler were against public action and interventions and saw
9 for themselves a role as critical observer only. On the other hand a network
10 of American scholars defined public folklore as an engaged practice with, as
11 Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett pointed out, parallels with public history and
12 also with the new museology in which a top-down approach is more or less
13 replaced by a bottom-up one, in which the museums position themselves
14 within the communities.³⁰ Already then it was recognized that cultural
15 brokerage always involves political engagement. As Jessica M. Payne put it in
16 a 1998 article in the *Journal of Folklore Research*: “Advocacy and social activism
17 have long been aspects of folklore work and folklorists have adhered to a wide
18 spectrum of implicit and explicit agendas for social change; some of which are
19 politically fairly progressive.³¹ Payne explicitly mentioned subjects as “Racial
20 tension’ and “Derogatory stereotypes’.

21 **A changing media landscape**

22 Already in 1997 Richard Kurin addressed the issue of a new role for the media,
23 in particular new (computer-supported) media. According to Kurin, nowadays
24 the traditional cultural broker is “outgunned and eclipsed [among others] by
25 politicians, journalists, filmmakers’ etc.³² This means that his former position
26 as the one and only expert on traditions is challenged. In the case of Black
27 Pete we have talked about journalists always on the lookout for the latest
28 sound-bites which might please or tease their readers and audiences. The press

28 D. Mosse & D. Lewis, “Theoretical approaches to brokerage and translation in development’, in:
D. Mosse & D. Lewis (ed.), *Development Brokers and Translators. The Ethnography of Aid and Agencies*.
Bloomfield, 2006, p. 1-26.

29 The results of this symposium were published in the *Journal of Folklore Research* 36:2-3, 1999. The
concept of public folklore was introduced in the Netherlands by H. Roodenburg, “Tussen distantie
en betrokkenheid. ‘Public folklore’ en de volkskunde in Nederland en Vlaanderen’, *Mores. Tijdschrift
voor volkscultuur in Vlaanderen* 2:1, 2001, p. 5-8. Full text: <http://depot.knaw.nl/9793>.

30 Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, “Folklorists in Public. Reflections on Cultural Brokerage in the United
States and Germany’, *Journal of Folklore Research* 17, 2000, p. 1-21, esp. 12. For a discussion on this new
role for museums in connection to the UNESCO Convention of the Intangible Heritage see A. van der
Zeijden, “Van materieel naar immaterieel erfgoed: een pleidooi voor een “actief” community begrip’,
Quotidian 3, 2012 [theme file about community museums], full text: [http://www.quotidian.nl/cgi/t/
text/text-idx?c=quotidian;sid=6495a2d942abbed9a85878c5460fd8c6;view=text;idno=m0301a07;rgn
=main](http://www.quotidian.nl/cgi/t/text/text-idx?c=quotidian;sid=6495a2d942abbed9a85878c5460fd8c6;view=text;idno=m0301a07;rgn=main). More in general about the involvement of communities in the museum see V. Golding & W.
Modest (eds.), *Museums and communities; curators, collections and collaboration*. London, 2013.

31 J. Payne, “The Politicization of Culture in Applied Folklore’, *Journal of Folklore Research* 35, 1998, p. 251-
277, p. 251.

32 Kurin, *Reflections of a Culture Broker*, p. 266.

1 dictates, if not the agenda, then the buzz of day, with every hour bringing a
2 new misconception to which the cultural broker is asked to react: the legal
3 action in Amsterdam to ban the Black Petes in 2013, the intervention of Verene
4 Shepherd, the reaction by the mayor of Amsterdam, the petition on Facebook,
5 the demonstrations in The Hague and elsewhere, the threats on Twitter, and so
6 on. The new social media enables community groups and other stakeholders
7 to participate in the discussion and decision making process. We have seen
8 that the Facebook petition in favour of Black Pete, which attracted more
9 than an unlikely two million likes in two days, succeeded in creating a new
10 political momentum. To name another example: after the Court decision in
11 July 2014, which caused the Amsterdam City Council to reconsider its decision
12 about the welcoming in 2013, some Black Petes decided to form a Guild of
13 Petes (Pietengilde) in order to make an appeal. They also set up a website in
14 which they presented their opinions. From the perspective of the community
15 based UNESCO Convention this is an interesting development. Still another
16 interesting aspect of the Guild of Petes is that they combine a form of advocacy
17 with a historical discourse on the origins of Black Pete. In their opinion Black
18 Pete is not racist at all but dates back to the pagan times of the old Germanic
19 Gods like Wotan, the Yule or (in Dutch) the Joel as it is familiarly called in
20 folklore studies since the nineteenth century.³³ Since the 1960s the German
21 Volkskundler inspired their Dutch colleagues to deconstruct the Germanic
22 myths which so long have characterized folklore studies since the nineteenth
23 century. Only to be confronted with these in their opinion outdated theories
24 once again but now in a context of aspiring new groups within society which
25 before were not heard. Scholars and cultural brokers have lost their monopoly
26 as experts on (the history of) traditions.

27 The new media-opinion landscape and the importance of “framing”
28 cannot be better illustrated than with the example of the presentation of VIE’s
29 exploratory research report in June 2014.³⁴ The media were very curious about
30 the outcome of the research and the possible compromise in the discussion
31 which it might offer. After some deliberations, VIE decided to present the
32 report in the daily Late News Show of Knevel and Van den Brink, only to be
33 subjected to the new media laws. The television journalists opted for a news
item in which other stakeholders would also be heard, so that they could give
their views on the report. VIE had a preference for some organizers of the

33 “Long before slavery, in the 12th century, the Saint Nicholas was already there as a midwinter celebration. Already then he was Black.’ [“Ver voor de slavernij, in de twaalfde eeuw, was het sinterklaasfeest er al als een midwinterfeest. Een zwarte knecht heeft er altijd op de een of andere wijze deel van uitgemaakt. Hij was ook toen al zwart: pikzwart met roet. Hij was degene die, achter de rug van de heilige om, gekke gezichten liep te trekken en een lange neus maakte in de richting van de kerk en het gezag.] Interview *Nieuws NL* with Marc Gieling, chairman of the Guild of Petes. <http://www.nieuws.nl/algemeen/20140703/Discussie-Zwarte-Piet-berust-op-slechte-achtergrondkennis-Nieuwsnl-spreekt-met-het-Nederlandse-Pietengilde>. For the official website of the Guild see <http://www.pietengilde.nl/>. But of course, slavery existed already in antiquity and the proofs for a black servant are not convincing; nevertheless injecting more ambiguity and complexity when discussing a, let us not forget, fictive figure and product of “imagination” can be productive.

34 See Van der Zeijden & Strouken, *Sinterklaas in the Netherlands*, p. 52-53.

1 local Saint Nicholas festivities, who in daily practice have to come up with a
2 solution in December 2014 which can be acceptable to all. Unfortunately, all of
3 these local committees turned down the invitation because they did not find
4 it expedient to show their cards in this early stage. They considered the burn
5 risk too great. For this reason the news show had to fall back on the old frame
6 of inviting the two extremes in the spectrum, the Saint Nicholas Society on the
7 one hand and a fierce opponent of the old traditional Black Pete on the other.
8 Furthermore, in keeping with the format of a television show, the television
9 makers opted for a visualization of three possibilities, in which the Saint
10 Nicholas Society decided for a traditional Black Pete and the opponent for a
11 purple coloured one. There was also a so-called compromise Pete, which was
12 presented as the compromise Pete of VIE. From the perspective of the report
13 this was an unfortunate decision. In fact the exploratory research didn't come
14 up with a clear compromise, acceptable to all. It had only charted the feelings
15 of the different stakeholders and the conclusion was that opinion was still
16 very strongly divided, and that there was no consensus on possible changes.
17 Because it showed in the report that it was not likely that the advocates of
18 Black Pete would give up Pete's dark colour, the 'compromise' which the media
19 all hankered for turned out to be brownish instead of black or some kind of
20 fantasy colour. It didn't work. During the television show both opponents
21 immediately fell back on their own preferences. The next day the reaction in
22 the newspapers was also very negative. "Forced New Pete is doomed to fail",
23 was the heading in one of the leading newspapers.³⁵ Interestingly enough –
24 when it comes to the UNESCO Convention – it was a citation of one of the most
25 polarizing scholars in the field, Peter Jan Margry of the Meertens Institute, who
26 suspected a hidden agenda on the part of VIE because of wanting to present a
27 Saint Nicholas file towards UNESCO already this summer.³⁶ Margry is known
28 as a fierce campaigner against the 2003 UNESCO Convention whose purpose it
29 is, he wrongly believes, to *freeze* traditions like Sinterklaas.

30 The example makes clear that the new media arena not only likes to launch
31 sound-bites and sharp images but that it also tends to reinforce the opposing
32 outer extremes in the debate.

35 "Geforceerde nieuwe Piet gedoemd te mislukken", *Volkskrant*, 11-06-2014, on the internet:
<http://www.volkskrant.nl/vk/nl/2686/Binnenland/article/detail/3670294/2014/06/11/Geforceerde-nieuwe-Piet-gedoemd-te-mislukken.dhtml>

36 "Waarschijnlijk heeft de timing van het nieuwe ontwerp alles met tijdsdruk te maken: het Sinterklaasjournaal wordt deze zomer al opgenomen en er moet een dossier voor de UNESCO komen. Maar het is naïef om te denken dat we op deze manier nu alvast van de hele kwestie af zijn. De kans is levensgroot dat we deze discussie de komende jaren blijven voeren, en daar kan het VIE niks aan veranderen.' The chance that a Sinterklaas file will be presented to UNESCO is nihil. The Dutch Minister of Culture, in her request for advice to the Council of Culture on possible themes for international nominations, called it improbable that the Netherlands at this stage would nominate the Saint Nicholas Feast. Because of its controversiality "it would not stand a chance with UNESCO'. Adviesaanvraag 26 september 2013, <http://www.cultuur.nl/upload/documents/adviezen/advies-immaterieel-erfgoed.pdf>

1 Centripetal forces

2 The growing proliferation of public arenas and ways of communication, and the
3 diversified opinion climate with many kinds of community associations and
4 pressure groups, all ask for a new and more engaging role for the cultural broker
5 who can interpret all of these contending opinions. In their search for easy
6 and understandable sound bites, which might trigger further media-attention,
7 the media often tend to over represent the outer extremes in the debate. But
8 there is also a great need for explanation and interpretation. Is Black Pete really
9 connected with racism and slavery, or – because that is in principle really at
10 stake – vice versa? Why are emotions running so high? And, most importantly
11 perhaps, where shall this discussion end? Sometimes the newspapers take the
12 lead themselves. *NRC* had for instance a complete page which put the history
13 of Black Pete in an international context. In other countries Saint Nicholas
14 is accompanied by a helper also – Ruprecht in Germany, Krampus in Austria
15 and Hungary, Père Fouettard in France, mythological figures which look a lot
16 more frightening than the Dutch Black Pete.³⁷ For this specialist knowledge,
17 newspapers often seek the help of experts. These experts sometimes take
18 the initiative themselves, as is shown in the FAQ webpage of the Meertens
19 Institute. There is a great need for experts, who can separate the chaff from the
20 wheat on the one hand and add complexity on the other ...

21 Mediation and building a new consensus is quite another thing. We have
22 seen that reaching or finding a consensus is a deep felt wish of the government
23 authorities, who want to manage issues connected with ethnic diversity which
24 might trigger social tensions. The mayor of Amsterdam was even compelled
25 by the Amsterdam Court to come up with a solution. Finding a new consensus
26 seems to be indispensable if you want to create a new future for traditions like
27 Sinterklaas. In all this we should keep in mind that consensus is not the same
28 as compromise, a crucial insight for dealing with and in the spirit of the 2003
29 UNESCO Convention. A cultural broker looking for a compromise might easily
30 alienate himself from the stakeholders whose different viewpoints he would
like to bring together and propose alternatives and other ways of thinking and
talking about it. Dealing with controversial heritage is a delicate operation.

37 “Zo zit het dus met Zwarte Piet”, *NRC*, 24-10-2013, on the internet <http://www.nrc.nl/next/van/2013/oktober/24/zo-zit-het-dus-met-zwarte-piet-1306024>. See also “Zwarte Piet was geen Piet, maar knecht Ruprecht, of Krampus, met hoorns”, *NRC*, 23-10-2013, on the internet: <http://www.nrc.nl/handelsblad/van/2013/oktober/23/zwarte-piet-was-geen-piet-maar-knecht-ruprecht-of-1306501>

Reframing and Extending Tradition

Intangible Cultural Heritage and Public Folklore in Newfoundland and Labrador

1 Efforts to preserve intangible cultural heritage (ICH) within a community
2 context face many challenges. Much of this traditional knowledge and local
3 folklore continues to be shared within communities at a very informal level,
4 passed on by word of mouth, and by example. It carries with it a great deal of
5 practical information, as well as more abstract concepts of history, heritage and
6 identity. It also presents numerous challenges in terms of how we safeguard
7 these traditions.

8 In order to make safeguarding programmes and other participatory
9 heritage processes work and succeed, communities often require some type of
10 guidance, facilitation or collaboration. As elements of ICH, and communities
11 themselves, shift and evolve, the role and approaches of mediators must adapt
12 and shift to fit local circumstances and situations. In Newfoundland and
13 Labrador, the provincial ICH strategy is promoted and put into action by the
14 ICH office of the Heritage Foundation of Newfoundland and Labrador (HFNL)
15 and its partners. Many of the individuals engaged at this level are trained
16 folklorists.

17 Below are presented three approaches where ICH safeguarding strategies
18 in Newfoundland and Labrador utilize guided facilitation by professional
19 folklorists: community-based training initiatives; safeguarding ICH within
20 heritage districts; and, the development of public programs as part of folklife
21 festivals.

22 **Newfoundland and Labrador: The Context**

23 Newfoundland and Labrador is the easternmost province of Canada. Situated in
24 the country's Atlantic region, it incorporates the island of Newfoundland and
25 mainland Labrador to the northwest. It has a combined area of 405,212 square
26 kilometres, with a population of just over 514,000. Most of the population is
27 concentrated on the eastern portion of the island of Newfoundland.

28 It is a province with a rich intangible cultural heritage, with both native
29 aboriginal populations, and a settler population of predominantly English
30 and Irish ancestry. The island of Newfoundland has a long history associated
31 with the North Atlantic cod fishery, and much of its local culture and flavour
32 evolved in small fishing villages scattered along the island's long coastline.

1 Linguistic, cultural and social traditions persisted in many small isolated
2 communities after they had faded or changed in the European communities
3 where they were born.

4 By 1992, once-plentiful codfish stocks had dwindled to near extinction.
5 Fearing they would disappear entirely if the fisheries remained open, the federal
6 government of the day instituted a moratorium on northern cod stocks. The
7 moratorium abruptly ended a way of life that had endured for generations in
8 many rural communities, leading to a decline of rural settlements throughout
9 Newfoundland and Labrador.

10 In the fishing community of Keels, as one example, the population dropped
11 from around 200 people in 1982 to close to 50 by 2012. An observer in that
12 community notes that “residents have gradually moved away to seek work in
13 places like Alberta, and the landscape of Keels has dramatically changed. Many
14 buildings have been abandoned, some torn down, and a number of houses
15 have been bought up by summer residents from Ontario or the United States”¹
16 – a post-moratorium story repeated over and over throughout much of the
17 province.

18 Out-migration and unemployment impacted not only the physical
19 landscape, but also the intangible cultural heritage tied to the fishery, and the
20 pattern of life in small rural communities. The resulting movement of young
21 people to urban areas or out of the province meant that cultural traditions were
22 not being transmitted from generation to generation in the same way, or to the
23 extent to which they had once been passed down.

24 **Background on ICH Policy in Newfoundland and Labrador**

25 In 2002, Dr. Gerald Pocius of Memorial University of Newfoundland’s
26 Department of Folklore represented Canada at a meeting of experts in Rio
27 de Janeiro working on an early draft of UNESCO’s Convention on Intangible
28 Cultural Heritage. Twenty specialists from around the world debated a number
29 of key issues that the Convention hoped to address. Pocius writes:

30 “I returned to Newfoundland that January inspired and enthusiastic, convinced
31 that UNESCO’s work in this field was of immense importance to our province
32 and our culture. I was optimistic that the Government of Canada would
33 support UNESCO’s work, and soon I became involved in ICH policy discussions
34 in Ottawa, working with the Department of Canadian Heritage. I was naturally
35 disappointed when the Canadian government decided not to sign on to the
36 final version of the Convention that was ratified in 2003. However, a number of
37 us had begun work here in our province on ICH, believing that we could pursue
38 many of the UNESCO policies here even though our federal government was
39 not a signatory of the Convention.”²

1 G. Pocius, “The 2012 Keels Field School”, in: G. Pocius (ed.), *Living Spaces: The Architecture of the Family Fishery in Keels, Newfoundland*. St. John’s, 2013, p. 2-4.

2 G. Pocius. “A Review of ICH in Newfoundland & Labrador”, *Intangible Cultural Heritage Update* 16, 2010, p. 1-2.

1 In 2006, the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador released its Provincial
2 Cultural Strategy, *Creative Newfoundland and Labrador*. It outlined the need for a
3 strategy to safeguard intangible cultural heritage and recommended to “over
4 the longer term, create a public advisory committee with responsibility for the
5 recognition and designation of provincial intangible cultural heritage.”³

6 Pocius, who remains one of the driving figures in the development of ICH
7 policy in Newfoundland and Labrador, notes: “There is no doubt that over the
8 years, the local heritage community has embraced ICH as a concept because
9 it felt a sense of urgency in a time of extreme change. With the collapse of
10 the cod fishery, Government and NGOs all realized that rural communities
11 no longer would be places tied to the resources of water and land, populated
12 by families related by kinship, often there for generations. Rather, outposts
13 were becoming gentrified summer enclaves, filled with outsiders who came
14 for a month or two, to engage briefly in what they saw as some authentic
15 culture. The fishing had stopped, locals were leaving, and ironically the
16 tourism industry that was going to be the salvation of rural Newfoundland
17 was now bringing in people with money to buy up communities, especially
18 highly coveted “waterfront property.” Policies and programs needed to be put
19 in place to encourage the living traditions of the province to continue. In this
20 time of cultural uncertainty, ICH focused on the ongoing traditions central to
21 provincial identity.”⁴

22 Starting in 2008, HFNL established its ICH office. I shifted from my work
23 with the foundation’s built heritage office into my new role as Intangible
24 Cultural Heritage Development Officer, at that point, the first full-time
25 provincial ICH officer in Canada. A large part of my role was, and is, to enact
26 the province’s ICH Strategy. Written between 2006 and 2008, and adopted
27 formally by HFNL in 2008, the overall vision of the strategy is to ensure that
28 intangible cultural heritage is safeguarded as both a living heritage and as a
29 source of contemporary creativity.

30 The strategy has four goals: documentation, the work of inventorying;
31 celebration, where we honour our tradition-bearers; transmission, where we
32 ensure that skills are passed from person to person, generation to generation,
33 and community to community; and, cultural industry, where we build stronger
34 communities using intangible cultural heritage as a tool.⁵

35 In many ways, the job title under which I labour, “development officer,” has
36 influenced our approach to the implementation of the strategy. Since 2008,
37 HFNL’s work on ICH has attempted to be proactive. And, since Canada is not a
38 signatory to the 2003 UNESCO Convention, we have been able to focus on the
39 work of developing best practices for safeguarding, without being consumed
40 by work on representative lists.

3 Government of Newfoundland and Labrador. *Creative Newfoundland and Labrador: The Blueprint for Development and Investment in Culture*. St. John’s, 2006.

4 G. Pocius. “The Emergence of Cultural Heritage Policy in Newfoundland and Labrador”, *Newfoundland Quarterly* 103:11, 2010, p. 43-45.

5 Heritage Foundation of Newfoundland and Labrador, *What Is Intangible Cultural Heritage?* St. John’s, 2008.

1 Given the background of both Dr. Pocius and myself as folklorists, much
2 of the discourse around intangible cultural heritage in Newfoundland and
3 Labrador has been through the lens of North American folklore scholarship.
4 Several key people involved with local and provincial museums, training
5 programs, and festivals are faculty members or graduates of Memorial
6 University's Department of Folklore. My own work, in particular, has been
7 influenced by my background in vernacular architecture studies, heritage
8 conservation, heritage activism, cultural conservation, oral history, and public
9 folklore.

10 The terms "cultural mediator" or "cultural broker" are rarely, if ever, used
11 in the context of public folklore work undertaken in the province. Instead,
12 those active in the field consider themselves folklorists, facilitators, curators,
13 or collaborators with community organizations.

14 In many ways, however, the praxis which has emerged in Newfoundland
15 and Labrador for cultural conservation and public folklore revolves around the
16 work of cultural mediators and brokers. In these systems, folklorists work with
17 and for the community under study, towards some kind of publicly-beneficial
18 goal.

19 In their introduction to the classic text, *Public Folklore*, editors Robert
20 Baron and Nicholas Spitzer define public folklore as "the representation and
21 application of folk traditions in new contours and contexts within and beyond
22 the communities in which they originated, often through the collaborative
23 efforts of tradition bearers and folklorists or other cultural specialists."⁶ Acts
24 of public folklore, they argue, involve folklorists "purposefully reframing
25 and extending tradition in collaboration with folk artists, native scholars,
26 and other community members."⁷ This idea of "purposefully reframing and
27 extending tradition" provides a conceptual model around which we can place
28 HFNL's four-part practical strategy of inventorying, celebration, transmission
29 and cultural industry.

30 **Community Training Initiatives**

31 In the fall of 2008, HFNL completed a provincial needs assessment⁸, to measure
32 the level of awareness of ICH issues at the community level, and to pinpoint
33 key areas where assistance was needed.

34 Many of the respondents to the survey (primarily community museums,
35 historic sites and local heritage organizations) felt that they had a basic
36 understanding of ICH. This level of understanding is most likely due to the
37 hosting of a province-wide ICH Forum held in St. John's, the capital city of the
38 province, in 2006. This forum brought together a large number of community
39 representatives, government officials, academics and ICH practitioners.

6 R. Baron & N. Spitzer, 'Introduction', in: R. Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*. Washington, 1992, p. 3.

7 R. Baron & N. Spitzer, *Introduction*, p. 3.

8 B. Gravinese, *Provincial ICH Online and Phone Training Needs Assessment Report*. St. John's, 2008.



1. Workshop on digital audio recording for ethnography and oral history, St. John's (Photo by Dale Jarvis)

1 Almost three-quarters of those surveyed in 2008 stated their organization
2 or community was undertaking an ICH project of some kind. More than half
3 of the respondents stated they would be undertaking an ICH project within
4 the year which would most likely involve documenting or celebrating local
5 traditional knowledge, skills, cultural practices, or tradition-bearers. In terms
6 of needed resources, almost all respondents expressed an interest in ICH
7 training in standards and practices for recording and documenting their
8 community's ICH. An enthusiastic 94% said they and/or their organization
9 would be interested in receiving additional information about safeguarding
10 ICH.

11 Two things became abundantly clear following the establishment of the
12 Heritage Foundation of Newfoundland and Labrador's ICH office in 2008,
13 and the completion of the provincial needs survey. The first was that local
14 communities were interested and eager to begin the work of safeguarding
15 intangible cultural heritage at the community level. The second was that they
16 had very little knowledge or expertise on where to start.

17 In response, HFNL developed a variety of training programs and
18 community-based workshops. These were created not only to introduce the
19 concept of ICH to community members but also to provide practical training.

20 Training workshops fall roughly into two categories: training in
21 ethnographic documentation and ICH safeguarding; and training in traditional
22 skills and crafts. In the first category, HFNL has developed a number of
23 workshops on cultural documentation and safeguarding, including: technical
24 workshops on audio recording; interviewing techniques; oral history; folklore

1 festival planning; Google mapping; and cemetery restoration. In the second
2 category, HFNL has offered or partnered on workshops related to: traditional
3 square dancing; hobby horse making; instrument making; rug hooking;
4 traditional weaving; and ethnic cooking.

5 The goal of these training activities is to raise the level of awareness in
6 communities about intangible cultural heritage, the methods to document it,
7 how to celebrate it, and in some instances, to help pass along tradition. HFNL
8 matches people who have skills with people who need them. It facilitates the
9 transmission of knowledge and expertise, oftentimes linking people who
10 might not meet in the course of daily life, and directs attention to little-known
11 or little-documented traditions or skills.

12 Training, on its own, is a limited form of brokerage. In the early years of
13 developing ICH workshops, HFNL used a “shotgun” approach to training –
14 travelling around the province and offering introductory workshops in central
15 locations. It got the word out about intangible cultural heritage, but returned
16 very little tangible results. In most cases, there was little to no follow-up from
17 communities where the training courses were held.

18 In response to this, where time and financial resources allow, HFNL now
19 uses what we term a “project-based training” model.⁹ In this type of training,
20 HFNL works alongside a community group from start to finish as they develop
21 and implement an ICH documentation/celebration project. HFNL staff walks
22 the community through the process of planning and implementing their
23 project, providing project specific training and community-based workshops
24 throughout the duration of the project. These workshops and training
25 opportunities break down into three rough phases. These phases may overlap
26 depending on the project: project focus and community plan; documentation/
27 archiving of material; and public presentation.

28 A training model that features repeated visits by an ICH development
29 officer in the role of cultural animateur helps build local expertise. It also
30 encourages the completion of a manageable ICH documentation project that
31 is accessible to the general public. While it is not the only approach available
32 to cultural workers, project-based training is one tool that allows us to teach
33 valuable ICH documentation skills while supporting the transmission and
34 celebration of traditional knowledge at the local level.

35 Dr. Jillian Gould is an Assistant Professor within Memorial University’s
36 Department of Folklore, whose research interests include public folklore,
37 ethnography, and fieldwork. She currently teaches the graduate-level course on
38 public folklore in the department, and was formerly the Education Coordinator
39 at the Eldridge Street Project (now Museum at Eldridge Street) in New York
40 City.

41 Since 2011, Gould has been partnering with HFNL to deliver a type of
42 project-based training as a component of the graduate public sector folklore
43 course. Typically, graduate students organize some kind of public folklore event

9 D. Jarvis, *Project-Based Training Initiatives: A Model for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage*. Occasional Paper on Intangible Cultural Heritage No. 001. St. John’s, 2013.



2. Bonfire Night in Carbonear, Newfoundland, 5th of November, 2010 (Photo by Dale Jarvis)

1 or workshop, a model which engages the public while teaching the students
2 practical and varied skills in facilitation, group work, community outreach,
3 and project planning. Gould notes: “We wear so many hats; we are not just one
4 thing. Doing my fieldwork in a retirement residence, I was a researcher, I was a
5 friend, I was a granddaughter. I took on all these different roles. I wouldn’t call
6 myself a mediator, or a broker. I prefer “collaborator’ or “facilitator.”¹⁰

7 In 2011, Gould’s graduate students created a three-part event celebrating
8 Bonfire Night, a local calendar custom which traditionally takes place on the
9 evening of November 5th, Guy Fawke’s Night. Working with HFNL, students
10 compiled an online inventory of community-sponsored Bonfire Night events,
11 organized a variety concert with a Bonfire Night theme, and curated an on-
12 stage oral history interview with tradition bearers at a local museum.

13 The on-stage interview is a common technique used by folklorists to
14 showcase and celebrate local knowledge, and one of the tools for community
15 facilitation that Gould teaches her students: “For me it is what folklore is all
16 about. Our job is to identify traditional culture or tradition bearers, but it is not
17 our job to be the experts. The staged oral history interviews give real experts an
18 opportunity to share their skills and knowledge with their peers. I think it is
19 great to have what are considered ordinary people, who have very special skills
20 or experiences, telling their stories. I love that. It is unexpected, and a way
21 people can engage and learn from each other at a very local and unpretentious
22 level.

10 J. Gould. Personal communication (23-01-2014).

1 People in the audience stayed around after, they had questions, they were
2 talking to each other. Even though people came from different communities,
3 there were a lot of people who had experiences with Bonfire Night. The people
4 interviewed were of different ages: there was a young guy in his early twenties,
5 and then some who were older, in their fifties and sixties. I remember hearing
6 some people saying “what is he going to know about Bonfire Night?” but he
7 talked about his own experiences. Some of the older people in the audience
8 thought of it as something of their childhood, but didn’t realize that it was
9 something that young kids were still doing. It touched a nerve.”¹¹

10 Gould uses the metaphor of “building bridges” to describe her work. In many
11 ways, that is a good way to explain the work of folklorists in Newfoundland
12 and Labrador engaged in safeguarding strategies: making links in and between
13 communities, and providing training opportunities to those communities so
14 they can act as good stewards of their own heritage.

15 **ICH in Heritage Districts**

16 Following a trend in heritage preservation work in other parts of North
17 America in the 1980s, HFNL started to develop a program for the designation
18 and conservation of registered heritage districts. In the past, when HFNL
19 designated either an individual building or a provincial heritage district, the
20 foundation put up a plaque noting the architectural and historical importance
21 of the site. Sometimes grants were given to buildings or districts. There were
22 some projects to document and share information related to architectural
23 history. But for the most part, once designation was complete, little interaction
24 took place between officials and property owners, or between building
25 residents and the wider community.

26 Following the creation of the ICH office, the heritage districts program
27 has undergone a major shift, and we are rethinking our relationship with
28 townscapes and the people who live in them. Our strategy for heritage districts
29 has transformed into something much more fluid, more organic, and more
30 responsive to the needs and desires of the people who live in and administrate
31 the district.

32 Folklorist Lisa Wilson is the Heritage Outreach Officer charged with
33 overseeing and facilitating work in heritage districts for HFNL, and the
34 person responsible for incorporating intangible cultural heritage into the
35 traditionally built-heritage focused program: “There has been a major shift
36 in communicating exclusively with organizations who are involved with
37 heritage, and shifting that communication to the people in the community,
38 and those people who live within these heritage districts – the people who live
39 in the buildings, the people who are from there, people who might not live
40 there anymore but who grew up there and have memories of being there – the
41 people who find meaning in these places rather than organizations or town
42 councils exclusively.”¹²

11 J. Gould. Personal communication (23-01-2014).

12 L. Wilson. Personal communication (22-01-2014).

1 In a sense, our approach with districts is similar to our work with the
2 project-based training model. We conduct field research, assess local needs,
3 and develop public programs around those needs.

4 While Wilson herself is a broker, she is often an outsider in the communities
5 where she is undertaking work and research. As such, she relies on a secondary
6 set of brokers at the local level who can provide organizational information
7 and make important preliminary introductions to tradition bearers. She notes:
8 “You need a liaison, someone within the community who can help you make
9 proper connections. If I have a recognizable name, they can trust you and
10 trust your motives, if you have that community connection. When I called the
11 Mizzen Square Dancers today, as an example, I said “I got your number from
12 Alice Cumby.’ Everyone knows Alice in the community, and that opened up the
13 conversation. That is where they started listening to this unknown voice on
14 the other end. You have to form these relationships slowly, and not expect it to
15 be perfect every time. Once you do make contact with people, it is important to
16 check back in with them, too.”¹³

17 In one district, located within the community of Heart’s Content, Wilson
18 conducted hours of oral history research, photography, and geospatial memory
19 mapping with residents. The end product was a booklet of local stories
20 launched as part of a district plaque unveiling.¹⁴ In addition, Wilson curated
21 an online story map, as well as compiling a set of grassroots recommendations
22 and observations about what the community wished to see happen in the
23 district.

24 The manner in which the recommendations were prepared is a good example
25 of how HFNL works as a cultural facilitator. Following Wilson’s ethnographic
26 fieldwork, nine statements were pulled from recorded oral history interviews.
27 These were selected as recurring themes of how the residents of the district
28 think about heritage in their community. A heritage district “town meeting”
29 was facilitated by HFNL staff in a historic meeting hall in the district. The nine
30 statements gleaned from the oral history research were printed, enlarged, and
31 placed on the walls around the meeting.

32 Participants were given pens and allocated four “votes” each. They were
33 asked to walk around the hall and make four check-marks on what they thought
34 were the most important topics to them. They were given the opportunity to
35 wander and talk with their neighbours as they read the nine statements, and
36 marked their four top choices. Those recommendations were ranked in order
37 of most important to least important, as voted on by the community. The top
38 three were overwhelmingly more significant than the others in terms of the
39 number of votes cast, a good indication that the themes covered resonated
40 with the majority of participants. From this a final report was compiled for the
41 local heritage organization and town council.

42 This approach required various levels of mediation: community liaisons
43 helped identify informants, oral histories were collected; recordings were

13 L. Wilson. Personal communication (22-01/2014).

14 L. Wilson (ed.), *So Many Stories, So Many Traditions*. St. John’s, 2013.

1 analyzed; emergent themes identified; the voting process facilitated; and the
2 final report edited.

3 “Genuine conservation depends first of all on understanding what you want
4 to conserve,” notes Dale Rosengarten. “Second, it requires coordinating diverse
5 groups and individuals, whose interests are not always in accord.”¹⁵ This process
6 of negotiation is an important part of Wilson’s work in heritage districts, and
7 with ICH safeguarding strategies in general. Public folklorist Jim Griffith
8 notes: “Many public folklorists find themselves continuously negotiating –
9 with their employers, with potential project sponsors, with various kinds of
10 special-interest organizations, with the communities and artists with whom
11 they work. Frequently the public folklorist has aims that differ from those of
12 many individuals within the agency in which he or she works. Even presenting
13 the work of a folk artist to the public frequently involves negotiation.”¹⁶

14 Another ICH-rich heritage district is Cable Avenue in Bay Roberts, a street
15 planned and built by the Western Union Telegraph Company. A similar research
16 methodology was utilized, involving intensive interviewing with past and
17 former residents of the district. What the community wanted in Bay Roberts
18 was different from what the community had wanted in Heart’s Content. Instead
19 of a booklet, HFNL curated a small exhibit at the local museum incorporating
20 artefacts loaned from residents and audio clips from oral histories. HFNL also
21 hosted a 100th birthday party for the Avenue in partnership with the town and
22 local historical societies, complete with a birthday cake for the street, cut by
23 one of the oldest residents.

24 HFNL’s role on the Avenue was that of researcher, facilitator, and
25 community organizer. Projects were determined in consultation with the
26 community, developed with community involvement and presented back to
27 the community for viewing and participation.

28 In both instances, collected ethnographic materials were made available
29 online through Memorial University’s Digital Archives Initiative, YouTube,
30 and Google maps: online information which community members then shared
31 and re-shared through email and social media. HFNL took the role of facilitator
32 and online curator, collecting and presenting community information back to
33 the community for their own use.

34 Work in different heritage districts, or work on different projects within
35 the same district, requires different types of mediation, along with a set of
36 skills typical to the trained folklorist, as Wilson notes: “The role varies from
37 community to community, and it has to. It has to be flexible. If I had a very
38 strict idea of my role, I feel like I’d be disappointed, because it changes all the
39 time. On some level, in working with heritage groups, I become a facilitator.
40 That is what they look to me for. But when I’m talking to residents, I’m there
41 usually collecting their stories and opinions, my role is so much different.

15 D. Rosengarten, “Sweetgrass is Gold: Natural Resources, Conservation Policy, and African-American Basketry”, in: M. Hufford (ed.), *Conserving Culture*. Urbana, 1994, p. 152-163.

16 J. Griffith, “Feet on the Ground, Head in the Clouds: Some Thoughts on the Training of Public Folklorists”, in: Baron & N. Spitzer (eds.), *Public Folklore*, p. 231-242.

1 I'm almost there as a friend, an ally or as someone who can give their stories
2 meaning.

3 A lot of communities could do it themselves if they had the right
4 communication avenues open, or the ability to focus on issues together. But
5 because there are so many relationships within those communities that could
6 be troubled or political, we can be a neutral force that helps the community
7 work in a different way.

8 Folklorists are trained to be open to hearing different sides and not putting
9 value judgements on things. We can put value judgements on things, privately,
10 but I think we are trained to strip that away. We just aid them in improving
11 what they are doing. We also have technical abilities that the communities
12 might not, such as collecting oral histories and doing documentation, and
13 helping them find out what they think is important. Sometimes they don't
14 even realize what they find important until they have someone guiding them
15 towards heritage issues or the intangible cultural heritage they have taken for
16 granted. We can help them see value in it."¹⁷

17 Helping communities see the value of their everyday intangible cultural
18 heritage is a crucial part of safeguarding local traditions and knowledge.
19 "Because folklorists really do see the world differently from most people,"
20 argues folklorist Millie Rahn, "a major part of our work involves helping people
21 recognize and use the richness and variety of their past as a basis for building
22 a stronger future."¹⁸

23 While each HFNL project differs, the methodology is similar across the
24 board, and is applicable to all ICH projects: (1) assessment of local needs or
25 ICH under risk; (2) ethnographic research; (3) an interactive final project that
26 encourages deep transmission; and, where possible, (4) documentation of the
27 process.

28 Shalom Staub notes that the field of cultural conservation "has offered
29 promising opportunities to reknit the tangible and intangible elements
30 of cultural heritage, elements that for too long have been torn apart by
31 academic models and bureaucratic structures,"¹⁹ and that it can foster "creative
32 interaction for the encouragement of folklife."²⁰ The ICH-based paradigm
33 for heritage districts attempts to achieve the same thing: to bring together
34 physical spaces and places with the stories and traditions of people living in
35 and alongside them. The role of the mediator in the process is to help build
36 bridges of understanding within the community, and show that spaces are
37 more than just collections of historically significant pieces of architecture.

17 L. Wilson. Personal communication (22-01-2014).

18 M. Rahn, "Laying a Place at the Table: Creating Public Foodways Models from Scratch", *Journal of American Folklore* 119:471, 2006, p. 30-46.

19 S. Staub, "Cultural Conservation and Economic Recovery Planning: The Pennsylvania Heritage Parks Program", in: M. Hufford (ed.), *Conserving Culture: A New Discourse on Heritage*. Urbana, 1994, p. 229-244.

20 Staub, *Cultural*, p. 240.



3. Betty White posing with traditional “hooped” mats, Heart’s Content, Newfoundland (Photo courtesy Mel Squarey/Heritage Foundation of Newfoundland and Labrador)

1 **Folklife and Festival**

- 2 Folklorist Ryan Davis is one of the founding members and current executive
- 3 director of the annual Mummers Festival, based in St. John’s. The Mummers
- 4 Festival focuses on a popular Christmastime disguise tradition. Originally
- 5 established as the theme for HFNL’s first annual folklife festival in 2009, the
- 6 event has spun off into an annual festival of its own, with its own board of
- 7 directors and mandate.

1 The festival is a community-based folklife festival which encourages
2 the celebration and free expression of tradition. Throughout December, the
3 Festival hosts a series of events and workshops culminating in the participatory
4 Mummers Parade. Unlike other spectator events, or music and performance-
5 based festivals, the Mummers Festival welcomes the public as participants
6 and not just as observers, empowering people to take ownership of local arts,
7 performance traditions and calendar customs.

8 In many ways, Davis fulfills the role of cultural mediator, working with
9 tradition bearers and finding new ways to invigorate a tradition that was
10 considered by some to be under threat. He works, through the festival setting,
11 to reframe and extend that tradition: “We can find out about how traditions are
12 actually experienced and used today by speaking with tradition-bearers and
13 community members,” writes Davis. “But also, we can consult with them as we
14 try to figure out new ways of presenting a tradition. We should ask them if they
15 like our ideas for presentation formats, how we could improve on our ideas,
16 and if there are better and more beneficial ways to showcase traditions.”²¹

17 Davis is responsible for selecting artists and tradition bearers to showcase,
18 and planning the way in which those individuals interact with the public
19 through presentations, workshops and performances. It is a process familiar
20 to many public folklorists. As one American public folklorist notes, “I find it
21 important to act as a mediator between audience and performers to be sure
22 that I have done all I possibly can to ensure a respectful, intelligent, and
23 appreciative response to the artists whom I have invited on stage.”²²

24 The folklife festival model Davis uses in the organization of the Mummers
25 Festival provides one way at looking at how a broker works to safeguard a
26 specific tradition or set of linked traditions. The festival works well because
27 it assists the communities in fostering situations in which traditions can
28 thrive. “Preserving and safeguarding culture does not suggest the protection
29 of traditions from outside forces, but rather, supports the conditions necessary
30 for cultural reproduction,” writes Davis.²³

31 Here, Davis elaborates on how he perceives his own role: “I think the number
32 one job is to create a time and space for people to explore the tradition, and to
33 include as many people as you can in that process, be it different tradition
34 bearers, who all have their own understanding of the tradition, or people who
35 have never done it before. I don’t think it is two groups, necessarily, I think you
36 are trying to create a space for... I don’t know if dialogue is the right word, but
37 some sort of interchange between people, because it isn’t necessarily spoken.
38 There is a sharing of understanding of this tradition, because the tradition is
39 very diverse. In a lot of ways, it seems like it is just one thing, but because it
40 is done so differently in different places, bringing all that into one place and
41 seeing what happens is important. As a cultural broker, one should not try to
42 dictate how things go, too much, just giving the right amount of structure that

21 R. Davis, *Festivals and Folklife: Project Planning for Cultural Festivals*. St. John’s, 2010.

22 Griffith, *Feet on the Ground*, p. 237.

23 Davis, *Festivals*, p. 4.



4. Parade participants at the first Mummers Festival in St. John's (Photo courtesy Mark Bennett/Heritage Foundation of Newfoundland and Labrador)

1 allows for people to feel that they are free to explore, to express, without feeling
2 restricted in any way.”²⁴

3 Robert Cantwell, writing about the planning of the Festival of American
4 Folklife, describes many of the processes involved in phraseology related to
5 the art of magic, referring both to the sense of transport that visitors may
6 experience, and in the sense of conjuring up, creating, or manipulating a
7 temporary sense of place or community.²⁵ It is an idea that Davis, perhaps
8 unconsciously, echoes in his thoughts about the Mummers Festival: “I knew
9 the potential of gathering people together in disguise. I know it can be
10 riotous as well, but I was looking for magic, I think, more than anything, that
11 communal energy that goes on. That was what I was hoping for: that if you got
12 enough people together in disguise, and brought them together in one place
13 at one time that something would happen, and it would be spontaneous and
14 unpredictable. I loved the idea that everyone who was in disguise would all of a
15 sudden be one common group, even though they might be diverse in terms of
16 their costume or disguise. But they’d all be mummers for one day, and I liked
17 that idea of taking away all those other things that divide people.”²⁶

24 R. Davis. Personal communication (15-01-2014).

25 R. Cantwell, “Conjuring Culture: Ideology and Magic in the Festival of American Folklife”, in:
M. Hufford (ed.), *Conserving Culture*, p. 167-183.

26 R. Davis. Personal communication (15-01-2014).

1 Davis's work approaches something close to what Rahn would call "a subtle
2 method of social activism."²⁷ The festival becomes more than a reframing of
3 tradition; it is transmuted into a tool for social de-stratification. The festival
4 organizer, as conjurer, temporarily creates a new type of community in which
5 all are equal participants.

6 The sense of community forged by a folklife festival is not always as
7 ephemeral as that created by the Mummers Parade, and can offer opportunities
8 to create lasting communities or networks of tradition bearers.

9 In 2012, HFNL organized its annual folklife festival around the theme of
10 "make and break" engines – a type of hardy vintage boat engine used on small
11 fishing boats through the first half of the twentieth century. The engines
12 were simple, with a limited number of parts, making it easy for fishermen to
13 repair them quickly and cheaply while on land or water.²⁸ Changes in marine
14 technology, boatbuilding styles, and the fishery led to their decline, but a
15 number of enthusiasts continued to maintain, collect, restore, and use the old
16 engines. Many rural people, not necessarily boat owners, had strong memories
17 of the distinctive sound of the engines, a nostalgia-inducing tucka-tucka-tuck,
18 once a common part of the aural landscape.

19 The festival was organized following HFNL's strategy for ICH safeguarding:
20 ethnographic research was conducted; vintage repair manuals discovered,
21 digitized and shared online; community experts and tradition bearers were
22 mobilized, and a public flotilla of vintage boats with working engines was
23 organized.

24 Following the public event, a "parts swap" was organized, where boat engine
25 enthusiasts were encouraged to bring pieces and parts for vintage engines to
26 a central location. There, they traded and sold pieces, shared information, and
27 made connections. The coordinator, a graduate student of folklore, wore many
28 hats, working as an ethnographic field worker, project planner, and publicist.

29 Prior to the festival, most of the enthusiasts had worked in isolation; the
30 festival gave people with a common interest a chance to forge a new, mutually-
31 beneficial community. After the event, the festival coordinator reported:
32 "The smiles... around me on the day of the events came from the sense of
33 belonging, a sense of camaraderie in an endeavor that some of these men may
34 have thought was impossible – bringing new life to these old engines. Many
35 of the men that gathered that day did not know each other, although they may
36 have known of one another. The older generation mixed with the younger and
37 by the end of the day new friendships were born – new friendships that will
38 hopefully last as long as the influence of the make and break engines. There
39 were whispers that day of making the event an annual meet, of engine owners
40 coming together to form an association which would allow them all to keep
41 their engines running and, hopefully, get more back on the water."²⁹

27 Rahn, *Laying a Place*, p. 31.

28 J. Carey, 'Max Clarke's Make and Break Engines', *Intangible Cultural Heritage Update* 35, 2012, p. 2-3.

29 J. Carey, 'Make and Break Festival Review', *Intangible Cultural Heritage Update* 36, 2012, p. 2-3.



5. "Make and Break" engine festival poster, Bonavista. Image courtesy Heritage Foundation of Newfoundland and Labrador.

1 One of the community partners in the event was the Wooden Boat Museum
2 of Newfoundland and Labrador, an organization which operates as conservator,
3 exhibitor and transmitter of the province's knowledge and history of wooden
4 boats, their economic use and contribution to community life. HFNL made
5 its collected ethnographic material and list of informants and participants
6 available to the Boat Museum, who then used that information to organize
7 further boat engine events. Their long-term plan is to include the emerging
8 make and break engine community into future "boats on the water" events,
9 encouraging the transmission of traditional knowledge around boats and boat
10 making.

11 **Conclusions**

12 Staub notes that the three key elements of cultural conversation are "the
13 emphasis on interdisciplinary collaboration, the integration of cultural
14 resources, and the emphasis on community involvement."³⁰ What is missing
15 from this equation are the facilitators, the agents of change that makes this
16 collaboration, integration and involvement possible.

17 In the Newfoundland and Labrador model for safeguarding intangible
18 cultural heritage, the role of the broker is central, though it may go by many
19 names. Rahn notes that "public folklore takes the conversations out of the
20 academy and restores them to the community, where they began."³¹ The
21 Heritage Foundation of Newfoundland and Labrador works to do just this,
22 encouraging both conversation about and conservation of what communities
23 feel to be of local importance. The tools we use as public folklorists shift from
24 project to project, and our roles shift within and between projects, but the goal
25 remains the same: to safeguard intangible cultural heritage as part of a living
26 community.

30 Staub, *Cultural*, p. 229.

31 Rahn, *Laying a Place*, p. 31.



Using Networks in the Process of Developing the National Inventory of ICH in Hungary

1 The Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage was
2 adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 2003. In the spring of 2004,
3 the Convention was sent out to all the member states by the Director General
4 of UNESCO for ratification. The preparations for accession in Hungary were
5 assigned by competence to the Department of Community Culture within the
6 Ministry of Culture.

7 Apart from the necessary steps of state administration, a broad public
8 reconciliation was executed with a group of experts including anthropologists,
9 ethnographers, and representatives of cultural and civilian bodies about the
10 interpretation of the Convention's professional content, its adaptation to
11 Hungary and the scope of state duties following its ratification.

12 With the approval of different state administrative bodies, the proposal
13 of accession to the Convention jointly presented by the Ministries of Culture,
14 Justice and Foreign Affairs was finally discussed and adopted by the Hungarian
15 Parliament on the 6 February, 2006.

16 Hungary passed Act 2006 XXXVIII ratifying the Convention and thus became
17 the 39th country to accede. At the General Assembly of the States Parties to
18 the Convention in 2006, Hungary was elected to be a member of the
19 Intergovernmental Committee.

20 Since April 1 2009, the institution charged with the coordination of the
21 implementation of the Convention on the national level is the Hungarian
22 Open Air Museum, where the Department of the Intangible Cultural Heritage
23 was established as a separate organisational unit.

24 **The development of the National Inventory**

25 In accordance with the aims of UNESCO, the States Parties shall identify
26 intangible cultural heritage elements within their territories and draw up
27 inventories. In fulfilling this obligation in May, 2009 the Minister of Education
28 and Culture has called on tradition bearer communities, groups and individuals
29 in Hungary to nominate recognized elements of their own ICH for inscription.

30 Following the recommendation of the ICH Committee, the Minister of
31 Culture created two lists in service of the safeguarding Hungary's intangible
32 cultural heritage, the National Inventory of ICH and the National Register of
33 Best Safeguarding Practices.



1. Potter of Mezőtúr teaching a child (Photo: Christian Ziel)

1 In Hungary the guiding principle for implementation is that nomination
2 must be initiated by the relevant communities in all cases. Communities must
3 also play a primary role in preparing the bulk of the documentation as well as in
4 developing and implementing effective measures for protecting the element.
5 Without the widest participation of the tradition bearer communities, all the
6 safeguarding measures would prove impossible.

7 The procedure and guidelines for nomination are similar to those
8 of inscription on the UNESCO lists¹ – a form is to be filled out detailing
9 the element and how it meets the criteria for inscription, and prescribed
10 documents and materials are to be attached. In preparing the nomination, the
11 wide-scale involvement of experts, local NGOs and relevant groups is greatly
12 encouraged. Nomination materials are then submitted to the institution
13 charged with implementing points of the Convention nationally which in
14 Hungary is the Department of Intangible Cultural Heritage at the Hungarian

1 Criteria for the National Inventory:

N.1. The element must be compatible with the definition of ICH element as described in Article 2. paragraphs 1 and 2 of the Convention.

N.2. Inscription on the Inventory provides for greater visibility of and public access to the intangible cultural heritage, as well as increased awareness of its significance. Thus the Inventory and the elements inscribed thereon reflect the cultural diversity of the nation and serve as examples of human creativity.

N.3. General policies and programs are in place to facilitate the safeguarding, viability and sustainability of the element.

N.4. The element was nominated for inscription with the widest possible participation, involvement and prior informed consent of the communities, groups and, where applicable, individuals who are the bearers/practitioners of the element.

Criteria for the National Register of Best Safeguarding Practices:

J.1. The programme, project or activity serves the objective of safeguarding as described in Article 2.3 of the Convention



2. Falconer family (Photo: Dr. Eszter Csonka-Takács)

J.2. If already completed, the programme, project or activity has demonstrated effectiveness in contributing to the viability of the intangible cultural heritage concerned. If still underway or planned, it can reasonably be expected to contribute substantially to the viability of the intangible cultural heritage concerned.

J.3. The programme, project or activity has been or will be implemented with the participation of the community, group or, if applicable, individuals concerned and with their free, prior and informed consent.

J.4. The programme, project or activity is potentially suited to serve as a national model for safeguarding activities.

1 Open Air Museum. Here the nominations are reviewed for form and content
2 by two independent experts of the particular field. The Department of
3 Intangible Cultural Heritage then prepares a summary report on the findings
4 of the experts and determines the nomination's compliance with requirements
5 for inscription on the National Inventory. The material is examined by the
6 National Committee for Intangible Cultural Heritage, who then recommends
7 to the Minister the inscription of the particular element.

8 Since nomination documents are compiled by members of the community,
9 we may declare that community participation is a key factor and a basic
10 criterion in the process of inscription. During the evaluation of the nominations
11 the Department of Intangible Cultural Heritage, the independent experts and
12 the Expert Committee especially check, and highly appreciate, the broadest
13 possible involvement and contribution on behalf of the community, without
14 which it would be extremely difficult to make any decisions or implement any
15 safeguarding measures.

16 **Networks fostering cooperation**

17 As in Hungary a bottom up system was set up for the developing of the national
18 inventories, an important question have arisen at the very beginning: how to
19 reach the tradition bearers themselves.

20 The cooperation and efforts of local experts is crucial in order to identify,
21 document and develop a system of local safeguarding of intangible cultural
22 heritage elements, as well as to facilitate their promotion, transmission and
23 access, and considered to be an axiom in the national implementation process
24 in Hungary.

25 Different networks were established on the national level to link the
26 coordinator institution (the Department of ICH of the Hungarian Open Air
27 Museum) with the local experts of different fields and the tradition bearer
28 communities.

29 The main purposes of the networks are to raise awareness on the importance
30 of safeguarding the ICH, to make the principles of the Convention 2003 more
31 visible, to foster the exchange of different heritage-safeguarding measures and
32 strategies, and gain the widest possible public attention for the importance of
33 cultural diversity.

34 **Networks of Experts**

- 35 - Network of *County Rapporteurs* of ICH
- 36 - Network of *Voluntary Professionals*
- 37 - Network of *Hungarian Professionals Abroad*

38 **County Rapporteurs**

39 At the turn of 2010 and 2011, while setting up the system of professional *county*
40 *rapportueurs*, it was useful to draw on the former network of county museums.
41 In each county, an expert from among the county museum's staff was

1 appointed to coordinate and facilitate the promotion, the awareness-raising
2 and give professional guidance to the communities. The specific tasks are to be
3 delegated, managed and coordinated by the Department of ICH.

4 Main responsibilities and tasks of the county coordinators for safeguarding
5 ICH:

- 6 - Raising awareness of the importance of the ICH,
- 7 - initiating and coordinating the documentation of ICH elements in their
8 county and region,
- 9 - organizing local forums and meetings,
- 10 - transmitting information to communities,
- 11 - providing professional counseling to affected communities (e.g. the
12 definition of ICH, process of nomination for the National Inventory),
- 13 - linking the communities with the network of experts,
- 14 - maintaining continuous contact with the Department of ICH,
- 15 - participating in training and courses,
- 16 - submitting annual reports to the Department of ICH.

17 The inaugural session of the network was in January 2011, giving a
18 comprehensive training in ICH for the local professionals. Since then,
19 two plenary meetings and workshops are held in each year, mostly at the
20 Hungarian Open Air Museum in Szentendre. For the meetings, each rapporteur
21 shall prepare a presentation and a report about the current situation at his
22 or her county, summarizing all the measures taken since the last meeting,
23 also introducing the tradition bearer communities with whom they started
24 to cooperate. These workshops also give the opportunity to discuss the
25 problems which may have arisen during their work; for this reason, experts
26 from different fields (ministry representatives, heritage experts, university
27 professors, etc.) are invited to almost every workshop.

28 There are also several informal meetings, field trips and opportunities
29 for the rapporteurs to develop close cooperation, collegiality and friendship
30 in order to make their work together even more effective. A special, closed
31 mailing list is also available for the rapporteurs, where not only the events,
32 programs and material related to ICH is shared by the members, but also calls
33 for papers, conferences and workshops on various topics.

34 Since the establishment of the county rapporteur system, the Department of
35 ICH has regularly offered local information forums, explaining the goals of the
36 Convention, the most important points of its implementation internationally
37 and in Hungary, presenting the UNESCO lists and the national inventories
38 created in Hungary. Attending NGOs, professionals, local officials and heritage
39 practitioners learn about the mechanism and criteria of nomination for the
40 inventory. Local information forums are usually accompanied by a banner
41 exhibition by the Department of ICH which presents the elements on the
42 Hungarian National Inventory one by one, illustrates the UNESCO Convention
43 and the Hungarian practice. Information in booklet form is distributed at
44 these forums.



3. Meeting of the County Rapporteurs in Kalocsa (Photo: Veronika Filkó)

1 Network of Voluntary Professionals

2 Besides the county rapporteurs, a *network of voluntary professionals* was also
3 established, because the involvement and active participation of competent
4 experts in a wide range of fields is essential for implementing and achieving
5 the diverse tasks regarding the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage
6 elements. This network makes up a database of individuals, groups and
7 organizations involved in the field of intangible cultural heritage at both
8 national and mainly local levels. Each expert contributes to and participates in
9 the realization of specific tasks according to his or her own localization, field
10 and area of expertise. The network includes members of non-governmental
11 cultural organizations; individuals working in centers of culture, research and
12 education as well as those managing museums and public collections; and
13 those competent in any of the various domains of intangible cultural heritage,
14 while also possessing a comprehensive knowledge of the given community or
15 region, its attributes and cultural life.

16 Their main tasks could be:

- 17 - Identification of local heritage
- 18 - Elaboration of safeguarding measures
- 19 - Guidance for the communities on the process of nomination
- 20 - Raising awareness on the local level
- 21 - Encouraging local educational programs

22 Anybody could be included in the database, because it is believed that every
23 individual willing to help, whether to assist the communities, or to spread the
24 word and making the principles of the Convention 2003 more visible, could
25 be very important in the whole process of implementation. A form has to be

1 filled out by each expert, stating their field of expertise and some contact info,
2 which they agree to be put on a publicly accessible database. This database in
3 a revised form will be fully accessible on the new web page of ICH in Hungary
4 to be launched in spring 2014. This will enable, for example, communities
5 interested in nominating an element or groups organizing an event to freely
6 search for an expert suitable for them.

7 **Network of Hungarian Professionals Abroad**

8 The Department of ICH extended its expert network to neighbouring countries.
9 In order to help raise awareness on the Hungarian-related ICH, forums were
10 organised for local professionals in touch with local communities who can thus
11 help information flow and increase chances of inscription. At the first session,
12 July 2010, a proposal was drafted for state decision makers about safeguarding
13 heritage items in the countries affected, highlighting possibilities inherent in
14 bilateral co-operation.

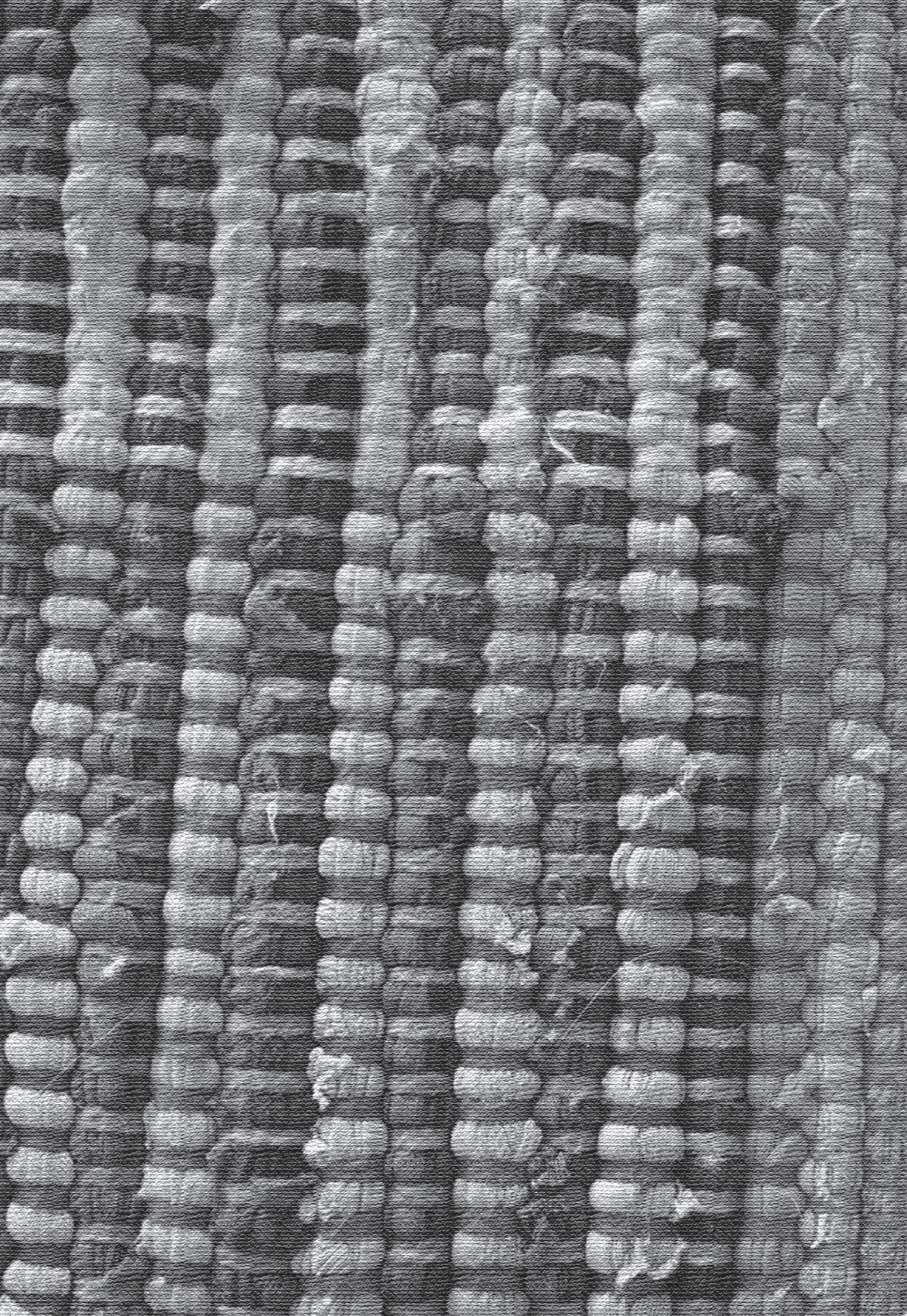
15 The second session in the fall of 2011 took the form of further training
16 on information and methodology for heritage management and the options
17 contained in the Convention 2003. Heritage protection was taught in theory
18 and practice. Introductory lectures described the emergence of the Convention,
19 implementation in Hungary, traditions of the Matyó embroidery, the process of
20 nomination and then restorers of the Hungarian Open Air Museum described
21 the safeguarding of tangible items.

22 **Connecting the tradition bearers – the Circle and Forum of** 23 **“Consciously Heritage-Safeguarding Communities”**

24 In 2009, the Department of ICH also established the Circle of Consciously
25 Safeguarding Communities² (“TÖKK”) for communities inscribed on the
26 National Inventory. TÖKK provides further trainings and guidance to these
27 communities and serves as a forum for exchange of experiences and ideas
28 about the preservation of their heritage and about the process of nomination
29 to the National Inventory.

30 The forums focus on presentation, analysis and methods for application
31 of safeguarding practices, as well as debate on various pertinent issues.
32 Communities present their own safeguarding strategies offering their
33 learning to benefit other communities. In addition, these sessions discuss
34 thematic issues, focusing on a particular predetermined aspect. One example
35 was discussing the legal aspects of practising the intangible cultural heritage.
36 Communities mutually invite each other to their events, gaining first hand
37 experience of the practice of heritage safeguarding, learning from each other’s
38 methods, safeguarding strategies and the forms of heritage protection on the
39 non-governmental and the institutional level.

2 In Hungarian: ‘Tudatos Örökségvédő Közösségek Köre’, TÖKK.



Six Years of Experience in Intangible Heritage Mediation in Flanders (Belgium)

From Cultural Heritage Cells and an ICH Network to
www.immaterieelerfgoed.be

1 This contribution discusses how heritage mediation and brokerage are at the
2 core of safeguarding intangible cultural heritage and the development of
3 an ICH-network in Flanders, from the ratification of the ICH-Convention to
4 the introduction of www.immaterieelerfgoed.be, Crucial players such as the
5 cultural heritage cells and dedicated centers of expertise are introduced, with a
6 special focus on how they function as an ICH network. Experiences from their
7 working practice over the last six years as cultural brokers are shared. Finally
8 the goals and challenges of the digital broker www.immaterieelerfgoed.be are
9 presented.

10 **“Surprise us...”**

11 In the first decade of the 21st century, the Flemish Government opted for
12 formulas of co-governance with the instruments of “covenants” in several
13 policy fields: youth, urban development, nature and culture. At the end of
14 the 20th century it became clear that even the Flemish decree for museums¹
15 that introduced “museumconsulenten” would not suffice. It was time for
16 a new policy with a broader approach to museology and cultural heritage.
17 Strategically pooling the resources on different levels of government (local,
18 Flemish...) on the one hand and introducing and financing professional
19 heritage brokers and mediators on the other hand were the main ingredients
20 for a formula called “cultural heritage covenants”.

1 On the website of Kunsten en Erfgoed, the cultural heritage agency of the Flemish Government, the different steps of connecting several decrees into one cultural heritage decree (2004, and later versions in 2008 and 2012) are well documented: <http://www.kunstenenerfgoed.be/ake/view/nl/1413004-Historiek+van+het+Cultureel-erfgoeddecreet.html>

1 This new instrument was created on an experimental basis in 2000.
2 Heritage covenants were set up between Antwerp, Bruges and Ghent and
3 the Flemish Government. Extra financial resources gave these cities the
4 possibilities to create the basis for a more profound local cultural heritage
5 policy. These covenants were launched, with great success and impact. As
6 these first experimental steps towards a broader cultural heritage approach did
7 not fail, they were introduced in other regions and were then institutionalized.
8 The Flemish Government decided to include the cultural heritage covenants
9 in the cultural heritage decree of 2004. Ten years later, there are twenty-two
10 heritage covenants in Flanders.² Together they operate in 116 communes,
11 already covering one third of the cities and villages in Flanders.³

12 A cultural heritage covenant is an agreement between the Flemish
13 Government and for instance a city, a cluster of villages and towns or a
14 province. The motto in these agreements in the previous decade was, next to
15 co-governance and planning, the integral and integrated approach.⁴ The basis
16 for this covenant is a heritage policy plan, a document that presents the local
17 vision for cultural heritage care and also offers an overview of the needs of the
18 local cultural heritage and of the players that safeguard it.

19 With the financial resources for the cultural heritage covenants a new kind
20 of actor in the professional heritage field was able to be introduced in the 21st
21 century: the cultural heritage cells. “I expect the heritage cells to surprise us,
22 to raise eyebrows and to show us things in a creative way like we have never
23 seen them before. I expect them to make new connections and to tap from
24 unknown sources.”⁵ These were the expectations voiced by former Minister of
25 Culture Bert Anciaux who was responsible for launching and consolidating the
26 formula in a decree. He made it clear that the employees of the heritage cell
27 had a different function to fulfil than employees already occupied in museums
28 and archives.

29 **The cultural heritage cell: brokers in action**

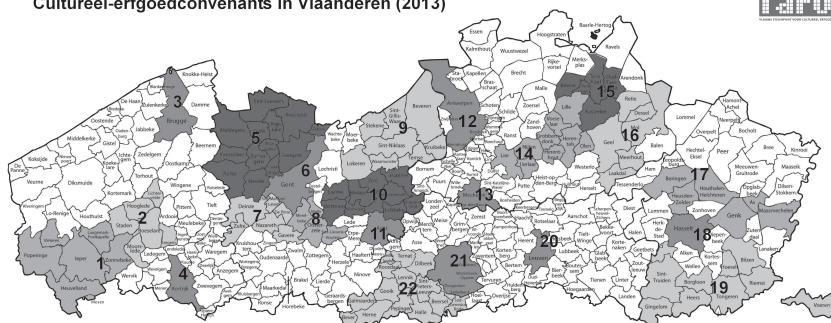
30 A cultural heritage cell works in a city or in a cluster of towns and villages.
31 Its aim is to raise awareness about the tangible and intangible heritage in
32 their region. A heritage cell does not bear the responsibility for managing
33 collections itself, but is a local interface that encourages sharing and pooling

2 An overview of all cultural heritage cells is presented on <http://www.erfgoedcellen.be>, including a link to the separate website of each of these cells ...

3 From 2014 onwards there is a new way of supporting the local cultural heritage policies in the cities Antwerp, Ghent, Bruges, Mechelen and Leuven and of supporting the regional cultural heritage policies in the five Flemish provinces. They are given the possibility to subscribe to a series of Flemish priorities, as defined by the Flemish Government. For more information: <http://www.kunstenenerfgoed.be/ake/view/nl/1497932-Handleidingen.html>

4 An ‘integral approach’ means that the different actors in the cultural heritage field (museum, archives, libraries ...) work intertwined, while the ‘integrated approach’ also makes sure that there are connections to other important local fields as youth, tourism, education, immovable heritage ...

5 M. Jacobs, B. Rzoska & G. Vercauteren (eds.), *Synergie^o 2010. Het cultureel-erfgoedconvenant als hedendaags beleidsinstrument*. Brussel, 2009, p. 116.



- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|
| 1. CO 7 | 9. Interwaas (Waasland) | 16. k.ERF |
| 2. BIE (TERF) | 10. Cultuurdijk
(Land van Dendermonde) | 17. Mijn-Erfgoed |
| 3. Brugge | 11. Aalst | 18. Hasselt |
| 4. Kortrijk | 12. Antwerpen | 19. Haspengouw |
| 5. Comet (Meetjesland) | 13. Mechelen | 20. Leuven |
| 6. Gent | 14. Kempens Karakter | 21. VGC (Brussels Hoofdst. Gew.) |
| 7. POLS | 15. Noorderkempen | 22. Pajottenland-Zennevallei |
| 8. Land van Rode (Viersprong) | | |

1. Cultural Heritage Cells in Flanders (2013) (© FARO)

1 information and expertise, stimulates innovation and collaborations between
 2 holders of collections, associations of volunteers and/or communities and
 3 groups that wish to safeguard intangible cultural heritage, helps to set up
 4 new projects and also tries to draw the public's interest and – where possible –
 5 include inhabitants and visitors in the projects it sets up.

6 To raise heritage awareness about local history and heritage, cultural
 7 heritage cells connect the immovable, the tangible and the intangible
 8 heritage. By working together and inviting others to do so, by forming a
 9 network with all the players in the local heritage field, heritage cells bring
 10 together expertise and knowledge. To be fully successful, the cultural heritage
 11 cells have to operate on two levels. On the one hand they have to detect the
 12 possibilities and problems of the local heritage field. On the other hand they
 13 have to operate and interact in a dynamic professional heritage sector on a
 14 regional and Flemish level.

15 In the 21st century, cultural heritage policy in Flanders also opted to
 16 introduced, reinforce, inject and finance brokers, mediators and networks of
 17 expertise in the networks of archives, museums, heritage libraries, popular
 18 culture and safeguarding intangible heritage on a Flemish level. In the previous
 19 decade, under the umbrella of “complementary policy” and stimulated by
 20 first the museum decree and a decree on popular culture (1998), and then
 21 consolidated in the cultural heritage decree of 2008, the local, provincial and
 22 Flemish government, tried to work together to reinforce this network. In the
 23 second decade of the 21st century, new governments and other political and
 24 policy discourses put more emphasis on the relative autonomy of the different
 25 levels and on the local level in particular.



2. Workshop on ICH in cooperation with the heritage cell (© tapis plein)

1 Within the territory covered by the covenant, a heritage cell tries to
2 connect local heritage institutions (museums, archives, heritage libraries ...)
3 to the numerous non-professional heritage organizations, private collectors
4 or to local craftsmen. This integrated heritage approach also inspires cultural
5 heritage cells to look beyond the borders of the heritage field in the strict sense
6 of the word. Partnerships have been set up with, amongst others, schools,
7 social institutions, theatres, youth movements, actors in tourism and homes
8 for the elderly. Thus, the cultural heritage cells operate in an expansive and
9 diverse network. As time progresses, they become a local interface for cultural
10 heritage organizations and other local players and a catalyst for their networks.

11 A professional dialogue with cultural heritage institutions on a regional
12 and Flemish level is also important. Crucial partners are the other cultural
13 heritage cells, centres of expertise and FARO, the Flemish interface for
14 cultural heritage. The broader cultural heritage sector in Flanders (museums,
15 archives, heritage libraries ...) is also aware of the importance of building up
16 networks of expertise and addresses the heritage cells as partners in projects.
17 The interaction between the various cultural heritage cells has been a working
18 goal from the start. The knowhow gained from local projects is shared through
19 thematic “communities of practice” on a Flemish level.⁶ Projects have been set
20 up in cooperation between several cultural heritage cells and sometimes even
21 between all twenty-two organizations. The cultural heritage cells are also a

6 E. Wenger, *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity*. Cambridge, 1998; E. Wenger, R. McDermott & W. Snyder (ed.), *Cultivating Communities of Practice* (Hardcover). Boston, 2002; M. Jacobs, “Netwerk, domein en praktijk. Cultureel-erfgoedpraktijkgemeenschappen en het nieuwe Vlaamse Cultureel-erfgoeddecreet, 23 mei 2008”, *faro* 1:2, 2008, p. 12-17.

1 vital partner in the yearly event “Erfgoeddag”⁷, a Flemish cultural “Heritage
2 Day” that presents cultural heritage in all its diversity to the broad public and
3 attracts over 220.000 visitors every year.

4 **A compatible policy for safeguarding intangible cultural heritage** 5 **in and the role of professional heritage mediators**

6 The policy options in the Flemish community in the 21st century, that were
7 expressed and spearheaded by the formula of covenants-cum-heritage-cells,
8 proved to be compatible with another innovation in the previous decade; the
9 new UNESCO Convention for the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage.
10 Belgium ratified the Convention in 2006. The Flemish Government has taken
11 a number of steps to develop a policy for ICH, beginning in 2008 with the
12 creation of the Inventory for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders. Key
13 to the implementation of the Convention in Flanders is the central role of
14 communities. The Flemish Government stated explicitly that it wishes to take
15 measures to facilitate the transmission of what communities consider as being
16 their ICH.

17 The inventory for ICH in Flanders, an instrument of safeguarding that was
18 foreseen in article 11 and 12 of the 2003 UNESCO Convention, is not only seen
19 as a tool for awareness raising on ICH and showcasing its diversity. It is also a
20 catalyst for safeguarding of ICH. The notion of prior and informed consent is
21 turned into a rule that it has to be the heritage community that starts up the
22 process and applies for an inscription on the inventory. To make sure that they
23 are properly informed and that they have access to safeguarding methods and
24 networks, a community that wishes to safeguard intangible cultural heritage
25 and to enter procedures of safeguarding under the flag of ICH policy, is required
26 to seek contact and cooperate with an organization, subsidised on the basis
27 of the Flemish Decree on Cultural Heritage. These organizations assist the
28 process of application and follow-up of the safeguarding process on the longer
29 term. Heritage workers in those organisations are in this function brokers
30 and translators; enhancing the heritage awareness within the community as
31 mediators and helping them design safeguarding measures for the element of
32 ICH, in the spirit of the 2003 Convention and taking into account the view of
33 the Flemish government and the networks of heritage organizations.

34 When in 2008, the Flemish Parliament adopted a new Cultural Heritage
35 Decree “intangible cultural heritage” was mentioned but a separate chapter
36 was not developed. That Cultural Heritage Decree (that has been updated and
37 replace by a new decree in 2012) introduced another term to heritage policy
38 (discourse) that is of great value for a policy on ICH: “heritage community”.
39 This concept was appropriated from an inspiring heritage policy text of
40 the Council of Europe, the Framework Convention on the Value of Cultural

7 The website <http://www.erfgoeddag.be> gives an interesting overview of the players involved and the activities on offer on the yearly Heritage Day.

NL – Het beleid van
de Vlaamse overheid voor
het ***borgen*** van het
***immaterieel
cultureel erfgoed***

FR – La politique de
l’Autorité flamande
pour ***la sauvegarde
du patrimoine
culturel immatériel***

EN – The Government
of Flanders’ policy
on ***safeguarding
intangible cultural
heritage***

KUNSTEN
EN ERFGOED

3. Publication “The Government of Flanders’ policy on safeguarding ICH (© agentschap Kunsten en Erfgoed)

1 Heritage for Society, aka the 2005 Faro Convention.⁸ Two years later, in 2010,
2 the Flemish Minister responsible for Culture, Joke Schauvliege, emphasized
3 the link between these concepts and conventions, in a vision statement
4 entitled “A Policy for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders”. A key point
5 is “safeguarding ICH through facilitation”. The Flemish Government has
6 defined its own role as follows: “The policy must provide the specific tools and
7 establish the specific activities that will enable the continued development of
8 ICH”: It addresses on the one hand the creation of a facilitating framework and
9 network to provide assistance, guidance, support and opportunities to groups
10 and heritage communities in their bottom-up efforts to safeguard ICH. On the
11 other hand it also introduced the idea of a building a “Database for ICH” to
12 facilitate this network and the safeguarding of ICH in Flanders.”⁹

13 **A network of cultural brokers for ICH in Flanders**

14 As already said, the basic philosophy of the Flemish policy for ICH is that it
15 should be the heritage group or community that takes the initiative and that
16 it is the role of the policymakers and heritage actors on the Flemish level to
17 ensure that each interested heritage community is given the information or is
18 able to get easy access to the knowledge required to make an analysis, either
19 autonomously or with assistance, of the implications of an intangible cultural
20 heritage approach or which safeguarding measures they could take.

21 To realize this policy, the government supports a network of intermediary
22 organisations working on ICH to support the heritage communities in these
23 safeguarding processes. An important component is the network of the
24 “heritage cells” we have introduced in the first paragraphs, operating in limited
25 geographical zones all around Flanders, dealing with all sorts of cultural
26 heritage and cultivating a local scope. Next to those local heritage cells, there is
27 also a network of heritage organizations working for the whole of Flanders, and
28 thereby focusing on a specific heritage theme. They can be specialized centres
29 of expertise, but also other organizations that decide to work on safeguarding
30 intangible cultural heritage, like museums, organizations for popular culture

8 “Vision Statement – A Policy for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders”, in: D. Van Den Broucke & A. Thys (eds.), Brussel, 2012, p. 147: “The term ‘heritage communities’ was assumed from the Council of Europe 2005 Framework Convention on the value of Cultural Heritage for Society (also called the Faro Convention). The Cultural Heritage Act defines a heritage community as follows: “a heritage community is a community that consists of organizations and/or individuals who value specific aspects of cultural heritage which they wish, within the framework of public action, to sustain and transmit to future generations.” This is an interesting definition to interpret and to grasp the concept of “communities, groups and individuals concerned” used in the Convention.

9 “Vision Statement – A Policy for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders”, in: Van Den Broucke & Thys, p. 170. The vision statement described the aims of a database for ICH in Flanders as follows: “A new instrument must make the following possible: to give visibility to the ICH in Flanders, to link elements of ICH, to link elements and examples of best practices, experts and cores of expertise, to enhance “the development, demonstration and reporting on safeguarding measures and measures for the transmission of ICH and the listing of best practices.”

1 or archives.¹⁰ In the Flemish network both local scopes and thematic (country
2 wide) scopes connect and interact.

3 Keys to this framework are the methods of mediation and cultural brokerage
4 they use. There is a close collaboration within the network and knowledge
5 and expertise is exchanged. Organizations discuss out problems, needs and
6 requirements, as well as best practices.

7 **Cultural heritage cells and safeguarding practices**

8 Examining the dossiers of the 37 elements that are inscribed on the Flemish
9 inventory for Intangible Cultural Heritage at the start of January 2014, it
10 becomes clear that the cultural heritage cells were an active partner from the
11 beginning in the preparation of many of the applications. The inventory is
12 of course only the tip of the iceberg, a possible result of an intensive path
13 of ICH awareness raising within a community. In regions or towns where a
14 cultural heritage cell is active, they tend to be a vital partner in building up
15 this awareness.

16 Being professional players, their knowledge of the Flemish heritage
17 policies is an important help for communities that are eager to work on the
18 ICH awareness of the element their community is attached to. Together with
19 the communities the heritage cells start by looking back at the history, the
20 characteristics, the context and above all at the efforts that have already been
21 taken to safeguard the element. By rethinking parts of a ritual or festivity or
22 making documentation accessible to new generations, many communities
23 have already been cultivating ICH awareness without labelling it that way. The
24 cultural heritage cell points this out, and in doing so helps the local community
25 to get acquainted with the ICH vocabulary and philosophy.

26 A next step, in which cultural heritage cells offer their services and expertise
27 as important partners, is raising further awareness for the ICH element in the
28 local heritage field and political circles. By communicating about the element
29 via diverse media (website, newsletters, local magazine...), the cultural
30 heritage cell helps to create a broader public appeal for the element or helps the
31 community to look for new volunteers. This communicative support is very
32 important for the local communities.

10 "Vision Statement – A Policy for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders", in: Van Den Broucke & Thys, p. 162: "The model of 'one single organization, subsidised to fulfil an anchor function for a heritage community and to steer it, maintain and disseminate knowledge and expertise' (cfr. Flemish Parliament Act on Popular Culture, 1997)[sic: 1998], was integrated into the Flemish Parliament Act on Cultural Heritage in 2008 and opened the door to other thematic angles. The museums and cultural archives institutions classified to the Flemish level as well as the Vlaamse Erfgoedbibliotheek (Flemish Heritage Library) are through this Act expected to fulfil an anchor function, and to disseminate and share the knowledge they have at their disposal. The ultimate goal is to create a network of cultural heritage organisations which covers all aspects of heritage preservation, dissemination and brokerage between heritage and the public. The model that was introduced through the Flemish Parliament Act on Cultural Heritage offered possibilities for an intangible cultural heritage policy."



4. Processional giants Amir and Noa, Mechelen (© Jan Van Dijck)

1 And finally cultural heritage cells also create a breeding ground for new
2 initiatives and collaborations with other partners in the local heritage field.
3 The cultural heritage cell works with the heritage community to consider
4 and evaluate methods that can help to circulate information about their
5 tradition. The emphasis on safeguarding heritage can differ from that of other
6 intermediary players who are interested in these phenomena and are more
7 focused on their specific point of view and agenda (such as city marketing,
8 tourism, local economy). The cultural heritage cells support the communities
9 in their continuous search for bottom-up connections and a communal sense
10 of ownership.

11 **PROJECT EXAMPLE: The “Mechelse Ommegang”¹¹**

12 The “Mechelse Ommegang”, a combination of a procession and a cavalcade,
13 takes place in the city of Mechelen every 25 years. For the “Ommegang” of 2013,
14 the Heritage Cell Mechelen supported the community and raised awareness
15 about this tradition to the (many new) inhabitants of the city through various
16 participative actions and projects:

- 17 - The giants – the most popular figures of the spectacle – were modified in
18 collaboration with the community. Diverse groups of sewers and stitchers,
19 young and old, made new costumes for the giants. The wool necessary for this
20 project was collected through a public call for participation. The traditional
21 giant’s song was transformed into a rap song.

11 www.erfgoedcelmechelen.be

1 - A second important focus was the multicultural approach. To reflect the
2 current day multicultural population of Mechelen, a population which
3 has seriously evolved over the last 25 years, an information leaflet was
4 prepared in nine languages and two new young giants were introduced.
5 The Heritage Cell Mechelen supported the community in their safeguarding
6 efforts with these and other initiatives. Doing so, they helped to successfully
7 adapt the Mechelse Ommegang to the 21st century and increased the value of
8 this tradition for old and new inhabitants.

9 **An emerging network of centers of expertise¹²**

10 Following up on the publication of the Flemish policy vision paper in 2010,
11 a network of heritage organizations working on and being subsidized on the
12 Flemish level has crystalized. The different domains of ICH as mentioned in
13 article 2.2 of the 2003 Convention helped to organize and divide the tasks:

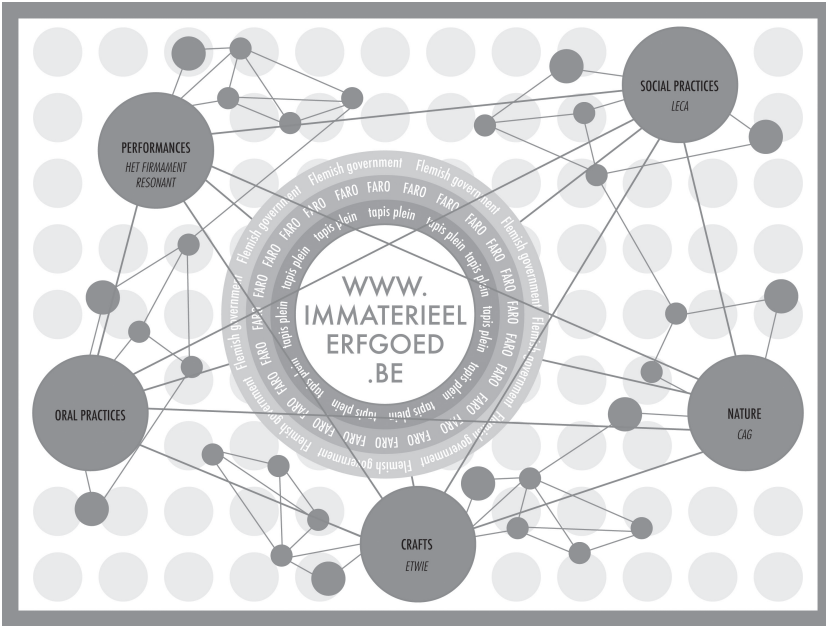
- 14 - Oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the
- 15 intangible cultural heritage;
- 16 - Performing arts;
- 17 - Social practices, rituals and festive events;
- 18 - Knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe;
- 19 - Traditional craftsmanship.

20 At the start of 2013, a meeting was held for each of these ICH domains: bring
21 together professional organizations and other stakeholders in Flanders with
22 a link to the domain. The meetings initiated the participative development
23 of a thematic network for each ICH domain. An overview of the ongoing or
24 planned ICH projects was made up for each domain and one or two centers of
25 expertise were granted the role of “coordinator” for a domain.¹³

26 The profile of these “thematic domain coordinators” can best be described
27 as brokerage. These heritage workers are team players in their relations as
28 colleagues for the ICH-network in Flanders, as colleagues and coordinators
29 within a network per domain, but they also act as bridge, translator, and
30 facilitator towards other stakeholders and actors, and mediate between the
31 different government and administrations on the one hand and the heritage
32 communities on the other. Each of these roles demands another approach
33 of the heritage worker, trying to keep up the credibility as a professional,
34 independent but socially engaged heritage worker.

12 “Vision Statement – A Policy for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders”, in: D. Van Den Broucke & A. Thys (eds.), 2012, p. 167.

13 Domain 1: no coördinator; domain 2: Het Firmament (Centre of expertise on the heritage of performing arts / www.hetfirmament.be) & Resonant vzw (Centre of expertise on musical heritage / www.resonant.be); domain: LECA vzw (Centre of expertise on everyday culture / www.lecavzw.be); domain 4: CAG (Centre of expertise for agraric history / www.cagnet.be); domain 5: ETWIE (Centre of expertise for technical, scientific and industrial heritage / www.etwie.be).



5. The thematic networks in Flanders (© tapis plein)

1 Together, these organizations, with the general support of the NGOs tapis
 2 plein and FARO¹⁴, they form a so-called ICH-coordinating network.¹⁵ It is a
 3 structure to address general needs (and requirements) in the safeguarding of
 4 ICH in Flanders, transcending domains as well as local or regional contexts.
 5 Within this network of “domain coordinators’ the role of each player is defined
 6 within an internal agreement, based on the vision statement, and outlining
 7 the mutual expected actions as the follow-up on (policy-) developments,
 8 bottom-up needs regarding ICH in general, sharing of inspirational cases and
 9 experiences, and general topics as communication, awareness-raising on ICH ...

14 Tapis plein vzw, center of expertise on heritage participation: for the first years of implementing the new policy of ICH one more NGO has been attributed a role or function that is more horizontal-like and methodically focused: tapis plein, a center of expertise working on heritage and participation since 2003. The value of this type of expertise is situated in the know-how to work with community participation, education, transmission, actualization of heritage, etc. This type of know-how has relevance throughout all the domains of ICH, considering the central role of communities and the coming generations in the transmission of traditions, practices etc. This NGO focuses all the more on the strengthening of the cooperation and networks in the ICH field, in which the local communities and the cities are a very important dimension / FARO. Flemish Interface for Cultural Heritage.

15 “Vision Statement – A Policy for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders”, in: Van Den Broucke & Thys, p. 169: “These organisations can also unite in networks and share knowledge and expertise in this way and make it usable for the intangible cultural heritage.”

1 **Brokers within an ICH domain network**

2 Considering the ICH domains, the role of the domain coordinators takes
3 the form of a mediator or broker within the professional network for each
4 respective domain and towards the heritage communities.

5 The network within a domain consists of organizations, subsidized on
6 the basis of Flemish Decree on Cultural Heritage (these can be museums
7 or cultural archives institutions classified at the Flemish level, centers of
8 expertise for cultural heritage, but also, via the abovementioned formula of
9 covenants, heritage cells...), and by extension unsubsidized actors, all related
10 to the domain. The coordinators take the lead, in strengthening the thematic
11 network through the stimulation of cooperation and fine-tuning on general
12 developments and needs within the domain. They also monitor and feed
13 the information flow within the network about developments, expertise and
14 examples that inspire. They are the contact persons for information and
15 questions on the domain, for the communities, the public, and also for the
16 colleagues within the network whom they support with their expertise. This
17 is all in order to, in the end, optimize the support of heritage communities in
18 their safeguarding processes.

19 **Brokers in relation to heritage communities**

20 In regard to the heritage communities these coordinators take up the role
21 as brokers and translators of the values within the 2003 Convention. They
22 set up general actions for the heritage communities based on the overall
23 developments and needs within the domain, or support them individually
24 in their safeguarding practice when appropriate.¹⁶ They refer to heritage
25 communities within the network of other heritage organizations, the local
26 heritage cell and thematically structured organizations, for additional
27 information or possible cooperation.

28 Depending on the domain, the actions and needs will differ, but the actions
29 and roles of the domain coordinators, and experiences as brokers, can generally
30 be subdivided into:

31 - Awareness raising of ICH and the safeguarding thereof through
32 communication and support.

33 The heritage workers within a center of expertise are the translators of the
34 “language”, concepts and general vision or “spirit” of the Convention to other
35 professional heritage organizations, groups, communities and the broad
36 public. It is a constant search for the balance between policy discourse and

16 “Vision Statement – A Policy for Intangible Cultural Heritage in Flanders”, in: Van Den Broucke & Thys, p. 169: “Interaction with the local authorities takes place through the local cultural policy or through the local cultural heritage unit.” In practice: when there’s no local heritage cell present in the region or the element has a broader perspective than the local, a centre of expertise can also support the respective heritage communities more intensively.



6. "Rond de rokken van de reus", a project of LECA (ngo) on giant culture (© Mario De Baene)

1 practice, and also between a bottom-up and a more pro-active approach in
2 order to raise awareness among communities in Flanders.

3 - *Dealing with scale and scope – a clustered approach and safeguarding programs.*

4 Much ICH within a single domain shows similarities or similar needs. The
5 knowledge and expertise required to recognize, designate and transmit the
6 ICH is often similar. Coordinators of domain-networks act as brokers, mentors
7 through organizing meetings for heritage communities of familiar elements.
8 By sharing safeguarding expertise and experiences between professionals and
9 heritage communities and in between the heritage communities themselves,
10 an incentive is given for new networks and knowledge and expertise. This can
11 be developed further, without the support of professional heritage workers. In
12 the long term it increases the independence of communities. Other actors can
13 take up the role of broker and between the different communities and sharing,
14 an independent moderator at the table.

15 On the other hand, the coordinators develop thematic safeguarding
16 projects which address general needs or aims, on a regional level, for elements
17 that show similarities (e.g. processions honoring Maria in Flanders). These
18 large safeguarding projects are known as "safeguarding programs".

1 **SAFEGUARDING PROGRAM: “Rond de rokken van de reus”**

2 (“Around the skirts of the giant”)¹⁷

3 One of Flanders’ popular customs is to go out on the streets with giant puppets
4 on festive occasions. Numerous cities, villages, neighbourhoods, organizations,
5 schools and even individual families keep hundreds of giants alive. Giants
6 have been around for over 500 years. However, a lot of organisations working
7 with the giants are struggling to keep public interest alive. In order to raise
8 awareness for this rich and diverse intangible heritage, the NGO LECA,
9 coordinator of the ICH domain “Social practices, rituals and festive events”
10 developed a safeguarding program called “Around the skirts of the giant’.

11 Safeguarding a phenomenon as widespread as processional giants in
12 Flanders takes time. It takes time to identify and sensitize the communities
13 involved, to listen to their needs and to reach a consensus about the road ahead.
14 It also takes time and patience to form and sustain an operative network. For the
15 last couple of years, LECA has been bringing together tradition practitioners
16 and a wide range of professional and voluntary organisations with a passion
17 for giants. From the start, the programme was designed to maximize the
18 participation of the tradition bearers. In order to achieve these goals, the
19 project was set up according to a number of consecutive phases:

- 20 - First, an explorative study into the history and customs of the giant culture
21 was made.
- 22 - Secondly, the new NGO *Reuzen in Vlaanderen* (Giants in Flanders) was
23 formed. The NGO consists of tradition bearers who want to coordinate the
24 safeguarding measures for giants in Flanders.
- 25 - Thirdly, an online inventory was launched for tradition bearers to make their
26 giants and traditions known. This dynamic inventory was used to draw up
27 a list of people and organisations with giants. This list was crucial for phase
28 four.
- 29 - Together with a lot of partners¹⁸ from all over the country, LECA and Reuzen
30 in Vlaanderen organised five Giant Encounter Days in 2013. In doing so, they
31 assembled 141 tradition bearers to exchange their knowledge, experiences
32 and plans for the future. Their ideas and concerns were summed up in an
33 online report and led to the first draft of a safeguarding plan.
- 34 - Currently, the project has entered a fifth phase: tradition bearers are giving
35 feedback on the proposed list of safeguarding measures. Moreover, they are
36 debating whether or not they would like to add their heritage to the Flemish
37 Inventory of Intangible Cultural Heritage. Depending on the outcome, new
38 actions will take place in the future.

17 www.lecavzw.be, center of expertise in Flanders for every day culture.

18 The project has benefited from the support of a.o. “Erfgoed Brussel, Erfgoedcel Pajottenland Zennevallei, Erfgoedcel Leuven, Faro, Erfgoedcel Land van Dendermonde, Erfgoedcel Meetjesland, Erfgoedcel Waasland, Erfgoedcel Kortrijk, Erfgoedcel Mechelen, Erfgoedcel MijnErfgoed, Erfgoed Haspengouw, Erfgoedcel Hasselt, Erfgoedcel Viersprong, MAS, Erfgoedcel Noorderkempen, het Stadsmus, Stad Hasselt, KBOV and het Provinciaal Centrum voor Cultureel Erfgoed’.

1 Experience in brokerage: *reflections*

2 With the local cultural heritage cells and the Flemish thematic networks, a
3 deep network is emerging in Flanders for the joint and concerted support of
4 the heritage communities in their safeguarding practices. But, this is still a
5 young network. The formal implementation of the 2003 Convention and in
6 particular the operational directives (available since 2008) in Flanders started
7 just six years ago, a short time to evaluate the impact of the recent ICH policy
8 and the impact of the support of professional heritage organisations on the
9 further development of traditions, crafts, performances and other forms of
10 ICH in Flanders. Some general experiences can be identified, on the local and
11 regional level.

12 Cultural brokerage is key to the concept of this safeguarding ICH network
13 on every level. Cultural heritage cells and network coordinators recognize that
14 brokerage, facilitation and mediation are crucial functions in their work.

15 Many challenges remain, however. First of all, professional heritage
16 workers notice in daily practice that it's a challenge to keep the necessary
17 independence as a broker. We often see that the interest in an "ICH approach"
18 increases when heritage is at risk of survival or when it becomes interesting for
19 other societal developments such as e.g. tourism or local economy. However,
20 when ICH becomes politically or touristically interesting, goals other than
21 "safeguarding the ICH" easily come to the table. As they are often working for
22 a city council, or an organization led by members of city councils of a specific
23 region, heritage cells have to operate according to the will of local politicians
24 or a government level, that also initiate the city-marketing or tourism projects.
25 Certainly in these situations the broker is in a tough position persuading others
26 that they need some independence as a cultural heritage broker and mediator,
27 and not least in persuading them that the vision, the spirit and the letter of the
28 2003 convention should be taken into account and the responsibility in terms
29 of safeguarding. This experience is shared with the organisations operating
30 with a country wide Flemish scope. The evolution and nature of the relations
31 between politics, different policies in different fields of society (economy,
32 social policy, urban planning, tourism, education...) and cultural heritage
33 brokerage deserve further attention and study.

34 Secondly, a clear duality can also be noticed in the position of brokers in
35 working with ICH communities. On the one hand a broker deliberately makes
36 him or herself invisible in local processes of ICH support, but on the other hand
37 it can't be denied his/her expertise makes him/her an influential player in the
38 (safeguarding) process. Without the trigger of communicative and face-to-face
39 awareness raising and in addition a more intensive support in the safeguarding
40 process, many local ICH safeguarding processes would not lead to concrete
41 results. The broker is crucial, but often in the background or even invisible.
42 So how far does a broker go in this process of helping and supporting, or even
43 offering the framework of safeguarding intangible cultural heritage. Most of
44 the practices are still very much alive, "safeguarding" their practices on their
45 own, without realizing they do so. Do they need to be aware of this vision of
46 ICH? Do they need to have the perspective, approach and vocabulary? Do they

1 need to become almost a professional heritage worker themselves in relation
2 to their heritage? Or should these communities and processes just be let be?

3 As a broker it's a constant balancing act between introducing groups and
4 communities to this new ICH world, the tools within the convention and ICH
5 policy and not interfering too much in the ICH practice. Every community
6 introduces also a new search for a support, suited to the practice and the
7 community, and also about getting the community to take responsibility for
8 the safeguarding of the ICH practice.

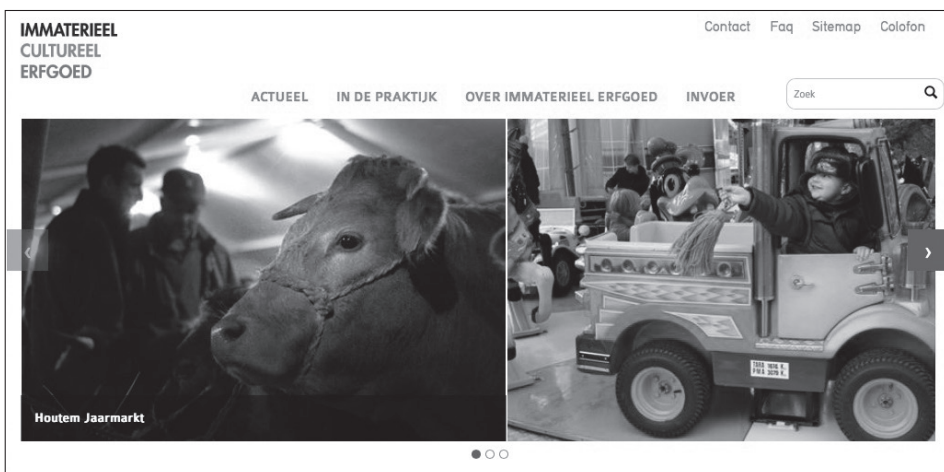
9 It is important for a broker in such a process of mediation to keep the
10 future in mind. These heritage communities, locally or as a cluster, can use a
11 stimulus from an external moderator for their cooperation in the beginning.
12 It is however the goal to guide them to a safeguarding practice which can
13 run on its own in the future, with the heritage awareness in their backpack,
14 without the continuous support of a professional broker. This process will only
15 work when a larger part of the involved heritage community is also willing to
16 look beyond the obvious. As brokers it is important to invest in the younger
17 generation, as they are often most eager to breath new life into and likely to
18 have a more open attitude towards the ICH element.

19 It's clear that guiding and supporting communities is an intensive process
20 in which the communities get acquainted with a whole new approach to their
21 practice. It could be said that as a community they receive new lenses for
22 looking at their practice, which can help them in safeguarding their practice
23 for the future. A broker supports the heritage community in this process,
24 building a relationship of trust. Building this relationship and guiding the
25 communities in this process, takes time and is a slow, often almost invisible
26 and often intensive process. A characteristic that will probably remain also one
27 of the Achilles heels of institutionalized brokerage.

28 **www.immaterieelerfgoed.be: a digital platform for ICH in** 29 **Flanders**

30 For the facilitation of this network and safeguarding, a new “digital broker”
31 has been put in place by actors in the sector, supported by the Flemish
32 Government in 2012: www.immaterieelerfgoed.be. The tool is designed as a
33 next step from the initial inventory for ICH¹⁹ in Flanders and other databases
34 that have inventoried parts of the ICH in Belgium. It's not only a tool for
35 inventorying ICH, its priority is the safeguarding of ICH: the exchange of
36 know-how, expertise on ICH, safeguarding measures and best practices
37 between professionals and heritage communities. It highlights the dynamic
38 and evolving nature of ICH. So www.immaterieelerfgoed.be is being put in

19 The scope of the platform is ICH in Flanders and goes wider then ICH-practices enscribed on the Inventory of ICH in Flanders. The Flemish Government however revised its regulation regarding the Flemish Inventory for Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2013: the process of requests for adaption on the inventory and the annually follow-up report on the safeguarding progress is being digitalized and integrated in the database. Heritage communities are now invited to provide the requested information on the community, element and safeguarding process through the database.



7. A platform for ICH in Flanders, www.immaterieelerfgoed.be

1 place to give the ICH community, the ICH itself and the safeguarding measures
2 in Flanders visibility. It raises awareness and supports the formation of a
3 growing network of communities, organisations and individuals.

4 In keeping up with the definition of ICH, the central role of heritage
5 communities in safeguarding processes, and the Convention's emphasis on
6 prior and informed consent, the registration and documenting process in the
7 database is done by the communities themselves. Communities, groups and
8 individuals can register ICH, link the phenomenon to a heritage community
9 and a set of safeguarding measures. Professionals can register and highlight
10 their broader programs for safeguarding ICH. They are supported in this
11 process, technically and concerning content/safeguarding process by the
12 professional network of heritage organizations. Search and filter functions on
13 each page help direct the search for inspiring and sought-after information.

14 Together with the (human) moderator of the platform, each of the
15 organizations mentioned above also takes on an engagement towards the
16 digital platform for ICH in Flanders. They support heritage communities in
17 submitting information for the database. The website also has a forum to
18 exchange practices, knowledge and expertise. In the coming years the technical
19 design will be upgraded, the forum will be further developed and stimulated,
20 communication and awareness-raising actions will be set-up, the relation
21 to other databases already in place will be investigated ... So challenges and
22 brokerage work still lie ahead.

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The Role of NGOs in Preserving and Promoting Intangible Cultural Heritage in Uganda

The Cross-Cultural Foundation of Uganda

1 Uganda, once called the “Pearl of Africa” by Winston Churchill, straddles the
2 equator and has significant cultural and natural heritage resources. With a
3 population of about 34 million people, Uganda has 65 ethnic groups and 45
4 officially recognized languages¹ and has been distinguished as one of the most
5 culturally diverse countries in the world. It is also one of the youngest countries
6 in the world with the youth constituting about 50% of the population. Uganda’s
7 national diversity present immense wealth of knowledge and skills derived
8 from the different customs, values, principles, social systems and practices,
9 and worldviews. Its natural diversity in respect to landscapes, flora and fauna,
10 and favorable climate make Uganda one of the world’s tourism destinations.

11 To understand why such immense potential is not sufficiently harnessed,
12 it is necessary to reflect on the some historical factors and contextual issues
13 that affect efforts to promote and preserve intangible cultural heritage. The
14 influence of conventional religions in Uganda have had a significant impact
15 on the local perceptions of the value of culture and general skepticism about
16 its relevance in addressing contemporary development concerns. Traditional
17 beliefs and practices which form the foundation of local cultures were to a
18 large extent, perceived as pagan and satanic. The perception that culture is
19 negative and irrelevant was reinforced by an education system which, until
20 recently, also dismissed culture as irrelevant to contemporary development
21 concerns. Formal education and the written word in English were, and are
22 still often glorified without question. As such oral traditions which constitute
23 much of Uganda’s intangible cultural heritage are still largely underdeveloped
24 – to be replaced by new wisdom derived from academic achievements.

25 During the colonial era, a quest for modernization informed by western
26 ideologies and interests took center stage. Some of the laws established by
27 the colonial administration further reinforced an aversion for indigenous
28 knowledge and practices, for instance, traditional spirituality termed as
29 witchcraft have remained on the statute book, contributing to the perception
30 that local culture is evil, primitive and therefore unlawful (e.g. Anti-witchcraft
31 Act). Too often the definition of culture is limited to traditional rituals and
32 practices, especially to those that are considered oppressive and negative, such

1 The 1995 Constitution of the Republic of Uganda.

1 as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), widow cleansing, and wife sharing to
2 mention a few. There is hardly any mention of positive aspects of culture in
3 respect to values, principles of community labour and solidarity, the spirit of
4 communal responsibility and accountability, conflict resolution, and the value
5 of chastity (and general abstinence from sexual activity by the youth before
6 marriage) which were often manifested in social practices and rituals.

7 The post-independence governments of Uganda continued to give low
8 priority to the development of culture, evident in the very low budgetary
9 allocation and investment in heritage development and promotion. With the
10 abolition of traditional institutions in 1966, traditional practices including
11 non-formal heritage education were subdued. As a result the development
12 of oral traditions and indigenous knowledge and skills expressed through
13 creative narration of history, artistic skills, cultural practices, expressions,
14 drama and innovation based on traditional knowledge and skills has been very
15 slow and minimal. Although the traditional institutions were restored in the
16 1995 Constitution, the heritage development trends had been distorted and
17 many institutions are still struggling to restore a connection between the past
18 and the present.

19 This is compounded by the fact that a little less than one third of the
20 Ugandan population lives in extreme poverty (less than 1 dollar a day).
21 Productive energies tend to be geared towards basic needs such as food,
22 medical care, shelter and security. Developing cultural human potential
23 through experimentation of local innovative thinking, science and technology
24 is thus perceived as secondary. While cultural heritage presents a potential
25 source of livelihood if harnessed, this has to be accompanied by concerted
26 effort to learn about the value of heritage, build the capacity to devise effective
27 means to safeguard intangible and tangible heritage and link it to sustainable
28 development. Currently there are very limited avenues through which the
29 younger generation, who are increasingly becoming the majority in Uganda,
30 can learn to appreciate cultural heritage. They are not only the future custodians
31 of our heritage but are also future decision makers on how or whether cultural
32 heritage will be preserved and promoted.

33 **Legal framework for the promotion and preservation of culture**

34 There are however some efforts made by the Government of Uganda to provide
35 for the protection and promotion of cultural heritage. The 1995 Constitution
36 enshrines a *right to culture* and stipulates that “*Every person has a right to belong to,*
37 *enjoy, practice, profess, maintain and promote any culture, cultural institution, language,*
38 *tradition, creed or religion in community with others.*” This coupled with the 2006
39 National Cultural Policy, among other policies, provide the framework within
40 which various actors in the culture sector operate, however with limited
41 resources and technical support the achievements of the objectives of these
42 instruments is slow.

43 The ratification of the 2003 UNESCO Convention on the Safeguarding of the
44 Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2009, provides a valuable opportunity not only
45 to emphasize the importance of cultural heritage at international and national

1 levels but also to provide guidance on how heritage can be safeguarded.
2 Thus examples of elements that have been inscribed on the urgent list for
3 safeguarding (such as bark cloth from central Uganda; oral tradition of the
4 royal trumpets of the Basoga – the *Bigwala*, and a traditional naming practice
5 in western Uganda called the *Empaako* are eye openers for communities to
6 rigorously identify, assess and inventory their heritage. This also serves as an
7 important avenue for community learning and capacity building as well as a
8 point of reference for heritage education.

9 Appreciating the need to preserve heritage, a growing number of NGOs
10 in Uganda have taken the initiative to promote different aspects of cultural
11 heritage through the development of local languages, promotion of the creative
12 arts (visual and performing), heritage education (in school clubs as well as
13 a holiday programme), production of literature, cultural tourism, support
14 to collection and exhibition of artifacts through community museums,
15 traditional dances, cultural festivals and galas, research and documentation,
16 and cultural cooperation, among others.

17 **The Cross-Cultural Foundation of Uganda: Promoting heritage** 18 **education**

19 In a bid to counter the negative attitudes towards culture and nurture an
20 appreciation of heritage as a resource, the Cross-Cultural Foundation of
21 Uganda (CCFU)², has documented a number of case studies to illustrate the
22 relevance of culture (e.g. traditional knowledge, social and governance systems
23 etc.) in development. The knowledge generated is used a point of reference in
24 capacity building initiatives. Recognizing the important role the youth have
25 in preserving intangible cultural heritage, the Foundation embarked on a
26 heritage education programme that is currently operational in 60 secondary
27 schools across the country.

28 The overall objective of this programme is to enhance the recognition of
29 the importance of heritage in Uganda's current development context. This is
30 done by enhancing teachers' skills and knowledge, promoting the development
31 of the cultural heritage resources in the vicinity of schools; supporting
32 community museums and their outreach activities and raising the profile of
33 heritage nationally through a nationwide competition.

34 Teachers of the selected secondary schools are trained using a heritage
35 education kit and equipped with materials to support heritage clubs. Refreshers
36 courses are also organized to update the information provided and get
37 feedback on the relevance of the material in the kit. The Foundation has linked
38 these secondary schools to 12 community museums in the country through
39 which the youth can meet cultural resource persons, gain exposure to cultural
40 information, provide voluntary services, sell their art and crafts products and
41 learn to appreciate cultural diversity. Some museums that promote living
42 culture also train the youth in traditional music and dance.

2 The Cross-Cultural Foundation of Uganda is a national NGO dedicated to promoting the recognition of culture as vital for human development that reflects Uganda's cultural diversity and identity.

1 To increase the involvement of youth across the country in appreciating
2 heritage, CCFU holds an annual heritage competition. The youth are guided
3 by an annual theme to illustrate their understanding of heritage through
4 drawings, creative writing – poetry, short stories, and proverbs. The best 12
5 entries, as determined by an independent jury, are used to develop a heritage
6 calendar, which is launched and distributed widely. In addition, the Foundation
7 provides communication outputs including a “heritage passport’ for heritage
8 club members.

9 To ensure sustainability of this intervention, CCFU has approached the
10 National Curriculum Development Centre to advocate for the integration
11 of cultural heritage in the national secondary school curriculum, which is
12 currently under review. This process involved presenting content on cultural
13 heritage to representatives of the relevant learning areas and developing
14 relevant resource materials as teaching aids. The content is yet trial tested and
15 revised for incorporation in the curriculum. CCFU is at the last stages of this
16 process.

17 As an accredited NGO under the 2003 UNESCO Convention, the Foundation
18 has acquired enhanced knowledge about ICH and has incorporated elements
19 of it in the heritage education kit. In addition, using inscribed ICH elements
20 in its resource materials has been another way to publicize the elements as
21 well as encourage communities to explore opportunities to safeguard their
22 intangible cultural heritage. At a recent conference co-organised by CCFU
23 and the International National Trust Organisation, two of the inscribed ICH
24 elements (bark cloth and the royal trumpets) were included on learning
25 journeys programme to be visited by for 150 international heritage experts.
26 As an accredited NGO, CCFU also provides technical support and guidance in
27 inventorying and the nomination process, when requested.

28 **Prospects for ICH NGOs’ activities**

29 At national level, the impending integration of culture in the national
30 curriculum will enhance accessibility to knowledge and skills in heritage
31 appreciation in secondary schools. In addition, the implementation of a
32 national thematic curriculum which promotes the use of local languages as
33 the medium for instruction in lower primary is another way through which
34 language, the conduit for transmitting intangible cultural heritage may be
35 preserved. There is an increasing emergence of community museums across
36 the country, which indicates the potential of new and widespread references
37 for learning, research and cultural tourism. In addition, Makerere University
38 Kampala, one of the oldest institutions of higher learning in Uganda has
39 developed the concept of Orature (the study of African oral literature) and by
40 so doing has contributed to the promotion of literature and creative writing in
41 tertiary institutions.

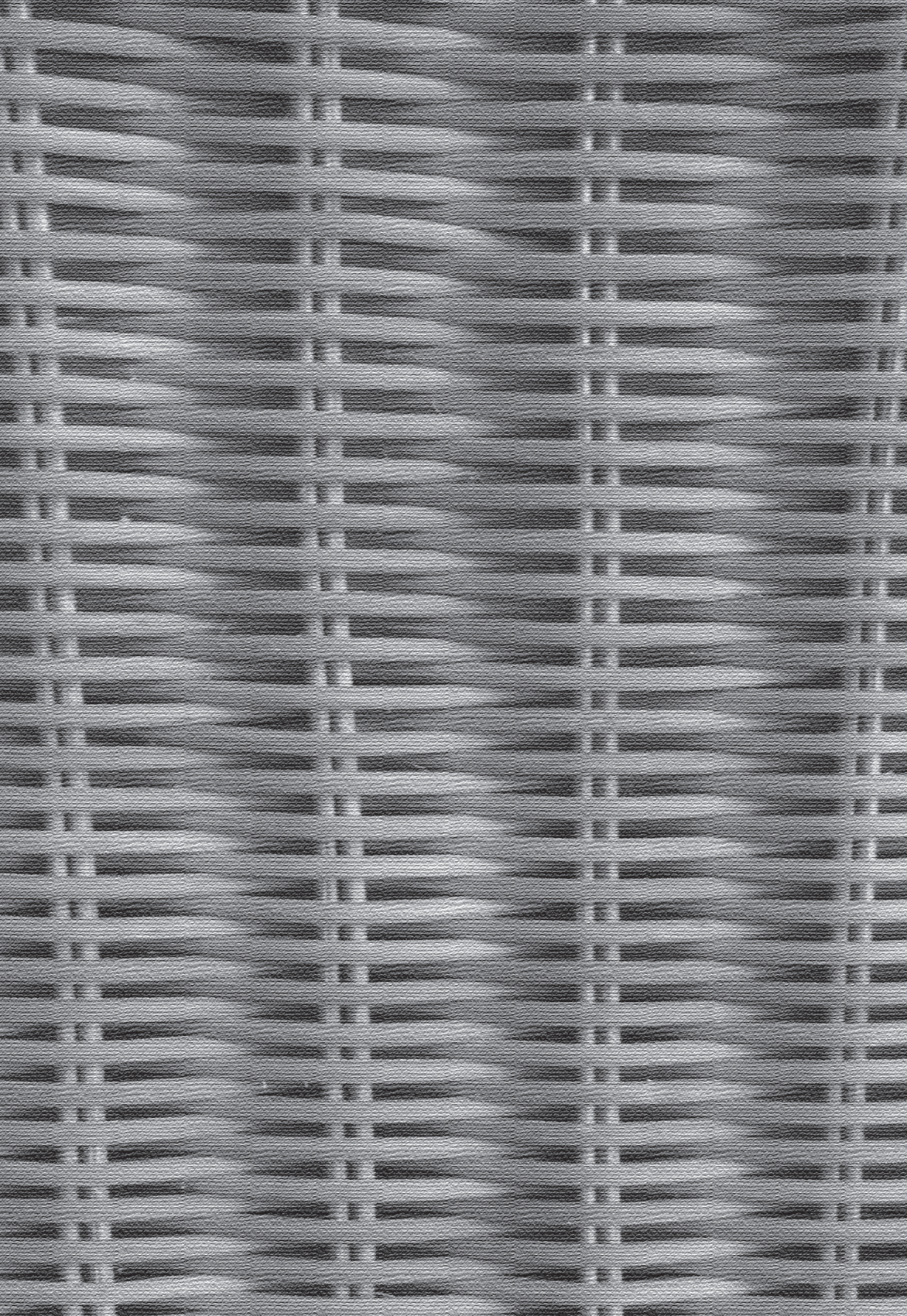
42 In Uganda efforts have been made to forge partners to promote cultures
43 across the globe. Cultural cooperation between Uganda and the European
44 Union, China, Germany, Britain, France and Korea through the Uganda-
45 Korea Cultural Friendship Association provides opportunities for exchanges

1 and study visits, joint festivals and exhibitions which foster respect, support
2 learning and an appreciation of cultural diversity especially for the youth who
3 not only need to understand and embrace their own heritage but also learn to
4 appreciate and respect other cultures within and outside Uganda.

5 In the East African region and beyond there are other NGOs such as Arterial
6 Network, Bayimba Cultural Foundation, Centre for Heritage Development in
7 Africa, AFRICOM – International Council of African Museums, Culture and
8 Development East Africa (CDEA) among others play that play an important
9 role by providing platforms for information and experience sharing, technical
10 support and resource mobilization, and culturally rooted talent development.
11 In the absence of National Trusts or heritage authorities in these countries,
12 most NGOs tend to operate individually. It is only recently that efforts have
13 been made to hold joint initiatives such as exhibitions, annual cultural festivals
14 and heritage conferences that provide opportunities for forging partnerships
15 on intangible and tangible cultural heritage in the region.

16 In conclusion, despite the challenges that the culture sector in Uganda
17 faces, conducive national and international policy frameworks provide the
18 necessary political support to preserve, develop and promote intangible
19 cultural heritage. If sustained, heritage education on a national scale has
20 potentially far reaching effects, not only in respect to enhanced knowledge
21 on intangible cultural heritage but also to foster respect and appreciation of
22 cultural diversity – a necessity in a country as diverse as Uganda.

23 With the increasing number of heritage focused NGOs and community
24 museums, the competence to support heritage development initiatives is
25 growing. International and regional heritage networks and associations also
26 offer the much needed expertise and professionalism to harness cultural
27 heritage resources for posterity and sustainable development. Partnerships
28 and cultural cooperation with NGOs and other like-minded institutions within
29 and outside the Uganda present valuable experiences from which lessons may
30 be drawn, home grown models for heritage development produced and best
31 practices publicized. Notably however these prospects would have greater
32 impact if a deliberate effort is made to coordinate interventions in the culture
33 sector nationally, regionally and internationally.



Projects of Heritage Communities as New Challenges for Anthropologists

Italian Perspectives on Safeguarding Intangible Cultural Heritage, Mediation and Cultural Brokerage

1 The 2003 UNESCO Convention for the safeguarding of the intangible
2 cultural heritage has stimulated discussions in many countries. In Italy, the
3 new, methods and ideas have created debates in the cluster of demo-ethno-
4 anthropological disciplines. In the First ICH-Researchers Forum in Paris
5 (3 June 2012), the metaphors of “bridges”, “brokers”, “intermediaries” and also
6 “compromises” were used. I proposed these concepts that were circulated in
7 the international networks of the new UNESCO safeguarding paradigm in the
8 meetings and forums of colleagues in Italy. It should be clear that they were
9 not embraced by all stakeholders and scholars, but that several networks did
10 try to work in that direction in 2013 and 2014 and that debates and experiments
11 in the field of anthropology are continuing. There is potential that similar
12 methods, roles and considerations will influence the official heritage policy,
13 institutional procedures and other aspects of the implementation of the 2003
14 Convention.
15

16 In order to understand this and to contribute to an international discussion
17 about mediation and the changing role of researchers, I will reflect about these
18 discussions and return to relevant debates in Italy that already started in the
19 1990s. First we should go back to an important conference in Tours in December
20 1993, “Ethnologie et patrimoine en Europe. Identité et appartenances du local
21 au supranational”, which provoked a whole series of comparative reflection
22 about evolutions and challenges in Italy and France. On the basis of the Tours
23 colloquium, Daniel Fabre edited the volume *Europe entre Culture et nations*.
24 This book is still useful to understand aspects of the recent evolutions of and
25 discussions about the paradigm of safeguarding intangible cultural heritage in
26 Italy and in other countries.¹
27

1 D. Fabre, «'Ethnologie et patrimoine en Europe'. Conclusions et perspectives du colloque de Tours», *Terrain* 22, 1994, p. 145-150; D. Fabre, *L'Europe entre cultures et nations: actes du colloque de Tours, décembre 1993*. Paris, 1996.

1 **Demo-ethno-anthropological disciplines, small museums and** 2 **ethnological heritages**

3 Fabre's volume contains an important paper by Pietro Clemente who
4 questioned, in 1993, the weak position of ethnological heritages ("patrimoni
5 etnologici") in relation to official heritage policy, the "cultural goods" ("beni
6 culturali") that the state officially wanted to transmit to future generations.
7 How was it possible that the official heritage system in Italy did not include "les
8 activités et les produits, actuels ou passés, liés aux cultures locales et au labeur
9 quotidien des gens ordinaires. Il existe pourtant une muséographie spontanée
10 des objets du monde rural et une prise de conscience assez large de la valeur
11 des cultures traditionnelles et locales, accompagnée de fortes retombées, y
12 compris sur le plan touristique?"² Local museums working on these themes
13 and awareness among several local stakeholders about the importance of
14 traditional culture, including the potential for tourism, were present but not
15 really part of official policy and procedures. Clemente pointed at the lack of
16 competences in ethnology in Italian heritage institutions in and before the
17 1990s and argued for a policy that would include the expertise of "démoe-
18 thno-anthropologues" in Italy in the future. He reflected on the challenge
19 to identify and safeguard the phenomena that anthropologists were dealing
20 with, in a system of "cultural goods" and national heritage. The protagonists
21 of the demo-ethno-anthropological disciplines (A. Cirese, P. Clemente ...) also
22 emphasized the potential and the strong vitality of civil society. In connection
23 with associations, small museums and anthropologists, this could be an
24 interesting base to build an alternative policy.

25 Clemente proposed to experiment with the concept of multiform research
26 ("*recherche multiforme*"). He mobilized a vocabulary of mixing, translation, and
27 negotiation, balancing between scientific research and political, administrative
28 and social constraints: *mutatis mutandis* processes and skills that seem
29 compatible to the brokerage discourse that is presented in other contributions
30 in this issue of *Volkskunde*. He creatively combined ideas and metaphors of
31 Claude Lévi Strauss, Italo Calvino (*Lezioni americane. Sei proposte per il prossimo*
32 *millennio*. Milano, 1988) and the 1989 Recommendation on the Safeguarding of
33 Traditional Culture and Folklore of UNESCO. He reflected about an alternative
34 epistemological model for local (and) heritage research, by reactivating and
35 appropriating old anthropological traditions (e.g. in the work of Franz Boas)
36 that had been abandoned but were oriented on safeguarding cultural diversity.
37 He also devoted attention to museums as a starting point to think about the
38 conditions and typologies of empirical research, including a dialogue with
39 communities. This was inspired by the American scholarly literature, by James
40 Clifford, Michael Ames, G. Stocking, and others. It referred to "contractual"
41 processes of knowledge (Ames, Karp, Lavine...) and the concept of "local

2 P. Clemente, 'Biens culturels sans culture: le patrimoine ethnologique italien', in: Fabre, *Europe*, p. 53- 62, p. 63 and the special issue. "Italia. Regards d'anthropologues italiens", *Ethnologie française* 24:3, 1994 ; P. Clemente, 'Anthropologie et histoire? Une approche quasi autobiographique', *Ethnologie française* 24, 1994, p. 566-585.

1 knowledge” (Geertz 1983). All this suggested a program of reflexive dialogue,
2 with an eye for complexity, power and transformation processes and what
3 role the community and the researchers themselves played in this. In his 1993
4 contribution, he also emphasized the importance to consider the historical
5 contexts of these processes, and the relation between “migration”, (an often
6 weak) “national identity”, the notion of local “petites patries” and the Italian
7 ecosystem of museums, that consist to a large extent in small local museums
8 (created between 1960 and 1990), initiatives that represent a preindustrial rural
9 or artisanal past. It can be expected that the emergence and global proliferation
10 of a new UNESCO paradigm of safeguarding intangible cultural heritage could
11 be a “game changer”, but nevertheless the heritage and experiences in the last
12 decades of the 20th century should not be forgotten but included.

13 **The official inventorying files Italian Style: far from the spirit of** 14 **the 2003 Convention?**

15 After the ratification by Italy in 2007 of the 2003 UNESCO Convention
16 for the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage, the Central Institute
17 for Cataloguing made a direct link between the procedure of making a
18 national inventory of heritage and the process of submitting candidatures
19 for the lists of UNESCO. They imposed a scientific approach that had to go
20 via the obligatory passage point of cataloguing a “fiche BDI”. It is based on
21 the expertise of the “demo-etno-antropologo”, but integrated in a system
22 of cultural goods. This produces “objets-patrimoine”, or “bene” that has
23 characteristics that only an expert or researcher can know and recognize. Here
24 the phenomena of intangible cultural heritage was entering a world of cultural
25 goods dominated by the discourses and practices of art historians, architects
26 and archaeologists. This national system of “bene culturali” is oriented on
27 conservation and the care (“tutela”) is not focused in its methods and objectives
28 on the participation of communities or groups, but on the expertise of the
29 researcher. The anthropologists in charge, in the institutions like the Central
30 Institute for Cataloguing, of establishing inventories, consider that the classic
31 methods of ethnographic surveying via participant observation are sufficient.
32 However local politicians and civil society reacted in unforeseen ways, as
33 the 2003 Convention generated a wave of candidatures and proposals for the
34 representative list (article 16) and activated the procedures. At the same time
35 there was a questioning of the imposition of a specific type of researcher or
36 expert, considered as a kind of abuse of power by the State. It is as if the small
37 fatherlands (“petites patries”) each wanted to claim the right of recognition of
38 their “intangible heritage”, destabilizing the role of researchers and increasing
39 the conflicts of points of view.

40 On the other hand, anthropologists have made it clear that they are
41 uncomfortable with what they consider to be a competitive system, a race
42 between potential stars, using the national system of inventorying and
43 cataloguing in order to obtain an international label. The cataloguing
44 anthropologists live a “double malaise”: double trouble. On the one hand,
45 they have to use a tool that is not really participatory: expert participatory

1 observation is not enough. On the other hand, they have to participate in a race
2 for the recognition of local identities and cultural items, that are compared
3 with objects, easily ignoring the living, contextual and relational nature.
4 The pressure is rising; the 2003 Convention fever is proliferating. The 2003
5 UNESCO Convention has encouraged and galvanized many actors in local
6 cultural life to mobilize around traditions. The candidature could be seen as
7 a way to inscribe the local community in a global setting, even as a tool for
8 touristic and economic development.

9 But this potential is also criticized as a way of selling culture, as a way
10 of turning the items described in the candidature files or the records into
11 commodities, items for the (mass) tourism market. In the scholarly and other
12 networks, there are critical voices that reject the 2003 UNESCO Convention
13 and the resulting policies as interventions that go too far, even suggesting
14 that it is part of “the dark side of colonial power”. UNESCO is sometimes
15 reduced to a caricature as a synthesis of a global power system and the 2003
16 Convention seems as an instrument in the hand of political elites. Some see
17 it as an instrument for conservatism or as a tool for fixing communities,
18 groups and their culture in a matrix of authenticity labels. There are many
19 misunderstandings circulating about the UNESCO paradigm, but of course
20 critical analysis is always needed.

21 **Work in progress and ongoing debates**

22 These perceptions and interpretations have provoked tensions and a critical
23 distance between researchers in social sciences and actors involved in national
24 and local policy. All these perceptions, distances and misunderstandings
25 do not make it easy for researchers close to heritage communities that want
26 to work for the safeguarding of intangible cultural heritage. A number of
27 anthropologists (like Broccolini), specializing in the making of the BDI-MODI
28 catalogue entries, denounce the problems for communities to participate
29 in the process. They argue for more action-research and mediation but also
30 for a better knowledge of international instruments where a dialogue with
31 communities and groups is vital. Due to the participation in the work of the
32 Intergovernmental Committee and the increasing influence of the “scène
33 globale des politiques du patrimoine” (Arantes), alternative visions and
34 discourses are circulating.

35 Since 2009 SIMBDEA (www.simbdea.it) participates in these international
36 networks, as an observer of the official meetings of the Intergovernmental
37 Committee and as active participant in the ICH-NGO-forum and other
38 meetings and networks of accredited NGOs. These experiences have injected
39 input in the debate in Italy, in conferences and in publications, demonstrated
40 by a special issue in 2011 of the journal *AM*, devoted to the safeguarding of
41 intangible heritage paradigm and UNESCO.

42 In 2012 a special working group SIMBDEA-ICH was founded. The
43 participating researchers wish to keep their distance from overemphasizing
44 the listing system and candidatures for the representative list. They wish to
45 cultivate the spirit of the 2003 Convention and to invest in safeguarding plans,

1 identifying good or best practices, multinational candidatures, constructing
2 and developing networks and places devoted to intercultural dialogue.
3 They also want to spread and stimulate a better knowledge of international
4 conventions and the connections between those texts (like the 2005 Faro
5 Convention or the 2003 UNESCO Convention) and to explore the links between
6 culture, society and laws.

7 In the months preceding the meeting in Brussels in November 2013
8 about “ICH-brokers, facilitators and mediators- Critical success factors for
9 the safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage”, several conferences and
10 meetings in Italy dealt with compatible themes related to safeguarding
11 intangible cultural heritage. In January 2013, a seminar in Milano tried to
12 assess a number of consequences and challenges for researchers. Here the
13 case of what is happening in Venice: the joint collaboration of legal experts
14 and anthropologists tried to find solutions and methods for safeguarding
15 the arts and crafts of the Laguna. They tried to find a solution via the Faro
16 Convention on the Value of Cultural Heritage for Society (2005), by translating
17 and appropriating it. It offered inspiration and languages to cultivate a
18 “heritage community” in Venice, in a “Venetian community”, combined with
19 the right of a cultural identity of its communities in plural. It also called
20 for a register for the identification and monitoring of heritage items. The
21 discussions tried to steer away from attempts for individual candidatures
22 for each craft or practice and to think in terms of a bigger safeguarding plan
23 and aspiration for the register of good practices, as foreseen in article 18
24 of the 2003 UNESCO Convention. The platform was an assemblage of legal
25 experts, anthropologists, cultural economists, and associations of the crafts of
26 making gondolas, Murano glass or lace, political and administrative actors. It
27 provided quite a challenge for mediators and brokers, and a lot of work behind
28 the screens to get such a diverse crowd working together and to try to make
29 progress. Another example is Cocollo, a small local community that is working
30 with local politicians and tries to mobilize around local festive cultures and
31 customs. Here we see the same pattern. They mobilized also outside actors,
32 like academic anthropologists, SIMBDEA, students and other actors in order
33 to set up a regional project to create a participatory inventory for intangible
34 cultural heritage. Here the scholars and researchers take up a very active
35 role in the conception, mediation and negotiation of the project. The dream
36 or aspiration to go for recognition by UNESCO opened up many doors and
37 activated networks, including people that had migrated to other continents.
38 Even specialists like the Brazilian expert Antonio Arantes were invited to work
39 and think with the local actors and researchers. In October 2013 a seminar
40 about the Coculo case even got recognition by the Italian ministry of Culture.
41 They explored the potential of links between local economic development,
42 governance and culture. A working group decided to experiment with
43 methods for safeguarding, permanent monitoring and concerted management
44 of the feasts as resource. In a context of dialogue and networking with other
45 communities, including the people cultivating the cult of San Domenico Abate,
46 the patron-saint of the village, they opened a laboratory for documenting
in the spirit of the 2003 UNESCO Convention. Here the visit and advice of

1 Antonio Arantes, who visited Cocullo, had stimulated the wish to work on
2 audiovisual documentation and cultural communities. How could such a
3 project of documentation really be shared with many actors and stakeholders?
4 In Cocullo, with the local association Alfonso Di Nola (a reference to a scholar
5 and authority in popular religious culture), the experiment is actually taking
6 place. Thirdly the project of constructing a regional network in order to
7 make a regional register of intangible cultural heritage is trying to facilitate
8 participatory inventories. This project oriented towards participation is
9 conducted by researchers, a network of local museums, SIMBDEA, an agency
10 for local promotion (UNPLI, proloco), schools and universities. It is work in
11 progress but at least the 2003 UNESCO Convention has raised awareness and is
12 giving incentives to try and take the spirit of the Convention seriously. Several
13 protagonists of the phases in the 1990s, like Pietro Clemente, are interested
14 and have started up the dialogue and try to situate the activities in a long term
15 perspective on dealing with popular culture, “patrimoni etnologici” and the
16 paradigm of intangible cultural heritage.

REVIEW



1 **Marilena Alivizatou, *Intangible***
2 *Heritage and the Museum – New*
3 *Perspectives on Cultural Preservation.*
4 London 2012, 225 p.; ISBN: Paperback
5 978-1-61132-151-7

6 Intangible heritage is a hot topic
7 following the development of
8 UNESCO's Convention for the
9 Safeguarding of Intangible Heritage,
10 currently ratified by 161 countries.
11 Since the adoption of the Convention
12 in 2003, a decade filled with criticism
13 and praise has gone by and museums
14 and other cultural institutions have
15 increasingly integrated the intangible
16 into their practices.¹ Marilena
17 Alivizatou's *Intangible Heritage and*
18 *the Museum (2012)* is part of a wave of
19 *academic literature reflecting on this*
20 *trend. The book aims to provide a critical*
21 *examination of intangible heritage on a*
22 *conceptual as well as a practical level, by*
23 *conducting "a multi-sited fieldwork*
24 *research in order to investigate local*

1 negotiations of intangible heritage
2 in specific museums and heritage
3 institutions across the North and
4 South."²

5 Alivizatou starts her analysis of
6 intangible heritage in the sphere of
7 international preservation programs,
8 in particular focussing on UNESCO's
9 efforts for the safeguarding of
10 intangible heritage. UNESCO
11 conceptualizes intangible heritage
12 as living and constantly evolving in
13 response to changes in society. At
14 the same time, intangible heritage is
15 described in the 2003 Convention as
16 endangered by effects of globalization
17 and therefore in need of safeguarding.
18 Alivizatou argues that UNESCO
19 paradoxically aims to protect living
20 heritage from adapting to modern
21 times and risks decontextualization
22 and fossilization. At the heart of this
23 paradox is a question of authenticity,
24 which is never mentioned in
25 UNESCO's official documents but,
26 according to Alivizatou, can be read
27 between the lines. It is the idea that
28 intangible heritage is a manifestation
29 of an authentic past in the present,
30 which needs to be kept intact to keep
31 its value. "In a way, the UNESCO
32 approach implies that tradition and
33 modernity cannot go together, as
34 the latter impairs the authenticity
35 of the first."³ Ultimately, the author
36 concludes, UNESCO's efforts to
37

1 For an updated list of member states, see:
<http://www.unesco.org/culture/ich/index.php?lg=en&pg=00024>.

2 M. Alivizatou, *Intangible Heritage and the Museum. New Perspectives on Cultural Preservation*. California, 2012, p. 16.

3 *Ibidem*, p. 16.

1 safeguard intangible heritage are very
2 much in line with the conservative
3 paradigm of modern preservationism,
4 as developed in the late nineteenth
5 and the twentieth century.

6 Alivizatou proposes to move
7 beyond the idea of authenticity as an
8 inherent quality of heritage, which is
9 particularly problematic in the case
10 of the intangible, and suggests an
11 alternative framework based on the
12 concept of erasure. Inspired by Karl
13 Marx's creative destruction thesis,
14 she argues that erasure is not always a
15 threat to heritage but potentially a life-
16 force, in the sense that development
17 and innovation often alter or
18 destruct previous modes of (cultural)
19 productions. Following this line of
20 thought: "globalization is not a threat
21 to cultural distinctiveness, but rather
22 an opportunity for cross-cultural
23 innovation and fertilization."⁴ For the
24 author, this implies that continuity
25 and vitality of intangible heritage
26 can take place outside the context
27 of global preservation programs and
28 "through more fluid and unfixed
29 processes."⁵ Alivizatou provides an
30 interesting perspective on the 2003
31 Convention, which is generally
32 perceived as innovative and, at least
33 partly, breaking with UNESCO's
34 intellectual tradition. Before shifting
35 the focus of the book to museums,
36 however, I would have liked to see
37 Alivizatou stay on the subject a little
38 longer, to explore the various ways
39 in which countries have translated
40 the Convention into national
41 safeguarding policies and practices.
42 This would offer an opportunity to
43 compare governmental safeguarding

1 measures to museum practices and
2 would have enriched her examination
3 of intangible heritage.

4 Five case-studies are each given
5 their own chapter and make up
6 the body of the book. The point of
7 departure is that museums have
8 gone through a development from
9 reservoirs of material culture to social
10 spaces, or "contact zones" in James
11 Clifford's terminology, and via ideas of
12 the ecomuseum and new museology
13 are including communities into
14 museum work. Alivizatou regards
15 museums as microcultures with
16 each having its own particularities in
17 accordance with its history and socio-
18 political context. The case-studies are
19 systematically set up: each museum's
20 history of origin, exhibition concepts,
21 and permanent and temporary
22 exhibitions are reviewed, intertwined
23 with interviews with (former) staff
24 members. The thorough descriptions
25 of, for example, a museum's
26 architecture and exhibition design
27 give the reader the feeling of actually
28 walking around and experiencing its
29 microculture. A shared characteristic
30 of the selected museums is that they
31 were once established as holders
32 of anthropological collections,
33 with a close connection to colonial
34 projects, and that they have recently
35 reinvented themselves to cope with
36 the postcolonial reality of today.

37 The first three cases comprise the
38 National Museum of New Zealand
39 Te Papa Tongarewa (Te Papa), the
40 Vanuatu Cultural Centre (VCC) in
41 Melanesia and the National Museum
42 of the American Indian (NMAI) in
43 the USA. These museums are bound
44 up in similar political missions,
45 aiming to give voice to formerly
46 marginalized communities by
47 practicing participatory museology.

4 Ibidem, p. 47.

5 Ibidem, p. 47.

1 Engagement with members of ethnic,
2 diasporic, and indigenous groups
3 have led to major reconsiderations
4 of their key museum activities,
5 including collections care and
6 curation, exhibitions and public
7 engagement. By employing for
8 example tribal hosts (at Te Papa),
9 Maori elders as advisors (VCC), or
10 indigenous curators (NMAI), the
11 museums “strive to include tradition
12 bearers in their work and in this
13 process enable the expression of other
14 voices, opinions, and narratives.”⁶
15 In this new museological work,
16 performances have gained a central
17 role. In all five museums examined
18 by Alivizatou, a performance space
19 is equipped to stage festivals,
20 celebrations, spectacles and other
21 forms of living culture. Participatory
22 museology also adds a dimension to
23 the role of the institute as a cultural
24 broker. The museum acts not only
25 as a broker between the collection
26 and society, but also between the
27 collection and the practitioners. For
28 Ahwina Tamarapa, curator at Te Papa,
29 her work was therefore all about
30 reconnecting indigenous people
31 with objects, rather than “leaving our
32 taonga lying in the dark storeroom.”⁷
33 This was accomplished by producing
34 story- or concept-driven exhibitions,
35 rooted in a holistic view on the
36 tangible and intangible.

37 The fourth and fifth cases differ
38 from the previous case-studies
39 geographically, they are both located
40 in Europe: not in a formerly colonized
41 country but in the colonizer’s,

1 resulting in a large distance between
2 collections and source communities.
3 These case-studies consist of the
4 Horniman Museum in England and
5 Musée Quai Branly in France, which
6 are both trying to integrate the
7 intangible in their museum practice,
8 but mostly in addition to mainstream
9 and object centered practices. In the
10 European context, intangible heritage
11 seems to be secondary to the primary
12 concern of the museums, namely
13 the material collection. Community
14 involvement, cultural performances,
15 and events are taking place in the
16 museums, but complementary to
17 the material collections and planned
18 exhibitions. In contrast to Te Papa,
19 NMAI and VCC, the voices of the
20 people behind the objects are left
21 out, and a strict distinction remains
22 between the tangible and intangible.
23 Although conceptualized as zones of
24 dialogue, a scientific voice dominates
25 the narratives. The Horniman and
26 Quai Branly function as cultural
27 brokers as well, but with the main task
28 of translating the meanings of the
29 objects to the audiences. Restricted
30 by historical complexities and socio-
31 political contexts, the participatory
32 model has not developed into a
33 determining factor in these museums
34 (yet).

35 In the final chapter of the book,
36 Alivizatou states that a focus on
37 change instead of origins, gives
38 museums and other cultural
39 institutions the opportunity to
40 retain the message of the past while
41 actively engaging with the reality
42 of the present. To accomplish this,
43 involving related communities is
44 essential. The participatory model
45 for museum practice has emerged
46 hand in hand with the introduction
47 of intangible heritage, however, this

6 Ibidem, p. 191.

7 Ibidem, p. 68. “Taonga” is the Maori word for communally valued treasures, comprising not only historic artifacts, but also people, traditional knowledge, and practices.

1 model is far from fully crystallized
2 and there remain many questions to
3 answer. One of the questions the book
4 poses is how (source) communities
5 can be involved in the museum
6 practice, and the case-studies
7 provide several possible options to
8 consider. However, a fundamental
9 blind spot is situated in the absence
10 of problematizing the concept of
11 communities itself. Talking about
12 (source) communities may suggest
13 that these are homogenous and well-
14 defined groups of people, distinct
15 from the rest of society and lost in
16 time. Instead, Birgit Meyer suggested
17 the use of the term “formations”,
18 underscoring the temporality of
19 groups of people.⁸ In a similar tone,
20 Hester Dibbits proposed to talk about
21 “networks”, which acknowledges the
22 open and dynamic characteristics.⁹
23 Alivizatou does mention how source
24 communities have adapted to modern
25 times, but an opening remark about
26 the concept of communities would
27 have been welcome.

28 In conclusion, although limited to
29 a conceptual level, Alivizatou offers a
30 refreshing perspective on UNESCO’s
31 intangible heritage Convention
32 and makes a compelling argument
33 for revisiting global preservation
34 programs and starting to think about
35 intangible heritage locally. Not as
36 a tool to emphasize roots, but as a
37 possibility to reconnect the peoples
38 with the objects, to revive living
39 culture, with the reinvented museum
40 as a cultural broker. Moreover, the

book succeeds in providing an
inspiring insight in the practice of
post-colonial museums around the
world and their changing roles in
society.

Ramon de la Combé

8 B. Meyer, *Aesthetic formations. Media, religion, and the senses*. Basingstoke, 2010.

9 H. Dibbits, “De ontwikkeling van een gevoel voor tijd. Over netwerken, makelaars en de overheid”, *Boekman 96, Erfgoed: van wie, voor wie?*, 2013, p. 77.

SUMMARIES

1 **Culturele makelaardij, omgaan met**
2 **grenzen en het nieuwe paradigma**
3 **van het borgen van immaterieel**
4 **cultureel erfgoed**
5 Volkskunde, UNESCO en
6 transdisciplinaire perspectieven

7 In dit artikel wordt de vraag gesteld
8 welke onderdelen uit het repertoire
9 van de al dan niet “toegepaste” of
10 “publieke vormen” van volkskunde
11 uit de vorige eeuw actief kunnen
12 aangewend worden in het nieuwe,
13 21^{ste}-eeuwse paradigma van het
14 “borgen van immaterieel erfgoed”.
15 Hierbij wordt speciale aandacht
16 gegeven aan ontwikkelingen in de
17 Verenigde Staten op het einde van
18 de 20^{ste} eeuw, met name via een
19 themanummer (en een vervolgartikel
20 van Barbara Kirshenblatt-Gimblett)
21 van het *Journal of Folklore Research*
22 uit 1999 waarin het begrip “cultural
23 brokerage”, culturele makelaardij
24 dus, naar voor geschoven wordt
25 als sleutelbegrip. Dat wordt als
26 aanknopingspunt gebruikt om de
27 stromingen van de zogenaamde
28 “public folklore” in de Verenigde Staten
29 te presenteren. Dat is een moeilijk
30 naar het Nederlands vertaalbaar
31 begrip dat het midden houdt tussen
32 volkskundig onderzoek, omgang met
33 volkscultuur, publieksgeschiedenis en
34 erfgoedwerk. In het halve decennium
35 vóór 2003 speelden de Amerikaanse
36 protagonisten (zoals Richard Kurin)
37 die met culturele makelaardij aan de
38 slag waren, een belangrijke rol in de
39 discussies die geleid hebben tot de
40 UNESCO-Conventie van 2003. Ook

in Vlaanderen en Nederland werd
er in die periode op doorgewerkt en
gediscussieerd over volkscultuur en
het borgen van immaterieel cultureel
erfgoed. In de voorbije jaren, door het
niet ratificeren van de Conventie en
zeker na het inhouden van de bijdrage
van de Verenigde Staten aan UNESCO
na de erkenning van Palestina, werd de
wisselwerking tussen de Amerikaanse
public folklore en het paradigma van
immaterieel cultureel erfgoed minder
sterk, wat niet wegneemt dat de
ervaringen nog steeds relevant zijn.
De nieuwe transdisciplinaire benade-
ring van de kritische erfgoedstudies
kan goede diensten bewijzen om
allerlei methodes en disciplines
te combineren en vooruitgang te
boeken.

Naar een beter begrip van de rol van niet-gouvernementele organisaties (NGOs) als culturele makelaars

Een kritische bespreking van
benaderingswijzen

De rol van niet-gouvernementele
organisaties (NGOs) als culturele tus-
senpersonen is van belang geworden
in steeds meer gebieden. Sinds de
jaren 1980, toen de NGOs voor het
eerst werden geconceptualiseerd
als “bridging organisations”, was er
aandacht voor het idee dat NGOs
in het proces van sociale en eco-
nomische ontwikkeling een inter-
mediaire rol kunnen spelen tussen
gemeenschappen en beleidsmakers en

1	andere actoren. Meer recent hebben	verricht over postkoloniaal Afrika en	1
2	theorieën uit de actorgeoriënteerde	nagaat hoe lokale en internationale	2
3	sociologie en concepten van make-	ontwikkelingsmakelaars (“courtiers	3
4	laardij en vertaling gezorgd voor	en développement”) ervoor trachten	4
5	nieuwe ideeën over de rol die NGOs	te zorgen dat hulpmiddelen vanuit	5
6	kunnen spelen in het bemiddelen	rijke donors in de richting van	6
7	van kennis, representatie en actie	Afrikaanse actoren vloeien, vaak	7
8	op het gebied van cultuur. Dit paper	door het op een bepaalde manier	8
9	onderzoekt in het kort deze trends	vertellen en vertalen van bepaalde	9
10	en bespreekt de implicaties voor de	ontwikkelingsverhalen en het	10
11	erfgoedsector.	activeren van netwerken. Anderzijds	11
		is er de school die in de Britse (en	12
		Nederlandse) antropologie en andere	13
		sociale wetenschappen is gegroeid	14
		rond het oeuvre van David Mosse	15
		en David Lewis. Zij onderzochten en	16
		becommentarieerden zeer kritisch	17
		ontwikkelingsplannen en -hulp en	18
		vooral ook de rol die niet-gouver-	19
		nementele organisaties voor ont-	20
		wikkelingssamenwerking speelden.	21
		Tevens benadrukten ze de combinatie	22
		tussen bemiddeling en vormen van	23
		vertaling (zoals dat begrip in de	24
		translatiesociologie wordt gebruikt).	25
		Dit is bruikbaar bij het analyseren	26
		van recente ontwikkelingen van	27
		“global-politique”, een begrip dat	28
		door Marc Abélès werd gelanceerd	29
		en dat zowel wijst op “beleid” als	30
		internationale politieke en diplo-	31
		matieke onderhandelingen. Om te	32
		begrijpen wat er tegenwoordig in die	33
		internationale contactzones gebeurt,	34
		zowel in de UNESCO-wereld (in	35
		het bijzonder bij het uitwerken van	36
		de UNESCO-Conventie van 2003	37
		over het borgen van immaterieel	38
		cultureel erfgoed) als in de wereld	39
		van de ontwikkelingshulp, komt	40
		het begrip makelaardij van pas. Als	41
		men terugkijkt in de tijd, zowel in	42
		postkoloniale, koloniale als zelfs	43
		in pre-koloniale tijden, blijkt het	44
		begrip “broker” of intermediair	45
		goede diensten te bewijzen om te	46
		duiden hoe intercultureel contact	47
12	Ontwikkelingsmakelaardij,		
13	antropologie en publieke actie		
14	Lokaal versterken, internationaal		
15	samenwerken en ontwikkelingshulp:		
16	het borgen van immaterieel cultureel		
17	erfgoed		
18	Hier wordt betoogd dat makelaardij		
19	een ontbrekende schakel is om ener-		
20	zijds het borgen van immaterieel		
21	cultureel erfgoed zoals dat door de		
22	UNESCO-Conventie van 2003 op de		
23	ationale en internationale beleids-		
24	agenda’s is gezet en anderzijds ont-		
25	wikkelingssamenwerking en samen-		
26	werkingsontwikkeling samen te be-		
27	handelen en op een positieve manier		
28	op elkaar te laten inwerken. Woorden		
29	zoals “brokerage” (makelaardij) of		
30	“bemiddeling” die, bijvoorbeeld in		
31	de Vlaamse Gemeenschap, als kriti-		
32	sche succesfactor geïdentificeerd en		
33	naar voren geschoven worden voor		
34	het in de praktijk laten werken van		
35	het paradigma van borging van		
36	immaterieel erfgoed, komen ook		
37	in de recente, vaak erg kritische		
38	literatuur over programma’s van		
39	ontwikkelingshulp voor en vooral ook		
40	over de rol die niet-gouvernementele		
41	organisaties daarbij spelen. Hierbij kan		
42	zowel gewezen worden op een Frans-		
43	Duitse APAD-school, die onderzoek		

1 verliet en hoe een tijdelijk werkbare
2 consensus of *modus vivendi* werd
3 gevonden. Dit past in het programma
4 dat de auteur voorstelt om de recente
5 episode van het “global-politique”
6 of het borgingsparadigma rond de
7 UNESCO-Conventie van 2003 in een
8 langetermijnperspectief te plaatsen,
9 zowel in de cultuur(beleids)ge-
10 geschiedenis, de geschiedenis van
11 staatsvormingsprocessen als in de
12 wereldgeschiedenis van “ontwikke-
13 ling”. Een andere belangrijke les is
14 dat kritische duiding en analyse niet
15 hoeft te verhinderen dat publieke actie
16 kan worden gevoerd om te trachten
17 bepaalde uitdagingen in de wereld
18 aan te pakken. Hierbij wordt de hoop
19 uitgesproken dat het doordenken
20 van makelaardij (bijvoorbeeld in de
21 kritische erfgoedstudies) en het
22 vormen van bemiddelaars en
23 ontwikkelingsmakelaars, ook bijvoor-
24 beeld in opleidingscentra in Afrika,
25 een verschil kunnen maken.

26 **Het Conventionele te buiten**

27 Naar een werkmodel van co-
28 productie voor het borgen van
29 immaterieel cultureel erfgoed

30 Er is een uitgesproken democratische
31 inzet van de UNESCO-Conventie
32 (2003) om (de diversiteit aan) im-
33 materieel cultureel erfgoed van
34 individuen, groepen en erfgoedge-
35 meenschappen over de hele wereld
36 te willen helpen borgen. Nochtans
37 blijven er heel wat vragen en uit-
38 dagingen wanneer we de implemen-
39 tatie van dit beleidsinstrument
40 in de praktijk overschouwen. Een
41 globale evaluatie uit 2013 van de
42 Conventie 10 jaar na de lancering
43 geeft ondermeer aan hoe de lidstaten

1 veel meer zouden kunnen doen om
2 erfgoedgemeenschappen en NGOs te
3 consulteren en te betrekken, bv. bij het
4 ontwikkelen van beleid, wetgeving,
5 plannen voor duurzame ontwikkeling,
6 enzovoort. Men zou zelfs kunnen
7 stellen dat de geloofwaardigheid
8 van de Conventie op het spel staat,
9 daar het hier bij uitstek om levend
10 erfgoed gaat en het Conventiewerk
11 geen enkele betekenis heeft als het
12 niet door de betrokken mensen in
13 praktijk wordt gebracht. Gegeven de
14 meervoudige en complexe realiteiten
15 waarbinnen de borgingspraktijken
16 voor immaterieel erfgoed zich in
17 de 21^{ste} eeuw afspelen, zou ook de
18 Conventie moeten zien te evolueren
19 tot een multi-dimensionaal, lerend
20 en toekomstgericht beheers-
21 systeem dat die complexe contexten
22 kan beantwoorden. Tegen deze
23 achtergrond houdt de auteur een
24 warm pleidooi om in het komende
25 decennium het “conventionele”
26 van een inter-nationaal en inter-
27 gouvernementeel instrument te
28 overstijgen en de Conventie van
29 2003 ten volle als “medium” of
30 “bruggenbouwer” in te zetten waarbij
31 vele stakeholders en actoren de
32 borging van immaterieel erfgoed
33 samen met UNESCO en de lidstaten
34 beheren, co-managen en co-
35 produceren.
36 Temidden van de vele diverse (types
37 van) actoren die bij deze processen
38 betrokken zijn kunnen bruggen-
39 bouwers zoals NGOs volop bijdragen
40 met de nodige competenties en fora
41 voor interactie, om de vertaalslag te
42 helpen maken tussen de verschillende
43 soorten kennis en knowhow die erbij
44 komen kijken en de samenwerking
45 van al deze spelers te faciliteren.
46 Willen de lidstaten met de
47 Conventie echt veerkrachtige toe-

1	komstperspectieven ontwikkelen voor	aan onderzoek en documentatie, ze	1
2	levend immaterieel erfgoed, dan	ontwikkelen identiteitsversterkende	2
3	zullen ze evenwel consequent ook het	activiteiten in cultuurtoerisme, ze	3
4	beheer van de Conventie moeten zien	faciliteren transnationale creatieve	4
5	te delen. Een belangrijke maar erg	samenwerking, ontwikkelen arti-	5
6	gevoelige kaap die daarbij genomen	stieke organisaties, noem maar	6
7	moet worden, is het symbolisch	op... In deze bijdrage laat Ananya	7
8	kapitaal dat van UNESCO uitgaat	Bhattacharya ons kennismaken met	8
9	in die mate open te stellen dat alle	een case van immaterieel-erfgoed-	9
10	vitale partners die de Conventie doen	werking onder begeleiding van de	10
11	werken op alle niveaus volwaardig	NGO "banglanatak dot com" vanuit	11
12	deelhebbers worden van de	India waarbij culturele vaardigheden	12
13	UNESCO-Conventie, om hun inzet te	("skills") geprofessionaliseerd werden	13
	bekrachtigen en te vermenigvuldigen.	tot een broodwinning voor gemar-	14
		ginaliseerde families en zo een voor-	15
		beeld kunnen vormen van sociaal-	16
		economisch empowerment op basis	17
14	Het integreren van cultuur in	van cultureel erfgoed. Ze bepleit dat	18
15	actieplannen voor duurzame	ICH NGOs in de nabije toekomst een	19
16	ontwikkeling	kritische rol zouden opnemen opdat	20
17	De rol van immaterieel cultureel	culturele dimensies aan bod komen in	21
18	erfgoed organisaties	de "Post 2015 Ontwikkelingsagenda".	22
		Cultuur is immers niet geïdentificeerd	23
19	De UNESCO-Conventie van 2003	als doelstelling in de voorgestelde	24
20	en haar operationele richtlijnen	"duurzame ontwikkelingsdoelen"	25
21	omschrijven een belangrijke rol voor	(SDG). Hoewel cultuur expliciet als	26
22	niet-gouvernementele organisaties	doel of activator geïntegreerd kan	27
23	(NGOs) inzake de bewustmaking	worden in de uiteenlopende duur-	28
24	omtrent de Conventie, het bevorderen	zame ontwikkelingsdoelen rond	29
25	van dialoog, het uitwisselen van	bv. de beëindiging van extreme	30
26	praktijkervaring, het ontwikkelen	armoede, het verzekeren van stabiele	31
27	van borgingsprogramma's en beleid	en vreedzame samenlevingen, het	32
28	op diverse niveaus,... NGOs hebben	bevorderen van de positie van	33
29	ook een grote rol te spelen om de	meisjes en vrouwen en behalen van	34
30	participatie van erfgoedgemeen-	gendergelijkheid, het faciliteren van	35
31	schappen te faciliteren bij het uit-	kwalitatieve educatie en levenslang	36
32	zetten van borgingsmaatregelen.	leren, het creëren van een wereld-	37
33	Zij ondersteunen de erfgoed-	wijde mogelijkheden scheppende	38
34	gemeenschappen daarin met hun	omgeving, enzovoort. Door het	39
35	expertise, tools en capaciteitsopbouw.	delen van kennis, netwerken en	40
36	Reeds in het recente verleden bleken	bemiddeling kunnen NGOs effectief	41
37	NGOs rond immaterieel erfgoed	het bewustzijn wekken en verhogen	42
38	(zogenaamde ICH NGOs) op allerlei	bij decision makers omtrent het	43
39	manieren bij te dragen aan de	belang van de culturele dimensie	44
40	implementatie van de 2003 Conventie:	van ontwikkelingsbeleid. Via het	45
41	ze doen aan capaciteitsopbouw bij	formuleren van innovatieve culturele	46
	erfgoedgemeenschappen, ze werken	ontwikkelingsprojecten met de	47

1 participatie van traditiedragers en
2 -beoefenaars kunnen ze bijdragen aan
3 lokaal verankerd beleid voor creatieve
4 economieën. De grootste uitdagingen
5 liggen in de mapping van culturele
6 bronnen, het ontwikkelen van
7 indicatoren voor sociaal-economische
8 waarde en winst vanuit erfgoed,
9 creativiteit en culturele bronnen,
10 alsook in het ondersteunen van
11 capaciteitsopbouw voor management
12 in de culturele sector en het versterken
van de waardeketen.

13 **Bezig zijn met Zwarte Piet**

14 Media, middelaars en de dilemma's
15 van het "brokeren" van immaterieel
16 erfgoed

17 Binnen de UNESCO-Conventie ter
18 bescherming van het Immaterieel
19 Erfgoed wordt de laatste jaren veel
20 gesproken over de rol van Niet
21 Gouvernementele Organisaties
22 en hun rol bij het borgen van
23 immaterieel erfgoed. Meestal
24 wordt hun taak vooral gezien als
25 bijdragen aan het implementeren van
26 beschermingsmaatregelen en aan het
27 versterken van de gemeenschappen.
28 Maar volgens een recent IOS
29 rapport zouden deze NGOs ook een
30 bemiddelende rol kunnen spelen
31 bij het samenbrengen van de
32 verschillende acteurs en belangheb-
33 benden die betrokken zijn bij de
34 dagelijkse praktijk van immaterieel
35 erfgoed. Deze rol van NGO's lijkt vooral
36 nodig in het geval van "controversieel
37 erfgoed", dat wil zeggen immaterieel
38 erfgoed waarover verschillend
39 gedacht wordt. In dit essay wordt
40 het verhitte debat over Zwarte Piet
41 als uitgangspunt genomen, waarin
sommigen ijverden voor afschaffing

van deze als discriminatoir er-
varen zwart geschminkte helper
van Sinterklaas en anderen deze
mythologische figuur juist zien als
een onvervreemdbaar onderdeel van
het Nederlandse Sinterklaasfeest, ja
zelfs van het Nederlandse culturele
erfgoed.

In zijn artikel analyseert de auteur, in
navolging van Richard Kurin, dat de
rol van expertinstellingen is gewijzigd
door een veranderende rol van de
media en door de opkomst van nieuwe,
computer gestuurde *sociale* media, die
allerlei groepen in de samenleving in
staat stellen deel te nemen aan het
maatschappelijk debat en daarmee
ook aan het besluitvormingsproces.
Aan de ene kant leidt dit tot een
enigszins hijgerige sfeer, waarbij de
waan van de dag soms de boventoon
voert en de journalisten op zoek
zijn naar sprekende en resonerende
"sound bites", waardoor de uitersten
vaak het debat domineren. Aan
de andere kant leidt het tot een
diversificatie van meningsvorming,
interessant in verband met het grote
belang dat in de UNESCO-Conventie
wordt gehecht aan de inbreng van
de gemeenschappen. Voor de *cultural*
broker betekent dit dat hij zijn weg
moet zien te vinden in een veelvoud
aan elkaar betwistende meningen en
opinies. Omdat, zeker in het geval
van Zwarte Piet, immaterieel erfgoed
onontwaarbaar verbonden is met
politiek en met strijd, dient hij ook
reflectief te zijn op zijn eigen rol en
inbreng in dit proces van "negotiating
identities". Uiteindelijk dienen echter
bruggen te worden gebouwd, waarbij
de *cultural* broker dient te beseffen
dat het presenteren van een mogelijk
compromis hem kan vervreemden van
de betrokkenen die hij juist dichter bij
elkaar had willen brengen. Hier past

1	de kanttekening dat het zoeken naar	Het gebruik van netwerken in de	1
2	consensus niet hetzelfde is als het	ontwikkeling van de Nationale	2
3	voorstellen van een compromis.	Inventaris van immaterieel	3
		cultureel erfgoed in Hongarije	4
			5
4	Tradities in een nieuw en	Dit artikel geeft een overzicht van de	6
5	uitgebreider kader plaatsen	belangrijkste stappen die zijn gedaan	7
6	Immaterieel cultureel erfgoed en	na de toetreding van Hongarije tot de	8
7	“public folklore’ in Newfoundland en	Conventie van 2003 en hebben geleid	9
8	Labrador	tot het opzetten en ontwikkelen van	10
		verschillende netwerken ten dienste	11
9	Dit artikel schetst het verband tussen	van de uitvoering van het verdrag.	12
10	immaterieel cultureel erfgoed beleid	Het vormen van netwerken tussen	13
11	en public folklore programma’s in	deskundigen en gemeenschappen	14
12	de Canadese provincie Newfound-	werd gebruikt om efficiënter te	15
13	land en Labrador. Het geeft achter-	werken in het proces van identificatie	16
14	grondinformatie over de ontwikkeling	en documentatie van de erfgoed-	17
15	van het immaterieel erfgoedbeleid	elementen, alsook om aan te dragen	18
16	en beschrijft de vierdelige strategie	aan de promotie en de transmissie, en	19
17	van de Heritage Foundation van	de toegang tot immaterieel erfgoed te	20
18	Newfoundland en Labrador om	vergemakkelijken.	21
19	projecten te ontwikkelen die zich		
20	richten op de documentatie, de		
21	transmissie, de culturele industrie	Zes jaar ervaring in immaterieel	
22	en de praktijk van immaterieel	erfgoedbemiddeling in Vlaanderen	22
23	erfgoed. Dit artikel presenteert	(België). Van de ratificatie van de	23
24	vervolgens drie case studies om te	Conventie (2003) tot de opstart van	24
25	laten zien hoe culturele makelaars	www.immaterieelerfgoed.be	
26	en bemiddelaars deze strategie ten		25
27	uitvoer brengen. De eerste case	Dit artikel brengt in beeld hoe	26
28	studie omvat gemeenschapstraining	erfgoedbemiddeling en -makelaardij	27
29	initiatieven, waar begeleiders vaar-	een cruciale rol spelen in de	28
30	digheden doorgeven die samen-	ontwikkeling van een wijd vertakt	29
31	hangen met documentatie en het	netwerk rond immaterieel cultureel	30
32	ontwikkelen van workshops. De	erfgoed in Vlaanderen. Spelers zoals	31
33	tweede case study beschrijft lopende	geografisch georganiseerde cultureel-	32
34	projecten die verbindingen willen	erfgoedcellen en thematische	33
35	leggen tussen immaterieel erfgoed	expertisecentra voor cultureel erfgoed	34
36	en monumentenzorg, met een focus	worden geïntroduceerd en toegelicht.	35
37	op publieksbetrokkenheid. De derde	Dit netwerk van erfgoedmakelaars	36
38	case study gaat in op de relatie	verbindt de ervaringen rond het	37
39	tussen volkscultuur/volksleven en	borgen van immaterieel erfgoed	38
40	het Folklife Festival, waarin het	gaande van lokale elementen en	39
41	festival gebruikt wordt om saamhorig-	gemeenschappen tot landsbrede	40
42	heidsbesef te bevorderen.	thema’s en uitdagingen. Ervaringen	41
		vanuit de opgebouwde 6 jaren	42
		werkingspraktijk rond immaterieel	43

1	cultureel erfgoed worden gedeeld.	Cultural Foundation of Uganda”	1
2	Ten slotte wordt de digitale makelaar	die in haar werking sterk inzet op	2
3	www.immaterieelerfgoed.be voorge-	erfgoededucatie vanuit de overtuiging	3
4	steld en krijgen we inzicht in de wijze	dat bewustzijnsverhoging en de	4
5	waarop dit platform de werking en de	overdracht van erfgoedkennis en	5
6	borging in netwerkverband faciliteert	-praktijken naar de jonge generaties	6
7	en versterkt.	cruciaal zullen zijn voor een	7
8	De rol van niet-gouvernementele	duurzame borging. Het is tegelijk	8
9	organisaties in het levensvatbaar	ook een noodzakelijke inzet om het	9
10	houden en promoten van	respect en de appreciatie voor de	10
11	immaterieel cultureel erfgoed in	culturele diversiteit in het land ten	11
12	Oeganda	volle te bevorderen.	12
13	De Cross-Cultural Foundation van	De internationale netwerken rond de	13
14	Oeganda	UNESCO-Conventie (2003) bieden	14
15	Oeganda is een van de meest cultureel	voorts allerlei mogelijkheden en	15
16	diverse landen ter wereld, maar	vooruitzichten op uitwisseling van	16
17	tegelijk blijkt er weinig waardering	ervaringen, op competentieverhoging	17
18	noch inzet om het potentieel van	en samenwerking omtrent borging	18
19	die diversiteit aan cultureel erfgoed	van immaterieel erfgoed en	19
20	te erkennen en te valoriseren. De	duurzame ontwikkeling. Een inzet	20
21	verklaring daarvoor is te vinden	voor meer coördinatie en bundeling	21
22	in een samenloop van politieke,	van krachten zou de impact van de	22
23	(religieus-)culturele en educatieve	culturele activiteiten op nationaal,	23
24	ontwikkelingen die het land in de	regionaal en internationaal niveau	24
25	recente geschiedenis heeft gekend.	verder kunnen versterken.	25
26	Ook in het postkoloniale beleid vormt	Projecten van	26
27	cultuur geen prioritair aandachtspunt;	erfgoedgemeenschappen als nieuwe	27
28	de armoede is groot en er zijn tot op	uitdagingen voor antropologen	28
29	vandaag erg weinig ontwikkelingen	Italiaanse perspectieven op het	29
30	waarin cultuur en erfgoed als	borgen van immaterieel cultureel	30
31	bronnen of wegen voor duurzame	erfgoed, bemiddeling en culturele	31
32	ontwikkeling geïdentificeerd worden.	makelaardij	32
33	Sinds Oeganda de UNESCO-	Om de huidige discussies in Italië	33
34	Conventie van 2003 in 2009	te begrijpen rond het borgen van	34
35	ratificeerde, liggen er echter kansen	immaterieel cultureel erfgoed, het	35
36	om hier verandering in te brengen. De	implementeren van de UNESCO-	36
37	opname van immaterieel erfgoed uit	Conventie van 2003 en vooral de	37
38	Oeganda op de UNESCO- lijsten werkt	spanningen rond de procedures voor	38
39	als eye-opener en een groeiend aantal	het maken vaneen nationale inventaris	39
40	NGOs en Community Museums	in functie van een kandidatuur voor	40
41	gaan actief aan de slag rond het	de opname op de Representatieve	41
42	borgen van immaterieel erfgoed.	Lijst (artikel 16 van de Conventie), is	42
43	Eén van die NGOs is de “Cross-	het nuttig de voorgeschiedenis mee	42

1 in beeld te nemen. Zoals blijkt uit
2 publicaties van Pietro Clemente was
3 er geen goede “match’ tussen het
4 officiële erfgoedbeleid, fenomenen
5 die we vandaag immaterieel cultureel
6 erfgoed noemen en die door demo-
7 etno-anthropologen bestudeerd
8 worden. Demo verwijst naar volk-
9 of populatie (zoals in demografie)
10 en de combinatie met etnologie en
11 antropologie leverde dat neologisme
12 op. De beweging van onderop via kleine
13 musea en de rol van antropologen die
14 actief zijn in het veld openen nieuwe
15 perspectieven. De combinatie met
16 andere referentiekaders, naast de
17 erfenis uit de vorige eeuw alsook
18 de net genoemde Conventie van
19 UNESCO of de kaderconventie van de
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