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## A Conceptual Framework for Knowledge Exchange in a Wildland Fire Research and Practice Context

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3 **and Practice Context**  
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## 25 Introduction

26 The location, time, size, and intensity of wildland fires are highly variable, and the  
27 impacts of these fires can be complex. Wildland fire can be beneficial, playing a role in the  
28 natural functioning of many fire adapted and fire dependent ecosystems while also reducing  
29 hazardous fuels (Coogan et al., 2021). However, wildland fire can have catastrophic outcomes  
30 for human communities, including loss of life, evacuations, and socio-economic disruptions  
31 (Johnston et al., 2020). For example, a single fire in Fort McMurray, Alberta, Canada in 2016  
32 resulted in billions of dollars in insured losses along with considerable but unquantified impacts  
33 on families and first responders (MNP, 2017).

34 Fire management is critically important for reducing negative impacts of wildland fire  
35 (Cumming, 2005; Martell and Sun, 2008). It commonly focuses on suppression but often  
36 includes prevention, mitigation, and recovery (Johnston et al., 2020; OMNRF, 2014; Tymstra et  
37 al., 2020). The objectives typically emphasize protection of people, property, infrastructure,  
38 forest resources and socio-economic activity (Tymstra et al., 2020).

39 Fire management is very expensive. Over \$1B can be spent annually on fire  
40 management in Canada (Hope et al., 2016; Stocks and Martell, 2016). Fire management is also  
41 challenging and complex, involving decision-making across a wide range of spatial and  
42 temporal scales (Boychuk et al., 2020), high uncertainty, and multiple conflicting objectives.  
43 Operational fire management must deal with relatively infrequent but critical situations of  
44 extreme and quickly changing fire behavior and workloads, dangerous working conditions, and  
45 severe resource shortages.

46 The growing scientific effort to understand wildland fire has helped fire management in  
47 many ways for decades (Wright, 1933; Coogan et al., 2021). This work is crucial for effective,  
48 efficient, and robust fire management (Sankey, 2018). Wildland fire science is both a body of

49 *knowledge*<sup>1</sup> and a systematic process to build and organize knowledge pertaining to questions  
50 and needs of fire management. It requires an interdisciplinary approach to address the physical,  
51 ecological, natural, cultural, economic, social and management aspects of wildland fire and their  
52 interactions. Fire science work occurs across a broad range of domains, approaches, and  
53 scales. Sankey's (2018) recent blueprint for wildland fire science outlined the need for both  
54 continued and new research to further the understanding of wildland fire in Canada.

55 An increasingly important area for fire science knowledge is wildland fire and climate  
56 change interactions. Existing research has shown how fire management in Canada may change  
57 under a range of possible future climates. For example, forest fuels are expected to be drier  
58 and, therefore, more receptive to ignition and vigorous fire spread. These factors are expected  
59 to result in having more and larger fires that exceed limits of direct suppression (Flannigan et  
60 al., 2005; Wotton et al., 2010; Wotton et al., 2017). Studies on the effect of these changes on  
61 fire management in Ontario, Canada have shown that increases in fire occurrence and behavior  
62 compound non-linearly to an even greater proportion of escaped fires (Wotton et al., 2005),  
63 requiring an even greater number of suppression resources (Wotton and Stocks, 2006).

64 Notwithstanding the many successful applications of science in fire management,  
65 developing and integrating science is not straightforward, nor without difficulties. The existence  
66 of knowledge itself is not sufficient to create a change in policies and practices (Levin, 2008;  
67 Reed et al., 2014). Science knowledge cannot be easily transferred and taken up by fire  
68 management agencies without addressing multiple factors that influence integration, including  
69 the relevance, credibility, and accessibility of the science and the operational, administrative,  
70 and cultural state of agencies (Hunter et al., 2020; Levin, 2008). How science is created and  
71 integrated into these fire management decision-making processes requires a conscious

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<sup>1</sup> **Knowledge** can be classified into explicit (for example codified) and tacit knowledge (for example has a personal quality) (Nonaka, 1994). Knowledge and knowledge creation occur over a range of domains from fundamental research to local communities (Roux et al., 2006).

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72 understanding of how the science is most useful. Focusing solely on identifying science gaps or  
73 improving communications between *researchers*<sup>2</sup> and *practitioners*<sup>3</sup> in disciplinary silos can be  
74 somewhat effective, but is limited if not done in an interdisciplinary, informed, collaborative, and  
75 iterative way (Tedim et al., 2021). This important design task can be aided using a *knowledge*  
76 *exchange* (KE) framework.

77 Effective KE in fire management helps ensure that real-world problems are understood  
78 by researchers, the research is relevant, and the results are integrated into fire management  
79 practices. This chapter outlines a conceptual KE framework to support the creation of  
80 application-oriented science outcomes and their successful adoption into operational fire  
81 management decision-making. We provide a review of the KE literature relevant to wildland fire  
82 management. Through developing a KE framework for the fire management context, we: (1)  
83 support the implementation of science *innovations*<sup>4</sup> into fire management agencies and (2)  
84 identify potential barriers and facilitators to KE in this context.

### 85 Knowledge Exchange (KE)

86 There is no universal framework for KE. Concepts and terminology vary depending on  
87 both the domain and the focus (e.g., see Gopalakrishnan and Santoro, 2004; Graham et al.,  
88 2006; Levin, 2008; Mitton et al., 2007; Roux et al., 2006; Rushmer et al., 2019; Walsh et al.,  
89 2019). In the literature, and in everyday use, there are terms that are used interchangeably or  
90 with different meanings.

---

<sup>2</sup> A **researcher** is a person who studies a subject and carries out academic or scientific research especially in order to discover new information or reach a new understanding (for example, a fire research scientist).

<sup>3</sup> A **practitioner** is a person actively engaged in a discipline, or practices a profession for example, fire management staff, personnel, or managers (McGee et al., 2016).

<sup>4</sup> **Innovation** is the adoption of the products and related organizational, administrative or policies related to fire management agencies (adapted from Damanpour and Gopalakrishnan, 1998). In this way innovation is viewed as an outcome of knowledge exchange. Adoption is synonymous with implementation and integration.

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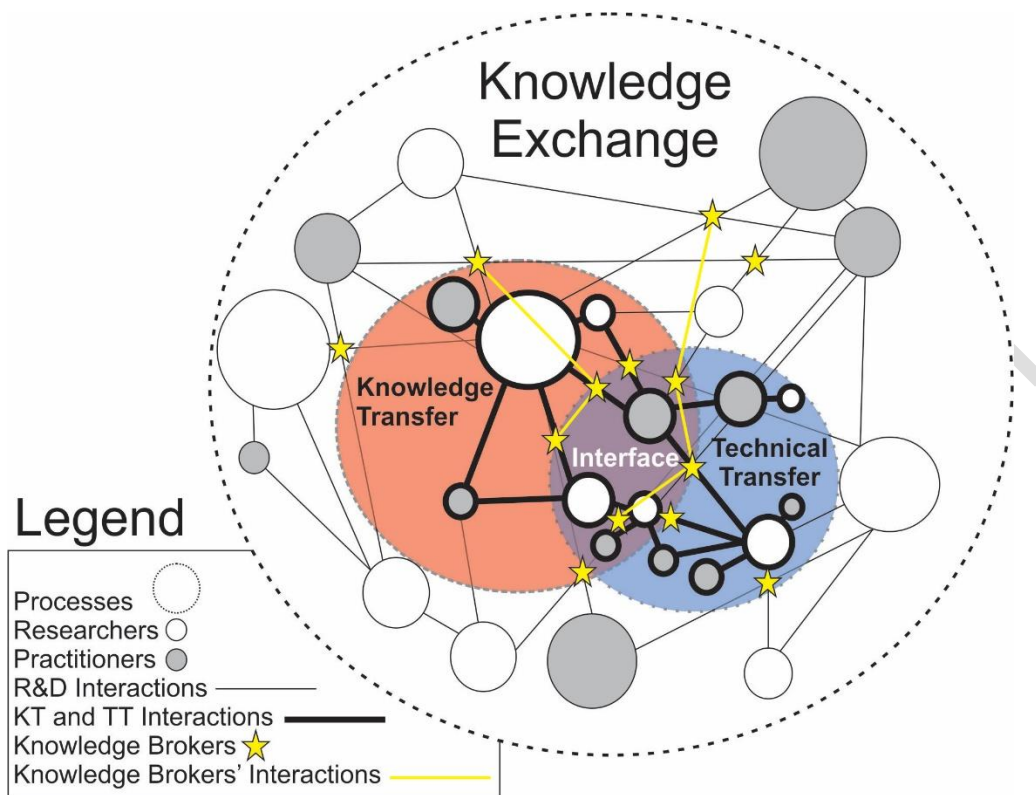
91 We define KE as: (1) the collective overarching process where knowledge is  
92 collaboratively created, shared, and transformed as it is shared; and (2) the context in which  
93 people learn about new knowledge (Lavis et al., 2003; Reed et al., 2014; Roux et al., 2006). KE  
94 implies feedback within a network of researchers, intermediaries, and practitioners (Davis et al.,  
95 2013). Other similar terms have been used in the literature and are elaborated further in the  
96 cited references. These terms include knowledge translation (Straus et al., 2009); knowledge  
97 mobilization (Levin, 2008); knowledge transfer (Gilbert and Cordey-Hayes, 1996); and  
98 knowledge translation and exchange (Boyko et al., 2012).

99 KE has been described as a system where reciprocal learning to discover, create, or  
100 address something with mutual understanding and benefit can occur (Reed et al., 2014;  
101 Rushmer et al., 2019). Through this understanding of KE, outcomes tend to be more realistic,  
102 acceptable, and likely to produce more lasting change (Rushmer et al., 2019).

103 It is crucially important to emphasize that we consider KE systems as an iterative  
104 process with bi-directional flows (Davis et al., 2013; Reed et al., 2014) where researchers and  
105 practitioners are both knowledge producers and users. This contrasts with typical historical  
106 practice where researchers push and practitioners pull knowledge between the two groups.  
107 Based on our experience, we believe those one-way knowledge streams from producers to  
108 users have proven insufficient in the wildland fire community; rather, shared understanding and  
109 concerted efforts to create and diffuse knowledge are needed (Butler et al., 2017; Tedim et al.,  
110 2021). Early and continuous knowledge flow between the practitioners and researchers has  
111 been shown to be an essential approach for KE in wildland fire. For example, Woolford et al.  
112 (2021) note how instrumental this type of knowledge flow was in development and  
113 implementation of a province-wide, fine scale, spatially explicit human-caused wildland fire  
114 occurrence mode for Ontario, Canada.

115 KE is a complex non-linear process, with interactions between sub-systems (Davis et al.,  
116 2013; Graham et al., 2006); KE can be conceptualized as a network or web. This is illustrated in  
117 Figure 1, which is an example with several networks of researchers or research groups and  
118 practitioners or practitioner groups in different domains, all working to identify and address a  
119 specific wildland fire management problem.





120

121 **Figure 1.** Conceptual illustration of knowledge exchange (KE) and its Knowledge Transfer (KT) and  
 122 Technical Transfer (TT) sub-processes for a specific, hypothetical case of science research and  
 123 development (R&D) and integration. KE is an overarching process among researchers and practitioners.  
 124 The sizes of the researchers' and practitioners' circles represent their respective levels of expertise for  
 125 this specific case. The black lines represent connections among people during the R&D and integration  
 126 (KT, TT) work. The thick circles identify the people involved in the KT and TT sub-processes. The thick  
 127 black lines represent connections between people for the KT and TT work. The yellow stars represent  
 128 knowledge brokers, who facilitate connections among various people and groups. The yellow lines  
 129 represent connections between knowledge brokers. The interface of KT and TT represents the  
 130 interactions between researchers and practitioners that seek to increase their respective and mutual  
 131 understanding. Defined boundaries are shown for the interface between KT and TT, but the actual  
 132 boundaries are a fuzzy continuum.

133

134           Once an applied outcome becomes clearer, the efforts transition to *knowledge<sup>5</sup> and*  
135 *technical transfer<sup>6</sup>* processes. *Knowledge brokers<sup>7</sup>* facilitate this exchange at all stages,  
136 facilitating collaboration and bridging knowledge between researchers, practitioners and  
137 facilitating collaboration. The interface between knowledge and technical transfer conceptually  
138 has the highest concentration of knowledge brokers because this is where ‘the water hits the  
139 fire’ so to speak and innovation and implementation take place. The outcome of KE in this  
140 context is some evidence-informed application of science aimed at achieving a specific outcome  
141 for fire management policies or practices.

142           Gopalakrishnan and Santoro (2004) proposed that knowledge and technology transfer  
143 are different in scope and facilitated by different organizational factors. Knowledge transfer is  
144 broader and concerned with the ‘why,’ whereas technology transfer is more focused on the  
145 tools. We contend that these two sub-processes of KE work together in many cases, especially  
146 in novel or unfamiliar situations. The attributes and activities needed to carry out knowledge  
147 transfer or technology transfer are like those needed for KE in general. Reed et al. (2014)  
148 identified five directives to guide KE in environmental management: 1) design, 2) engage, 3)  
149 represent, 4) impact, and 5) reflect and sustain. Many of these principles included consideration

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<sup>5</sup> **Knowledge transfer** is a sub-process of KE for disseminating broader learning aimed at changes in strategic thinking, culture and providing inputs to decision-making (Gopalakrishnan and Santoro 2004). This embodies the underlying principles which may include considering aspects such as organizational design and culture. This is a systematic approach to collect and share knowledge so ideas, research results and skills enable innovative new products to be developed (Graham et al., 2006).

<sup>6</sup> **Technical Transfer** is a sub-process of KE for disseminating knowledge with a more narrow-in-focus than knowledge transfer and aimed at processes, products, tools, data or models (Gopalakrishnan and Santoro 2004). This may include considering aspects such as policy, procedures for acquisition, application and archive of information (Zimmerman, 2012).

<sup>7</sup> **Knowledge brokers** (data translators; opinion leaders, boundary organizations) are the intermediaries between the knowledge producers and those who use it. They are the human force behind finding, assessing and interpreting evidence, facilitating interaction and identifying emerging research questions (Nonaka, 1994; Nutley et al., 2007; Ward et al., 2009). Knowledge brokers may be specialized to certain domains such as a data translators who bridge the expertise gaps between technical teams in data science (Maynard-Atem and Ludford, 2020). Knowledge brokers may also be opinion leaders who are trusted information sources (Butler et al., 2017). There are also boundary organizations which are coordinated groups that are intermediaries that develop long-term relationships and collaboration to increase the impact of science in fire management (Hunter et al., 2020).

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150 that would be useful to knowledge transfer or technology transfer; for example, well-timed  
151 implementation and creating networks suitable to the scope of the transfer.

152 A critical characteristic of KE is mutual benefit. This place where mutual understanding,  
153 communications, sharing, and knowledge creation occurs is called the knowledge interface  
154 (Roux et al., 2006). Loosely described, the *knowledge and technical interface*<sup>8</sup> is the place for  
155 collaboration – a critical aspect of KE. Roux et al. (2006) further describe the values of shared  
156 understanding, where participants move beyond the typical role of knowledge producer and  
157 user and negotiate what is achievable and relevant. This interface (or collaboration) provides for  
158 a robustness based on trust and aligned incentive systems.

### 159 Knowledge, Researchers and Practitioners

160 Research is investigation in a planned and systematic fashion for the purpose of  
161 increasing the sum of knowledge (Nutley et al., 2007), typically done by a researcher or  
162 research team. Within a fire management agency context, a *community of practice* can refer to  
163 those who manage an aspect of fire, such as a cadre of Fire Behaviour Analysts or firefighters.  
164 We can refer to these people as practitioners, as suggested by McGee et al. (2016). The  
165 creation and holding of knowledge occur across five generalized domains, which have different  
166 degrees of the explicitness of knowledge. Table 1 summarizes this continuum with examples  
167 pertaining to fire behaviour. Although presented as distinct and separate, we recognize the  
168 boundaries between knowledge domains are fuzzy, and there are individuals whose expertise  
169 span multiple domains (such as a researcher who is also a practitioner). We also recognize that

---

<sup>8</sup> **Knowledge and technical interface** is where concerted bi-directional flow of collaborative learning, shared understanding of key concepts and co-evolution towards common purpose, intent and action takes place (Roux et al., 2006). We contend this is where tacit and explicit knowledge exchange can be the most impactful and therefore important for the positioning of knowledge brokers.

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170 knowledge comes in many forms from *Indigenous Knowledge*<sup>9</sup> to experiential and operational  
 171 knowledge (Tedum et al., 2021).

172 The knowledge being exchanged can range from more formal knowledge, known as  
 173 “explicit knowledge”, to knowledge that is more subjective and based on ideas, perceptions, or  
 174 experience, known as “tacit knowledge” (Bolisani and Scarso, 1999). Explicit knowledge is more  
 175 easily expressed and codified, whereas tacit knowledge is more subtle and often difficult to  
 176 convey. The assumption is that shared contexts and understanding in respective knowledge  
 177 domains results in arguably better outcomes for both parties (Rushmer et al., 2019). This  
 178 facilitates acceptance, sustained use, and growth of the knowledge (Roux et al., 2006).

179

180 **Table 1.** Examples of wildland fire knowledge domains

More theoretically based ←		→ More applied and experientially based		
Fundamental research	Applied research	Policy and strategy development	Operational management	Indigenous Knowledge
Physical fire processes	Fire weather and behaviour system development	Risk mitigation policy	Best practices to assess and reduce hazards such as fuel loading	Cultural burning practices for ecological sustainability
Fire ignition processes	Fire occurrence system development	Preparedness policy	General rules for fire occurrence	Place-based knowledge of fire occurrence and cultural fire management
More codified ←		→ More tacit		

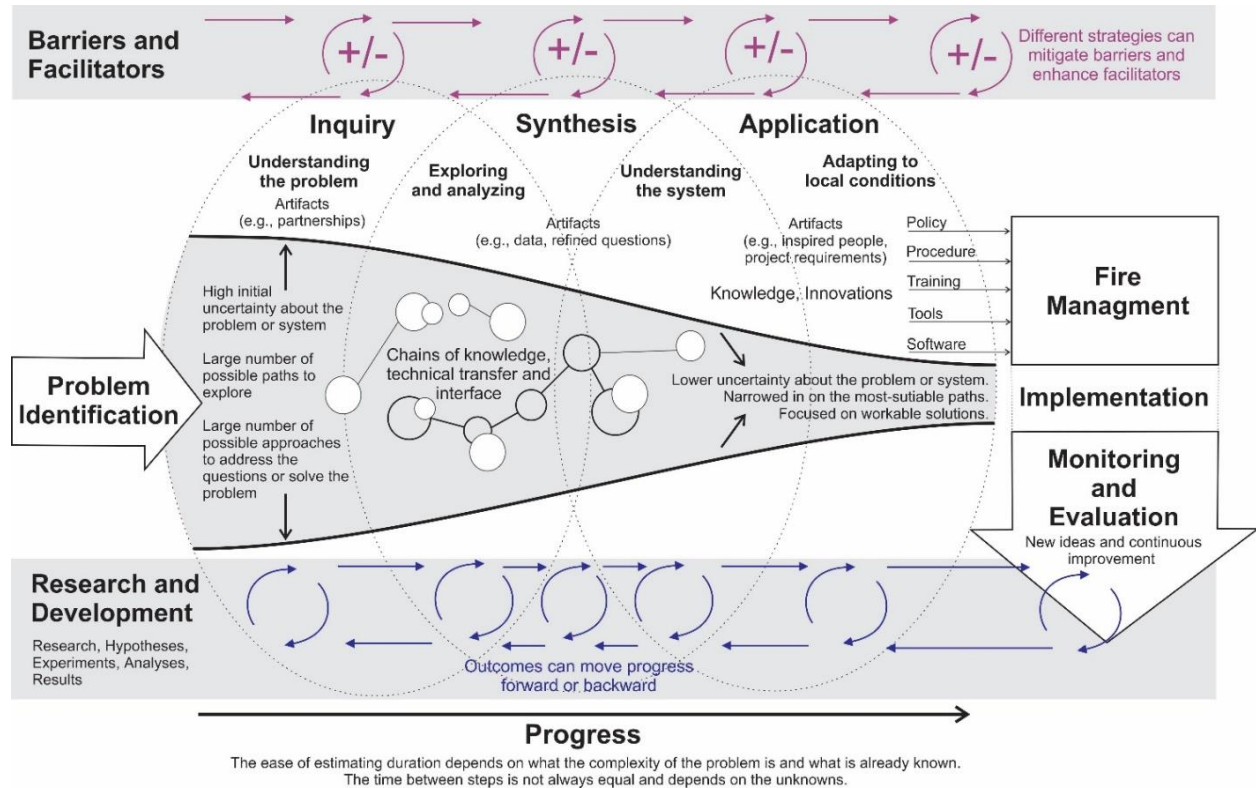
<sup>9</sup> **Indigenous Knowledge.** It is important to recognize that the knowledge systems described here are derived from Western perspectives. Authors acknowledge the value of Indigenous and traditional ways of knowing and of knowledge exchange that are not represented in this paper. Indigenous ways of knowing celebrate the intimate connections between humans and the biophysical world. Fire has been used as an important tool for Indigenous Peoples for a variety of reasons, including in hunting and gathering activities, to regenerate land and safeguard resources, for cooking, heating, and ceremony, and for communication (McKemey et al., 2021). Indigenous Peoples hold important place-based knowledge about fire and fire management and have played a key role in wildland fire management through time.

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181           **The Role of Knowledge Exchange from Problem Identification to Implementation**

182           Having established context and elements of KE as an overarching system, the focus  
183 turns to the sub-processes that bridge knowledge creation through to implementation. Graham  
184 et al. (2006) visualized this as a cycle. We build on these ideas (Figure 2) and place the cycle in  
185 a fire management context. It is important first to note that knowledge and technical transfer  
186 occur at varying times and with varying complexity in the journey from problem identification  
187 through knowledge creation to implementation.

188           How does KE happen? These processes are aided by knowledge brokers to encourage  
189 and facilitate positive interactions at the knowledge interface (as visualized conceptually in  
190 Figure 1). It starts with having the right people in that knowledge interface space who recognize  
191 a problem or research need. The remainder of this section describes the system and processes  
192 underlying KE are illustrated in Figure 2. We describe the application of KE to wildland fire  
193 management, although the system and process are more widely applicable.



194

195 **Figure 2.** Illustration of the systems and processes of knowledge exchange towards addressing problems  
 196 and advancing innovation for fire management.

197

198 **Problem Identification**

199 There is not a single person, group, or path to achieve science-informed policies and  
 200 practices for fire management; however, a key requirement for effective and efficient  
 201 development of relevant, practical, and useful science is to have some individuals who have  
 202 deep expertise in both science and fire management. This is essential for (1) understanding  
 203 problems correctly and identifying opportunities where currently feasible research may help, and  
 204 (2) ensuring effective communication among people from different domains. Problem  
 205 identification spans domains and can be facilitated through different avenues; examples include  
 206 formal collaboration agreements, memorandum of understandings, and informal professional

207 relationships and participation.

208

### 209 **The process**

210       Once a problem or research need has been identified, work can commence to address  
211 it. This process is illustrated by a funnel that starts wide and becomes narrow over time. The  
212 funnel width represents the relative uncertainty and complexity to address the problem. There  
213 are many possible paths and approaches (for example, knowledge domains and methods).  
214 Technical transfer and interfacing with varying degrees of complexity happen between groups  
215 throughout this process. The funnel narrows with progress as uncertainty is reduced through  
216 knowledge creation and access; the most-suitable path becomes more apparent and the focus  
217 changes to workable solutions. Along this funnel there are the interacting phases of 1) inquiry,  
218 2) synthesis and 3) application (Graham et al., 2006). These phases interact, have fuzzy  
219 boundaries, and overlap depending on specific situations as illustrated using hashed lines in  
220 Figure 2.

### 221 **Inquiry**

222       The inquiry phase is characterized by the many options available and by exploration,  
223 uncertainty, creation of desired or necessary skillsets, and building partnerships. Process  
224 artifacts of this phase may include partnerships, agreements, brainstorming, and exploratory  
225 data.

### 226 **Synthesis**

227       As progress continues to the synthesis phase, the focus shifts to making sense of the  
228 relevant knowledge leading to a general understanding of the problem and system. Artifacts of  
229 this phase may include data, refined questions, and discrete work. As clarity improves, and  
230 more workable outcomes are produced, the focus moves to the application phase.

### 231 **Application**

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232 In this phase, some innovation or knowledge is suitable for application in fire  
233 management. There may be efforts to adapt outcomes to local conditions for a variety of  
234 potential audiences or purposes across the fire management field. Artifacts in this stage include  
235 inspired people, codified knowledge, requirements for other implementation processes, a new or  
236 amended policy, an improved procedure, a new tool, or prototype software.

237 The fire management decision-making space is complex (Boychuk et al., 2020; Taylor et  
238 al., 2013; Taylor, 2020; Thompson and Calkin, 2011; Zimmerman, 2012). In addition, fire  
239 management is very user focused. The specifics of how a new idea or product is developed  
240 should be aligned to the end user needs and the decision-making environment (Lavis et al.,  
241 2003). This is not always straightforward because there are many complex challenges for fire  
242 management that occur at different scales and scopes, from real-time decisions on a single fire  
243 to longer-term, national-level policy setting (Taylor, 2017; Tymstra et al., 2020).

244 Successful application requires the effective interaction between researchers and  
245 practitioners for translation, support, and delivery of the necessary knowledge (McGee et al.,  
246 2016; Mitton et al., 2007; Ryan and Cerveny, 2011). Within the wildland fire community, early  
247 and ongoing close engagement between researchers and practitioners is critical to successful  
248 decision support system development and implementation because of the need for shared  
249 understanding (Martell, 2011; Noble and Paveglio, 2020; Woolford et al., 2021).

## 250 **Implementation**

251 The implementation often requires a tailored solution. There are specific ways that the  
252 outcomes of the KE process can be implemented, such as a policy review cycle, procedure task  
253 team, or project plan. However, given the context of the public sector where most fire  
254 management agencies in Canada are positioned (Canadian Interagency Forest Fire Centre,  
255 2022), innovation is often challenging because it can be seen as unknown in an organizational  
256 structure that discourages risk (OECD 2017). Adoption by practitioners through passive



257 dissemination can sometimes be ineffective (Ward et al., 2009). We view knowledge and  
258 technical transfer as a sub-process as distinct from project planning or software development  
259 methods. The latter are commonly used as mechanisms to manage the creation of initially  
260 relatively well-defined projects or products such as training courses or software (e.g., Varajão et  
261 al., 2017). Project planning approaches are appropriate for the application phase of Figure 2  
262 when the when problem and solution are well understood. It is very important to understand  
263 which implementation method is needed based on the fire management agency institutional  
264 requirement. After implementation, monitoring and continued evaluation should occur and may  
265 result in new ideas for future work. This is a practice of continuous improvement.

### 266 **Processes of Progression and Retrogression**

267 There are two parallel considerations that are pervasive throughout KE and influence  
268 progress at all phases. These are (1) the research and development process and (2) barriers  
269 and facilitators (BF). These are illustrated above and below the funnel in Figure 2.

### 270 **Research and Development Cycle**

271 The research and development process includes exploration, discovery, trial and error,  
272 hypothesis testing, confirmation, prototyping, and field testing. This necessarily involves  
273 advancing and retreating as tentative results emerge. This cycling tends to occur earlier but can  
274 happen at any point. This moves us forward and back in the funnel in larger or smaller steps.

### 275 **Barriers and Facilitators**

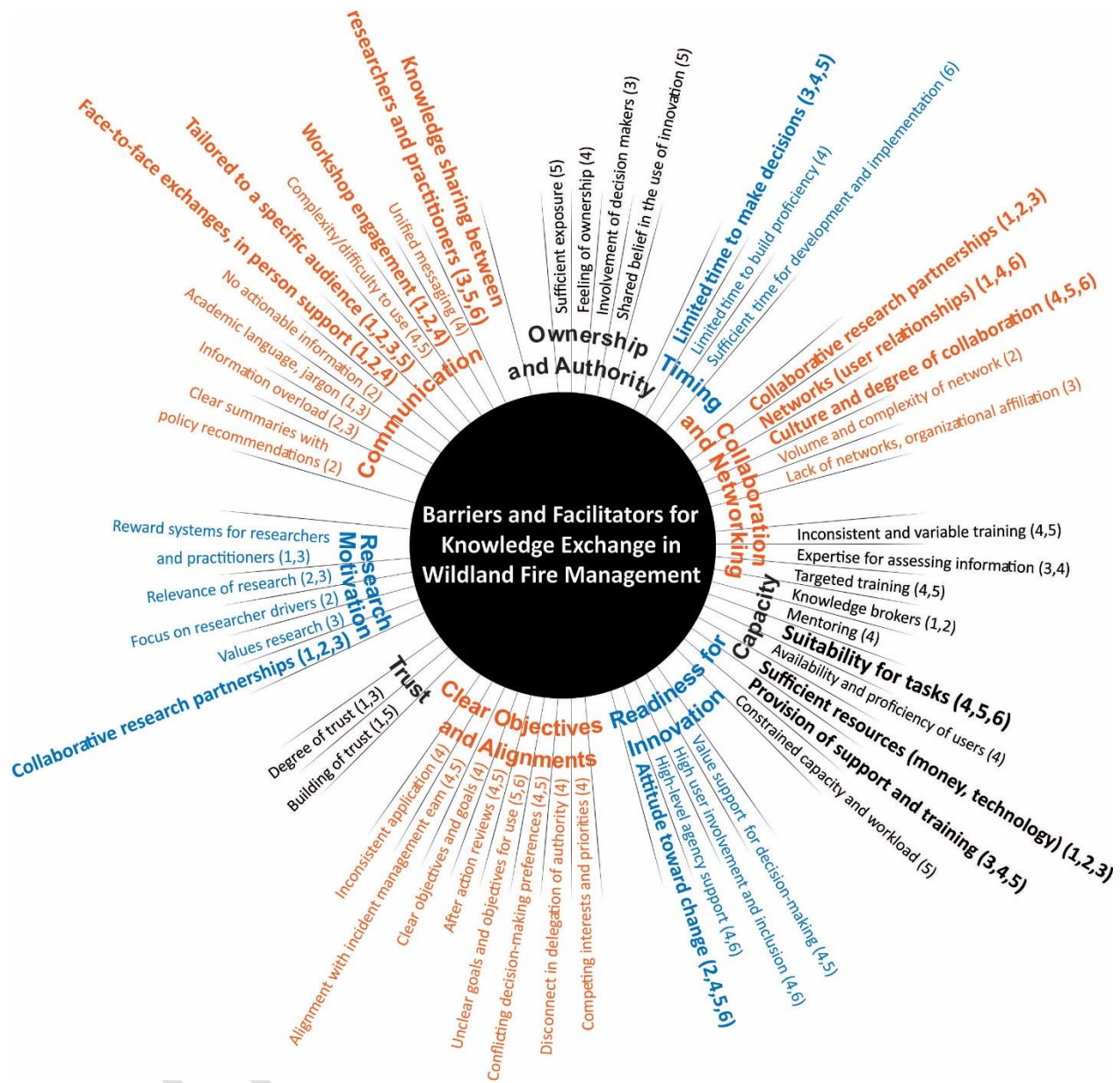
276 Identifying and understanding the significance of barriers to and facilitators of progress  
277 are critical within fire management agencies This is true for both KE, where the focus is  
278 between researchers and practitioners, and knowledge and technical transfer, where the focus  
279 is on the needs of the adopter. Other areas such as health sciences and conservation are  
280 further along with KE research and the identification of BFs (Mitton et al., 2007; Walsh et al.,

281 2019). and recently conversations associated with KE have arisen in the wildland fire  
282 management literature (Hunter et al., 2020; Tedim et al., 2021).

283         There are many potential categories of BFs, and we need a tractable way to understand  
284 them. We compared BFs identified from wildland fire science centric KE papers (Davis et al.,  
285 2013; McGee et al., 2016; Ryan and Cerveny, 2011) and three recent perspectives on the  
286 adoption of wildland fire decision support (Martell, 2011; Noble and Paveglio, 2020; Rapp et al.,  
287 2020). We organized the comparison using a framework that was adapted from the summary by  
288 Mitton et al. (2007) wherein BFs were classified for policy decision-making for health studies.  
289 Figure 3 is a summary of the BFs pulled and organized from the six wildland fire papers and  
290 organized by the themes from Mitton et al. (2007). The nine themes of BFs are capacity, clear  
291 objectives and alignment, collaboration and networking, communication, ownership and  
292 authority, readiness for innovation, research motivation, timing, and trust. BFs identified by the  
293 majority of authors (at least 3 of 6 papers noted above) include: limited time to make decisions;  
294 collaborative research partnerships; networks (user relationships); culture and degree of  
295 collaboration; suitability for task; sufficient resources (money, technology); provision of support  
296 and training; attitude towards change; collaborative research partnerships; face-to-face  
297 exchanges, in person support; tailored to a specific audience; and workshop engagement;  
298 knowledge sharing between researchers and practitioners.

299         Strategies are required to mitigate the barriers and enhance the performance of  
300 facilitators. Specific strategies must align with types of decisions practitioners face and the  
301 environments in which they work. This requires an understanding of the both the organization  
302 and the people within it.

303



304

305 **Figure 3.** Barriers and facilitators (BFs) for knowledge exchange in wildland fire management. Nine  
306 central themes for the barriers and facilitators were identified in selected literature. Each BF identified in  
307 the literature is listed under a specific theme. BF that were in at least half ( $\geq 3$ ) of the papers are shown in  
308 a bold and larger font. The BFs identified in the papers are numbered as follows: (1) McGee et al. 2016;  
309 (2) Davis et al. 2013; (3) Ryan and Cerveny, 2011; (4) Noble and Paveglio 2020; (5) Rapp et al, 2020; (6)  
310 Martell 2011. Papers from the literature were selected from two general scopes: papers 1-3 describe  
311 knowledge exchange (researcher and practitioner); and papers 4-6 discuss knowledge and technical  
312 transfer (innovation and adopters).

### 313 **Training the Next Generation in Knowledge Exchange**

314 The overarching principle of KE as a mutual exchange between researchers and  
315 practitioners is perhaps best learned through experience. In the classroom, this can be achieved  
316 using active learning techniques, which have been found to lead to a deeper understanding  
317 when compared to traditional lecturing (Waldrop, 2015). This holds true in the data science  
318 domain—the importance of active learning techniques was endorsed by the statistical science  
319 community in the American Statistical Association’s (ASA) Guidelines for Assessment and  
320 Instruction in Statistics Education (GAISE) College Report (GAISE, 2016).

321 We have explored the KE principles outlined in this chapter using an active learning  
322 approach in the context of a post-secondary course, “Data Analytics Consulting”, which is taught  
323 in the Department of Statistical and Actuarial Sciences at the University of Western Ontario  
324 (<https://www.uwo.ca/stats/>). This course is offered to 4th-year students in the honours Statistical  
325 or Data Science undergraduate programs and graduate students (Masters and PhD) in that  
326 department, as well as graduate students pursuing the Master of Data Analytics program, a  
327 one-year professional science master’s program.

328 Although those students will have received advanced training in data science and  
329 analytics theory, techniques, and applications through data modelling, nearly all their preceding  
330 training would have been technical in nature. Consequently, rather than teaching new data

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331 modelling theory or techniques, the course's learning objectives focus on fostering the  
332 development of key skills to be a successful data science and analytics professional. A variety  
333 of topics are covered, such as: the iterative flow through the data analytics consulting process;  
334 meetings and project management; intellectual property, compensation, and negotiation; robust  
335 and ethical data analyses. These are all grounded in the development of effective  
336 communication skills, needed for KE, which is threaded throughout the course content and its  
337 assessments.

338 Active learning is incorporated through a community engaged learning approach, where  
339 an external "client" (not the instructor or a teaching assistant) interacts with the class throughout  
340 the term. Students are grouped into teams and, through a series of interactions with the client  
341 that take place over the course of the term, they practice and develop their KE skills. Those  
342 interactions mimic typical engagement settings, including synchronous and asynchronous  
343 learning opportunities. Examples of synchronous engagement include an initial meeting,  
344 phone/video meetings, interim presentation(s) and discussions, as well as an in-person meeting  
345 (when feasible). Asynchronous activities include communicating via email, providing, and  
346 receiving feedback on interim progress report(s). In all such interactions, the instructor acts as a  
347 knowledge broker, facilitating interactions between the students and the client while also having  
348 separate interactions with the client to help guide the KE process. A final report to the client,  
349 written in appropriate format and language for that target audience is used as a final summative  
350 assessment. All of this occurs using a directed learning approach where both the client and the  
351 instructor act as knowledge brokers to guide the students through this process. Informal peer  
352 assessments are also included for some engagement pieces so that the students can observed  
353 and learn from their fellow classmates while also providing constructive criticism. A sample  
354 schedule of activities for a 4-month term appears in Table 2.

355 In essence, this active learning using a community engaged learning approach for the  
 356 Data Analytics Consulting course both teaches and applies KE principles. The classroom is a  
 357 place for knowledge interface where fire management practitioners (one of the clients for the  
 358 past few years) data scientist and the students interact for mutual benefit. The students learn  
 359 from the practitioners about their domain and gain a deeper understanding of the meaning of  
 360 the data . The practitioners learn new ways data can be informative in their business. These  
 361 interactions lead to better understanding, new initiatives, and importantly inspired people,  
 362 improving both the fire practitioner's knowledge of data science and its application and the  
 363 student's knowledge of fire management.

364

365 **Table 2.** Sample schedule of knowledge exchange activities in the Data Analytics Consulting class

Week(s)	Topic	Activities
1	Initial meeting (virtual) and problem description	Web presentation by client
2	Data, data governance and project overview	Data sharing agreements signed Data Released Teams identified
3	Exploratory data analysis presentations and discussion	5 min presentations by each team Planning for next touchpoint with client
4	Client meeting (virtual)	Remote synchronous meeting to discuss results of exploratory data analysis and ask any questions
5	Preliminary modelling	Planning for client's visit the following week
6	Client meetings (in person)	Teams present and discuss summaries of work to date with client. Debriefing after meetings, led by instructor with peer discussions and feedback.
7 - 13	Ongoing project work and client engagement	Team presentations Class discussions with peer feedback. Client meetings (virtual; approx. bi-weekly) Final presentations
14 - 16	Community engaged learning project ends	Final written reports submitted Client provides feedback, which is incorporated into each team's grade

366

367 This is one approach that can help meet that bi-directional flow of KE while also  
368 recognizing in the academic environment there is a need to develop those communication,  
369 business, and soft skills to become a knowledge broker. That is, to become an effective data  
370 translator, working in the wildland fire science and management domain. The outcomes of these  
371 efforts were presented at Wildland Fire Canada 2019, which is part of a biennial series of  
372 conferences (<https://wildlandfirecanada.com/>) that bring together a wide variety of people  
373 working in wildland fire, both fire management practitioners and wildland fire science  
374 researchers.

375 Finally, it is important to note that similar approaches can be applied to effectively train  
376 students outside of a classroom setting when they are conducting thesis-based research guided  
377 by a supervisor. In this context, regular engagement between the student, other researchers,  
378 and practitioners is crucial to foster the development of effective KE skills. Supervisors can act  
379 as knowledge brokers, encouraging the student to not only attend and participate in such  
380 interactions, but to also have them witness the interactions of other trainees in the research lab  
381 to learn from their peers. These interactions also help the trainees expand their professional  
382 network.

383

384

### Closing

385 Fire management is challenging and will become even more so in future. Globally, a  
386 large and growing amount of wildland fire science work is being done to aid fire management.  
387 The integration of ongoing advances remains difficult and occurs slowly, which can leave fire  
388 management understanding and practices short of the best available science and necessary  
389 innovation. Research efforts continue to fall short of effective implementation and typically end  
390 with traditional, impersonal approaches such as publications and reports (Levin, 2008). This





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