Developing Generic Competences Outside the University Classroom

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(eds.)
Developing
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This book aims to support those working with university students outside the formal context and willing to help students better develop any or all of the following seven generic competences – competences relevant for any higher education graduate regardless of the specialisation chosen:

- Communication
- Teamwork
- Leadership
- Conflict Transformation
- Intercultural Competence
- Social Entrepreneurship
- Project Development and Management

It also seeks to contribute to the valorisation of learning that happens in non-formal or informal contexts and to the adoption of transparent mechanisms for recognition of such learning. With this publication the DARE+ project sought to encourage universities to dare take a more “all-round” – comprehensive – approach in their implementation of student-centred higher education.

“The European Commission support for the production of this publication does not constitute endorsement of the contents which reflects the views only of the authors, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein”
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INTRODUCTION

The origins of this book

What does student-centred higher education mean to you? At the level of the EU, some authors trace this idea back to the late 1960s, when in a number of European countries students made their voice heard asking for a revision of higher education systems (Nordal and Gehrke, 2014). Others date it to the overt inclusion of it in the EU agenda in the 2009 Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve communiqué (EHEA, 2014). Still others believe that the notion “has been around for many years now” but that the implications of proclaiming student-centeredness as key to the higher education we want to have “are still not realised by many academics or, indeed, students” (McAleese et al., 2013, p. 40).

For the DARE+ project participants, to quote the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve communiqué (Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009, p. 1), student-centered higher education is about ensuring that the educational experience students receive during the years of their enrolment at a university can indeed help them “develop the competences they need in a changing labor market and … empower them to become active and responsible citizens.” This means, in turn, that, similar to teachers – whose role has been reconsidered and is now seen as that of guiding and accompanying students in their learning journey – universities might need to make a definitive step sideward and cease to defend formal education as the only form of education they recognise in terms of credits and diplomas. If students are in the centre and are considered as
whole persons, and if the development of competences – especially generic or transversal ones – requires first-hand experience normally outside the classroom, then non-formal and informal educational scenarios can no more be neglected or considered less valuable than the formal – classroom-centred one.

It is from this student-centred life-wide learning perspective that this book was conceived and has to be read. To be more precise, the present publication is one of the outcomes of the Developing All-Round Education (DARE+) European project. Funded by the European Commission and coordinated by the University of Granada (Spain), DARE+ brought together:

- seven universities (in alphabetical order): Trinity College Dublin (Ireland), University of Deusto (Spain), University of Granada (Spain), University of Groningen (the Netherlands), University of Padova (Italy) and Uppsala University (Sweden);
- Education for an Interdependent World (EDIW), an international non-profit association, whose “mission is to empower young people in Higher Education”; and
- the Coimbra Group of Universities.

During two years (2014-2016), the nine partners explored how university students could better develop a number of generic competences thanks to complementing formal learning with structured competence acquisition experiences outside the classroom. To cite the project proposal document, the DARE+ project sought “to rethink – in terms of opportunities for developing generic competences – various activities and initiatives that university students can get involved in during their free time”. Through analyzing what (aspects of what) generic competences can be developed in such non- & informal ways, the project hoped to:

1. give greater value to the learning that occurs outside the classroom and contribute towards recognition of competences developed in non-formal context;
2. propose means to further improve the existing initiatives in order to make full use of the possibilities for developing competences these initiatives offer;
3. help students become conscious of the competences they develop thanks to participating in such initiatives;
4. help educators (and other stakeholders) learn about initiatives already implemented elsewhere and build on others’ experience.

The present publication records some of the outcomes of this search. The envisaged target audience for this book comprises three broad categories of readers:

1. Educators who work with students on campus, in the halls of residences or elsewhere;
2. Governmental and non-governmental organizations who work with youth and are interested in helping young people develop generic competences and recognize generic competences developed outside the university classroom; and
3. University authorities and policymakers.

Before explaining in more detail what exactly this book can offer to the different stakeholders interested in supporting generic competence development outside the university classroom, the notions and terms key to the DARE+ activities will be clarified.

**Key notions**

First of all, the notion of generic competences, as defined by Tuning, was at the heart of the project. Tuning defines a competence as “a dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding, skills and abilities” (Tuning, n.d.) and generic competences as those that are considered relevant for all higher education graduates, regardless of the specialisation they have
chosen. Also referred to as transversal (Chapman & O’Neil, 2010, p. 110), such competences are key for any person to be successful and lead a rewarding life both as an individual living in a society and as a professional (Fung, Lee & Wong, 2007; Villa Sánchez & Poblete Ruiz, 2008, p. 11)

The competences focussed on by the DARE+ project and featured in the present publication can illustrate this idea very clearly:

1. **Communication** is essential for any effective interaction; nothing can be done if persons are unable to communicate with one another appropriately.

2. **Teamwork and leadership** are the competences that permit us to actually work together, interact in a constructive way, achieve common goals and move forward as a society.

3. **Conflict transformation** allows individuals to evolve and reach higher levels of cooperation, instead of getting blocked and being unable to advance together.

4. **Intercultural competence** becomes increasingly relevant due to an ever increasing heterogeneity of our societies and work environments.

5. **Social entrepreneurship project development and management competences** help to make full use of individuals’ and teams’ creative potential and introduce real improvements into the world around us.

Even with such succinct descriptions, it is hardly possible to question the importance of these competences for today’s young people. The generic competences selected appear indeed key for university graduates “to succeed in their post-university lives” (Chapman & O’Neil, 2010, p. 105). As with all the generic competences, these competences feed into each other and depend on each other to a certain extent. Nonetheless, each of them deserves special focussed attention if we want graduates to become pro-active and responsible members of today’s and tomorrow’s world.
Secondly, the trichotomy of formal, non-formal and informal learning and the associated notion of life-wide learning defined the approach adopted by the project and are reflected in the present publication. A major aim of the DARE+ project was to contribute to the valorization of non-formal learning and to draw universities’ attention to the importance of non-formal learning for a holistic competence development.

Formal learning is planned, has clearly formulated aims, and is normally fixed in time and space; this is traditional university learning. Informal learning is accidental and the learner is normally not conscious of it. Non-formal learning is intentional and structured, although less that the formal learning. It is more flexible, allows for less clearly defined goals to be pursued and does not expect the different participants to achieve exactly the same results. Non-formal learning is, by definition, experiential; the learner plays a much more active role in it (than usually in the formal learning) and is encouraged to become conscious of and (at least co-)responsible for own learning (Nomikou, 2012).

The notion of life-wide learning helps to remember that not only formal learning is worth the attention of those involved in higher education, especially if non-formal learning might indeed be the best means to develop competences (Nomikou, 2012, p. 8). The life-wide learning approach highlights the fact that learning can happen anywhere and at any time; that it can be intentional or unintentional, but that the results are equally valid. What counts in real life is that graduates leave the university with the competences developed and not whether these have been developed in the classroom or outside it.

Higher education institutions are, however, ultimately responsible for doing their best to help graduates develop the required competences and become autonomous lifelong learners. Universities have the capacity to coordinate and relate the different types of learning, situate the outcomes of all the students’ learning in a common framework and recognize all the outcomes. This means – among other things – that universities
who want to adopt a truly student-centred approach might want, and even need, to become pro-active in promoting and bringing together all types of learning. It would be a mistake to disregard the potential of non-formal education and of the combination of formal and non-formal learning for generic competence development (cf. Singh, 2005, p. 28).

This is not a new idea (Lifewide Education Community, n.d.), but for the life-wide curriculum to become a world-wide reality, the already existing practices need to be reflected upon and actively shared on an international level. The present publication, at its own modest scale, hopes to contribute to this important discussion.

What will you find inside this publication?

The publication consists of two parts and a concluding section.

Part 1 presents a selection of good practices shared by the DARE+ consortium institutions as examples of initiatives that can help university students further develop some of the seven generic competences outside the classroom. The nine chapters of Part 1 form three blocks: chapters 1-4 feature initiatives that can be adopted by any academic interested in enriching his/her students’ learning experience; chapters 5-8 show what can be done in the context of the dormitory or the halls of residence, i.e. when students share a living space; chapter 9 describes a practice of supporting competence development in general (rather than the development of particular competences).

Each chapter showcases a particular existing practice, reflects on the lessons learned by those who have been in charge and comments on the transferability of the initiative discussed. These contributions are practice-based and, as is often the case with generic competences, are not necessarily associated with one target competence only. If you are interested in a particular (combination of) competence(s) Table 1 below can help you identify the most relevant practices.
As for the types of good practices described and the order of the Part 1 chapters, the following can be said:

Chapter 1 presents a 16-hour workshop on social entrepreneurship – a very compact initiative, easily transferable to any formal or non-formal, on-campus or off-campus context. All the workshop components are described in detail. Students attending such a workshop can also be asked to act as “multiplier agents”, re-creating the workshop with peers later on.

Chapter 2 discusses a computer simulation which is used in extra-curricular time to give students leadership experience that they cannot acquire in the classroom. Thus, although linked to a formal course, the practice described permits the connection of formal, non-formal and informal learning.

Chapter 3 shares an experience of a research internship-type activity, which happens outside the classroom and is focused on helping students discover cultural diversity around them. Given a concrete task and directed towards persons who are culturally different from them, young people establish their first intentional contacts with persons whom they might not dare to speak to otherwise or of whose existence they might not even be fully aware.

Chapter 4 analyses how participation in student union activities and being the class representative can help develop a number of generic competences. The learning and competence
development in question are informal, while the structure or the contexts which promote and permit such learning are formal.

At first sight, these four practices might seem hardly distinguishable from “normal” formal educational practices. However, in each case the learning stimulated is either non-formal, informal or of multiple types. Such complementarity requires increasingly more sophisticated structural or contextual provisions, but in all four cases the settings or conditions described exist or can be put in place at any contemporary university.

As already indicated above, the second block, which comprises chapters 5-8, brings together good practices that come from the context of the halls of residences. The element of sharing together a living space is key to them all and it is this living together and the resulting different challenges and opportunities that constitute unique features of the four practices.

Chapter 5 narrates how a real conflict that prevented peaceful co-existence was turned into a learning opportunity. It also suggests that since the conflict addressed is a recurrent one, the learning that can be associated with resolving such a conflict is not a one-off episode either. At a more general level, what this chapter shows is that students can develop various generic competences while at the same time resolving existing challenges and improving the conditions of living together.

Chapter 6 focuses on creating an opportunity for competence development through setting up a council (somewhat similar to the students’ representative system but for the halls of residence). Again, the quality of life improves since the halls of residence become a community instead of being no more than premises, while students who participate in the council have increased opportunities for developing generic competences.

Chapters 7 and 8 describe the functioning of two very special halls of residences – the Galilean School of the University of Padova (chapter 7) and the Nations at the Uppsala University (chapter 8). In the case of the Galilean School the halls of residence have been converted into a learning community, while the Nations’ culture is that of students continuously conceiving of and implementing pro-
jects for other students, which is made possible thanks to the support system maintained by the university authorities.

Chapter 9 closes Part 1. Quite different from the other practices, it shows how the development of any competence can be sustained through helping students become conscious of and connect all the learning that they are involved in during the years of their university studies. Students compile a log and a portfolio in order to reflect on and verbalize the outcomes of the informal, non-formal and formal learning, both for their own developmental purposes and in order to be capable of speaking about the competences developed to a potential employer or in a similar situation.

Part 2 chapters discuss each of the seven generic competences in more detail: the importance of each selected competence is explained, the competence is defined, and its building blocks are outlined. The rubrics developed by the DARE+ project for each of the competences are included in respective chapters and more recommendations on what can be done to help students develop the competence in question are given. The ordering of the chapters in Part 2 follows the sequence in which the competences were addressed in the project activities: communication, teamwork and leadership (year 1 of the project); conflict resolution, intercultural competence, social entrepreneurship and project competence (year 2 of the project).

The concluding section contains a brief reflection on recognition of competences developed outside the classroom and an afterword, which draws the readers' attention to some of the challenges faced by the world today and suggests that competence development and recognition might form part of the answers our societies need so urgently.

A note on the formats of the publication

The present publication exists in two formats: on paper and as an electronic document. The electronic version is available on
the project website\(^1\) and can be consulted and/or downloaded free of charge. You can also download a particular Part 1 or Part 2 text. The competence tables included in the chapters of Part 2 can be downloaded as separate PDF files, printed out and photocopied for non-for-profit educational purposes.\(^2\)

On behalf of all the DARE+ participants,

*Maria Yarosh and Pablo Beneitone*

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1. http://dareplus.eu/
2. Competence tables are available at http://dareplus.eu/
REFERENCES


PART I
A WORKSHOP IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP: ENTREPRENEURS TO CHANGE THE WORLD

María Inés Carbajal Francisco
(Education for an Interdependent World (EDIW))

EDIW - Education for an Interdependent World - has carried out a workshop with the title of “Social Entrepreneurship; Entrepreneurs to Change the World”, which took place in a summer seminar in the city of Madrid, Spain, with university students from 7 countries, belonging to 3 continents. The main competence developed was Social Entrepreneurship, though — as we explain later — this is a complex competence which implies the previous development of other basic competences, such as communication, leadership, creativity, teamwork and project development.

The workshop consisted of 16 hours of activity. The objective is to continue developing this competence with their peer colleges in their local settings as a part of the local implementation activities, within the framework of the European project DARE+ (Developing All-Round Education), of the Erasmus+ program.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ACTIVITY

A group of 8 students participated in the workshop, which consisted of 4 sessions with a total of 16 hours. The first sessions were about the meaning of entrepreneurship, and its similarities to and differences from Social Entrepreneurship, followed by the characteristics of social entrepreneurs, as well as the attitudes and competences to be developed. A number of examples and best practices illustrated the theory.
The objectives of this workshop were

1. To learn what entrepreneurship is, along with Social Entrepreneurship and the characteristics of a social entrepreneur.
2. To visualize oneself in the role of an entrepreneur, being aware of the personal capacities and potential for it.
3. To learn different techniques for the generation of ideas and development of creativity.
4. To learn important elements for the design of a social entrepreneurial project and business models.
5. To awaken curiosity about social entrepreneurship and the development of competences.
6. To provoke and motivate consideration of the importance of training and formation in the entrepreneurial spirit, in order to be aware of the needs of own context, and to be able to offer innovative qualitative proposals for change as committed citizens.

The sequence of the workshop shows a progressive acquaintance of the trainee with the topic, at the personal and group level. The activities in the first day are directed towards explaining and describing the topic and the competences required to be a social entrepreneur. Afterwards, and through the projection of 3 Youtube videos, the trainee first will get in touch with her/his personal foes and fears as well as his/her own qualities and potential to develop self-confidence and initiative (Youtube: (a) Dare to change), then a short video will make him/her reflect on the capacities of a social entrepreneur (Youtube: (b) What is a Social Entrepreneur), and finally the motivating Kliksberg Report explaining and showing models of social entrepreneurs throughout the world, will underline the idea that social entrepreneurs can change the world. After the session of input comes the moment of the “Activities”, where the trainee will look at himself/herself to reflect and test how much his/her personality has developed those features of social entrepreneurship, and how much he/
### Sequence of topics in the workshop:

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<th>Day 1 - 6 hours</th>
<th>Day 2 - 6 hours</th>
<th>Day 3 - 6 hours</th>
<th>Day 4 - 5 hours</th>
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<td><strong>What is entrepreneurship?</strong>&lt;br&gt;• What is Social Entrepreneurship?&lt;br&gt;• Competences of a Social entrepreneur</td>
<td><strong>Creative thinking.</strong>&lt;br&gt;• Characteristics of creative persons&lt;br&gt;• How to generate ideas.&lt;br&gt;<strong>Youtube videos:</strong>&lt;br&gt;• The cavemen.(c)&lt;br&gt;• Motivation: Dare to Imagine.(f)&lt;br&gt;• Parable of the aqueduct.(g)</td>
<td><strong>How to make a social entrepreneurial project?</strong>&lt;br&gt;10 ideas of social entrepreneurial projects.(h)&lt;br&gt;Models of SE projects. (i)&lt;br&gt;Basic guidelines&lt;br&gt;<strong>Activities:</strong>&lt;br&gt;• Creativity drills&lt;br&gt;• Brainstorming&lt;br&gt;<strong>Sharing &amp; Debate</strong>&lt;br&gt;Design of a project. (personal or in group)</td>
<td><strong>Debate and selection of projects.</strong>&lt;br&gt;Presentation of projects.&lt;br&gt;<strong>Sharing &amp; Debate</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>Evaluation of the Workshop</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Activities:</strong>&lt;br&gt;• Discover the route of your destiny.&lt;br&gt;• Test of the entrepreneur.(d)</td>
<td><strong>Sharing &amp; Debate</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>Activities:</strong>&lt;br&gt;• Brainstorming</td>
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she has to work on it. The first day finishes with a sharing and debate of the outcomes and learnt lessons along the day.

The second day of the Workshop works on the topic of Creative Thinking and Generation of Ideas, for which two power-point presentations are proposed to explain the features of a creative person, and how to generate ideas. Three Youtube videos will help in the motivation and reflection about the importance of thinking; even though some people may not understand or may even discourage the individual, as seen in The Cavemen (c). In Dare to Imagine (f) different scientists and thinkers will remind us the importance of creativity, connectivity and the unlimited possibilities of creation and connection throughout the world. Afterwards, the parable of the Aqueduct shows two different attitudes to solving the same problem: the creative proactive attitude, and the passive, unassertive one. The second day finishes with some drills to practice creativity
and brainstorming, followed by a sharing and debate session about the lessons learnt along the day.

On the third day, trainees will learn how to make a Social Entrepreneurship Project, after learning about concrete SE projects (10 Ideas of SE Projects(I)) and Models of Project Designs. Trainees will get basic guidelines and they will have to put their knowledge into practice, designing a SE project. This activity can be carried out personally or in a group, preferably, depending on the characteristics of the group of trainees. It is important at this point, to give the group time enough to think, create and develop their ideas into a project.

The last day of the Workshop is the time for the new social entrepreneurs to present their project design to the group, with each presentation followed by a session of questions, clarifications and suggestions by the group. According to the real possibilities of the group, one project can be selected for further elaboration and implementation.

The last moments — half an hour maybe — of the workshop are dedicated to an exercise of critical and proactive thinking by doing an evaluation of it, by writing and, if time allows, by orally sharing as well, in order to help the trainees to reflect on their learning, and to help the trainers to evaluate their performance and the validity of the methodology and resources used throughout the workshop, to enrich and improve future sessions.

**The Methodology**

The methodology used throughout the workshop was participative and interactive. It was the method of non-formal education and it was achieved through role playing, power point presentations, interactive games, team building activities and debates. The sessions started with a theoretical introduction about the different topics, followed by practical study cases, and in the last part, the participants created
their own critical proposals of activities and projects, working on a personal level as well as in a team. The proportion of time allocated to each one of these three parts was of a total of 33% to each, considering that the first day was mostly dedicated to theory and the last day was more dedicated to creativity and practice.

According to the competence levels agreed by the team of this project, this activity can be adjusted to different levels, according to the knowledge or experience of the participants.

**Results**

At the end of the workshop, participants had the opportunity to develop a plan for a social enterprise which they can use later as platform for organizing one within their groups or organization.

As a result of the workshop, the young participants have developed new skills in the field of social entrepreneurship and reach better understanding of social problems. They have deepened the sense of entrepreneurship and responsibility of their work among their target groups. Due to this improvement and their professional knowledge of their work they will be more attractive and more influential in their community, and thus they will bring more attention to concerning social issues and engage more people in their work.

**Assessment of the development of the competence through the workshop** was not done, but we consider that the tools of assessment must focus on the entire process of analysis and decision-making, and not only on the solution adopted.

**What can we do to change the world?**

Towards the end of the workshop the students envisioned and designed their own projects according to their present or
future profession, their own sensibility and the needs of their geographical context. Following is the list of participants and their projects of Social Entrepreneurship, created and developed along the sessions:

**Giuseppe**, from Florence, Italy. Student of Economics: restoring and utilizing old abandoned municipal buildings in the city of Florence, to house immigrants and refugees.

**Alicia**, from Zaragoza, Spain. Student of Management: Opening an evening-school for children and teenagers with learning problems to avoid drop-out.

**Cristina**, from Malabo, Guinea Equatorial, Student of Education: creating a park for sports and a leisure area with organized activities for youngsters at risk of drug consumption and social exclusion, in the city of Malabo.

**Yolanda**, from Granada, Spain. Student of Physics: to create a team of advanced university students from the areas of Physics and Chemistry, to explain these subjects in a didactic and an attractive way to the younger students in schools and colleges.

**Marta**, from Granada, Spain, Student of Nursing: Creating young life for an old-age home built next to a kindergarten: creative interaction between generations.

**Alvaro**, from Madrid, Spain. Student of Business and Management: Giving life to a small and old-age populated town at the foot of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, in Granada.

**Marie**, from Paris, France. Student of French Literature: Recycling of obsolete books and photocopied books, in the university, to promote solidarity with students who can’t afford books, notebooks and stationary material for the classes.

**Yamir**, from Mumbai, India. Student of Education: Teaching evening-classes for children in the biggest slum of Mumbai, to promote literacy and avoid drop-out.

We know a few of them are already making real their projects, and others continue to dream the day to be able to offer their solution to build a better world.
Background Theories

1. Why do we want to create social entrepreneurs?

We want to create social entrepreneurs because social entrepreneurs are the ones who are advancing systemic solutions to major social problems. (www.muhammadyunus.org)

We want to provide examples of ordinary people who formed organizations centered on making a difference. (www.toms.com)

We want to call attention to the role of a particular type of actor who propels social change. (www.teachforamerica.org)

The stories of these social entrepreneurs will inspire and encourage people who seek to build a better world. (www.ashoka.org)

Human progress has always been led by visionary individuals who seek a better future and dedicate their lives to realizing that promise. These social entrepreneurs tackle some of the world’s toughest challenges with grit and determination. Social entrepreneurs can change the world! (www.skoll.org)

2. Social Entrepreneurship Competence

We consider Social Entrepreneurship as a Systemic Generic Competence, as it supposes the three categories of: organization, enterprise and leadership. It is also a complex competence in the sense that it requires the previous acquisition and development of other basic competences such as self-motivation, communication, conflict management, teamwork, adaptability, creativity, analytical and critical thinking, decision-making, and project management, among others.

To develop the competence of Social Entrepreneurship is especially meaningful at this moment, as it is said that the current economic model has failed and in response governments would increasingly have to look for a more sustainable model, both socially and environmentally balanced. New challenges and organizations are appearing under nonclassical conceptions of
doing business, dealing not only with economic activity, but also an intense social activity, and the University must meet its responsibility in these new opportunities.

From in-depth studies of social innovators, we have identified seven important competencies that are essential for a successful entrepreneur:

1. Leadership. These people take initiative and action to solve problems (rather than complaining about what’s wrong).

2. Optimism. These people are confident that they can achieve a bold vision, even when many other people doubt them. They have a strong sense of self-efficacy and a belief that they have control to change their circumstances.

3. Grit. This is a combination of perseverance, passion, and hard work—the relentless drive to achieve goals, complete commitment to achieving their task.

4. Resilience in the face of adversities, obstacles, challenges, and failures. When things fall apart, these people rise to the occasion. They see failures as valuable feedback.

5. Creativity and innovation. These people see new possibilities and think in unconventional ways. They see connections and patterns where few other people would imagine.

6. Empathy. These people are able to put themselves in the shoes of others, and imagine perspectives other than their own; this is one of the most valuable qualities for understanding the needs of others whom they serve.

7. Emotional and social intelligence. These people are excellent at connecting with others and building strong relationships.

The important thing to note here is that each one of these qualities is something that people can develop with practice. There is a tremendous amount of scientific evidence that people can grow in each of these capacities.
For a long time, people thought that these traits were fixed. You either had them or you didn’t. There were some people who were born creative, and others who would never have an ounce of creative inspiration. There were some people who were naturally optimistic, and others who just were naturally pessimistic. People couldn’t change.

But now we believe and know that people can develop these competencies. Just in the same way that college students can learn a foreign language, so too can they learn the key skills for being great social entrepreneurs and innovators—becoming proficient, or even “fluent,” in these core competencies.(3)

College students often have passion and energy and a desire to make a difference, but they frequently have no idea what they want to choose as a career, or what they want for their future, let alone what “big, hairy, audacious goals” they have for changing the world.

Our goal through this workshop and through other activities in this line is to help spread the need for young entrepreneurs across the world: to help train the next generation of social entrepreneurs, innovators, and problem solvers for the 21st century.

3. How we understand Social Entrepreneurship

Social Entrepreneurship is the process of pursuing innovative solutions to social problems. More specifically, social entrepreneurs adopt a mission to create and sustain social value. They draw upon appropriate thinking in both the business and nonprofit worlds and operate in a variety of organizations: large and small, new and old, religious and secular; nonprofit, for-profit, and hybrid.

Business entrepreneurs typically measure performance in profit and return, but social entrepreneurs also take into account a positive return to society.

Social entrepreneurship typically furthers broad social, cultural, and environmental goals and is commonly associated with the voluntary and nonprofit sectors.
Social entrepreneurship in modern society offers an altruistic form of entrepreneurship that focuses on the benefits that society may reap.

Simply put, entrepreneurship becomes a social endeavor when it transforms social capital in a way that affects society positively. It is viewed as advantageous because the success of social entrepreneurship depends on many factors related to social impact that traditional corporate businesses do not prioritize.

Social entrepreneurs recognize immediate social problems, but also seek to understand the broader context of an issue that crosses disciplines, fields, and theories.

Social Entrepreneurship is the process that creates change, both economic and social, through leadership and the application of business practices while maintaining the focus on the organization’s mission. In developing countries, social entrepreneurship focuses on creating income opportunities for many people held in the grips of poverty. Within developed nations, social entrepreneurship helps non-profit organizations explore income generating businesses that focus on the double bottom line of both the financial and social returns on their investment (3).

Social Entrepreneurship initiatives are usually introduced and led by the social entrepreneur. These individuals will champion the project usually taking a holistic approach to the problem. They identify the sources that prevent change within the society. These areas sometimes relate to the basic welfare of the populations such as food, clothing, and shelter. However, they can take a community approach in areas like education, clean water, basic medical need, or major global concerns of global warming and the environment. Sometimes new innovations are created to help address a critical need. Social Entrepreneurs will use business skills to commercialize the product, in much the same manner as any other inventor. The difference is, they look for sustainability, and not for maximum return on investment. They might create new and interesting alliances with for-profit companies, Non-Governmental Organizations, and/or Non-profit Organizations.
In this drawing, the Triple Bottom Line, we can see how those factors converge and are intercrossed:

**Triple Bottom Line** (abbreviated as TBL or 3BL) is an accounting framework with three parts: social, environmental and financial. These three divisions are also called the three Ps: people, planet and profit, or the “three pillars of sustainability”. The term was coined by John Elkington in 1994(4).

The concept of TBL demands that a company's responsibility lies with stakeholders rather than shareholders. In this case, “stakeholders” refers to anyone who is influenced, either directly or indirectly, by the actions of the firm. According to the stakeholder theory, the business entity should be used as a vehicle for coordinating stakeholder interests, instead of maximizing shareholder (owner) profit. The TBL can provide a powerful shift in an entrepreneur’s philosophy and business development.

The TBL represents an increased awareness and acknowledgement that making a living does not have to be at the expense of the human condition or the environment. We can earn, survive and thrive and support the well-being of people
and the planet at the same time without one suffering for the sake of another.

**People** (social capital): The “people” of the Triple Bottom Line refers to the impact that a business has on people within the business (employees) and people outside of the business (the community). Your business practices should address the well-being of and benefit to the people for which the business operates. All stakeholder interests are interdependent via fair wages, fair-trade practices, safe work environments, retention rates, ethical standards, local sourcing, local participation, local charitable contributions and contributions to community living standards.

**Planet** (natural capital): refers to environmental protection. You don’t have to be a “green” business to practice good environmental management. Entrepreneurs can enhance the natural order and minimize their environmental impact in a wide variety of ways that are not only cost-effective, but easy to implement and adopt. From small efforts like: managing energy consumption, employing eco-friendly materials, ‘recycling, reducing, and reusing’, the use of post-consumer materials, managing water consumption, and minimizing the amount of waste to more substantial efforts like: reducing waste from packaging and determining the true environmental cost of manufacturing from harvesting raw materials to disposal by the end user, entrepreneurs can make a difference and influence their supply chain to do the same. Compromise can often be found somewhere in the middle with some creativity.

**Profit** (capital): refers to the real economic value created by your business and enjoyed by the host society. It is your income and expenditures, taxes, business climate factors, employment and business diversity factors, as well as the economic impact your business has on society. It is not just about the *internal* profit made by a company.

Every step taken to incorporate a shift towards the TBL is a small contribution towards a better place in which we all benefit.
4. *Characteristics of a Social Entrepreneur*

Throughout the workshop, the students had to test themselves as entrepreneurs, remarking on some crucial features or characteristics of a Social Entrepreneur, such as:

1. Trying to shrug off the constraints of ideology or discipline
2. Identifying and applying practical solutions to social problems, combining innovation, resourcefulness, and opportunity
3. Innovating by finding a new product, a new service, or a new approach to a social problem
4. Focusing — first and foremost — on social value creation and, in that spirit, being willing to share their innovations and insights for others to replicate
5. Jumping in before ensuring they are fully resourced
6. Having an unwavering belief in everyone’s innate capacity, often regardless of education, to contribute meaningfully to economic and social development
7. Showing a dogged determination that pushes them to take risks that others wouldn’t dare
8. Balancing their passion for change with a zeal to measure and monitor their impact
9. Having a great deal to teach change-makers in other sectors
10. Displaying a healthy impatience
12. Being persistent. They keep trying until it works. And, they never let roadblocks, obstacles, or naysayers deter them.
13. Having found a cause that inspires them, and in which they believe in what they’re doing. They are passionate about their cause.
15- Being exceptionally collaborative. In every case, these social innovators are masters of seeking out partnerships that support the work they’re doing, help spread the work, and make it sustainable.

16- Having a positive vision of the future. No matter how daunting the social problem is, they see the possibility and the potential for change and are hopeful and optimistic about the future.

Or in other words, it can be said that social entrepreneurs are resourceful, creative, visionary, independent thinkers, innovators, tireless workers, optimistic, risk-takers, team-workers and leaders.

Transferability

We consider that this experience of the workshop is easily applicable, and it is possible to transfer this process and methodology into different contexts, as well as to adjust and adapt the length of the workshop/activity.

In this adaptability to contexts and duration of time, a few elements cannot be forgotten, and we can say they must be kept: 1)- Theoretical framework of the competence- study cases- creative elaboration of concrete projects of SE. The proportion of time allocated to each one of these parts as well as its sequence will vary depending on the background of the group, and the knowledge-practice-experience of the participants about the topic. 2)- Teamwork. It is important to organize this workshop in a group with a minimum of 4 or 5 persons, as the experience of sharing and exchange of ideas from different perspectives and backgrounds is extremely useful in the design and viability of the projects, even if the participants belong to different countries, cultures and idiosyncrasies. 3)- Quality time for generation of ideas and creativity, at the personal level, and at the group level. To foster this space is very much
required for encouraging the capacity of thinking, analyzing, discovering and inventing possibilities. 4)- **Adaptability of the trainer to the situation and needs of the trainees.** In spite of the planning of time and activities for the workshop, we consider very important the personal follow-up with each participant from the starting point of each personal situation, understanding, experience, etc. This will surely guarantee the success of the activity.

We think that a specific feature of the context in which this experience took place, is the intercultural precedence of the participants, as well as their different areas of knowledge and backgrounds, which enriched their minds, possibilities and sharing.

**Notes**


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VLEADER© IN THE ACADEMY: LEARNING THROUGH AN EDUCATIONAL SIMULATOR

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GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT THE BEST PRACTICE

- SETTING: We present an initiative promoted and conducted by the University of Padova (Italy), specifically by the Department of Philosophy, Sociology, Education and Applied Psychology (FISPPA), within two courses: “Human Resource Assessment and Development” (within a Masters program in Management of Scholastic and Educational Services) and “Training and Teaching Methodology” (a three-year Bachelors in Education and Training Science). The first experience took place in the academic year 2013-2014 from March to May 2014; the second one from October to December 2014.

- NAME & CONTEXT: vLeader is a training activity held in a virtual environment, in which students take on the role of leader and interact in a simulated organizational context. It is a single-player computer simulator that requires students to interact as leaders in business meetings with artificially intelligent avatars. The simulation is composed of a series of increasingly difficult scenarios that come after an initial set of 4 exercises whose completion takes approximately 90 minutes and whose aim is to practice the basics of the interaction, understand the meaning behind all the actions that are available to the player and understand how the performance is evaluated. In the test scenarios, the player is

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given a set of business goals by his boss (an avatar) and is asked to lead business meetings by supporting or opposing ideas and collaborators. In every scenario, goals, ideas, and characters are set in order to provide good feedback (hence higher scores) to specific sets of behaviors (e.g., those that express a participative style of leadership, such as asking for opinions, letting people talk, motivating them toward the goal instead of deciding, etc.). For instance, one of the first things that people realize when entering the simulator is that remaining silent and doing nothing has the effect of raising the tension in the room, and they understand because the cause-effect link between silence and tension as avatars start displaying nervousness by, e.g, standing up, coughing or banging their fist on the table (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Screenshot from Scenario 2 “A New Colleague”. The character on the right is too nervous and stands up. The three main dimensions of the simulator (power, tension and ideas) are graphically represented in the upper right corner of the screen. Ideas in the lower center of the screen are being discussed. Ideas in the right lower corner of the screen are approved (green) or pre-empted (red) if they are in competition with an idea that has been approved.
In this way, people have a direct experience of the consequences of their actions and can form a theory of the principle at hand (e.g. participative leadership). In this light, we might call this process a form of experiential learning. In our aims, the simulation we employed is an attempt to get out of the academy and to promote classroom management skills of leadership, in terms of simulated situations. Users have the possibility to recall real life extra-academic contexts and consider the possible consequences in different real situations. Students, to carry out the activity, used different time and tools from the formal ones: they used the simulator directly on their personal computers during extracurricular time.

- COMPETENCES DEVELOPED: vLeader can be used to foster both leadership skills and methodological aspects related to the use of simulations in professional training. Specifically, four skills were involved in the learning process across the two classes.

  a. *Organizational leadership*: identify, pose and resolve problems; make reasoned decisions; plan and manage time. Students can test their ability to motivate people and move toward common goals, prevent and resolve conflicts, and apply knowledge in practical situations. A good performance requires them to adapt to and act in new situations while coping under pressure.

  b. *Communication*: communicate interactively and receive feedback, use information and communication technologies, interact with others in a constructive manner even when dealing with difficult issues. Students can develop the ability to support or oppose people and ideas. Users can also familiarize themselves with non-verbal communication strategies, such as body language.

  c. *Teamwork*: students work in both virtual and real teams: they have to generate new ideas or foster creativity in others, demonstrate commitment to tasks and responsi-
bilities, be able to adapt and change in a flexible way, and display tolerance and respect for others.

d. Mastering simulations as tools for teaching: evaluate pros and cons of vLeader as a tool for teaching: within this learning goal, students were encouraged to learn autonomously, to analyze and to summarize, to be critical and self-critical. They advanced in competences like autonomous learning, project management, proactivity in learning, and knowledge of the professional field of trainers.

- SCOPE/NUMBERS

In the first experience, 55 Masters students were involved in a distance laboratory on leadership for approximately 100 hours of individual activity. Two teachers and five tutors took part in the activity. In the second experience, 36 Bachelors students were involved in 15 hours of individual activity at the simulator. Two teachers and three tutors supported the process.

The main stages of the activities were as follows: a) introduction of vLeader and interaction rules; b) training goals; c) practicing the simulator up to the fourth scenario; d) developing a strategy to achieve the best score and pass the examination. The highest score is valid for the final assessment. Throughout the entire process special attention was devoted to personal reflection through feedback on their performance.

In the second experience, the main goal of the students was to find out how vLeader promotes participants’ learning. After an initial introduction to the simulator, participants were asked to complete all the exercises and the first scenario (Time: one month). At the end of that, students had to complete an online feedback form. The three tutors then gathered and analyzed students’ answers and gave feedback during a class discussion. A second round of feedback was given after the second and third scenarios. At the end of the experience, students provided a project report where they had to show their ability to connect their learning experiences.
Model description

1. WHAT, WHERE, BY WHOM, HOW: In the first experience of academic training, participants worked through their goals in a completely self-paced process and were told that they should achieve a score of at least 90 in all scenarios of the simulator. At the beginning of the training students received a list of objectives to be achieved during the laboratory. Firstly, in order to achieve a good score, they had to learn how to control three elements of vLeader: their power, the tension of their collaborators, and the ideas to approve or discard.

2. Secondly, students were encouraged to reflect on the consequences of their behaviour in order to deduce some general principles that must be taken into account for effective leadership. Finally, they were invited to try out different leadership styles (directive, participative, delegative) and learn how to recognize the most effective style in different contexts. Before and after the exercises they had to describe the goal of their actions and their reflections on the results (pre- and post-feedback). Right after each scenario, in order to promote a reflective attitude on the experience of simulation, students were invited to write down a learning journal (Brochbank & McGill, 2006; Kobert, 1995; McCrindle & Christensen, 1995; Moon, 2003; 2004) in which they were asked to report and identify a “learning event” (Munari, 1998; 2011; Zaggia, Frison, Serbati, 2011) particularly meaningful to their own experience. The Learning Journal stimulated students to reflect on the emotions associated with the events, to identify learning outcomes connected to them and opportunities for transferability into a professional context. The major aim of the Learning Journal was indeed to support students in capturing the key points of their learning as well as to connect the vLeader experience to the learning acquired within the formal context (such as in class) and the informal one (such as their professional and personal daily life).
Students were supported by two professors in charge of teaching and by three online teaching assistants who facilitated learning by means of a one-to-one distance relationship. In addition, the same teaching assistants were in charge of monitoring the learning process and provided the student with a final individual evaluation of their achievements.

The second vLeader experience involved 36 students for about 10/15 hours of individual activity in a simulation environment. During this time they received three different distance feedbacks and participated in three classroom meetings of 2 or 3 hours; one near the beginning of the activity, one in the middle of it and one at the end of the course. These were useful for monitoring the activities. According to the cognitive and evaluation objectives of this second experience, students were requested to provide feedback on the accessibility and ease of use independent of the instrument (depending on their personal experience), on the level of involvement generated by vLeader, on the usefulness of this activity developed during the lesson, on the usefulness of the received stimulus to achieve a higher score in the scenarios for learning purposes, and on any suggestions to improve the instrument. Even in this case, they could take advantage of an online platform through which they received, shared and delivered the materials relating to the activities as well as the support of three teaching assistants. The evaluation of students’ results was only qualitative, in fact neither the scores achieved in each scenario, nor the number of simulations made for each of them, were considered. The acquisition of credits required was assured by the simple use of the instrument in all its parts, the required return of students’ feedback and the final project work (in 7 groups of 4 to 6 students).
2. Background theories

vLeader: A Tool between Serious Games, Gamification and Experiential Training

The approach used to test and to understand the potential of vLeader in promoting the development of leadership skills is based on a model obtained by intersecting serious games, experiential learning and gamification.

Although vLeader can’t be completely described by any of the models above, the basic hypothesis is that it uses some typical mechanisms of each of them.

This approach has been used to maximize the effectiveness of serious games for learning (Girard, 2013) with the awareness that the use of these simulators doesn’t guarantee, in itself, the successful achievement of the training goals. In Aldrich (2003), vLeader has already been presented as a “simulator for learning leadership”, suggesting an inclusion within the “serious games” family. This term means “games designed for a purpose beyond pure entertainment”. vLeader, indeed, uses the motivation levers of game design – such as competition, curiosity, collaboration, and individual challenge – and game media, including board games, through physical representation or video games, and through avatars and 3D immersion, to enhance the motivation of participants to engage in complex tasks (http://lexicon.ft.com/Term?term=serious-games). Nonetheless, these elements are not enough to illustrate the potential and the use of vLeader as a tool that fosters behavioral changes regarding leadership styles (directive, participative, delegative), tension regulation, stress management, gaining and using power and personal influence, and creating alliances.
In vLeader, the feedback that is given after each scenario (Figure 2) reveals some particular characteristics of the “gamification” model. The role of the score at the end of the scenario, albeit used in different ways, helps the person to experience an increasingly engaging and articulated learning path, addressed towards achieving levels and objectives that are consistent with the behaviors that need to be changed. Gamification is the application of digital game design techniques to non-game contexts, such as business, education, and social impact challenges. Over the past few years, gamification adoption has skyrocketed. Companies use game thinking for employee motivation in human resources, team building, productivity enhancement, training, health and wellness, sustainability, and innovation. Marketers gamify their programs to engage customers.

![Figure 2. Examples of feedback screens appearing after each attempt. Feedback pages provide a detailed numerical score, a narrative effect of the player’s actions on financial performance, employee satisfaction, and customer satisfaction, and graphical representations of the link between actions and effects on collaborators.](image)

Finally, we explored vLeader through the lens of the Experiential Learning Model; specifically, we referred to phases such as concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). The presence of tutors, who acted as facilitators and encouraged the reflection process and critical thinking, promoted a better development
of skills and of new ideas (Fedeli, 2010). vLeader involved students attending a Bachelors degree course of “Teaching and Learning Methods”. During the second experience, the focus of students was to analyze the potential of vLeader as a learning tool. Students were asked to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the tool from a methodological point of view, and to illustrate the critical and positive elements of the simulation. Games may be effective training grounds because they allow people to manage real emotions and behaviors in a protected situation. What we want to emphasize is how the “pretending” that characterizes a virtual game such as vLeader helps to bring out feelings, behaviors and actions. In vLeader, we act through an avatar to improve our leadership skills in order to lead and influence our own and others’ behaviors and decisions. Through the simulator, we assert that people can experience Vygotsky’s “zone of proximal development” (Vygotsky, 1978). This model is very useful to understanding why evidence-based training and recreational experiences are effective. With the “zone of proximal development,” Vygotsky wants to show the difference between the level of an individual’s development in a specific moment and his potential. Pragmatically, the zone of proximal development can be defined as the difference between the level of response to a task solved by an individual who operates by himself/herself and the level of response produced when the same work is completed with the help of another person (peer or not), able to do that task (Vygotsky, 1978).

Another relevant aspect is the role that error plays in the transition between the current level and the potential level (Vygotsky, 1978). Indeed the person is asked to solve a task that requires raising the current level, and that will encourage the player to try new behaviors and new operational strategies, compared to those acted from within a comfort zone. When a person starts to use the software it is crucial for the enhancement of the learning process that the tutor, or facilitator, helps the student to understand and interpret the scores of the simulation. Without this reflective activity, that can be realized face
to face, online, in groups, and/or in forums, explicit learning might not occur.

3. Resources

**Human resources**: two teachers and eight tutors were involved in different ways during the two experiences. The tools were: a Moodle platform used as a container for resources, activities, links, audio-lessons, and feedback reports. Skype was used in order to provide specific support for exceptionally difficult situations. Some part of the vLeader activities were held in classrooms equipped with a projector. **Financial resources**: vLeader software was bought by each student during the course as a normal educational resource included in the syllabus.

4. Assessment/accreditation/certification

In the first experience, the assessment (which made up a third of each student’s final assessment) considered the following: the best score achieved during the performance in each scenarios (students had to reach a score of 90 in each scenario), the total number of attempts, the evolution of the scores and the quality of pre- and post- feedback. In the second experience we didn’t consider the score achieved during their performance; only the participation level, the quality of feedback, and the final project work (10 scores in total: 2 points for all scenarios; 3 points for feedback; 5 points for PW). Students were supported by a group of teaching assistants who monitored the development of skills and the level of involvement. For the assessment we considered two main aspects: the improvement in leadership skills and the reflective activities. The simulator provides an evaluation of the leadership performance with a percentage score (comprised of business result and leadership score). For the summative assessment, we considered the total count of attempts for each scenario and the evolution of
scores in addition to the students’ best scores at the simulator. In order to evaluate the quality of students’ self-reflection on their learning, we evaluated whether their records reflected a thoughtful analysis of their learning.

In the second experience, students completed three questionnaires. Questions focused on their involvement, the critical aspects of the tool, the students’ personal considerations (1st feedback); the usefulness of the feedback given back by tutors, suggestions to facilitate vLeader’s use and the people’s involvement, explaining the motivation behind the suggestions given (2nd feedback); general involvement, evaluation of the whole experience, and suggestions for future classes (3rd feedback). The evaluation of the students’ feedback focused on the relevance of the answers and the critical analysis of the experience. For the final project work, students worked in seven groups of 4-6 people. It was uploaded at the end of the course and it was considered as an integral part of the final exam (max 5 points). The main aspects considered during its evaluation were the theoretical framework, the specificity of language, the argumentative skills, the originality of the product, and the ability to connect learning experiences and to transfer the skills to other contexts.

Model’s evaluation and relevant elements

In the first experience, we employed a pre-post-test design and measured both transactional and transformational self-reported leadership behaviors. We also collected measures of fluid intelligence and extraversion to control inter-individual differences in learning proficiency. We found that the effectiveness of the simulator is moderated by students’ implicit and explicit extraversion: introverted students improved more in three scales of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Bass & Avolio, 1995: p. 1) “Outcomes of leadership” (Extra effort, Perceived Effectiveness and Satisfaction); 2) Individual-
ized Consideration and 3) Laissez-Faire Leadership Style, which decreased from time 1 to time 2. Detailed results are described in Dalla Rosa and Vianello (2015).

As mentioned in the model’s description, students were encouraged to create a Learning Journal (Brochbank & McGill, 2006; Kobert, 1995; McCrindle & Christensen, 1995; Moon, 2003; 2004) with the double goal of supporting individual reflection on the learning process and its contents, and of collecting information regarding the effectiveness of the learning process that is fostered by the simulator. Learning journals guide students in promoting critical self-awareness as well as deep and continuous reflection on experience. Through appropriate prompts, these tools support students in finding and tracing occurred learning events with the aim of identifying knowledge and skills acquired; therefore, they enhance people’s learning strategies, reflective and self-critical competences and help to identify further learning needs (Alheit, 1995; Alheit & Dausien, 2002). The Learning Journal promoted individual reflection upon what happened during the virtual simulation (events and emotions), what was learnt (learning outcomes) and the possible transferability of the acquired learning in extra-curricular contexts. As in a previous study (Woodward & Sinclair, 1998), the group of students were stimulated by non-prescriptive prompts in order to activate reflective and self-regulated processes. In order to facilitate reflection on those crucial moments, the Learning Journal was inspired by the “method of events” (Munari, 1998; 2011). The learning journal followed the structure presented below:

1. Students were asked to identify for each scenario two “events” considered crucial for learning (called “learning events”), describing them precisely with particular reference to the action, the statement, and the exact moment referred to by this event;
2. For each event, students were asked to answer the following guiding questions:
- How did you feel? What emotions did you experience?
- Is the event related to some of your past experiences? Which ones?
- What are the learning outcomes (knowledge and skills) of your learning event?
- How can you transfer and value this event in your professional practice, or, in general, in your extra-academic life?

At the end of the activity, the journals written by 45 students were grouped into three corpora for each scenario, according to the following criteria: the first group contained the learning events and related emotions; the second contained learning outcomes; the third contained elements of possible transferability. Detailed results are provided in Frison, Dalla Rosa, Serbati, Fedeli, Vianello (in press).

During the second experience, students were encouraged to provide information about the usefulness of the tool both through questionnaires and class discussions. Most students (68.75%) felt an increase in their level of involvement from the beginning to the end of the experimentation. 25% of them noticed a stable level of involvement, and 6.25% of students registered a decrease in their involvement. Four main factors supported the engagement of students in the simulation. The first factor (18 occurrences) was the tool’s recreational-experiential nature. The second factor was the individual’s commitment and motivation towards learning and improvement (9 occurrences). The third factor provided by students to explain their level of involvement was represented by the stimuli and the support given by teachers, tutors and peers, during classroom or group activities (7 occurrences). The fourth factor was the feedback provided by vLeader at the end of each simulation. In this second experiment, seven students said that they felt more involved when they had the objective of increasing the score of their performance; some others stated that competing with their classmates was motivating. 83% of students suggested using vLeader in the next class.
To summarize the outcomes of the two experiences a SWOT analysis has been conducted, which might be useful to transfer the practice into other contexts.

Concerning vLeader’s strengths, it can be stated that:

- vLeader can help to learn leadership skills and improve students’ awareness of their favorite leadership style during social interactions at work.
- Students learned from experience, by doing, and by trial and error. They had the chance to “try” scenarios as much as they wanted, by connecting informal, autonomous and self directed learning to formal learning within the classroom, guided by teachers and tutors.
- The software can handle very complex situations without the actual consequences of errors. Moreover, the individual use of vLeader allows for adaptation to personal users’ learning speed and needs so as to facilitate independent and self directed learning.
- The software can elicit strong emotions, and this, combined with the learning journal, stressed the dimension of awareness about learning occurring, strategies applied, and reflections on and after actions.

Concerning the weaknesses, it appears that:

- Abstracting what has been learned by trial and error into principles and theories was hugely difficult for students. Although reflection was supported by the learning journal, the transition from experience to theory is a challenging process.
- Students sometimes experienced tech-related difficulties. It is important for users to take some time to familiarize themselves with the commands and interaction rules before focusing their attention on the learning goals.
- Some students found it difficult to adapt to the “inner workings” and to the “simplification of reality” that is embedded in vLeader, as well as to the limited number of affordances and interaction choices.
Lack of guided class simulations: the focus on extracurricular time and informal contexts lowered the chances of getting guidance in classroom. Nonetheless, strong and frequent online tutoring was provided.

Concerning difficulties with the possible replication of the whole practice, we recommend to carefully consider that:

- Students may compare vLeader with more common gaming simulators, erroneously shifting the focus onto graphics and/or amusement.
- Unknown moderators of the effectiveness may be at work. Students who tend to learn deductively (from theories to practice) may take a long time to learn inductively (from practice to theories).
- Lack of resources (e.g. skilled and motivated teaching assistants and multimedia classrooms) or low pre-existing computer skills in students may seriously undermine the effectiveness of the intervention.

Finally, as for opportunities, we can see that:

- vLeader represents a significant way to recognize and value prior experience by replicating in a simulated context previous leadership behaviors and seeing consequences in terms of business results and social climate, enhancing the understanding of the possible impact in social contexts.
- With appropriate support provided to students/participants, especially during the first phase of the simulation, vLeader may offer a powerful training space for young and adult people to increase their competencies in leadership, teamwork, conflict resolution, and effective communication. Aside from usefulness as an integrative part of educational pathways, vLeader already supports coaching and team-coaching activities within the processes and management of human resources.
- The combination of face-to-face and online activities and the presence of a tutor represent powerful elements
for the development of leadership skills, for enhancing reflection, and for the integration of theory and practice and critical thinking towards a better development of skills and of new ideas.

vLeader, in the way it was presented in the first experience, can be considered not only easily transferable within a group of a formal learning environment, but also it could be addressed to groups or individuals who need to improve their leadership skills in an organizational context, such as a professional work setting. The second practice could additionally be transferable to an individual or group interested in expanding their resources and improving their skills as trainers or instructors in the field of adult education and particularly in the area of teaching and learning as possible, effective, and innovative methods to introduce in their teaching practices.

References


Context of the practice

The University of Granada, placed among the best universities in Spain, has two university campuses beyond the Spanish peninsula, one in Ceuta and the other in Melilla, two Spanish cities located on the northern coast of Africa. The historical background of these cities makes them very interesting due to their multicultural environments and the cohabitation of different cultures.

Melilla is a city of only twelve square kilometres where different cultures, ethnicities and religions co-habit, with their own values, and methods of interpreting and analysing reality. These features make the social context in Melilla a multicultural living reality, as well as a good environment to research concepts such as tolerance, equality and respect for the others. These human values are usually acquired through a process of social learning that occurs primarily within the family context, which typically serves as the main source for the transmission of cultural values (Vallespir, 1999; Greenfield & Cocking, 2014). However, they should also be fostered through education in order to achieve a firmer implantation in our society. School is one of the best places for children to interact with other children and create groups of friends, where the differences originated by cultural diversity are not a hindrance to integration. For this reason, multicultural classrooms enrich students’ lives and help them to understand other cultures. In summary, education is very important in the prevention of stereotypes and prejudices and, as a result, in the facilitation of cohabitation.
Aware of the importance of these values in our current society (Gervilla, 2000; Debbarma, 2014; George & Uyang, 2014) and particularly in Melilla (López Belmonte, 2013), the Research Group “Curricular Innovation in Multicultural Contexts” (Innovación Curricular en Contextos Multiculturales) was founded within the framework of the Andalusian Research Plan, and became the first research group on the Campus of Melilla. Due to its interdisciplinary approach, the group includes researchers from different scientific fields, currently with representation from the Faculty of Education and Humanities, as well as some additional teachers from primary and secondary education. Such a diversity of researchers and areas of study provides a wealth of knowledge useful for studying multiculturalism from different perspectives.

During the academic year 2012-13, the group submitted a proposal for a new Official Master’s Degree in Cultural Diversity, with a multidisciplinary and cross-border approach, to be taught in Melilla. It was later approved by the International Centre of Postgraduate Studies of Granada University. The general purpose of this Master’s degree is to train professionals from diverse scientific fields in cultural diversity, Education, Health, Business, Legal systems, and Administration being the major fields of study.

The last component of this Master’s degree is a training period related to the specialized area in which the students are enrolled. During that internship they must carry out activities in an efficient, independent, and flexible way, putting into practice the skills learnt during their formal academic training in a non-formal, and real-life context.

One example of a practical learning experience that occurred during this period is the activity carried out by some students in collaboration with “Melilla Institute of Cultures” (Instituto de las Culturas de la Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla). It had a twofold objective: a) to develop students’ intercultural competence in conducting interviews with Melilla inhabitants; and b) to obtain autobiographical recollections, life stories from the
people of Melilla with different cultural origins, religions and ages so that cohabitation in Melilla could be described from the perspective of different perceptions on issues of coexistence, neighbourhood, family relationships, etc.

This activity was part of a broader project that arose from the belief in the importance of remembering and retelling positive life stories in order to improve co-habitation in the city. The best way to obtain these life stories is by talking to people who have lived in Melilla for a long time and can relate their own experiences (Pujadas, 2000). People often remember negative events just because these are more striking, and usually forget the good experiences derived from co-habitation.

Before starting this internship the theoretical phase of the Master’s had already provided our students with the foundational knowledge about the topic. It was time to apply it to a practical situation by interviewing the people living in Melilla from different cultural origins in order to obtain as much information as possible from their life stories, and to show evidence of the knowledge acquired and the skills developed.

Competences developed

The previously mentioned activity helped students to develop several of the generic competences included in the Tuning Project¹, specifically focussing in the intercultural and communicative competences.

Our notion of intercultural competence coincides with that of many other authors (Kemper, 2003; Deardorff, 2006; Aneas, 2009; Bennett, 2011), who consider it to be the conjunction of cognitive, affective, and behavioural components that allows people to communicate effectively, work in teams, solve problems, etc.,

while dealing with the cultural differences in any multicultural context. The intercultural competence is constructed through a learning process based on an attitude of respect (valuing other cultures, appreciating cultural diversity, respecting others, etc.), openness (to intercultural learning and to people from other cultures), and curiosity (tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty). It also requires cultural knowledge and the development of additional skills, such as effective communication.

The ability to communicate information accurately, clearly, and as intended is one of the most important life skills. It implies not only exchanging information but also understanding the emotions and feelings of speakers, generally expressed by kinesics, (i.e. physical behaviour such as gestures, facial expression and body language) (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002). The development of this communicative competence begins in earliest infancy and continues throughout life (Whitmore & Goodman, 1995).

These competences are not independent of each other. In fact, we use the term Intercultural Communicative Competence (Wiseman & Koester, 1993; Lustig & Koester, 2003) to refer to the ability to understand cultures, including one’s own, and use this understanding to communicate with people from other cultures successfully, which will bridge cultural differences.

Model description

As mentioned before, this activity had a twofold objective; the main one was to develop students’ intercultural competence in conducting interviews with Melilla inhabitants; while at the same time obtaining life stories from people of Melilla, whose cultural origins, religions, and ages were diverse, in order to analyse different perceptions of daily life.

All the students enrolled for this internship had to attend information seminars about both the activity and the project that the research group had carried out on the same topic,
including some examples of the interviews that researchers had already conducted (Sánchez Fernández & Mesa Franco, 2002). Following the seminars, the next step was to provide the students with the final template of the interview (see Appendix), and information on how to conduct the interviews (Santamarina & Marinas, 1999), and contact interviewees. They were also reminded to record all the interviews. This activity was conducted and supervised by the university instructors who are members of the research group previously mentioned.

The interview used as a model was a semi-structured interview (Fylan, 2005). This interview type is open and allows new ideas to be brought up during the conversation as a result of what the interviewee says, with freedom to change the order of questions or talk about other topics. This is a very appropriate method for the interviewees in this context because they can feel more comfortable when speaking about personal experiences, which sometimes are not very pleasant. Nonetheless, it demands great attention and effort from the interviewers because they must guide the conversation, control the time, and obtain as much information as possible (Galletta, 2013).

Each student had to interview individually five to ten inhabitants of the city. They were free to select them, and they could be people in their neighbourhood, friends of the family, teachers, relatives, etc. The only conditions that restricted the selection of the sample population were that the interviewee must be over the age of 40, and that he or she must belong to one of the cultural groups with a long tradition in the city: European or Christian, Jew, and Berber or Muslim. In this sense, it is worth mentioning Aguado (2010), who points out the ongoing confusion between cultural diversity and national origin, language, religion or ethnic group, among others, in multicultural contexts.

All the interviews were conducted in Spanish because it is the official language of the city and the mother tongue of the vast majority. The Berber, one of the largest ethnic groups, primarily communicates in Tamazight, an orally transmitted language that is spoken in the Rif area of Morocco which
surrounds the city. However, many people in this group can be considered bilingual because they are able to use both languages depending on what the communicative context requires (Siguán, 2001; Baker, 2006; García, 2009).

Interviews were recorded with a double purpose. On the one hand, they were going to be used to assess our students’ intercultural and communicative competences in a multicultural and non-formal learning context. On the other hand, they would be analysed by researchers in order to continue their studies about cohabitation in the city.

**Background Theories**

Fantini (2000), cited by Ildikó Lázár (2008), describes five constructs that should be developed for successful intercultural communication: awareness, attitudes, skills, knowledge, and language proficiency. He also believes that the following attributes define the intercultural speaker: respect, empathy, flexibility, patience, interest, curiosity, openness, motivation, a sense of humour, tolerance for ambiguity, and a willingness to suspend judgment.

Among these attributes, empathy must be highlighted in our practice. It can be defined as an affective response that stems from the apprehension of another’s emotional state or condition, and that is similar to what the other person is feeling or would be expected to feel in the given situation (Eisenberg, Spinrad & Sadovsky, 2006). It requires a change in viewpoint, which has to be worked towards, and acceptance of the different perspectives that people have according to their backgrounds, experiences, culture, religion, beliefs, etc. Our students worked on developing empathy during both the academic training and the internship. They had to show understanding and ability to apply their knowledge in practical situations, being empathetic in their attitude and tolerant towards their interlocutors, something essential to understand interlocutors’ perspective.
As previously mentioned, this activity also helps students to develop the communicative competence. Communicative competence was firstly defined by Canale and Swain (1980) in terms of three components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Canale (1983) added one more, the discourse competence. More recently, Bachman (1990) reorganized these competences and placed the sociolinguistic competence together with the illocutionary competence within the pragmatic competence, which can be defined as the ability to understand another speaker’s intended meaning according to the context in which the situation occurs (Kasper, 1997). In this practice, the pragmatic competence is really important because people who are accustomed to living in multicultural environments tend to use language that respects and maintains peaceful coexistence, often at the cost of directly stating their opinion or sharing their true thoughts. Because of this, the interviewer must be able to understand intuitively the implied messages that are communicated during the course of a conversation.

Oral communication consists of exchanging messages between the speaker and the listener, but not only words and grammar rules are necessary for effective communication. Other factors that affect the correct interpretation of messages are the paralinguistic features (such as intonation, emphasis, volume and pace) and nonverbal cues (such as physical distance, facial expressions, gestures, touch, eye contact, etc.). Cultural features (for example, indicating agreement, being polite, clothing, etc.) are also nonverbal indicators used to identify people in different cultural groups. Nonverbal communication is a very important concept in intercultural communication because misunderstandings with nonverbal communication are very frequent and can lead to miscommunication and insults because of cultural differences (Lázár, 2008).

Participants in this practice must be able to communicate in their native language using paralinguistic features properly, while showing tolerance and respect for the others through the
use of verbal and nonverbal communication. The interviewers must also be aware that, although the interviewees may identify in part with the pluralistic society as a whole, they tend to have strong preference to the cultural values and beliefs of their particular group.

Resources

This project is based on the biographical method, which is really relevant in social research (Merrill & West, 2009). It is important to highlight that this method shows the convergence between the subjective testimony of one individual and the expression of a life that is the reflection of a time, of social norms and of values shared by the community of the subject (Pujadas, 2000).

With this objective in mind, inhabitants of Melilla are very important participants in this project. Melilla is a multicultural city where several cultural groups co-habit. The way to identify culturally them is not really clear, but there is an implicit consensus on grouping them according to their origin or religion, European or Christian, Berber or Muslim, Jew, Hindu, Asian, South-American, etc. The two largest groups are European and Berber followed by Jew and Hindu. Other groups, such as Asian and South-American, have been living in the city for a short time, and as a consequence, they cannot have historical memory on events happened in Melilla; nevertheless they should be considered in future research since they can add new perspectives in future studies on co-habitation in the city.

Being an activity framed in a university Master’s programme and within a research group, some university instructors specialised in biographical methods are required. They must teach students the theory underlying this practice, train them to conduct interviews, supervise and evaluate the activity and assess students’ knowledge, abilities and skills related to the intercultural and communicative competences.
As regards material resources, some digital recorders or mobile phones are required. Our interviews took place in a face-to-face meeting but the location was agreed with the interviewees since they should be conducted in a comfortable place for them, in a calm and relaxed environment, such as a park or their own houses.

Students were also provided with the final template of the interview designed by the research team (see Appendix). It would be a guide for them but, as it was said before, it was open, which allowed interviewers to change the order of the questions and add or remove others according to the course of the interview.

Assessment

The assessment of intercultural competence comprises the evaluation of three dimensions, the cognitive dimension (culture self-awareness, culture general and specific knowledge, etc.), the affective dimension (flexibility, openness, curiosity, respect, etc.), and the behavioural dimension (empathy, emotional stability, verbal and nonverbal communication, etc.) (Mažeikienė & Virgailaitė-Mečkauskaitė, 2007; Bennett, 2011; Matveev & Merz, n.d.).

According to Deardoff (2009), the development of this intercultural competence requires the completion of a long process which extends from the personal level (attitudes) to the interpersonal level (outcomes). These outcomes are firstly related to internal processes (adaptability, flexibility, ethnorelative view, and empathy) and finally to external processes (behaving and communicating effectively and appropriately).

Our students’ intercultural and communicative competences were evaluated based on data obtained from interviews and their views expressed in a final seminar held at the university. The tool used by instructors was a rubric published by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U,
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2009) to evaluate the intercultural knowledge and competence. Rubrics are considered very useful because they provide students with a clear understanding of what is expected of them and help instructors to focus their attention on different grades of the knowledge, skills and attitudes that students must obtain (Brookhart, 2013).

This rubric used by instructors was graded in four levels of performance (Benchmark, Milestones -2 levels-, and Capstone) and the items were organised according to:

- Knowledge (cultural self-awareness, and cultural worldview frameworks).
- Attitudes (curiosity about other cultures, and openness to interactions with culturally different others).
- Skills (empathy, and verbal and nonverbal communication).

MODEL’S EVALUATION AND RELEVANT ELEMENTS

Critical Analysis

This activity, evaluated by students and university instructors, was considered very useful for developing the intercultural competence as well as the communicative one.

Among the strong points, it must be highlighted that it was the first time some students listened to people from other cultural groups talking about their traditions and customs, their beliefs, etc. despite having co-existed in the same city for a long time. They had never stopped to think of the reasons for some celebrations or for specific cultural behaviours. However, when interviewing, they obtained information which could justify them from the interviewee’s point of view; and, in this sense, this understanding helped interviewers to increase their empathy towards others.

Among the most relevant difficulties, the assessment of the intercultural competence stands out. The reason, as Deardoff (2009) claims, is that to be competent from the intercultural point of view means to complete a long process which involves
value acquisition, and stereotypes and prejudices modification. The duration of this internship was not as long as needed, because it was a subject of the Master’s degree and it could not be extended for much longer.

Another difficulty refers to the assessment of nonverbal communication. Since interviews were made individually, it was difficult, and sometimes impossible, to obtain data related to our students’ behaviour and use of nonverbal communication. For the upcoming internship, a possible solution could be that the interviewers work in pairs so that, while one is interviewing, the other could record the scene with the objective of being analysed later.

Transferability

Nowadays it is really easy to find multicultural contexts where this activity could be implemented. The population of contemporary European society is a mix of people from very different cultural groups that co-habit in a specific place. But it is not necessary to think of a society to understand possible contexts to carry out this activity. As mentioned before, schools and other educational institutions are the best places to train students in intercultural competence, which should be a requirement in educational settings. Besides that, it would also be possible to carry it out in halls of residences or any other non-formal learning context where people from different cultures and origins live together for a long time.

People’ stories are important not only to know them as individuals with their own experiences and beliefs, they are also interesting to rebuild a social reality and view it from different perspectives. It should certainly help people to improve their cohabitation and consequently to develop their intercultural competence.

Our activity was carried out in Spanish, the official language in Melilla and the mother tongue of the vast majority. But, if
it were implemented in an international context, it could be very useful for assessing students’ oral language proficiency in a multicultural situation, since they should be able to skillfully negotiate a shared understanding based on cultural differences.

In summary, the researchers and students came to the conclusion that this practice had been very useful for students to develop their intercultural and communicative competences. Our students really felt very motivated, although all of them agreed that it was a short internship to obtain real evidence of outcomes related to internal and external processes. For all these reasons, this activity is highly recommended and easy to be implemented in formal or non-formal learning contexts.

**Bibliography**


APPENDIX

INTERVIEW

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Gender:
☐ Male ☐ Female

Age: _______

Civil Status:
☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Cohabitation ☐ Separated
☐ Widow/widower

Level of Studies: ________________

Employment Status: ________________

What is your mother tongue?
☐ Spanish ☐ Tamazight ☐ Other (specify):

Number of children: _______

OPEN QUESTIONS

1. What cultural group do you belong to?
2. In your opinion, what is the main manner to identify the cultural origin of a person?
   ☐ Personal self-identification
   ☐ Religion
   ☐ Language of the cultural group you identify with.
   ☐ Cultural values and traditions of the cultural group you identify with.
   ☐ Place of birth
   ☐ Cultural origin of the father
   ☐ Cultural origin of the mother
   ☐ Appearance (clothes, physical characteristics, etc)
3. What are the characteristics that define your cultural group? And those similar to other groups? (Physical and psychological characteristics)

4. In your opinion, does a person have different rights depending on the cultural group s/he belongs to? (If so, explain it)

5. In your opinion, is there any difference in the social status of the different cultural groups in this city?

6. In your opinion, how is the relationship among the different cultures?

7. Have you ever experienced any unequal treatment problem due to cultural or religious reasons? Was it solved? How?

8. Do you know any event in which cooperation among different groups was enough to solve a problem?

9. When hanging out with your friends, what is their cultural origin?
   - I try to be in touch with people from my own cultural group and I don’t have friends from any other.
   - I try to be in touch with people from my own cultural group but I have friends from other groups.
   - I like being in touch with people from my own cultural groups and from others.
   - I don’t pay attention to the cultural origin of a person.

10. What kind of relationship do you usually have with people from different cultures?

11. Have you noticed different rules in a family according to its cultural origin (going out at night, travelling, doing sports)? And based on the sex of the children? Which ones?

12. What do you think about mixed couples? (do you consider they have more problems in their relationship? When bringing up their children? Regarding their families? etc.). Do you know any couple of this kind? How are they doing?

13. How would you react if one member of your family started a relationship with someone from another cultural origin? And your parents?
a. That action should be stopped. □ Parents □ Me
b. It is better to avoid it. □ Parents □ Me
c. It will depend on the other cultural origin. □ Parents □ Me
d. I don’t care. □ Parents □ Me

14. Are there people from another cultural origin in your family?
   □ Yes □ No

15. Does your family follow the traditions and customs of your culture?
   □ Yes, we try to comply with all of them, without exception.
   □ We just comply with some of them, the most important ones. (Which ones?)
   □ We don’t comply with them.

16. How is the cohabitation among the different cultural groups in your neighbourhood?
1. Context: the Class Representative System – Trinity College Dublin

This initiative is offered by Trinity College Dublin Students’ Union (TCDSU) and forms a valuable case study in student leadership and to a lesser extent teamwork. It is not considered a formal context for development of competence by the university but is established in a structured, professional fashion by the Students’ Union. Yet it is essentially an informal learning environment outside the classroom which is not formally accredited: learning by class representatives takes place through participation in the Students’ Union Council; working with full-time officers or part-time officers to represent all students at university/local level; contributing to national level initiatives via TCDSU’s membership of the Union of Students’ in Ireland and involvement in the organisation and running of student-led initiatives, e.g. campaigns, events and training.

The key competence developed is leadership, usually within a group or team environment. The class representative
system is a valuable informal training ground for development of a range of social, networking and organizational skills relating to effective leadership. Class representatives serve as members of departmental committees within their college school or department. The voluntary class reps may also be selected by their peers as student representatives on college committees, including the academic Council of the University. Full-time Students’ Union officers frequently gain experience first as class representatives before seeking election to one of five full-time sabbatical roles. In the past 3 years, 9 out of 15 elected full-time officers had previously been class representatives.

2. Historical Background

The Students’ Union owes its origin to the rise of student movements in the 1960s, in this instance the formation of the Students’ Representative Council in 1967, as a local representative body for TCD students. The Students’ Union was established to take over the role of the SRC as a funded capitated body following a referendum of the student body in 1975 and initially had full-time two officers, the President and Vice-President (Education Officer). The Union’s activities soon expanded to encompass student services and entertainments, with the creation of the Welfare Officer role as a pastoral support service for students and the Entertainments and Services Officer primarily to oversee on-campus events. Further developments occurred with the establishment of the Publications and Publicity Officer role in 1995-96 (renamed Communications Officer in 2005/2006) to facilitate an expanded role for the Union. The focus of the Union is largely dictated by the priorities of the student body, often expressed through class reps at regular meetings of the Council: for example, in 2015 much of the focus of Students’ Union campaigns was voter registration and driving turnout for the Marriage Equality Referendum held in May 2015.
The antecedents of the formal class representative structure can be traced to the foundation of the Students’ Union itself, with records of class representative structures and an embryonic Students’ Union Council as far back as 1974. The early development of the class representative structure was uneven, with the key leadership role being taken by sabbatical officers and other institutions such as Students’ Union Assembly (a mass meeting of students) being allocated a key role in student decision-making and campaigns throughout the 1980s. While full-time officers have retained a central role in directing Students’ Union activity, the expansion of the Council and recruitment of increased class reps in the early to mid-1990s coincided with and may have encouraged the decline of the Assembly (which was ultimately abolished in the early 2000s). This formed part of a gradual process of professionalization in student representative activity, influenced by a decline in politicised involvement by students; the decline of overtly political movements operating within the student representative structure and the development of a more collaborative relationship with college institutions (Dickson, 2004). The replacement of the more turbulent Assembly with the more low key and stable Council structure was an important milestone for the Students’ Union (which was highly controversial at the time) and may be seen as a victory of the more conventional practice of representative democracy – firmly established in Ireland’s political practice though not always in higher education institutional culture - over the ideal of direct democracy, which held a lingering attraction to those inspired by the continental student ‘revolution’ of 1968.

The relative decline of student activism in the 1990s and early 2000s, compared to the more turbulent 1980s, paradoxically enhanced the role of the Council in which the voluntary class representatives were the majority group, as class reps became the primary group of volunteers working with full-time officers. While the number of class representatives has tended to
fluctuate from year to year, the SU records indicate a significant expansion in the early 1990s (with approx. 160 class reps in 1993-94), a mild decline around the turn of the millennium (100 in 2000) and a marked increase in the 2000s to a record total of 350-400 in 2014/15.

More recently, amid indications of a resurgence in student activism during an era of economic crisis and retrenchment, the position of the Council as the main decision-making body of the Students’ Union has been consolidated and the number and role of class representatives significantly enhanced. The strength and resilience of the class representative system, which has developed over a thirty-year period, distinguishes Trinity Students’ Union from other student organisations in Ireland and the UK which tend to be dominated by a smaller group of officers or key activists.

3. Description/Distinctiveness

Class representatives are voluntary student activists chosen by their peers. The class representative system is organized by TCD Students’ Union officers and executive to provide for effective representation of the student body. A student representative is selected by students in each class by year to serve as a member of the Students’ Union Council. Any student may attend Council, speak and observe, but only class reps or elected officers have a vote.

The SU Council consists of 360 class reps, thirteen voluntary Students’ Union Officers elected by the class reps who form the SU Forum (the executive business committee of the Union) and five full-time sabbatical officers (up to 2015 the President, Vice-President/Education, Communications, Welfare and Entertainments). The officers are directly elected by the student body on an annual basis and are freed from their studies for the year, while all other members of Council are either class reps or nominees elected by the class reps.
The class representative system forms an indispensable channel of communication between students and Faculty members and the Students’ Union and the student body. The role of the class representative includes:

- Representation of students to more senior members of the Students’ Union within the framework of the Council.
- Liaison between students and academic staff within their own department or school, in part through informal discussion but mainly through formal school/departmental committees in which student representation is guaranteed by the College.
- Informing students of Students’ Union policies/campaigns.
- Representing the Students’ Union in liaising with College officers, through college committees to which class reps are appointed (TCD Students’ Union Constitution, 2013, p. 5).

The system offers a supportive governing framework for students to take a leadership role, firstly in their own school or department, but also within the Students’ Union and the wider college community. The voluntary class rep is well positioned to acquire a range of skills associated with leadership, including the ability to organize student-led events; present their views effectively in public settings composed both of fellow students and academic staff; compose policy documents; contribute to the work of college committees and participate in college-wide campaigns initiated by the Students’ Union.

While the Students’ Union offers training to class representatives and they operate in part within formal college structures, their role offers exceptionally valuable opportunities for informal learning which would not be available in the formal context of a classroom. The class rep system is a valuable case study of best practice in leadership within the higher education context. The role of voluntary student activism in developed leadership skills is under-researched having received virtually no scholarly attention in an Irish context and none at all regarding the distinctive institution of the Council.
4. Resources

The ‘human resources’ are perhaps most significant in facilitating and managing the class rep system. The full-time Education Officer takes the lead in recruiting class reps, publicising elections and organising Council meetings. The organisers of Council on a day-to-day basis are the Electoral Commission of which the Education Officer serves as secretary, with the chair of the commission also serving as chairperson of Council (TCD Students’ Union Constitution 2013, p. 14). The work of class reps is also supported by an oversight commission of three members, which has responsibility for interpretation of policy at Council meetings and updating the union’s policy manual following decisions by the Council (TCD Students’ Union Constitution 2013, p. 29). The chair of this oversight commission is the secretary of Council and ensures that all minutes of Council are recorded and made available to the student body through the Students’ Union website and in a weekly email. The support of full-time sabbatical officers and experienced volunteers is a key factor in offering informal learning through the class rep system.

Other necessary resources including finance and expertise to organise annual class rep training seminars. Such a seminar is offered by TCD Students’ Union over a two-day period early in the year and is available to all class reps. Voluntary class reps may also be able to avail of national seminars on specific issues organised by the Union of Students’ in Ireland.

5. Background Theories

There is no formal theoretical basis for the class representative system. Yet two distinctive influences for the system may be identified, of which one is explicitly acknowledged by participants and the other is implicit in its operation. Firstly, the class representative system follows the classical model of representative
(rather than direct) democracy (Gallagher, 1992). Officer B emphasises that ‘Each layer of the Union is elected directly or indirectly by the students and the bottom up structure of class reps plays a key part in deciding policy and holding Executive officers accountable for policy implementation’. The Council operates not unlike a representative assembly, with the executive role being delegated to full-time officers and their part-time colleagues in the Students’ Union Forum. The current Students’ Union Constitution emphasises a grass roots/bottom up approach to governance, in which all representatives are accountable to the student body as a whole and senior Officers are directly accountable to class representatives through the Council structure (TCD Students’ Union Constitution, 2013).

Secondly the management model inherent in the class rep system is consistent with recognised ideas of distributed leadership, although these are not explicitly acknowledged or necessarily recognised by participants. Gibb, who was among the first scholars to explore the concept in the modern period, defines distributed leadership broadly ‘as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group’ (Gibb, 1954, as cited in Carson, Tesluk and Marrone, 2007, p. 1217). Much of the recent literature on distributed leadership is focused on educational contexts, albeit usually in primary and second-level schooling – a more sophisticated definition is offered by Harris (2002), who characterises distributed leadership as “a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively” (p. 11).

Authority is devolved by the union as an organisation to individual class reps, who undertake activities in representing their class at a local level not directly controlled or simply delegated by more senior members. Moreover, class reps are also given wider responsibilities to assist with or oversee elements of Students’ Union campaigns and perhaps more significantly, are themselves directly involved in shaping these campaigns. It is not being suggested here that the class rep system was designed with the principles of distributed leadership in mind – instead it developed in an organic fashion over time and was
subject to a variety of educational, institutional and political influences. Yet the Council structure and class rep system is certainly more consistent with a model of distributed leadership than hierarchical control.

Current SU Officers trace the origins of their organisation, in particular the class rep system, in the discontent of an earlier generation of students with traditional, hierarchical institutional structures and dominance of university institutions by established academic elites. A couple of comments from current and former student officers underline this perception:

‘The Students’ Union came from students feeling that their voice wasn’t being heard by the University, realising that the student voice needed to be heard and adequately represented on college committee the Union was formed.’ (Officer A)

The Students’ Union was established to represent the student voice, as a key stakeholder, in all annals of college governance.’ (Officer B)

Both the testimony of individual officers and the constitution of the Students’ Union underline that the Students’ Union Council is the main decision making body of the Union (other than a full referendum of the student body). Class representatives may hold senior Union members to account through the Council structure; question officers who present regular reports to Council; put forward constitutional changes to the union’s structure and propose new or amended policies to be voted on for adoption by the union.

Yet the role of the class representative goes well beyond participation in Council. All class representatives have the opportunity to address issues pertaining to their class or the wider college community; raise their classes’ issues with College departments through departmental committees which have formal student representation under college policies adopted in the mid-1990s; or volunteer to take part in the running of the student led initiatives.
The class rep system encourages students to take the lead on specific projects (meetings with heads of department) and facilitates the development of student leadership skills by supporting and resourcing students to achieve goals, which are usually rationalised on the basis of the benefit of their class or the wider college community. Officer B, an experienced student activist who was a class rep before serving as Education Officer, notes that:

‘A good example would be our Campaign Weeks, e.g. Body and Soul Week. These weeks are often proposed by students at Council to address particular issues of concern to the student body. If Council votes to pursue the week, the full-time officers facilitate it.’

Officer A, another former class rep who subsequently served as a full-time officer, highlighted the importance of the class rep system in developing generic skills such as leadership:

‘The class rep system allows students to develop leadership skills in taking challenges such as being part of organisation of events, by representing their class to college staff and by having their voice heard on national issues which affect students.’

6. Critical Analysis

**Strengths/success of the system**

The class representative system offers invaluable informal learning to volunteers which is highly beneficial both in their college participation and equally important, in future careers. The training through the class rep training seminar is only one element of such learning – in fact the whole process of participation in Council and the class rep system is essentially an ongoing process of informal education and continuing professional development. The system has undoubted relevance to a
range of generic competencies but is particularly invaluable for the development of expertise in leadership: this is appropriately illustrated by progression of class reps to higher leadership roles, notably full-time Officers and Executive members. For example, in the past 3 years (2012-15), 9 out of 15 elected full-time officers within Trinity Students’ Union had previously been class representatives – an impressive testimony to the influence of the class rep system.

The representative function of the system is real but the influence of class reps on policy should not be overstated – full-time officers are the leaders of the Students’ Union and exercise a key leadership role. Yet the system has significant advantages in empowering voluntary student representatives and ensuring significantly greater involvement in student campaigns. Moreover, the Council structure tends to spread responsibility for decisions, reduces hierarchy by encouraging wider input in decision-making and promotes a higher level of accountability by full-time officers to a functioning representative body. It is a broadly effective system of distributed leadership in action, which in turns helps to develop valuable generic competencies among students, including teamwork, communication and leadership. The latter is the most obvious competence which is being developed here through an effective, structured network whose value lies in the informal, practical settings in which learning takes place.

Difficulties encountered, elements to be improved in the practice and / or in the centre:

Initial difficulties concerned the reluctance of a minority of academic and administrative staff to engage with voluntary class reps, preferring in some cases to identify their own interlocutors within the student population. But the Students’ Union achieved recognition at institutional level in the 1970s and later secured the commitment of the college administration to student representation by elected class reps on departmental
and school committees, as a result of an internal college review process in the 1990s (Duncan and Murray, 1993).

There are significant issues with institutional memory within the Students’ Union and in particular the Council. This is explained in part by a high turnover of class reps, with a majority of new representatives being elected each year, while sabbatical officers also usually serve for one year. The level of turnover has the advantage of spreading the benefits of the class representative network more widely and offering valuable training to a new generation of volunteers. Yet this phenomenon also poses significant challenges in maintaining continuity in policy and activities and requires a high level of commitment by full-time officers to training and supporting each new crop of class reps.

7. Transferability

The organising principles of the class rep system are transferable and could be a feature of any student representative organisation, but it could not be simply imported wholesale in the absence of the requisite organisational culture. The successful development of such a system depends on a collegial institutional environment which values distributed leadership - where responsibility and authority is devolved to a wide variety of volunteers and not simply concentrated in a small governing body or committee. The class rep system would not work in a tightly hierarchical structure, in the absence of a commitment from key decision-makers to transform the existing structures. A collegial organisational culture is a key requirement for transferability.

Successful implementation would also depend on willingness by institutional leaders, administrators and academics at various levels to engage with student representatives. This has been achieved in TCD, which has a long-term tradition of collegial and participatory academic governance,
recently extended to encompass student representation. But this approach to governance may not be replicated in other institutions or in halls of residence which may have different approaches to governance. Institutions with a less highly developed student representative structure may regard such a system as potentially problematic, either in terms of a potential challenge to established authority or with regard to greater demands on administrative and academic staff. Yet it is difficult to envisage the wide-ranging development of generic competences such as leadership in the absence of effective student-led initiatives for informal learning. Implementing such a collegial approach to student leadership is complex, has to take account of distinctive historical experiences and requires openness to student-led learning activities.

References


WE COUNT: AN EXPERIENCE AT THE COLEGIO MAYOR PADRE POVEDA DE MADRID

Rosa Garay, Isabel Romero, Julia M. González
(Education for an Interdependent World (EDiW))

1. General Information and Context of the Experience

“Colegios Mayores” are university centres which, integrated in the university setting, provide living accommodation to students while offering scientific and cultural training with a programme of activities that is open to all students of the university. This is the most recent definition of “Colegios Mayores,” as formulated in the Spanish legislation regulating universities. It brings to the fore the uniqueness of such centres, somewhat similar to the concept of British Colleges. Similar types of centres have been in existence in Europe for centuries, intimately connected with the beginnings of the University in places such as Oxford, where teaching existed from 1096 and where in the 13th century, rioting between town and gown (townspeople and students) hastened the establishment of primitive halls of residence.

These were succeeded by the first of Oxford’s colleges, which began as medieval ‘halls of residence’. A further example would be that of the University of Uppsala in Sweden. “One of the most integral parts of student life in Uppsala is the student nations. There are thirteen Student Nations, each dating back to the 17th century. Only students can become a member of the nations, which are responsible for arranging activities and

2. https://www.ox.ac.uk/about/organisation/history?wssl-1
events specifically for students”. They had, however, a different ethos in Spain. The current “Colegios Mayores” began in 1942, when a legislative Decree from the Ministry of Education restored the concept, following the classical model at the time of the rise of the most prestigious universities of our country.

Colegio Mayor Padre Poveda counts on a long and impressive history. It was created in 1915 as the First Academy for female university students when the first group tried to reach the university. That was an important collective endeavour. It started as a place to support their efforts, to prove that women could have a place in history, in science and in learning as well as their male counterparts. The dreams and the challenges of these young women will be recorded in history as a testimony of the fight for equality and the search for truth and formation in the highest levels of university education.

Currently, they are academic centres, owned by or affiliated with the university, not only as the required places of residence, but also as centres of non-formal education at university level. In the course of the last decades, “Colegios Mayores” have evolved with society and the Spanish universities, but they have never lost their quality as university centres, and as such, have retained their commitment to contribute to responsible citizenship. They aim to fulfil the social mission of the university today in its task of forming those citizens which society needs among its professionals. Professionals who live the values of peace, fraternity, intellectual rigour, resilience, ethical values, justice, as well as tolerance ... even when these values pose challenges in our present world. In this context, Colegio Mayor Pedro Poveda (CMPP), aims to be a place where students become committed citizens of this multicultural and interdependent world, incorporating as they grow in academic capacity civic values such as critical

thinking, democratic values and the responsibility to build social inclusion and peaceful and creative relationships among peoples from different backgrounds and perspectives so that bridges can be built and common projects can reach maturity.

2. Context

It is in this context that the practice described acquired its significance. **WE COUNT**: was a participative process for conflict management.

Initiation of neophytes is a cultural practice very much rooted within the context of university settings in Spain. Students see it as a means by which new students or neophytes become part of, or are initiated into, college and university life. However the potential risks and indiscriminate consequences to the physical, social and emotional well-being of the students and the adverse effects on academic performance and relationships, were reasons for alarm and have brought about a social concern among management teams of universities themselves, student residences, and families about the seriousness of these practices, particularly the adverse values that feed the practice. These values were clearly identified as completely opposite to the aims and the purpose of the centre.

The initial proposal came from the management team of CMPP motivated by the non-acceptance of the practice and the desire to completely eradicate it, but it was developed as a democratic process to deepen the values and processes the practice stood for, beyond the consequences it brought with it.

The major difficulties that impeded ending these practices were, from one side, the culture of silence prevailing among the student population on the practice itself, caused by fear that to denounce such practices may bring alienation from the group, or bring upon oneself reprisals. This difficulty was further exacerbated by the different levels of acceptance of the practice by society in general, whether coming from the
belief that the practice was part of a tradition transmitted for
generations as a practice for belonging to the university milieu,
or from the opinion that initiations are no more than inof-
fensive pranks or jokes.

Hence, the difficulty on the one hand to define and act
on the problem from the point of its seriousness, and on the
other, to go against the support for it being based on tradition
that is strongly rooted in the institution itself. From this frame
of reference arises the concern of the CMPP management team
in its desire, on the one hand, to encourage the integration of
the new residents, and on the other hand, to eliminate these
initiation rites.

3. Looking for solutions: Conflict management

To address this concern, advice was sought from a Technical
Team of “Ideologa”. This is a non-profit cooperative entity
or enterprise and is an initiative to address social issues. As
a cooperative entity, it assumes the values and principles of
the international cooperative movement and follows up the
change process of organizations from the diagnostic stage to
change implementation. It provides consultancies to improve
organizational practices. In this case, the team followed up
with CMPP by offering work methodologies based on group
intelligence, participative action research, and democratic cul-
ture of governance.

Chart one shows the problem as it stood at the starting
point and how the whole issue was deepening as attempts were
being made to eradicate it.
Based on the external team’s advice, the desire was to encourage the integration of new residents by widening the scope of socialization processes. This, for the student residents, meant going beyond the issue of initiations and included a strategic planning which was more inclusive of the various aspects of life in the student residence. It was linked with the offering of formation on competences akin to the needs of the students themselves.

Change was also made possible with CMPP’s participation in the DARE+ Project co-financed by the European Commission. Within the DARE+ Project of which the CMPP is a beneficiary centre, the following competencies were targeted and offered to students in non-formal education settings such as that of residences or CMs: communication, intercultural understanding and behaviour, conflict transformation, collaborative leadership and teamwork, project development and management and social entrepreneurship. CMPP Management believes that formation in these competencies will help to develop the type of person
it would like of its alumnae i.e., persons who would respond to the social mission previously alluded to as a CMPP objective and who contribute toward the realization that responsible citizenship is necessary to transform our society.

4. **Project schedule of events and assignments to carry out tasks**

This experience was developed from January to May of 2014. The following illustration shows the stages of the process, the different channels of participation, the target groups, and a calendar of upcoming sessions and encounters. The plan of action followed is shown in Chart Two.

Chart Two. Process of work
The external team facilitated and accompanied the process in coordination with the Management Team of the College and counting on the participation of some of the residents. A social psychologist and a psychologist, were the consultants assigned to work with CCPP. Both worked in the fields of social and organizational consultancies with special attention given to psychological support and the assessment of social entrepreneurs. The management team of CCPP is made up of the Directress, the Finance Officer, the secretary, the librarian, and the coordinator of Sports and Pastoral Ministry. Except for the Directress, the management team members also assume advisory tasks for groups of student residents for orientation purposes and a close follow-up of the same.

5. Description of the Operational Process and theoretical Models of Reference

The process consisted of a Participative Action Research allowing a diagnosis of the difficulties arising from the situation. The diagnostics used instruments such as group interviews, an online questionnaire, and working groups formed to identify the difficulties, motivations, and needs.

From the results of the survey, a consensus among all the participants was sought on the salient difficulties. Consensus was also sought on their causes and consequences, using a “problem tree” and “objective tree” or webbing from which alternative solutions to the problems were targeted, and consensus would also be generated with dynamics eliciting creativity from the participants. Lastly, the group developed action plans for resolving the difficulties by brainstorming on how to make the resolutions operational.

The following illustrates the specific steps taken in the process. Step 1: Identification of the problem: motivations and needs of all parties.
Gathering of data to allow a clear analysis of the different experiences of the stakeholders through: group interviews, anonymous answers to online questionnaires to the residents, working groups or “focus groups.”

Although the original design envisioned individual interviews of key stakeholders, this step was discarded as the results from the group interviews were sufficient to elicit the information needed.

Step 2: While initiation came out as a major concern, other issues also emerged.

Step 3 Articulation of alternative solutions. Once the problems were defined, possible solutions were articulated from a series of actions deemed adequate to address the problems targeted.

Step 4: Consensus Building on the most appropriate Plan of Action. It was agreed that solutions reached in consensus, including identifying persons who would be part of its implementation and a tentative schedule, etc. would be done in such a way that the plan of action would take effect in the second phase of the process. At the end of the forth step, the Technical Team submitted a report laying out the process of building alternative solutions, the plans of action as collectively decided by participants and proposals or suggestions for optimal outcomes to be implemented in the second phase of the process in progress. The finalization of this step ended the first phase of the diagnostic evaluation to pinpoint problems to be addressed with the advice of experts provided by the Technical Team, with the possibility of going to the next step if this was agreed upon.

The methodologies used were those proper to non-formal education such as interviews, dialogues in group settings and other tools on hand to teach the participative aspect of decision making in settings outside classrooms.

Participative-Action-Research is built on the involvement of all persons concerned: in this case, the student residents and the management team of CCPP. It is a methodology well fitted to the resolutions of problems and conflicts in a way that
promotes democratic decision-making and collaboration. It is a methodology based on collaborative research, and in this case, a process of social intervention. It proposes a method of analyzing a context as a way to elicit the awareness and learning of stakeholders who, in this process, form the subjects themselves of both the process and the change or transformation of the context of which they are a part. The first part of the process dealt precisely with the former; that is, through the instruments employed it pinpointed the reality as felt and expressed by the different stakeholders within the residence, from which was extrapolated data on awareness of the need to seek solutions to the problems highlighted.

The different major criteria taken into account in this process were underscored:4

1. Working towards the accomplishment of the concrete objectives targeted as solutions to the defined problems.
2. Being open to the different points of view of stakeholders on the definition of the problems and formulation of objectives to bring to the fore the actual situations, from which solutions are gathered through participative discussions, dialogued in debate and negotiated by all those involved.
3. Making stakeholders the protagonists of the process who would determine the lines of action for future implementation.
4. Seeing to it that the original objectives are taken into account in implementing concrete lines of action, and in formulating new objectives that may arise in case new problems come to the fore.

In this process the first three criteria would have been acted on, leaving the fourth to be taken in the next term after some time for the implementation of agreed action plans.

From the conflict management methodology the following steps are suggested:

- Precise definition of the problem
- Gathering of information in such a way that all perspectives of all parties are taken into account
- Articulation of alternative solutions in a joint or collaborative approach
- Valuing of the different alternatives offered.
- Selection of solutions considered to be the most effectively
- Implementation of action plans
- Evaluation of identifiable outcomes

The positive and constructive way by which conflict was regarded on the paradigm as an opportunity for improvement or development helped in both the individual and the group level in the process.

This framework and the principles of Participative Action Research guided the process in an orderly and systematic manner. This allowed the parties to have a voice in defining and delimiting the problems, and to work together in reaching alternative solutions in a positive and repository way without being mired in the problems themselves.

In addition, other methodologies were used in the dynamics of the different activities and methodologies on non-formal education. It presupposed that in the management of conflict, a change in the perception of the persons involved was necessarily sought. This required that said persons learned to look at their context or their reality on a level that could make them interact with it in a different way to effect change. Thus, processes of learning and of changing behaviours among individuals concerned were involved.
The following were the factors bringing about learning and change:

- **Dialogue**: Change was the result of dialogue among equals. It was an exchange with valid arguments and not concerned with power, taking place in any context, educational or social, and with the potential to bring about social change.

- **Significant Learning**: Took place when previous knowledge became the springboard to new knowledge, readjusting and readapting information received accordingly.

- **Collective Thinking**: Change was brought about by interaction. A collective thought was formed by the contributions of members of the group through the process of communication. As such it was able to manage complex and diverse information with more creativity and with a greater possibility to face and solve problems in multiple ways. Collective thinking enriched the results and fostered trust among those who were involved in the process.

- **Participation** was an indispensable prerequisite of collective construction. It was an essential element in bringing about better effects on results, personal degree of satisfaction, quality and utility of the process.

- **The process of Reflection-Action-Reflection**: This sequence facilitated the continued necessary adjustments so that learning could be significant and adapted to the real characteristics of the participants. The methodologies selected here contributed to accomplishing the desired objectives. Through debate and reflection, the necessary awareness of and sensitivity to the problems existing at the college were achieved. This allowed the student residents and the management team to collaboratively act towards the resolution of the problems by facilitating dialogue between the management team and the student-residents. The methodologies were simple and easy to understand, thus allowing working toward the resolutions of identified problems and moving forward to act on them.
6. Critical Analysis

In the process undertaken, the points that were strongest and the ones that needed most improvement were recognized. Among the latter was the limited participation of the number of the residents, i.e. 40% participation was less than what was wanted. To alleviate this, a series of meetings were set up with those who had not participated in the process, to inform and invite them to accept the solutions to be enforced as agreed by consensus. Since there were always new residents at the start of a term it was necessary to restart the course for the benefit of the ones new to the residence within the dynamics of participation and decision making in the college. Consequently, the evaluation of the process could not be fully achieved because of the turnover of students, some of whom were not present at the beginning of the process.

It can be said, nonetheless, that those who were part of the process from the start learned from it and were very positive about the experience. The opinion of the experience as a whole was positive. All parties were aware of the high level of participation in the process.

The data obtained allowed an approximation of what the state of affairs was in CMPP. It allowed for the removal of the factors that blocked the opening of dialogue, allowing positions that would otherwise be polarized to meet. The decision to widen the scope of the objectives of the evaluation was on target since it generated a more integral vision of the problems and opportunities. Although the process was not exhaustive, it has brought about four action plans that, when implemented, may bring about change. A greater trust between the team and the students emerged. All the suggested solutions and the need for further dialogue were addressed as a plan of action in 2016.

There was a high level of participation from the team as well as the students, contributing toward a shared meaning in turning problems into opportunities for change. The data gathered allowed for a qualitative reading of the
reality of the situation, giving room to a greater appreciation for the difficulties experienced. This gave room for a solid springboard towards the detection and diagnosis of issues for solutions or improvements. Conflicts were unblocked allowing dialogue and different points of view from less polarized perspectives to emerge.

7. Transferability of the Experience

We see many possibilities for transferring this type of process to other contexts. It is true that it requires an outside team to act as animators and consultants, and that would be an expense. But as soon as the process is realized, learning will be acquired that has effects on the context and enables persons to envision a new way of approaching problems or conflicts. It is therefore important that conflicts are managed, integrating the style of participation and research into the system because this can be transferred for use by the students themselves.

In this context, where a group of students changes every term, an opportunity to learn this process must be offered every year. However, it is also true that the transfer can be done by the students themselves from one term to another, facilitating the participative process that is desired as the modus vivendi of the College.

Summing up

Practices related to the initiation of neophytes became disrespectful to newcomers, with a division of views in the contexts of one of the Colegios Mayores, where the management and some of the residents wanted to finalise the practice. This resulted in a split among the residents which threatened to become a consolidated conflict. The management then looked for external mediation. It was understood that the pressure of
other colleges and residences, as well as the weight of tradition, was too strong to be counterbalanced. That was a courageous decision, and not without difficulties. A long process was then initiated where the practices were analysed in broader contexts of different frames of reference and understanding beyond the obvious elements which were involved. After working for a whole year, the practice was eradicated from the college and a new understanding was reached among the people who followed it. They came to understand the situation beyond the specific activities and the tradition which provoked it. They also learned about relationships and people, behaviour and impacts and all grew in understanding and respect. The careful management of crisis and conflict can make groups grow stronger while teaching the participants about freedom and human relationships.

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LEADERSHIP AND ITS POTENTIAL:
THE COLLEGE COUNCIL

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This text describes two experiences in relation to the development of Leadership as a competence. One of the experiences relates to the development of the competence as it occurs from taking part in one of the Government Organs in the College-The College Council. The other deals with one of the tasks assumed in the given representation which was the task of implementing a programme on competence training where leadership was one of the central competences.

1. Where

The Maria de Molina College is within the campus of the University of Valladolid, Spain and hosts female undergraduate students. It offers a participation-based organisation, which fosters and requires student co-responsibility and engagement. One of its governing bodies and platforms for student participation is the College Council. The other is the Management Team which also acts as the Steering Committee and is the ultimate decision-making body in the College. The Management Team sets the philosophy with which Maria de Molina College is run.

The College Council is composed of the Steering Team and student representatives elected by their peers with the following functions:

- To program and launch the activities that will be carried out every school year.
• To facilitate information for and communication with students.
• To develop the Project on training in generic competences.

2. Name and context

The College Council of this College goes back a long time. It could be said that it has existed since the inception of the College, although the concept itself, as well as its functions and the way it works have changed throughout the years, just as society, the university, and the university life of those currently attending university have drastically changed.

The Spanish Organic Law on Universities provides that “Colleges are centres which are attached to the university and provide students with accommodation, foster cultural and scientific training for those living in them, and use their activities to provide services to everyone who studies at the University.”

The implementation of the Bologna process as a tool of convergence for academic institutions and as a way of creating the European Higher Education Area, significantly changed the way the free configuration of students’ curricula was understood. The 1393/2007 Royal Decree, dated October 29, 2007, defined the plans of official university studies. Article 12.8 provided that, according to the Organic Law 6/2001 on Universities, dated December 21, 2001, students would be able to receive academic recognition by means of credits when they took part in cultural, sports or student representation activities in the university, or if they engaged in activities related to solidarity or cooperation, with a maximum of six credits out of the total amount of credits in the degree’s curriculum.

Royal Decree 861/2010 modified that last aspect. The curriculum would have to envisage the possibility for the students to receive recognition of at least six credits, not a maximum of, out of the total amount in the degree, owing to their participation in the activities mentioned above.
The University of Valladolid has the recognition of other university activities in undergraduate studies within the campus in a non-formal setting within the regulatory framework, and the latter is guaranteed by existing national law. This assures that the university can regulate the conditions necessary for academic recognition of students participating in activities that are cultural or athletic in nature as well activities promoting student leadership, solidarity or collaboration in an approved cause.

In May 23 of the academic year 2013-2014, Maria de Molina College asked the University of Valladolid to recognize its newly created activity: “Leadership and Its Potentials: College Council”, to promote leadership and student participation in the College as a credited component of the undergraduate studies in pursuance of the national law regulating such initiative and in compliance with the legislation’s requisites and deadlines.

While primarily centred on Maria de Molina College, the College Council activity has a double objective: first, to educate its own students in generic competences and to provide its residents a venue for participation in the collaborative management of the College, and, second, to open its activities to any student attending the university. The addition of the former in 2014 motivated the petition to the University of Valladolid that the College Council be considered an activity meriting ECTS credits. The positive experience confirmed by the feedback given by the residents themselves and other student-participants in the training sessions moved Maria de Molina College to petition that the College Council and its activities on formation in competences be granted one ECTS credit (25 hours).

The University requires the following information for submission in applying for ECTS credits:

– Name of the activity
– Planned objectives
3. Development of competences

The European Higher Education Area underlines the importance of competences (embodying knowledge, skills and attitudes) for future graduates in the exercise of their careers. Hence, the objective of the new initiative in the College: to provide training on certain competences which present employers are looking for in their workplaces. Based on the experiences from interviews of prospective employees, Maria de Molina College, in its belief that the development of these competences would heighten the possibility of their being integrated in the workforce, highlighted formation in the following: effective communication, team-work and leadership, conflict management and intercultural skills, project development and social entrepreneurship.

Below is a brief description of the performance objectives of each targeted competence and feedback from student evaluation after the training. It is important to realise that the exercise of leadership contains a complex number of dimensions which could and should be identified for a thorough evaluation of its achievement:

**Effective Communication.** The dimensions of the competence of leadership which were selected related to three different aspects which can be characterised as the communication skills of a leader. In fact, communication is essential to the competence of leadership. It is important to be able to listen actively to the needs and potential of the individuals under the guidance of the leader. It is also important to be able to communicate one’s ideas in a convincing manner, with clarity and ambiguity. These were, therefore, the selected dimensions to be developed:
- Practising active listening, to better understand what each person is saying.
- Dialogue encouraging collaboration towards shared objectives.
- Expressing oneself with clarity

The following are taken verbatim from the evaluations:

“Communicating with other members of the College was very interesting, gathering different opinions -often contradictory- and having to manage them have been important learning for me. I also learned how to draw up reports at meetings and how to write down the agreements we reached in detail. These reports were put up on the noticeboard for the rest of the students to see.” [1st-year Law student]

“At the Council each member has been able to express what they thought, dialogue has been made possible through different resources, we have been free to share proposals and we have thought through some solutions together. In some cases, we have had to come to agreements in order to solve problems related to communal living. I have realised how complex and difficult it is to make decisions. Having a wider vision of the issues we addressed helped us have more information to make decisions.” [2nd-year Law student]

“I think it is important for those who apply to be a member of the College Council to be aware of the engagement that comes with being part of it, and then put it into practice. One must listen to the expectations and proposals of others. Even in informal settings, such as the dining room or the TV room, one can gather opinions and comments that can be taken to the College Council.” [1st-year Law student]

I think the experience and possibility to have encounters with councils of other Colleges in the city is important. It enables the sharing of global ideas and proposals that affect not only one institution; general interest aspects can be addressed and discussed. That can help to have a wider vision of issues, improve the relationship
with other groups and organise more common activities. [3rd-year English Studies student]

Teamwork. As with communication, teamwork is both a competence of its own, as well as another aspect of the leadership competence. A number of dimensions from teamwork were identified to be developed as part of the leadership training. There are certain lines where both competences cross and two of these dimensions were selected for development at the Maria de Molina College. These were:

- Accepting the responsibility to perform a given task and bringing other members of the team along.
- Suggesting initiatives to motivate others, to work more efficiently and to reach set goals.

A number of remarks speak of the importance of belonging to the College Council and how this can be seen as a place where to grow and develop these aspects:

“It is a group task, where one cannot be carried away by individual interests when sharing ideas and proposals. Members have to consider the needs and expectations of the rest of the students living in the College. I think that being part of the College Council has been one of the best ways to learn about teamwork. The writing of the reports was also teamwork. These reports were drawn up at meetings and were then shared with the rest of the students. It was teamwork, we were representing them and it was both appropriate and useful to inform all the students about the issues that were addressed and the agreements that were reached. Reporting was an important step” [3rd-year English Studies student]

“I think that one of the crucial requirements for members of the College Council is that they should be students who are engaged and excited about developing different activities. They should foster participation and mobilise the rest of the students at the College.” [2nd-year Law student]

Apart from developing activities and other initiatives that complement our training, it is important to pay attention to the
College atmosphere. The College is our ‘second home’, which is why we need to develop competences and strategies both on the personal level and the collective level in order to create an excellent atmosphere, where everyone feels free and respects the rest of the students.” [3rd-year Economics student]

Leadership. The competence of leadership is vast and several indicators were selected from the Tuning model on Competence-based learning (Villa Sanchez and Poblete Ruiz, 2007). Other dimensions were selected from indicators of leadership itself. These dimensions were:

- Giving value to the ideas and suggestions shared by every member of the team.
- Sharing ideas to make decisions that match the objective.
- Suggesting solutions and ways to progress when conflict arises.

“The College Council has been a space for debate where we have discussed several aspects of living in the College. Our function has been based on communicating, gathering ideas and sharing proposals. Personally, I have been in charge of organising and coordinating some of the activities.” [2nd-year Law student]

“Being part of the College Council has given me the opportunity to see that not all the people who decide to stay at the College have the same objectives. This has been made apparent when organising different types of activities. In order to come to agreement, we had to listen to every member, “negotiate” solutions and mediate so that everyone would be OK with the final solution.” [1st-year Law student]

“The College Council is a student-representation body of the College where we address all issues related to living in the College: activities, ECTS courses, issues related to communal living... In order to deal with all those subjects, we need to gather proposals, evaluate them, come to conclusions and agreements at Council sessions and communicate them to the rest of the students. Personally, it has been a space to discuss, debate and understand different opinions and ideas.” [3rd-year Economics student]
“When it comes to the competences I have started to develop, I would like to mention a critical perspective of my own behaviour, as I believe that constant self-evaluation is necessary: what is it that we are doing right to achieve our goals, what could we improve, what problems do we face and what strategies or resources can we use to solve them.” [3rd-year Economics student]

“I have learnt to work, to come to an agreement, even if opinions are different in the beginning; for example: activity organisation, the opening and closing ceremonies, timetables and small conflicts that arise when living together.” [3rd-year English Studies student]

4. Composition

The College Council is an elected body of student residents composed of the Steering Team and student representatives (four continuing residents and two new students) to provide a platform for participation in decision-making on issues and activities that are directly related to the College.

Criteria for the election of officers:

– Ability to listen and to communicate with all residents in the College.
– Ability to offer initiatives, accept suggestions and consider proposals provided by peers.
– Ability to encourage dialogue and participation among members of the team.
– Ability to collaborate and work as a team.

The College Council is elected at the beginning of every school year, usually in early October. All issues regarding the College Council are addressed in the first College Assembly.
Process of nomination and election:

1. Submission of applications for candidacy: within 3 or 4 days before the election
2. Configuration of candidate list. A list is made for candidates representing new students and another list for continuing student residents.
3. Setting up of polling stations and voting for each group.
4. Determining winners: The first round requires an absolute majority and the second one requires a simple majority.
5. Submitting a report in each round.

Model Description

Activities started in 2013-2014. In the academic year 2014-2015, the College Council introduced the formation sessions in developing generic competences as encouraged by the Dare+ Project. This initiative motivated the petition to the university to recognize as ECTS credit hours the training sessions on the development of said competences.

Objectives of initiative

Through the facilitation of the College Council, in its capacity and potential to lead:

- To develop competences to enhance the social skills necessary for leadership.
- To strengthen attentive listening, effective communication and the dialogue skills necessary to complete tasks efficiently in a team setting.
- To promote team-work to encourage diversity and complementarity among the members of the group.
To learn to plan and organise different types of activities and actions with the participation of student residents in the College.

**Brief description of the activity contents**

- One of the major tasks engaged in by the College Council is that of scheduling and promoting activities to elicit initiatives from those living in the College. Many of these activities are open to any registered student at the University.
- The second important line of action relates to information, communication and the gathering of initiatives and proposals. This task carries an important element of leadership. It means listening and understanding the needs, the demands and the interests of every person in the college and giving them an answer.
- The third specific line of action consisted of the development of the College Project in its human, cultural, intellectual and social dimensions. To launch it and follow it up.

**What has been done and was accomplished?**

This document presents a journal of activities in the school-years 2013-2014 and 2014-2015.

**Academic year 2013-2014**

October 7: Election of the College Council  
Oct 8: First of the 10 successive meetings. These were convened to raise awareness of the significance of the Council as a venue for participation and to introduce the concept of earning ECTS credits for active participation in the activities.
Each student was given a copy of the proposal regarding such credits and its terms for approval.

Opening ceremony for the academic year

October 21st, November 12th and December 11th: Working sessions for the first trimester. The topics were: the organisation of different types of activities, Christmas celebrations at the College and a cultural trip in February, after the exams.

February 11th 2014: Evaluated of the activities organised during the first semester, discussed activities for the following months and reviewed how rules and agreements had been put into practice within the College, noting down achievements and aspects that should be improved. The College Assembly was prepared.

February 25th: Training session on leadership competences and important leaders. Participants discussed what each student thought a leader should be, the features/competences they thought a leader should have and who they identify as leaders within the Faculties or the College, giving the reasons for their choices.

March 11th: Work on the closing ceremony of the school year, awarding scholarships at the assembly hall of the University and the closing ceremony in the College. The Council discussed dynamics to be followed in order to further involve the students of the College.

March 25th: Members discussed the offer that one of the candidates for the post of Dean of the UVa (University of Valladolid) had made to present their programme at the College.

April 1st: Encounter with the candidate, M. Felipe Cano.

April 28th: Focused on the activities submitted to the UVa for recognition as ECTS credits in 2014-2015. The following six courses were submitted for credits:

- Voluntary Work: Citizen Engagement for Social Transformation (1 ECTS)
– Leadership and its Potential: The College Council (1 ECTS)
– Health and Human Life: Current Issues (1 ECTS)
– Cinema and Society (0.5 ECTS)
– Competence Workshop on Spoken and Written Communication (0.5 ECTS)
– Sustainability and Human Rights: Opportunities and Challenges for the 21st Century (0.5 ECTS)

The last College Assembly was also set up in that last session. A possible way to draft a report of those courses was suggested, and May 18th was chosen as deadline.

May 18th (last session): Focused on the evaluation of the closing ceremony, with members discussing how the College would run after the end of the official University calendar. All members were thanked for the work carried out throughout the year and shared what they had learnt with the rest.

For the current school year, 2014-2015, the agenda that was being programmed was similar to the one used in 2013-2014, although some aspects have changed. For example, in each meeting of the College Council a text on some of the competences (leadership, team-work and communication) was used. Members of the team commented on the text and learned from it. When informing the rest of the students about each meeting of the Council, these ideas are also shared.

The joint encounter with the CMU Menéndez Pelayo College Council in Valladolid was another new activity of Maria de Molina College. It will take place on April 15th and will focus on leadership, with the presence of one expert: José María Rodríguez Olaizola.

6. Underlying theories–

A number of theories lie behind this activity: The first is a concept of education which goes beyond attending classes and
following courses to a broader concept of learning, which is all-embracing and which considers the different contexts of life, particularly at the intense time of life that is higher education.

“*In a broader sense education is not limited within the four walls of the classroom, but is life-long process. It is modification of behaviour and experiences from different means of sources of education. It helps one to cope and adjust in the changing environment. It equips an individual with different knowledge, experiences and skills for his all-round development*”

The second theory relates to the belief that the development of competences is one of the critical elements of education both for employment as well as for citizenship. It is no longer the focus on knowledge but on being able to handle knowledge, to develop capacities for life, to acquire lifelong capacities which can enrich life and work and can contribute to personal development: “*Competences represent a dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding, skills and abilities. Fostering competences is the object of educational programmes*”

The third theory is that all spaces are important and could be privileged as contexts for learning, not only the class room. Rather, the theory is that competences cannot develop uniquely in the class room, but require other contexts and other experiences – “*Whoever we are, wherever we live across Europe, we are presented with opportunities to learn every day of our life. Beyond the classroom, we can acquire valuable knowledge, skills and competences*”


2. Tuning Higher Education http://www.unideusto.org/tuningeu/competences.html

The fourth theory is the consideration that much learning takes place when the context is close to reality. In the case of leadership related to the College Council, the potential of learning is high because it is a real life context. Students have to present their programmes, be chosen by the others, take part in the normal governing structure of the College, make decisions, inform/report on those decisions, be able to communicate clearly on specific issues, listen to demands and be able to judge the context. It is a real case of leadership and a lot can be drawn from it.

“When we consider what social learning means inside an organization ... It's more about helping people learn from one another as they work together – enhanced by collaborative enterprise social tools. Learning in today's networked workplace is not just being trained to do a task, but about learning with and from one another as we face new challenges.”

The fifth theory implies a concept of education which includes informal learning. “Learning on demand is becoming a type of lifestyle in modern society. Learners constantly seek information to address a problem at work, school, or to just satisfy a curiosity.”

The Steering Team of the College is aware of the need to offer extra training needs to its students beyond formal academic training. Therefore, it requested the University of Valladolid integrate the activity “Leadership and its Potential: The College Council” within the undergraduate programme.

Based on the need to be trained in competences, this model is impelled by the changing social needs of a world that is constantly evolving and in which it is increasingly necessary to develop skills, knowledge and attitudes that will allow students to grow as responsible citizens as well as preparing them better for entering the world of work and profession.

7. Resources

*Human resources*

The College Council, as a collegial body, is composed of six students: four residents who have been there in the previous years and two new students. Besides this, there are three people from the Steering or Management Team.

The students involved have to participate and be actively engaged to reach the objectives described by the College Council:

- To plan and promote activities in a non-formal setting
- To communicate with and inform peers
- To develop the Educational Project of the College

*Material resources*

In order to develop such an initiative, certain material resources are needed, such as:

- Physical resources: a meeting room, furniture and equipment.
- Audiovisual resources: video, internet.
- Bibliographic references of articles, agendas, and reports.
- Written and spoken communication to the students of agreements, and the reasons for them

8. Evaluation

Evaluation and monitoring procedures:

- Register attendance to meetings, College Assemblies and programming meetings.
- Gather initiatives and proposals shared by peers.
- Draft a report about what the members of the College Council have learnt from being part of the body.

At the end of each activity, the College issues a certificate as proof that the student has fulfilled the tasks required by the College.

The Vice-Rectorate of Students of the University of Valladolid sends templates to the College to certify that the student has earned an ECTS credit, which will be sent back to the Faculty where the student is enrolled. When the certificate is issued, and after the student pays the corresponding fee, the University will issue the document that recognises the ECTS credits earned by the student.

9. Critical analysis

For the critical analysis of the learning which has taken place, the perception of the learners is of great importance. The following are samples of overall evaluations or feedback collected from student participants.

- *Being part of the Council has taught me many things for the future. It has taught me what it means to have a job with responsibility, and how to face needs with integrity and honesty. It has also helped me to understand how complex an organisation is at this educational level. Most of all, it has taught me the importance of serving others.* [Architecture student in her 3rd year].

- *It has been a good experience for future use. I have learnt to value team-work, the role played by leadership, how important it is to respect others' opinions and decisions, and to come to agreements based on shared terms and solutions, which we will often come across in our life and career.* [Law student in her 3rd year].
I know for a fact that the meetings with the Council and its discussions, ideas and proposals, and problem-solving processes have helped us to train ourselves and to be better at teamwork, in order to meet a shared goal: that is, to favour as much as possible all students in the College. Despite the different opinions between the Steering Team and the students (and even among the students), we have realised that we are able to communicate and find the best solutions for situations that create conflict and which nobody likes, in a respectful and polite way”. [Industrial Design student in her 3rd year].

I have been in charge of drawing up reports in the meetings, and I must say that I am pleased to be thanked and congratulated by the Steering Team for the work I’ve done. [Industrial Design student in her 3rd year].

I think the goal we fixed for the Council at the beginning of the year was developing individual competences for leadership, team-work and activity planning and organising. Those are precisely the areas that the Council has allowed me to improve. We can therefore say that the objective has been met. [Industrial Design student in her 3rd year].

I think I have learnt a lot in several areas, thanks to this experience. I belonged to the group in charge of deciding and informing, so I realised that it was very difficult to please everyone, and many people couldn’t understand that certain things are not possible or that the decision-making hierarchy works in a specific way. Basically, it’s harder than it seems. I have realised that we will see organisations with this type of decision-making body facing the same problems, and we will have to face them too”. [Industrial Design and Product Development student in her 2nd year].

I have enjoyed myself in the College Council, and I have also learnt how the College works from within. I have seen that each member was interested in the problems that arose and tried to find solutions. Whenever we had to organise an activity, I have had to help my classmates and we have
organised everything together. And I haven’t done it only because I enjoyed it, but also because I wanted to get along with the rest of the members of the College and get to know them better. I have learnt to organise activities together with my peers and I have met many people outside the context of my studies. [Law student in her 1st year].

– I’m in my first year so I’m new, and I think that what I’ve contributed has been very useful, because I’m new and I had no experience whatsoever. I have helped whenever I could, and I have also enjoyed myself. That’s why I know that I’d like to be part of the College Council again next year”. [Law student in her 1st year].

– In order to improve the participation at the meetings of the Council, members should plan them and study the agenda in detail. They should also gather ideas and proposals shared by their peers. [Law student in her 1st year].

It is difficult to sum up the significance of the learning which has taken place: One of the characteristics could be a kind of all-encompassing leaning: learning for the future and for life appear to be terms which sum up the experience.

One could find elements of different types of competences once in relation to preparation for jobs such as responsibility and honesty. Others could be called instrumental, related to an understanding of the complex realities of institutions, and thus more cognitive and technical, such as writing reports, informing groups, preparing an agenda, writing minutes, and preparing events. There is a very important element of the interpersonal and social dimensions of competences such as team work, but also team thinking, the capacity to debate ideas with respect to all positions, a consciousness of the needs of the others or ways to improve participation. Aspects of communication are also very strong. Many of these elements are also dimensions of leadership, proving a privileged way to develop and exercise this competence.
10. Transferability

A body like the College Council can be replicated in any organisation that wishes to be participatory and where management knows the importance of utilising the potential and the gift of each member of the group, and what that member is capable of contributing.

In order to develop such an experience, it is necessary to explicitly define the functions that a body such as the College Council will have, its composition and requirements of membership and the procedures of selection or election it will follow.

The experiences of alumnae who got their first jobs attests to the need for the incoming group of students to develop competences to make them better prepared to join the labour market.

Conflict-solving, leadership, team-work and communication skills are some of the competences companies look for in selection procedures. The labour market is increasingly competitive and professionals need to offer practical and social skills beyond theoretical knowledge.

Bibliography and Documents


*Reglamento de Reconocimiento de otras actividades universitarias en los estudios de grado de la Universidad de Valladolid*. (Approved by the Governing Council on May 24th, Official Gazette of Castille and León (OGCL) n. 107, dated June 3rd, and modified by the Permanent Commission on October 1st 2012, OGCL n. 206, dated October 25th and the Permanent Commission on October 1st 2013, OGCL n. 125, dated July 2nd and the Permanent Commission on March 14th 2014, OGCL n. 65, dated April 3rd).

The *Scuola Galileiana di Studi Superiori* (abb. ‘the School’) is a special school of the University of Padova which was started ten years ago to provide a better education to a small group of particularly promising students.

Every year, the School enrols 30 students, called *Galilean students*, through a rather strict selection procedure based on two written and two oral examinations. In the last three years, the School received about 450 applications per year. Galilean students are normal university students, enrolled in any five-years path (Bachelor + Master or one-tier programme, e.g. six years for Medicine) offered by the University of Padova. They attend the regular courses and activities of their chosen programme, but in addition they attend, in parallel, a “Galilean programme” based on internal courses, seminars and a few other cultural activities organized by the School. After obtaining their Masters degree at the University of Padova, within one year they then prepare and defend an additional thesis, named a *Galilean Thesis*, and receive from the University the Galilean Diploma. The collaboration with the School continues, if they wish, through the association of the Alumni of the Galilean School.

Since the academic year 2014-15 the School is internally structured into three sections (Classi), namely:

- **Scienze Morali** – Humanities, including Literature, Philosophy, History, Arts... (8 students per year)
- **Scienze Naturali** – Natural Sciences, including sciences in the strict sense, from Mathematics to Medicine (14 students per year)
– Scienze Sociali – Social Sciences, including Economics, Law, Sociology, Political Sciences… (8 students per year):
a new section, just started in the current academic year.

Sections play a relevant role, but a programme common to all sections also exists.
The Executive Board of the School (Consiglio Direttivo) includes the Director, the Vice-director, the three “Coordinators” of the sections, eight other professors of the University of Padova, one student per section, an administrative Secretary.
The School is hosted in a dedicated college named Collegio Morgagni, a 16th-century historical palace named after Giovanni Battista Morgagni, the founder of the morbid anatomy school at the University of Padova. Students are hosted within the College without charge, in a modern wing and economic benefits include free access to the university cafeterias, a contribution for educational materials and a contribution for national and international individual mobility.

Students are required to follow regularly their normal university programme, completing it in regulation time every year, with an average score of at least 27/30 and a minimum score of 24/30 in the Italian system. In addition, it is expected that they follow a further learning programme organized by the School (see Section 5 for details).

The duties of students include cooperating with the School organization. Through an internal organization, based on self-proposed rules, students distribute among themselves the different responsibilities and are actively involved in all activities of the School.

1. Competences developed

Galilean students have additional opportunities, with respect to other university students, to develop transversal competences, not related to the ordinary classroom activity and to the ordinary programmes or courses they follow individually.
a. *Open mind, extra-curiosity, cross-disciplinary attitude*

Thanks to internal courses, seminars and tutorial work (see below Section 5 for details), Galilean students are more exposed than other students to scientific subjects and ideas outside their chosen university programme. Cross-disciplinarity is indeed among the main goals of the School: not in the useless sense of learning something about everything, but in the sense of being exposed as much as possible: to different languages, different mentalities, different ways of approaching and solving problems. It is likely that many students will work—in the future—in interdisciplinary teams, and such an education will be quite useful. But even if their future work should be strictly thematic, approaching it with a more open and less specialized mind, for sure, will be fruitful.

Besides the institutional activity of the School, a great opportunity for the students to develop an open mind, and grow curiosity outside their own field, comes from college life. Friendship obviously traverses classes and programmes and courses, and is highly developed among Galilean students. It provides a privileged channel for the circulation of ideas. Galilean students are certainly not separated from all other students, but there exists a kind of “Galilean friendship”, which is intense and is source of a valuable cross-education among students. All students, when interviewed, acknowledge the college life among the most relevant cultural benefits of the School. The interaction between students persists after they graduate from the School through the association of the *Alumni of the Galilean School* (see below Section 5).

b. *Teamwork*

Galilean students have more opportunities than other students to work in teams. The common life in the college— with a library, a few classrooms, a common room, a small garden—
facilitates this. Attending dedicated courses in small numbers, which are often based on teamwork, is useful as well. Tutors, occasionally, propose group activities and are sometimes prompted by the students to organize some (two curious examples: opening broken devices such as a copy machine so as to understand how mechanics, chemistry, optics, electronics, are necessary for the machine to work; or constructing a 3D-printer from a kit and learning how to programme it). Indeed, it is not necessary to spend much effort to encourage teamwork—the students do this spontaneously.

c. Self-organization ability and leadership

As mentioned at the end of Section 1, one of the principles of the School is that students are supposed to contribute, to their best ability, to the School organization. Three representatives of the three Classes are on the Executive Board of the School and take part, together with professors, in all the main decisions of the School. Inside each Class, some other representatives of the students cooperate with the Coordinator of the Class and the Tutors in preparing the Class programme, which changes from year to year also according to the students interest and preferences. Students in general like having similar responsibilities.

Quite recently, students started organizing some extra cultural activity in an autonomous way: for example, a few additional seminars, with speakers they invite directly without passing through the School. This is done generally in collaboration with the above mentioned association of the Alumni. The School of course encourages; and provides some support. Students occasionally also organize extra activities like sport or music.

A final point: students consider establishing relations with other Italian schools more or less similar to the Galilean School (the School is interested as well, but students proceed faster) very relevant. In a completely autonomous way, students promoted an inter-school network, aimed at exchanging experiences
and organizing joint activity: cultural events, as well as sport matches. Everything is self-organized; the School, occasionally, provides some support.

d. Social entrepreneurship

Young people are well known to have imagination, to ignore difficulties and to be never afraid of proposing activities. Galilean students are not an exception, the only difference being that the School can help them, by providing just the framework and some minimal support to realize their ideas. In some cases, proposals by the students turned into new School activities: for example, students started interacting with the local association of young employers (Giovani Imprenditori di Confindustria). After some time, this turned into regular seminars, as well as the possibility of including an internship in a company as part of their personal Galilean curriculum. Quite recently, students who play music proposed a joint activity with the local Music Conservatory; a concert was organized in the School, and there is a possibility that a stable collaboration will start.

e. Taking responsibility

The School is obviously active in disseminating information about the School itself so as to prompt applications from the best students in the high-schools (of the town, of the region, throughout Italy). Students cooperate in several ways including visiting the schools they come from or other high-schools which ask for a similar orientation activity. Students do this with a certain enthusiasm: they feel part of a community, and seem to feel responsible of the future of the community. Educating students to a similar responsibility does not require much effort, they do it spontaneously; once more, the School just provides an opportunity to develop an ability and they profit.
2. Scope/numbers

Starting from the academic year 2014-15, the School raised the number of enrolled students from 24 to 30 per year. In four years, the total number of students will increase (ideally, give or take a little drop-out) to 150. The school is directed by an Executive Board including 13 professors (the Director, the Vice-director, the three Coordinators of the three classes, eight other professors chosen to cover the variety of cultural areas of the University), three students and the chief secretary of the School. The secretarial staff consists of 4 people. Finally, 14 young professors are involved in the School as tutors, a key element in the School programme (see below, point 5b).

3. Model description

We report here some additional information concerning the School, which might be helpful to understand its educational programme.

a. The Internal Courses and Seminars

As mentioned above, the basic educational activity of the School consists in internal courses and seminars. With regard to courses, the students are expected to attend:

- 9 courses, for a total of 36 ECTS, during the first three years;
- 3 courses, for a total of 12 ECTS, during the last two years

The students are also expected to prepare, within one year after their Masters, a Galilean thesis, evaluated 12 ECTS. The overall extra activity of a Galilean Student is thus 60 ECTS, equivalent to an additional university year.
Internal courses pursue different purposes. Some of them are advanced courses that go beyond the normal university programmes: more advanced mathematics for mathematicians or physicists, more insight in philosophy for philosophers, and so on. More frequently, however, courses are not so strictly thematic and are addressed to a somehow broader audience; occasionally (for example, in the current academic year 2014-15, a course in Philosophy of Science) they naturally address all Classes. Thanks to the small numbers (typically, 8-12 students per course) there is an ideal student-lecturer ratio, meaning a continual dialogue and cultural exchange, not so common in ordinary university programmes.

The majority of courses are taught by professors of University of Padova. Over the years, however, a growing number of courses are taught by colleagues of other universities, sometimes from abroad. Students involved in international exchange programmes (like Erasmus) are allowed, and encouraged, to replace internal Galilean courses with courses followed abroad. A further possibility is replacing an internal course with an internship in a (well selected) company; under the supervision of a university professor, Personal learning projects, under the supervision of a professor, are also encouraged. Taking part in an activity like DARE+ is also considered equivalent to an internal Galilean course. As a general rule, all activities equivalent to courses have someone responsible, who at the end evaluates and provides a mark.

Besides courses, internal teaching and learning events includes seminars, about one every 3-4 weeks, usually addressed to all students and only occasionally to a single Class. Seminars are given by distinguished scientists; and range over a great variety of topics (the frontiers of genetics, dark matter, religion and politics in China, the Rosetta Mission, perspectives for the European transport network in the next decades…). Their main utility for students, besides being updated on hot research items or social questions, is the opportunity to meet, in a friendly atmosphere, outstanding scientific personalities;
which can strongly motivate them to extract the best from themselves.

b. *The Galilean Tutors*

Every year, the School recruits, among young researchers of the University, a number of Galilean Tutors. In the academic year 2014-15, the School had 12 tutors (this means, one for every 10-11 students); the number is going to rise with the growth of the Class of Social Sciences, so as to maintain the ratio. Tutors play a crucial role in the School. They follow all students individually, providing assistance and help in any circumstance. They assist the students, for example, in the choice of the optional courses or of the thesis; they advise students on accessible conferences or Summer schools, and guide them in the choice of international programmes. They also provide suggestions for their PhD. Occasionally, they offer additional informal teaching activity, and organize team activities of various kinds. Tutors operate in close contact with the Coordinators and provide to the Coordinators a quite essential support.

From the very beginning, the School has made an important investment in Tutors (definitely more than other similar Schools in Italy). After years, the investment appears to be well rewarded.

c. *The international profile of the School*

The School aims to achieve a high international profile. This is not an easy task, and a great effort in this direction is still needed. As already mentioned, the School encourages students to spend a while abroad, through the usual international exchange programmes like Erasmus, and provides them also with some extra economical support. As a result, almost 40% of Galilean students, during their career, benefit from time spent abroad on international programmes. Conversely, however, the School does not seem competitive enough
in attracting foreign students. In principle, recruitment is fully open, but practically, the School is not able to stimulate applications from abroad (among the students there are indeed a few non-Italian citizens, but they come from Italian high schools). An important reason is certainly the fact that very few programmes and courses in University of Padova (and generally in Italy) are delivered in English. Another reason might be that the School is too young to be known well enough abroad. The method of selection, which at the moment requires the physical presence of candidates at tests, certainly is also an obstacle.

To improve the situation, the School started working along several lines.

- One is the realization of international agreements for the exchange of students. Two agreements have been signed recently and immediately became active in both directions: with the École Normale Supérieure of Paris and with the Honors College of Purdue University (Indiana, USA).

- A second effort is a programme of recruitment of five foreign students per year, in the first year of the Masters. The programme is part of an internationalization programme of the University, supported by the Ministry of Education. It started with the first five students in the academic year 2014-15, and has continued into the next year. Yet it is not clear whether the programme has a chance to become permanent.

- Finally, international programmes like DARE+ provide the School with opportunities to engage in projects not only for their intrinsic interest, but also because, strategically, they pose a great opportunity for the School to establish links with prestigious foreign institutions, with a good chance that the links prove fruitful and become permanent.

The goal of the School is developing, in a medium term perspective, its own international network.
d. Other cultural activities

Besides the standard institutional activities like courses and seminars, the School occasionally organizes, or cooperates in organising, a few other cultural activities. For example, following its cross-disciplinary mission the School organized two short conferences in the academic year 2014-15:

- A one-day conference about Light (2015 was the international year of Light), titled *Lux fecit diversum*; the aim was to explore the variety of meanings and roles the word “Light” has in the different disciplines: from Physics to Arts, to Biology, to Cinema and Theater, to Religion.

- A second one-day conference devoted to the explosive development of the “abstract point of view”, simultaneously in quite different disciplines at the beginning of 20th century (abstract arts, branches of abstract mathematics, quantum physics, new music…).

The following are a couple of examples of activities organized, during the same academic year, in collaboration with other institutions:

- A workshop titled “*Terrorism, a new history*”, devoted to political terrorism in Italy during the ’70s of the last century, more precisely to the new perspectives opened by some recent historical studies (Organized in collaboration with a special center for historical studies of the University.)

- An international workshop titled “*The path to tolerance*”, devoted to the development, progress and the perspectives of the modern idea of tolerance. (In collaboration with the *Alumni* of the School, see below.)

Such additional cultural activities are not immediately addressed to students, although of course several students take part. They are nevertheless important: the School has indeed an internal face, addressed to students, and an external face,
addressed to the outside scientific community. Both are necessary to give the School its identity; students need, and like, to feel part of a wider community.

e. The Alumni association

Former students of the School promoted an association, named Alumni della Scuola Galileiana di Studi Superiori – Alumni of the Galilean School of Higher Education, in which most students enrol after their Galilean experience. The association has a variety of purposes and activities, fully described on their website (http://www.alumniscuolagalileiana.it/). Some among them have an impact on the life of the School:

- Cultural activities, including seminars and workshops, which are proposed to the School and, in general, are co-organized.
- An annual students-alumni meeting, in which alumni communicate to students their PhD or working experience, so as to help them in their choices.
- An accurate monitoring of the career of past students of the School, which allows us to have an overall view of the “products” of the School activity in the years.

The collaboration between School and Alumni is regulated by an agreement. Besides the above specific examples of collaboration, the overall activity of the Alumni, and the very existence of the association, shows that past students consider important their Galilean experience.

4. Background theories

As the literature shows, approaches to learning consider both student and context as variables affecting the effectiveness of
learning. If students’ patterns and learning styles strongly influence the learning performance, the environment plays also an important role, considering that the same student may adopt one approach in a particular context and another approach in another context (Biggs, 2001). Research highlights that students may adopt a deep approach to learning, with intrinsic interest in the content and in its possible applications in real life, or a surface approach, mainly oriented to achieve a good grade, and minimizing the effort to reach this result (Marton & Saljo, 1997; Biggs, 2001). The goal of education is to create an appropriate environment that induces students to adopt a deep approach, to reflect on learning in a critical way and to formulate their own thinking having listened and understood different points of view.

Within the School there is an explicit orientation to personal learning, enhancing students’ autonomy and responsibility in co-designing their own learning (Leadbeater, 2004) and this is reflected in structural and organizational choices. They attend traditional classes plus further internal classes or seminars, combining different interests and passions. Moreover, there is both a strong and collaborative relationship between tutors and students and an organization which encourage students’ own initiative in deepening certain contents, organizing events and participating in small discussion groups. Peer learning among students is also encouraged towards sharing of different expertise and mutual support.

The integrated system of activities described above contributes to the development of a competence-based education promoted by the School, in which competences to be achieved by students represent the starting point for determining the goals and contents of courses, seminars, projects. Active learning is encouraged, with the aim of enhancing students’ self-regulation, intrinsic motivation and a deep approach to learning (Van der Klink, Boon, & Schlusmans, 2007).

Interdisciplinarity and university-business cooperation are also key drivers in the model, in line with the Europe 2020
Strategy to strengthen the so called Knowledge Triangle, which considers Education, Research and Business/Innovation to be strongly linked together, although still lacking of real integration and cooperation among the three aspects (Directorate-General for Education and Culture, 2008).

5. Resources

During the first ten years of its life, the School has been fully supported by a bank foundation. From the current academic year the funds come, in comparable amounts, from the foundation, from the University and from another bank. The School however is experiencing an overall funds reduction of about 20%. It is a challenge to continue the activity (actually to increase it, in particular with the new Class of Social Sciences) in such a situation; but a similar challenge is common to all Italian universities and most cultural institutions, and the programme is continuing.

6. Assessment/Accreditation/Certification

a. The selection procedure

The first preliminary step in evaluating the students’ competences is the selection procedure. The procedure is slightly different for the three Classes, but for each Class it includes two written and two oral examinations, on subjects related to the Class. For example, for Natural Sciences, the subjects are Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Biology (the questions being chosen in such a way that students coming from any high school, no matter whether scientifically oriented or not, have equal opportunities). Each selection committee includes 6-8 professors of University of Padova, occasionally from another university. The selection is based only on examinations,
without considering grades reported from high school. The economic situation of the families is irrelevant.

b. *The assessment of students’ competence*

Internal courses provided by the School are evaluated as the other university courses, with grades on a scale of 30. Typically although not always, the exams include some personal or team research, guided by the teacher. As already mentioned, internal courses can be replaced by different activities (personal teaching/learning projects; courses taken abroad; internships in companies; a cycle of thematic seminars; special activities like the DARE+ programme). The general principle, however, is that each activity must have a professor responsible, who guarantees its learning content and evaluates the work done by the student at the end. The transversal competences, like those on which the DARE+ programme is focused are not assessed at the moment. This is a good point well worth discussing in a near future.

General seminars addressed to all students (point 5a above) are expected to be attended, but are not followed by any test and do not give credits.

As already outlined, within one year after obtaining their Master degree, the students are required to prepare and discuss a Galilean Thesis, after which they obtain by the University the Galilean diploma. The final assessment they receive is based both on the score reported in the internal courses (80%) and on the thesis work (20%).

The School provides free access to language courses, and requires the students reach a certified knowledge of English (or a different language on request, with some conditions), at level at least C1 (ability to understand) and B2 (ability to express). Reaching such a linguistic competence is mandatory, but does not produce credits.
c. The students’ annual verification

Each year, at the end of October, there is an official verification of the students’ performance. To be admitted to the next year, or to the Galilean thesis, the students need to complete their programme (ordinary and internal courses) in time, with an average score not lower than 27/30 and a minimal score of 24/30. (Experience shows that the main source of difficulties for students is not maintaining the score, but following their ordinary university schedule in regulation time. Some programmes, like Mathematics or Physics, have a particularly tight schedule indeed, and students occasionally suffer; tutors here help a little.) A few students do not pass the verification, and must leave the School. A few other students occasionally abandon the School for personal reasons (for example, they change town and university). Approximately 15% of students leave the School without completing their Galilean career.

The linguistic competence is checked at the end of the fourth year.

d. Accreditation and assessment of the School

A primary goal of the School is to achieve accreditation by the Italian Ministry of Education. Unfortunately, during the ten years of existence of the School, no channel to accreditation has ever been opened by the Ministry (in spite of several very explicit promises).

The School operates in full autonomy, but is subject to the supervision of the academic authorities (Rector, Academic Senate, Administrative Council). The Board of Trustees of the University (Nucleo di Valutazione) also evaluates the School, within its periodic assessment of the University.

In addition, the School has its own international Board of Trustees, composed of five distinguished scientists (chosen by
the University and by the bank foundation which, till now, provided the main support) who visit the School approximately every three years and produce a report. Reports are very useful indeed to the School in understanding its own strengths and weaknesses. The last report was prepared in 2012; the next is expected within 2015.

7. Critical analysis

The Galilean School is a small structure inside a rather large University (60,000 students, 2,000 professors) which covers practically all cultural areas. In the last assessment of the research quality of universities made by the Ministry of Education (2011), University of Padova was first among the large Italian universities. Having such an important structure with a long excellence tradition behind it (the University was founded in 1222), is certainly the most relevant strength of the School. Being supported by a bank foundation, although now only partially, is also a great opportunity.

The Executive Board of the School remains in charge for three years; tutors also rotate approximately every three years. Teachers of internal courses rotate even more frequently. On the one hand, this is a great opportunity and a strength since such a circulation of people produces a corresponding circulation of ideas and intellectual resources. On the other hand, it is also a weakness, as no professor turns out to be really dedicated to the School for a long time. Moreover, all professors on the Executive Board (including the Director, the Vice director and the Coordinators) are full time professors of the University, and do their job in the School in addition to their ordinary academic duties. This might surprise, and is certainly a cause of weakness, but it is not obvious how to arrange things differently. The question is indeed complex, and has been discussed on several occasions without reaching a definite conclusion (it will certainly be discussed again in the near future).
So much concerning the general structure of the School: concerning the practice, it looks rather evident that the School has been quite successful till now. The School has begun to be well known in Italy (applications come from all Italian Regions, less than one half coming from Veneto); students regard themselves proud to be Galilean students, during and after the School. Several of them have entered the best PhD schools (mainly abroad), and appear quite successful, like seeds starting to germinate.

Weaknesses do exist, of course. The main one is certainly the lack of internationalization of the School [for this, see the comments in paragraph 5c.] Another weakness, also commented on above (paragraph 8d), is the lack of accreditation by the Ministry of Education, which is important in itself and because some support is expected after accreditation is granted. University of Padova, and a few other universities with schools similar to the Galilean School, are applying pressure, though unsuccessfully to date (indeed, the Ministry, through an official act in 2013, established the requirements for schools to be accredited, but the procedure was interrupted later on). A final weakness which is worth mentioning is the difficulty the School has in attracting private funds from companies. This would obviously be useful and, at the same time, would provide a kind of accreditation. For the last few years, the School is in fact interacting with the local association of young employers and some joint activity has started. Galilean students are appreciated but companies nevertheless as yet do not provide support.

8. Transferability

The model described above is not particularly original. The institution that, from the very beginning, inspired the Galilean School mostly is in fact the most celebrated and oldest Italian high education institution, namely the Scuola Normale Superiore, with its origins in Pisa. SNS is autonomous, whereas
the Galilean School is part of University of Padova but the organization is rather similar (from the beginning, in fact, the Galilean School has had an agreement with SNS, and the name “Galilean” was chosen precisely to stress the link between Padova and Pisa). A few other schools similar to the Galilean School do exist in Italy, the differences being minor. *This means it is likely that any university could study the possibility of starting a similar adventure.* The essential motivation of University of Padova to start the Galilean School was, on the one hand, the consciousness that a large university must teach, as its mission, at all levels including excellence. On the other hand, the commitment to starting a school like the Galilean School is a valuable long term investment because some students are expected to come back as researchers and professors to University of Padova sooner or later, contributing directly to it. An additional benefit to the university comes in the form of those Galilean students who will enrich the scientific network of University of Padova with valuable links to other universities, other research institutions throughout the world and to important companies in which they will work. *Such motivational factors are rather general and not at all peculiar to University of Padova, nor to Italy* (which, unfortunately, invests in education and research less than comparable European countries). In conclusion, there seems to be no special peculiarity behind the Galilean experience and no evident obstacle to transferring it to different contexts. Certainly, the required human and economic investment and effort are considerable and important, but the Galilean School would be delighted to help with the birth of a similar institution, in a spirit of partnership, possibly leading to a close durable collaboration.
BIBLIOGRAPHY AND DOCUMENTS


UPPSALA UNIVERSITY:
LEARNING IN THE INFORMAL/NON
FORMAL CONTEXT OF STUDENT NATIONS

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Uppsala University, founded in 1477, is the oldest university in the Nordic region and one of northern Europe’s top-ranking higher education institutions today. Its key asset is all the individuals who, with their curiosity, commitment and creativity, place it among the 100 best universities in the world. Within the university, world-class research and first-rate education are in progress, with global benefits to society, the economy and culture. Education and research are offered in nine faculties: Theology, Law, Arts, Languages, Social Sciences, Educational Sciences, Medicine, Pharmacy, and Science and Technology. Uppsala students acquire the very latest research, in modern premises and advanced laboratories. At the same time, they live in a living cultural milieu dating back several centuries, and enjoy an active student life in the university’s ‘nations’. The 45,000 students in residence are seen, heard and noticed everywhere. Their student years give them experience and contacts for life (http://www.uu.se/en/about-uu/history/summary/).

Uppsala student nations

A central part of the student life and the academic milieu in Uppsala are the student nations, similar to fraternities and sororities. The thirteen nations in Uppsala can be described as social clusters of the student community, with accommodations, scholarships, clubs, culture, pubs, dinners, associations, sports and a lot more – by students for students. The
nations have houses in central Uppsala, many of them built in the 19th century. All activities at the nations are produced by students, giving students a unique opportunity to develop personal and professional skills. The Uppsala student nations are: Stockholms nation, Uplands nation, Gästrike-Hälsinge nation, Östgöta nation, Västgöta nation, Södermanlands-Nerikes nation, Västmanlands-Dala nation, Smålands nation, Göteborgs nation, Kalmar nation, Värmlands nation, Norrlands nation, and Gotlands nation. The nations vary in sizes. Norrlands nation is the biggest nation with ca. 8000 members, whereas the smallest nation – Göteborgs nation – has ca. 400 members (Kuratorskonventet statute 2015). The first student nations in Uppsala were founded in the 17th century. Students from the same parts of Sweden formed regional associations to help each other in the new town. Nation membership was mandatory for students from 1684 up to the 1st of July 2010. (Burman, 2013).

The nations have a long history of collaboration. In 1831 an official agency for cooperation was founded: Kuratorskonventet (KK), which consists of representatives from the thirteen nations. Three students from the nations are elected to form a presidium to represent all the nations to the University and the City. The presidium consists of the Curator Curatorum, the president of KK and an official representative of Uppsala student nations, the Vice Curator Curatorum, assisting the president and coordinator of the nations’ social activities, and the Custos Pecuniae (treasurer). Once a month KK have meetings where decisions are taken regarding the nations’ joint work and interests Kuratorskonventet statute, 2015. The guiding principle of the nations is voluntary work. The daily operating activities are managed by students who, alongside their studies, have the opportunity and confidence to lead the organizations. The nations have two or three students elected as curators who have the general responsibility for the nation and its activities. To manage their tasks, curators are granted a year off from studies to work full-time at the nation. The First Curator acts as president of the nation and is responsible for
representation, the elected functionaries and cultural activities. The Second Curator is usually the nation’s treasurer and in charge of the nation’s finances. The Third Curator handles the nation’s social activities and acts as manager for the students who work with these chores.

Apart from the full-time working students there are over a thousand volunteers at the nations. They fill a range of functions in varying activities in order to offer daily activities to the students of Uppsala. Students manage daily restaurants, lead choirs, run the library, work as board members and much more. As Inspectors, some University professors retain a historic function as supervisor of a student nation and its activities. All nation functionaries, voluntary or symbolically paid, are elected at the Landskap, the main organ for decision-making to which all members are invited and have the right to vote right to vote. This practice goes back to the beginning of the history of the nations, and is an important part of the democratic heritage and education that the nations provide their students. All this work can be seen as a complement to their education. The experiences from working at the nations are generally appreciated by future employers, and often lead to employment. Through the nations, education in Uppsala is more than just studies.

In this chapter two practices will be described, relating to the Last of April celebration which is an old Swedish custom that takes place all over the country. In Uppsala there are a lot of different celebrations, especially among students. The purpose of the student initiative Varannan Vatten (In English – Every Other Water) Campaign is twofold: promoting the student nations as responsible actors during the Last of April celebrations, and encouraging a calmer celebration. The second practice that will be described is the First of May dinner, which is a formal dinner organized by students.

In the following chapter we will highlight some competences that are developed when students engage in the nations and its student life. Students engaged at nations acquire project management, implementation and conflict management skills as
well as the understanding of objectives and strategies. Students learn who they are and what they are good at. In the dynamic mixture of people at the nations, they learn how to work and collaborate with people they never would have met if they had only spent time with academics from the same scientific areas as themselves. At the student nations, there are excellent opportunities for developing concrete skills such as accounting, and to get experience from board work. For many students it is their first time being in charge. In the range of leadership positions available at the nations, students often need to be their friends’ superiors. This challenge is one among other things that you learn to handle.

An event such as the First of May dinner or the Varannan Vatten campaign constitutes an example of a nation activity that is executed like a project, giving many students opportunity to develop project management, cooperation and communication skills. In this last part we will illustrate and discuss how tasks that are necessary for a nation’s dinner to function or a campaign to be successful, can be a complement to students’ academic education. Varannan Vatten and the First of May dinner offer perfect opportunities to develop skills in leadership. As a toast master, curator or song leader during a formal dinner, you learn to interact and work alongside different people, and you learn how to plan an extensive event with many elements. These skills grow and increase during all the different dinners you plan or host during one semester. The students in charge of the musical entertainment develop management skills alongside artistic skills. They get an opportunity to lead a big choir and/or an orchestra with a lot of different students with different desires. The students learn how to plan a five to ten minute-long performance that should entertain and contain something for every guest. Behind the ongoing dinner, there is also an extensive and professional organization taking place in the kitchen. The students who work in the kitchen and with the service during the dinner learn teamwork, how to take responsibility and how to work under stressful conditions. The
head waiter has to have timing and sure instincts to manage a formal dinner, often with over 100 guests. Being in charge of other students working at the dinner, you get great leadership training. The leadership role of the head waiter can often be quite demanding. Ahead of becoming head waiter, you work as an ordinary waiter multiple times. The project of Varannan Vatten offers lessons in leadership similar to those experienced at professional companies.

As a collaborative organ for the 13 student nations of Uppsala, KK manages and responds to many wills. Good leadership is required to form a cohesive and constructive collaboration between the nations. At the same time, it is necessary to adhere to opinions of the student nations as the nations constitute the base of KK’s authority. Strong but flexible leadership and good communication is necessary to manage this balance. For the student nations, it is important that KK’s assets are responsibly invested. The student nations have annually given KK a percentage of their membership income. KK’s financial resources have to a large extent been based on this. How KK invests its assets is a regularly discussed issue. What investments should be made, and which partners should be brought into collaborations, have often been intensely debated at KK general meetings. This situation gives the presiding students a similar experience to that of a company board, held responsible for how the company’s assets are invested. Again, the project at hand emphasizes a valuable experience in leadership and communication that is hard to acquire ahead of graduation. Moreover, for many of the producers of bottled water the Varannan Vatten order of over 60 000 bottles is the largest deal they will close during the year. Negotiating deals of this magnitude is a valuable experience for future professional work and project leadership.

By participating in the budgeting and planning projects like the First of May dinner and the Varannan Vatten campaign, students of varying backgrounds learn how to plan a project given certain economic preconditions. Many of the students
involved would have no education in economics. For them, this experience constitutes a valuable and possibly unique asset for their future working life and employment. Apart from lessons in leadership, the Varannan Vatten campaign makes communication one of its top priorities. Through the Varannan Vatten project, KK has emerged as an appreciated collaborative partner in the city. Students engaged in the project of Varannan Vatten get a unique possibility to collaborate on equal terms with heads of many public and private organizations in the city of Uppsala – an opportunity seldom experienced by students in their twenties. Acting, and being perceived, as a fully adequate collaboration partner is a valuable professional experience in leadership and communication. By strategically contacting potential sponsors of the campaign and managing the marketing of an extensive project, students get an excellent experience of promoting and petitioning for their initiative. From top to bottom, students in different positions participate in the planning and executing of events at the nations, making them successful social projects and enjoyable dinner parties. At the nations, the collective effort is made possible by good teamwork. During a nation event, every working student depends on other students managing different parts of the structure. The cases of Varannan Vatten and First of May Dinner serve as good examples of the teamwork that characterize every nation activity, and which teach the students the value of good cooperation.

Apart from lessons in leadership, communication and teamwork, nation activities offer possibilities to acquire knowledge in areas that are hard to come by in other parts of society. When giving speeches at formal dinners, students at the nations learn rhetoric. Speaking at formal dinners constitutes an excellent training in how to write a public address or speech and how to talk in front of a big audience. The audience – other students – learn to listen, which can be seen as practical rhetoric. Students listening in turn get tips and advice on how to give a speech of their own. The different speeches create and increase the identity in the nation. It creates cohesiveness, unity and a
sense of belonging. It is important to point out that speeches are held by students at different levels at the nation – not only by curators. Moreover, as students are elected to nation positions with a semester or year mandate, new students are continually given the chance to be the centre of attention. Thus, the practice of speeches at the nations gives a wide range of students the beneficial experience of rhetoric, an important professional skill. The First of May dinner is an event attended by alumni. The nations make efforts to maintain good relations with their alumni and the alumni are always welcome back to the nation. Students who used to be active functionaries during their years at the university often come back to their nations to celebrate jubilees and other occasions. Some of them remain active – such as senior board members, inspectors or advisors. There are often senior members present at dinners and other activities, which ensures the connection between generations. This also contributes to the students’ professional network. Networking has never been the purpose of the activities at the nations, it is rather an automatic result of the dynamic and inclusive events such as the First of May dinner.

Regardless of the content of the activities at the nation, students develop certain skills that are valuable no matter what job and/or commitment they will have in the future. They get valuable professional experience and enhance many personal skills while engaging in the student life during their studies. Today, the student initiative of Varannan Vatten is a well-known part of the Walpurgis celebration in Uppsala. The initiative is appreciated by both students and residents of the city. The twofold purpose of Varannan Vatten – to promote a responsible celebration and to improve the public opinion of student nations – seems to have been achieved. Walpurgis celebrations have become calmer and the nations have since the beginning of the campaign initiated many collaborations with important public actors in the city. Through Varannan Vatten students at KK acquire personal and professional skills in various areas relevant for future employment. Good leadership is
needed in the extensive project, where balancing the nations’ different opinions and the sponsors’ demands are essential. Good communication is central to marketing, fundraising and the formation of opinions. Through good teamwork, the students at KK and the curators of the nations form a collective understanding of the importance and purpose of the campaign.

The First of May Dinner has served as a successful practice to encourage and enable the development of leadership and teamwork skills among the participating students. Students at different levels in the student nation structure have had a chance to acquire these skills. The event is an illuminating example of how a student-led extracurricular social activity can provide great opportunities for students to acquire skills valuable for future employment. The formal dinners at the student nations, such as the First of May dinner, might in some way be trivial. Celebrations and revelry might be seen as having a negative impact on education, taking time from studies. On the contrary, as this text implies, the formal dinners are an example of practical training for the students. Planning and implementation of the dinner involves a lot of people, and in order to achieve a successful event the students need to communicate with each other and coordinate their actions. Projects like this, no matter the content, give the students opportunities to develop skills that complement their theoretical education. In Uppsala, formal nation dinners provide a great example of this. We have established that the nations provide a number of possibilities for extracurricular activity. The present example has been organizing a formal dinner, and executing an extensive social project. As a nation’s functionary you contribute to the university environment, student life being a vital part of Uppsala University. The opportunities for a student engaged in the student life to develop personal and professional skills are excellent. Regardless of the task, nations provide experience in a wide range of project management skills. All of this is, without any or with only little experience, made possible by students, for students.
The Last of April, or Walpurgis, celebration is an old Swedish custom that takes place all over the country. Last of April in Uppsala is characterized by several traditions, many of them academic. The main event of the celebrations in Uppsala is the annual Donning of the Caps at Carolina Rediviva, the main building of the University Library, at 3 pm sharp. Thousands of students and celebrators gather in front of Carolina Rediviva where the Vice-Chancellor and her guests stand on the balcony. At the sign of the Vice-Chancellor the students and celebrators simultaneously don their traditional white student caps, marking the arrival of spring to Uppsala. Public concerts are also held in parks and the student nations organize concerts, clubs and pubs for their members.

As there are tens of thousands of people taking part in the Last of April celebrations in Uppsala, the liveliness of the celebrations has intermittently constituted a disturbance to the residents of the city. The public have often held the student nations responsible for this. Irresponsible celebration among students during the Last of April celebrations have hurt the image of the student nations among the public, fostering a resistance toward the nations’ activities not only during Walpurgis, but in general. Student nations, depending on good cooperation with the university, the municipality and the police, feared that this would be harmful. Through KK, the student nations sought a way to take on a social responsibility to promote a more responsible celebration at the nations as well as a way to counter the image of student nations as irresponsible organizations. In the fall of 2008, in advance of the Last of April celebrations 2009, KK took the initiative to create the campaign Varannan Vatten. The campaign consists of the distribution of thousands of bottles of water to celebrators during the Last of April festivities. With this initiative, KK identified the need to take action and the consequences of not acting. They took upon themselves the responsibility to help solve a social issue. They planned, financed and executed the campaign distributing 10000
bottles of water the first year. By 2015, 62 400 bottles were distributed in the campaign (Kuratorskonventet, annual report, 2014).

Another part of the Last of April celebration is the First of May dinner, a formal dinner held at almost every student nation on the First of May as a finale of the celebrations. At the Uppsala student nations formal dinners are similar. The nations have a range of dinners and traditions, although some are the same at all or many nations. The First of May dinner is the most well-known formal dinner at the Uppsala student nations. The student nations have been connected with festivities since their founding – first as participants of larger public festivities, later as organizers of formal dinners and balls for their members. The First of May dinner is one of the oldest traditions, the concept dating back to the middle of the 19th century (Jonsson, 2014). Dinners at the student nations of Uppsala can be formal in various degrees. There are three categories that are applicable to all nations. The most formal dinner is the ball, with strict a dress code such as tailcoats, evening dresses or military uniforms. The ball has three or more courses, the entertainment during dinner is often of high standard and a seating chart tells the guests where to sit. A less formal dinner is called gasque, which has a lot in common with the ball but is less strict. The dress code is suit and cocktail dress. The least formal dinner is called sexa, an unpretentious dinner that often is held after meetings of the nations or other activities. The sexa usually do not require a dress code, and the menu might only include one or two courses. The First of May dinner is mostly categorized as a gasque. The number of students working on or preparing the First of May dinner depends on the number of guests and the structure of the nation. In smaller nations, only the curators are responsible for planning and few students work as servants attending the tables. At the larger nations, 5-10 people are engaged in planning and up to 20-30 students work as servants or in the kitchen during the dinner.
Varannan Vatten is a project that permeates and engages many student strata. KK coordinates and leads the project, while the campaign is executed at the level of the individual student handing out the water bottles. In this way, lessons in leadership, teamwork and communications are made throughout the layers of actors within the project of Varannan Vatten. The Varannan Vatten campaign is commenced in December every year, when KK coordinates the number of bottles needed by the different nations in the campaign. KK then initiates negotiations with companies supplying bottled water. As the campaign is run pro bono, potential partners and financers are simultaneously approached. To implement the Varannan Vatten project, external financing is needed. In 2015, ca. 200 000 SEK was needed. This naturally calls for fundraising. KK contacts major actors in the city that have shown interest in taking on social responsibility. Here, collaboration with the university and municipality is crucial. The project plan is presented and marketing samples from previous campaigns are shown. In exchange for funding Varannan Vatten, KK offers the sponsors their logotypes on water bottles and on marketing products. Since 2009, sponsors of Varannan Vatten have included Uppsala University, Uppsala Municipality, Länsförsäkringar (a bank and insurance company), Uppsala Police, Menigo (a grocery), Uppsala Student Union and Mecenat (a student card company). Beginning with funding for Varannan Vatten, KK has made agreements with Länsförsäkringar, Uppsala Municipality and Uppsala University supporting other KK activities (Kuratorskonventet annual report, 2014). When the extent of the campaign is determined and its financial support secured, a major effort of internal and external communication is begun. Among the nations, information on the purpose, practicalities and importance of the campaign must be given every year, as the students working at the nations change from year to year. In a sense, Varannan Vatten is new to the students working with the campaign every year.
In accordance with the double purpose of the campaign, the marketing of Varannan Vatten is extremely important. KK issues press releases, poster campaigns and advertisement in newspapers, radio and social media. Moreover, the students at KK work to raise awareness among the public of the campaign and of the nations’ effort to take on a social responsibility. KK discusses the importance of Varannan Vatten at meetings with influential people in Uppsala such as the Mayor, Vice Chancellor of the university and police representatives. When budget, financing and production are set, the student nations separately plan the distribution of the bottled water. The student nations vary in size, as do the amount of bottles requested in the campaign. For example, Östgöta nation distributes 8,000 bottles of water at three different occasions on the Walpurgis celebration. During the celebrations, about 120 students work for this nation. This requires extensive planning, both by curators overseeing the distribution of water, as well as by the students managing the bars and clubs. From top to bottom, students in different positions participate in the planning and executing of Varannan Vatten, making it a successful social project (Kuratorskonventet annual report, 2014).

Model description: First of May dinner

The First of May dinner, like all of the other dinners the nations are hosting, takes months to prepare. It begins with advertising the dinner. The students that are in charge of marketing and public relations create posters and events on social media. These students usually work according to commands from the nation’s club master or Third Curator, the students in charge of all of the formal dinners at the nation. The club masters and curators start planning the event by searching for students that want to work during the dinner. Chefs, a head waiter, waiters and other staff are all needed, as the nations have their own kitchens. The chefs, club masters and curators
plan the menu together. Some weeks before the event the club masters or curators sell tickets. At some dinners the tickets are harder to get, depending on how big and popular the dinner is. Tickets are firstly sold to members of the nation and secondly to members of other nations. Once the dinner is sold out and all invited guests have been registered, the club masters and curators start to plan the seating arrangement and the program. In the program the menu, speeches and entertainment of the dinner are presented. Apart from students that have bought tickets, other guests are specifically invited to the First of May dinner. The First Curator at the nation manages the guest list, which in part is the same from year to year. The Inspector and other honorary members are invited. Students with higher functions at the present nation, or at another nation, are also invited. They often receive traditional handwritten invitations. It is common to invite representatives from the university, the city and the nation’s regional province to the First of May dinner. It is also common for Alumni of the nation to attend. The participants at this dinner are a mix of the categories above; students, alumni, professors and guests. The mixture of guests at formal nation dinners provides a unique possibility for students to mingle with people from different generations and from varying academic backgrounds.

Another task often managed by the First Curator is the program of the dinner. At some nations, events are arranged prior to the dinner. Many nations walk to the nation’s grave situated at the Uppsala old cemetery, headed by the nation’s banner. To honour deceased nation members who have been buried there during the centuries, the students sing songs and place a wreath at the grave. The nations’ alumni clubs sometimes have annual meetings adjacent to the dinners. Other nations have sports activities connected to the dinner. Uplands nation arranges a game not unlike cricket in a park nearby the nation before the dinner. Södermanlands-Nerikes nation arranges a cone war, not unlike a game of tag but with the addition of throwing pine cones. A longstanding tradition at
the nations are speeches. Two speeches are traditionally held at every formal dinner. There is the welcome speech, commonly given by the First Curator, as well as a speech of gratitude at the end of the dinner. The latter is at some nations given by the Inspector, and at some nations by a distinguished guest. It is also common that students give speeches about the nation’s province or a chronicle of the past year at the nation. Apart from these standard speeches, many presentations of various sorts – from presenting the menu to giving an event-specific speech or announcing a winner of a competition – are common at the nations’ formal dinners. Most nations have a choir and/or an orchestra which give concerts and provide musical entertainment during the formal dinners. Alongside the planning and preparations of the cultural content of the dinner come the practical arrangements concerning food and drink. Whereas the First Curator often plans the dinner program, the toast master is in charge during the dinner. At many nations, the club master or Third Curator act as toast master. Toast masters keep close control over the schedule of dinner. The toast master has contact with the head waiter, the musical entertainment, those giving speeches and the song leader, and presents the different events during the dinner.

As mentioned, another person closely connected to both the planning and the execution of the dinner is the song leader. Each nation has their own song book with traditional songs, which are the same at all nations, and nation specific songs, which vary between nations. Different songs are sung during different courses and between other parts of the program, and the song leader chooses them. The song leader is the third part of the leading team at the dinner, together with the head waiter and the toast master (Jonsson, 2014). When the dinner is over, students who have not attended the are welcome to join the festivities. Usually there is a bar and dancefloors where DJs play music. At some nations there is also an orchestra or a band playing, giving the guests a chance to dance formal dances. A couple of days after the
event, the organizing students meet to evaluate the dinner. At Södermanlands-Nerikes nation, the club masters write an accounting report on the number of guests, income, and salaries of the dinner. The club masters hand over this material to the curators. Together they will, sometime later on, present a dinner report to the nation’s board for further evaluation. This is a process that all the dinners at the nations go through, and it is essential for passing on information and experience to future generations of students at the nations.

Resources

For developing successful student-led initiatives like Varannan Vatten or the First of May Dinner, the main resources needed are a good organizational structure among the students and good cooperation with the surrounding society. Without a good organizational structure, upholding and continually organizing the initiatives is very hard. Good cooperation with other organizations is particularly important when the initiative deals with formation of opinion and affects not only students. Due to the nations’ long history of student organized activities and the nations being a recognized part of the city of Uppsala, good organizational structure and good cooperation are secured. Besides the greater number of human resources, material resources are also needed. The nations have their own large buildings in central Uppsala, most of them from the 19th century, with room for dinner parties, meetings, libraries etc. There are professional kitchens and thousands of students who like to work at the nations during their time at Uppsala University. Moreover, the nations have the financial means to realize their members’ initiatives, even letting some of them fail. The nations are financed by membership fees, returns on funds, and revenue from restaurants, pubs, concerts, and real estate. The financial possibility to try new activities is crucial to the development of extra-curricular student led initiatives.
Assessment/Accreditation/Certification

The students who work as curators and at Kuratorskonventet are acknowledged by the university for their efforts at the nations and for the student life in Uppsala. At a ceremony in the university main building, the students are given a diploma, which very briefly describes the nature of the nations and the work the students have performed. In the diploma, signed by the Vice-Chancellor, the university officially thanks the students for their contribution to the Uppsala University study environment. This is a rather new practice: the first diploma was handed out in 2012. It is more of an official appreciation of the students’ efforts than a certificate of the skills acquired. A proper certificate of what is acquired as a curator, at KK, as a head waiter or as a toast master is still to be developed. One problem with certifying the skills acquired at nations is that the student nations are unfamiliar to many, the tasks of i.e. a curator being hard to grasp. By spreading information about the nations and providing a university-backed description of the nations’ work, the university could make substantial contributions to future employers’ understanding of the skills developed at nations. The connection between studies, the nations, and work life could be developed in other ways as well. At some nations today there are attempts to create arenas for students and alumni to meet. Subjects often discussed when the nations, university, and alumni meet are employability, how studies and engagement in student life can interact to mutual benefit, and how nations are a part of the students’ education. A stronger connection between extracurricular activities and the university could even further crystallize Uppsala University as an academic milieu where the education is much more than the studies.

Critical analysis

a) Strong points, success indicators/proof

A fundamental part of the activities here described is, as mentioned, having a good organizational structure in place.
The nations, being old institutions with a strong tradition of organizing events and managing projects, provide a stability that enables projects like Varannan Vatten and the formal dinners to develop. Another strong point of Varannan Vatten and the First of May dinner, and of all nation activities, is the professionalism with which they are handled. In the case of formal dinners, students adhere to the same rules and regulations as other restaurants. Students wish to meet the same standards of service as other establishments would have. Concerning Varannan Vatten, cooperation with the surrounding society and negotiations with major companies call for professionalism among the students engaged, a standard the students always try to meet. The constant aim towards professionalism contributes to keeping a high standard at the nations’ events.

b) Difficulties encountered, elements to be improved in the practice and/or in the centre

There are, however, some elements of the projects, and nation activity in general, that could be further developed. As mentioned, university certification and public acknowledgement of the nations’ engagement is an area for development. A public understanding of the nature of nation engagement is an important part of translating the experience made at nations into skills valued by future employers. Here, the universities have an important role to play. An issue at many student organizations is short memory, and the student nations of Uppsala are no exception. Positions shift on a semester or yearly basis, and students generally stay at the nations no more than 3-4 years. Follow-up, evaluation and keeping records is of paramount importance. However, follow-up and documentation of nation activities still constitutes an enormous challenge for the nations and the projects at hand.
Transferability

The Uppsala student nations offer a very specific and unique setting for discussing extracurricular initiatives. It can be hard to directly point out the points of transferability of Varannan Vatten and First of May dinner, but there are some general recommendations that are of key importance to the nations’ ability to take on and manage student initiatives. They will serve as good basis for evaluating the possibility of developing something similar at other universities. It is hard to ordain student led initiatives from the university level. For a student led initiative to be successful and sustainable, the initiative should come from the students themselves. In light of this, a successful strategy would be supporting already existing student organizations and movements, rather than working towards developing new ones. This strategy will make it hard to control what type of activities are developed. However, as the present text has tried to demonstrate, professional skills can be learnt in a wide range of projects and events. Listen to students – what would they like to do? What is important is not the focus of the project, but rather what can be learned in the process of managing the project. Cooperation is another important aspect of providing a suitable environment for the development of initiatives of this sort. The Varannan Vatten project was made possible by good relations and cooperation with the surrounding society, most specifically with the university. Cooperating with student organizations and inviting them to partnerships is an excellent way to provide for funding the initiatives, influencing their focus without taking over, and providing an excellent platform for students to interact on a professional level. Projects that originate from the students themselves and have a stable cooperation with the university has been a winning concept among the student nations in Uppsala, and would surely be a success at other places as well.
BIBLIOGRAPHY AND DOCUMENTS


1. Introduction and presentation of the practice

The practice presented in this chapter is located at Università degli Studi di Padova (University of Padova), in Italy, and the activity refers to an experience carried out with Masters students from Humanities at the School of Education in 2010 and then replicated in the next years for other Masters students in the Department of Philosophy, Sociology, Education and Applied Psychology.

The major aim of this practice is: to support students in identifying their competences acquired in a formal context (university), to connect them with knowledge and skills gained in informal and non-formal contexts (professional experiences, volunteer experiences, personal daily life); to support reflection on their strengths and weaknesses, on their interests and professional aims in order to allow them to improve their abilities to plan the future, and to present themselves for future possible job interviews.

In this connection, the reflective activity required a double task for students:

- To write a reflective log retracing all the teaching and learning activities that occurred during course units in the whole Masters degree in order to identify the competences acquired.
- To construct a student portfolio, which is a selected and reasoned collection of learning products and results,
with real evidence of learning outcomes but that also reports on processes that occurred in academic, personal and professional life, which allow the development of competences. The portfolio construction is supported by a tutor, through periodic individual meetings and/or contacts to guide individual analysis of experiences and identification of learning achieved.

The first pilot attempt to realise both the reflective logs on academic learning outcomes and the portfolio on informal and non-formal learning acquired outside classroom was realised with a group of 18 students and 3 tutors in 2010.

The successful learning experience has been then replicated in the following years within a Masters degree in Lifelong learning training studies (around 20 students per year, supported by tutors). The activity was carried out during the 2 years of the programme and lasted (in the first model) 21 hours. Students gained 3 academic credits by doing the overall activities required.

2. Competences addressed and developed

In order to build the portfolio, the student was guided through a reflective path aimed at tracking his/her learning history. Based upon previous learning acquired before entering the Masters degree, the student – by using the log - identifies the learning that occurred during the Masters degree, reflecting on progression, evidence, connections and coherence between “old” and “new” learning.

Students develop awareness of competences, turning tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. They master new generic

1. The duration varied depending on the year in which this practice was replicated, according to the current study programme.
competences concerning the **ability to be critical and self-critical**, to **make reasonable decisions as well as acquiring** **learning orientation** (capacity to learn and to stay up-to-date with learning).

By analysing their own past experiences and related achievements, students learn to recognise and self-evaluate their own competences, to understand their learning needs and to search for, process and analyse information from a variety of formal and informal sources.

The students develop also **design and planning** skills and the ability to **adapt to new situations** in order to carry out projects concerning their future development. They use the knowledge learned to establish meaningful and realistic targets and their related priorities, evaluating the constraints and possibilities, defining action strategies and verifying the results achieved.

3. **Model description: the use of portfolio and reflective log**

The following table presents the main steps followed in the practice:
### Context where competences have been acquired

- Competences acquired in formal contexts (classroom) during the Masters
- Competences acquired in informal and non-formal contexts before and during the Masters

### Actors involved

- Students, tutor, teachers
- Students, tutor

### Timetable

Overall Master degree (1 meeting per semester – 4 meetings in total - plus online writing and related contacts with tutors for feedback); total: 21 hours

### Process

1. **individual writing** of online reflective log (by using a learning platform), focussing on individual learning events
2. **collective meeting of students** at the end of each semester to share their personal learning events and outcomes
3. At the end of the process a **plenary session (involving all students and all teachers)** is organised in order to share the results.

### The structure of the portfolio proposed to students in this practice is the following (Galliani, Zaggia, Serbati, 2011):

- **Personal data**
- **Previous educational path, summary of thesis, left or interrupted studies, formative path (informal, non-formal, e.g. courses at work, voyages, lectures)**
- Description of all professional experiences (description of main activities, results, knowledge, skills and competences acquired)
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<th>Description of all extra-professional path (sport, hobbies, charity work) (description of main activities, results, knowledge and skills acquired)</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European Languages Portfolio</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary of knowledge, skills and competences acquired by professional and extra-professional experiences</td>
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<td>Curriculum Vitae Europass</td>
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<td>Records of documents (highlights).</td>
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</table>

Students develop their own portfolio, with periodic contact/meetings with the tutor.
For the learning log, students are asked to write an individual reflective log on a specific private space in the learning platform, identifying personal learning events which happened during the course units and learning outcomes that they believe they achieved. This individual writing is then followed by a collective meeting of students (at the end of each semester) to share their personal learning experiences and outcomes (students work in group of 4-5 and socialise their reflections).

At the end of the first and the second year of the Masters degree a plenary session (involving all students and all teachers) is organised in order to discuss the results. Teachers – who shared the learning outcomes expected at the beginning of their own taught courses – listen to the students’ perceived learning outcomes after having completed the course for a time. The comparison between learning outcomes intended by teachers and acquired by students during the year helps to focus on coherence and learning needs. It helps teachers to prepare teaching and learning activities for the future and allows students to become more aware of knowledge and skills.

For the portfolio, devoted to track competences acquired in informal and non-formal contexts, the process proposed in this practice is as follows. During the Masters programme, students are asked to develop their portfolios related to skills acquired in informal and non-formal contexts in their past experiences and during their academic experience.

Tutors help students to improve reflection and skills’ analysis and to connect experiences realised in different contexts in order to foster possible transferability of knowledge and skills and to visualize a personal and professional project. During the portfolio construction, the students have the possibility to think and rethink their experience, giving new meaning to their experience and developing a concrete match between their competences wherever acquired (described and demonstrated in the portfolio) and the local labour market. Online continuous feedback by tutors – usually with one (online) meeting per semester – accompanies people in the process
of self-reflection towards the development of a personal and professional project.

Although the two tools, portfolio and log, each have a clear and different function; on one hand to map competences acquired in past and present experiences in non-formal and informal contexts and, on the other hand to track learning occurred in formal context (course units of the Masters degree); they have some points of integration. In fact, the process of structured reflection, based on real events/experiences and results achieved, guides the identification of skills and competences acquired and developed in both contexts. Moreover, the effort of analysing prior and current informal and non-formal learning fosters the discovery of personal key core trajectories, the main *fils rouge* of each student. With this deeper awareness, students can better integrate and build new knowledge gained in formal contexts with prior knowledge.

We indicate below the resources needed for the implementation of the practice described. For the learning log activity, an online platform is required (i.e. Moodle), where students can write their own learning events and outcomes. For the plenary sessions where individual learning events are discussed, a facilitator is needed to organise activities and presentations.

For the portfolio part, a model/structure of the tool is required (such as the one designed in this practice) and a tutor who can support and guide students in the reflection, identification of competences and collection of evidence.

4. Background theories

In the construction of the learning log, the approach chosen to facilitate the emergence of learning events in formal contexts is the so called “method of events” designed by Alberto Munari and tested and adopted by him both in research and continuing learning (Munari, 1998). This approach grows out of the studies carried out by the Author, together with Do-
nata Fabbri, on the relation that the person creates with the knowledge gained. In this way the student identifies one of the main factor both in the learning process and, more broadly, in the development of knowledge (Fabbri & Munari, 2005). According to them, the relation with knowledge is built by taking a cue and then anchoring it to concrete events, lived in a subjectively significant way (Munari, 1998).

Considering this premise and the purposes of the practice described here, students were invited to reflect on the teaching activities, the concrete events and their “anchorage” to their personal paths, especially the learning ones. Actually, Munari (1998) interprets an event as every lived episode that a person considers in this way. Although the students’ choice of the events was mainly subjective, it has been supported by some relevant criteria proposed by Author.

First of all, an “event” is every event that the person considers such in regard to his/her learning: therefore, it is a learning event, as was interpreted in the context of the activity described here. The first relevant criterion that the student has to consider is the time dimension determined by the 2-years duration of the Masters degree course and the duration of each learning activity. The second relevant criterion is the one defined as context: the learning event occurred within the formal context of teaching units during the Masters program. In addition, as third criterion, it has to concern the continuing learning and the role of the trainer, as disciplinary and professional reference frame in which the learning path of every student is placed. The fourth main criterion is the level of connection conferred by students on the learning event with the other non-formal and informal learning, which characterised their path in respect of their past, present and future. Finally, the learning event has to be supported by evidence: a proof, a statement attesting the event itself.

The five stated criteria guide the students to identify and select the events and they make a full subjective choice. In addition, as already stated, the personal learning events become, after their
individual recognition, a request for collective reflection, and discussed and shared in work groups to collect peer feedback. The whole process is carried out through a learning log because of its characteristics. It is a diary which collects not only the traced events, but also their choice process and the students’ reflection on the reasons that have led them to it. Moreover, the log encourages the research of connections with the learning units already attended, but also with the whole existential students’ path, in which the cursus studiorum is just one of the various learning opportunities.

As for the construction of the portfolio, it has to be said that the portfolio is the most used tool in European practices of recognition and validation of competences (Cedefop, 2015), as a guided process to examine in-depth prior experiences in order to identify acquired knowledge and skills. Moreover, it has been combined as well with the French methodology of “bilan de competences” (Aubret, 2009) in order to collect evidence of the process of self-reflection and identification of competences and of the achievements during prior experiences. Students learn to recognise and self-evaluate their own competences; they develop design and planning skills to carry out a plan concerning future development. Moreover, in the portfolio, competences must be documented using a collection and selection of evidence. This latter aspect is crucial, since it becomes for the student a tool to introduce himself/herself to a working context, where tangible results and evidence of what a person can do are as important as his/her educational qualification.

The structure of the portfolio proposed to students in this practice was the following (Galliani, Zaggia, Serbati, 2011): a brief description of personal data; the presentation of aim, goals, and utility of the portfolio; a description of educational path, professional path and extra-professional path (following a structure of key points to be covered, including competences acquired); a competences map (flowchart representing a synthesis of the competences emerged in the
previous analysis); and a European Languages portfolio; CV Europass, evidence.

Gredler (1999) identifies some characteristics that distinguish the portfolio from other evaluation tools. First, it represents an investigating tool, not only of the product, but also of the learning process. Secondly, it shows clearly the person’s development and so the evolution and the consolidation of his/her competences during time. Third, it offers a full approach to the person, mapping all his/her competences and knowledge domains and their possible scope of use. Finally, the portfolio puts the person at the centre of the process, as first author of recognition of acquired knowledge awareness. For these reasons, it was selected as appropriate tool to support students’ reflection on their learning gained in informal and non-formal contexts.

5. Assessment, accreditation, certification in the practice

The purpose of both the learning log and the portfolio was mainly to develop formative self-evaluation and to help students connect learning that occurred in formal contexts with learning acquired outside the class in prior or current personal, professional and extra-professional experiences.

However, the portfolio has been proposed also as a tool for summative evaluation. If the student’s career evaluation so far was only based on the average score of exams, now the student’s portfolio can be considered as a factor to be taken into account (at least for the Masters involved). As it is a motivated, selected and justified collection of significant products and results of one’s learning process, it gives evidence not only of the results, but also of the learning process that is behind competences. This can allow a better evaluation and appreciation the student’s acquisitions and capitalisation in all contexts, not just academic ones. The portfolio has been considered in this Masters Degree as a complementary source, together with thesis, in the final defense at the end of the student’s academic path.
Moreover, the whole activity of preparing the log and the portfolio was recognised to students as a 3 ECTS module within their academic career (under the responsibility of the teacher/tutor facilitating activities).

6. Evaluation of the model and relevant elements

Critical analysis

This practice represents an attempt to connect students’ formal learning with informal and non-formal ones. Two dimensions may be highlighted in that sense.

The first one is that students are asked to invest their own time outside the classroom in order to write the learning log and to prepare the portfolio. Moreover, they spend some further time with the tutor and with classmates in the collective reflection during academic time. This means that the time in class is not only devoted to adding new knowledge, but also to reflecting on previous one and on its possible uses in real life.

The second dimension is that students have the chance to analyse prior and current informal and non-formal learning, by describing experiences and focussing on the learning acquired in schools, courses attended, summer jobs, volunteer work, social and sport activities, periods abroad, and connecting them with current learning in class.

The portfolio has a “conservative” purpose: to keep track and maintain the evidences created within personal experiences and sharing a leitmotiv of the personal track. In addition, it has an “exhibition” purpose: it is created to show it to others, to show it to a public to whom its authors present themselves through what they do. Moreover, the portfolio requires taking a significant decision regarding what it is considered to be included or, rather, excluded. Therefore, it is an important choice concerning those personal aspects which someone wants to show or hide.
Both portfolio and learning log represent an opportunity to 
**making tacit knowledge explicit** (Vermersch, 1994) and sharing it first of all with classmates and tutors and then, possibly, with future employers.

On the other side of the coin, an awareness about some challenges or disadvantages of this practice is relevant. First of all, these activities are rather **time-consuming**, both for the students and for the tutors. The reflective log is manageable if **clear directions and guidance** are offered at the beginning, so the narratives are focused on learning events and learning outcomes. These terms should be clarified in an initial session and continuous support should be offered. In the collective session in which students are asked to share learning events, the role of facilitator is also crucial.

The portfolio is an individual experience of reflection and writing and it requires again the support of the tutor. Periodic contacts and/or meetings are needed by students to avoid unrealistic identification of competences and to create a strategy for personal and professional development suitable for the competences acquired in past and current experiences. The collection of evidence is also a relevant moment that has to be oriented to a possible third person (i.e. employer) who may read the portfolio in future and see these evidences as proper demonstration of the learning.

Furthermore, in our practice was very important that the whole Committee of teachers of the Masters programme was in agreement with the project and willing to give some space to the portfolio description in the final defense of the Masters degree even though there was only one teacher leading the activity. For transferability to other formal contexts (recognised as part of the curriculum), a common understanding and approval of teachers are needed for the success of the practice. In the case of transfer to non-formal contexts, it is recommended anyway to share clearly both to students involved and to all stakeholders the importance of promoting such a deep reflection on learning, as a unique chance to track all competences,
including generic ones that may have been acquired in all life experiences.

Some possible improvement of the practices is envisaged: the structure and process of learning log will be maintained as it is. The identification by students of learning events and outcomes of each course attended may be enriched also by a further focus on strengths and critical aspects of each course, as a feedback for teachers, to allow understanding possible ways of improvements.

Moreover, the structure of the portfolio can be simplified. The current sessions are very comprehensive but very time consuming and hard for students to develop. In practice, 3 ECTS are devoted to the completion of the portfolio, which requires students to spend time for that. In order to apply this format in other contexts, descriptions and reflections can be summarised and simplified.

Transferability

The purpose of the practice, in fact, is both the construction of a competences portfolio as well as the reflection and identification of events of the 2-years Masters course.

Showing of a consistent frame between teaching, learning events and competences can greatly contribute to the students’ process of awareness of competences acquired before and during the Masters degree. It also supports them to find a leitmotiv which goes along with each their significant experiences, both learning, professional or, generally, of life. Indeed, with the construction of an individual portfolio, each student has the chance to remember key experiences and to reflect on the learning acquired in different informal and non-formal contexts and to create a connection among different sources of learning.

As mentioned above, the transfer of this practice is certainly possible to other contexts, both in other degree programmes (if this is considered as a curricular activity with academic credits)
or also to non-formal pathways (without academic credits, but as a method to record reflection and develop awareness). **Portfolios and learning logs**, combined in this experience, can be separated and adapted to the new context. In the case of transfer to non-formal contexts or situations with mixed groups of students (not coming from the same degree program), the portfolio seems to be the most useful tool. A simplification of the format presented here may be required, for example by asking students to do a selection of the relevant experiences to describe rather than all of them. The great value of the instrument is to support students in acquiring a “culture” of evidence, by collecting proofs, pieces of work, feedback from peers or experts that may “justify” to a third person their own competences. If this might be easier with subject-specific ones, it is rather difficult with generic ones. Thus, a narrative of experiences highlighting the main learning acquired, supported by an evidence, can represent an effective “business card” for an employer and a powerful empowering tool for people to build a realistic strategy for personal and professional development, based on self-evaluation of own competences and further learning needs.

Moreover, **training for tutors** who support students by scaffolding their reflection can be crucial. The required competences can be divided in two areas: one regarding *relational* and the other *methodological* aspects (Salini, Ghisla & Bonini, 2010; Serbati, Frison, & Maniero, 2014). As for the first group, the importance of creating a relationship of trust emerged, enabling students to have an active role in becoming more aware and in the ability to plan without being judged or steered. Openness and empathy in the tutor can stimulate students to tell stories, to reflect, to develop meta-competences leading to self-analysis and identification of what they know and can do. This gives them a realistic idea of themselves in order to choose learning strategies, academic and professional pathways that are really relevant and satisfying for their own future.

As for the second group, tutors should be able to deal with face-to-face and on line meetings, during which they offer a
support to fill portfolio sheets and a support towards the correct use of terms and glossary. They should be able to listen actively to the student, to talk to him/her and to help to re-organise ideas, scaffolding him/her to elaborate his/her experiences and to illustrate them in the portfolio with appropriate evidence. Finally, the tutor must be fairly “kind”, curious to empower the student to tell his/her story to acquire power on his/her learning path, to reflect on his/her experience and to give a shape and an identity to the knowledge he/she has acquired (Veilhan, 2004).

References


PART II
1. The importance of written and oral communication today

In today’s globalized world we are constantly bombarded with information in both our personal and professional lives, be it written or oral, through a multitude of channels (traditional written texts, social media, the media, etc.), which, in turn, requires us to respond and communicate in multiple formats in order to participate in our environments. It is essential, therefore, to be able to communicate. Although this may seem obvious, the crucial question is whether we communicate effectively. This is not always the case, as we see on a daily basis with the faux pas committed by politicians, world leaders, celebrities or those in our immediate daily dealings.

It would be wrong to assume that, as we all learn to speak and then write from early ages, we are all competent communicators. If we consider that we spend a major proportion of our time each day communicating, both orally and in writing, in multiple scenarios, it seems true to say that we require many skills in order to be able to communicate effectively, especially given the immediacy of many forms of communication today.

Almost everything we do hinges on communication; therefore, communication competence is the linchpin which allows our other competences to be perceived by others as successful or not. The fact that communication, and especially oral and written competence, transcends the boundaries of all other
competences is the argument behind the proposals of Morreale, Osborn and Pearson (2000). These authors argue that communication should be studied in Higher Education across the board due to its importance for:

- the development of the whole person;
- the improvement of the educational enterprise;
- being a responsible citizen of the world, both socially and culturally;
- and succeeding in one’s career and in the business enterprise. (Morreale, Osborn and Pearson, 2000, p. 1).

Through a review of a wide range of publications, the authors describe the importance of communication in all walks of life, and particularly for graduates and employers. Whilst employers agree that written and oral communication skills are a basic requirement for graduates, it seems that graduates are not meeting the mark. Besides the standard oral and writing skills provided by most disciplines in Higher Education (normally field centered report writing and presentations), employers need graduates who can effectively communicate with culturally and socially diverse teams, and use their communicative competence to solve problems and conflicts. However good a graduate may be in all their other competences (e.g. leadership, problem solving, conflict resolution), they may not be successful in their performance if they cannot express themselves clearly and appropriately or are incapable of listening and understanding incoming communication (See section 4 of the chapter on conflict transformation (chapter 2.3)).

The last few decades have seen a turn towards student-centered learning, and more emphasis has clearly been placed on improving written and oral communication in academic disciplines. This, however, is often limited to the ability to communicate knowledge in a given field to others in the same field, both orally and in writing. Aspects which are often overlooked are the ability to communicate with experts from other fields, with non-experts (clients, patients, politicians);
perceptiveness, empathy, and the ability to listen; the ability to adapt both oral and written presentations to different audiences due to an awareness of different social and cultural expectations; the use of rhetoric, persuasion, posture, tone of voice and other tools for communication (especially in a courtroom or in marketing, for example); or the importance of communication for good leadership, management or conflict resolution (Kallioinen, 2010).

In Europe, the Tuning Project (González and Waagenar, 2003) has recognized this weakness by including specific references to oral and written competence in the Generic Competences:

**Instrumental competences**

Good oral and written communication skills in a student’s native language

**Interpersonal competences**

Ability to communicate with experts in other fields

Furthermore, many of the other skills mentioned in the generic competences (leadership, interpersonal skills, etc.) will depend on oral and written competences as well.

Despite these moves in the right direction, the gap between graduates’ competences and the requirements of employers still poses a stumbling block, as Andrews and Higson (2008) highlighted in their study of Business graduates’ employability in Austria, Romania, Slovenia and the United Kingdom. Their findings reinforce the belief that written and verbal communication skills are key skills for employability, and underline graduates’ discontent with their training more in oral communication skills than in written communication skills.
2. What do written communication and oral communication imply? Beyond traditional constraints

Communication is how we interact and share information with other people, expressing our thoughts, words and ideas, and is defined by Evers (2005) as “Interacting effectively with a variety of individuals and groups to facilitate the gathering, integrating, and conveying of information in many forms (e.g., verbal, written).” Traditionally the two most evident forms we use to communicate, written and oral communication, have attracted most attention.

Written communication is usually defined as communication through written letters or symbols used to communicate ideas, whilst oral communication is a means of communicating through speech or sounds. Several factors have traditionally influenced the decision to use one form or the other of communication (Staton, 1982):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for choice</th>
<th>Written Communication</th>
<th>Oral Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constraints</td>
<td>Rigid, inflexible, textual conventions, register</td>
<td>Highly flexible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Documentary evidence</td>
<td>A record remains</td>
<td>No permanent record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>Highly reliable</td>
<td>Unreliable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost effectiveness</td>
<td>High cost</td>
<td>Low cost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time effectiveness</td>
<td>Greater preparation and transmission times</td>
<td>Lower preparation and transmission times</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communicative effectiveness/immediacy</td>
<td>Less effective</td>
<td>More effective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships created</td>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>Direct</td>
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<tr>
<td>Degree of formality</td>
<td>Highly formal</td>
<td>Informal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of relevance</td>
<td>Highly relevant</td>
<td>Less relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>Delayed</td>
<td>Immediate</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Whilst many of these dichotomies may seem familiar, they are no longer as rigidly applicable in the 21st century as they may have been in the past. Oral communication may be recorded in many formats, producing permanent records, and thereby becoming reliable. Virtual oral communication can be costly given the technology required, and requiring preparation time, whilst electronic written communication has reduced paper/ink/postal costs, increasing immediacy and effectiveness, and reducing the delay in feedback and closing the direct-indirect relationship gap. Oral communication methods (speeches, presentations, interviews) are far from informal and highly relevant.

A further, often forgotten, element in oral and written communication is the use of non-verbal elements of communication (images, posture, voice, proximity). In multicultural work environments such non-verbal elements may often lead to unease, misunderstandings and even conflict (see section 4b of the chapter on conflict resolution). The principal different types of non-verbal communication are:

**Kinesics**: The study of nonlinguistic bodily movements of a person, i.e., facial expressions, posture, gestures, etc.

**Proxemics**: The sociological, cultural and behavioral use of space when communicating with others.

**Paralanguage/Vocalics**: Vocal properties: pitch, volume, speed, rate, inflection, etc.

**Haptics**: The use of touch in communication (what is perceived as correct in one culture or another).

**Chronemics**: The use of time in in different cultures to communicate: receiver expectations, speed of speech, response time, etc.

**Artifactual communication**: The use of objects to convey a message (e.g. power dressing). (Partially based on Mclean and Moman, 2012).

Our graduates, then, need to be aware of all of the above and be prepared to face the different communication scenarios.
required of them in multicultural communication if they are to increase their employability and successfully utilize all their other competences.

3. Dealing with written and oral communication in formal and informal environments

Communication, be it oral or written, may be effective, flawed, or may even completely fail. If students are to be aware of the instances in which each case occurs and the reasons why they occur, it is essential for trainers to take a holistic approach. As Constanzo (2009, p. 108) has pointed out, writing is often considered as a completely separate activity from oral discourse as a social activity. As a result, each is taught separately from the other. However, both forms of communication, both oral and written, are actually interdependent. Constanzo (ibid, p. 109) affirms that “effective writing depends on the verbal working memory” and that “if this aspect of the verbal competence has not developed, then the students find it difficult to produce well-structured compositions,” whilst “it has been discovered that writing also has an impact on oral language”. If “oral discourse is the key to the development of cognitive and literacy skills” (ibid, p. 111), graduates will need to comprehend and be skilled at using the metalanguage of their academic field, whilst learning to communicate, perform a variety of tasks and be capable of negotiating meaning with others (ibid, p. 111) from different social, professional and cultural groups.

Although traditional pedagogical methods and classroom based structures used in many fields and faculties have been transformed to achieve “a holistic process of learning that places the student at the center of the learning experience” or to promote learning as “a comprehensive, holistic, transformative activity that integrates academic learning and student development, processes that have often been considered separate, and even independent of each other” (NASPACPA 2004, pp. 1, 2), compartmentalisation of competence training in formal training often defies the
objective of achieving a transformative educational experience which will stimulate students’ reflective processes by requiring them to assimilate new information and apply what they have already learned in a different framework (informal contexts).

Informal environments are often provided as a reinforcement to more formal learning environments, through work placements, simulations (e.g. of a trial in a courtroom), or extracurricular activities (visiting/observing a real life workplace/situation). Another way of ensuring that students have the opportunity to internalize resources and develop the tools that allow them to reflect on their communication competence, by being forced to provide solutions in situ, is by using Caine and Caine’s (1994, 1997) interesting concept of brain based learning, which provides a basis for meaningful student learning:

Their concepts have a neurobiological framework – the activation of neural processes that contribute to the deep transformation of cognition and patterning, or meaning making. For such transformative learning to occur, students must 1) enter a state of relaxed alertness, 2) participate in an orchestrated immersion in a complex experience that in some way illustrates phenomena that are connected to the subject and 3) engage in active processing or reflection on the experience. Traditional approaches to learning do not specifically address this integration of external information and internal reflection; new concepts of transformative learning attend closely to the receptivity of the student and the physical conditions in which the student learns. (NASPA and ACPA, 2004, p. 12).

This would entail simulating situations such as doctor/patient consultations, or asking groups from diverse fields to effectively create/solve/design something together whilst reflecting on their interaction and the communicative difficulties or successes they encounter throughout the process¹. These less constrained envi-

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1. For an interdisciplinary example of this see (Way, 2016).
ronments pressure students into using their internal resources and offer a forum for debate and reflection which stimulates self-assessment of their competences.

4. A methodological approach to written and oral communication

Introducing written and oral communication competence into all Higher Education programmes is evidently vital to graduate employability. Whilst many approaches and methodologies can be found to achieve this goal, the field of foreign language teaching has presented many important proposals. For example, Canale and Swain’s (1980) model is considered to be the first comprehensive model of communicative competence including:

1. Grammatical competence - grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc
2. Sociolinguistic competence - language use within the limits of sociocultural codes (using vocabulary, register, politeness and style appropriately in a given context).
3. Discourse competence - combining language structures into different types of cohesive texts (e.g., academic report, an informative speech, etc.).

It was later amended by Canale (1983) to incorporate:

4. Strategic competence – use of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to improve the efficiency of communication and, if necessary, to overcome difficulties in cases of communication breakdown.

These models were further developed later by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995, p. 10):
This model adds “actional competence”, described as “competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech acts and speech act sets”, which combined with linguistic competence and socio-cultural competence shape discourse competence, which is at the centre of the model. In turn, discourse competence shapes each of the other three competences. Celce-Murcia’s strategic competence (1983) encircles all of the other competences and is described as a:

potentially usable inventory of skills that allows a strategically competent speaker to negotiate messages and resolve problems or to compensate for deficiencies in any of the other underlying competencies. This model is particularly interesting because it caters for all aspects of communicative acts and draws upon other competences (intercultural, interpersonal, etc.).

To develop students’ communicative competence, formal training contexts make ample use of one-to-one, small group or team based oral and written work, class discussions and
debates and formal presentations to enhance oral communication competence, whereas written competence is incorporated through the production of summaries, case studies, reports, essays, etc. Less attention is usually paid, however, to communication in other multicultural, multi-social contexts, to body language, or learning to listen actively. Ideas for possible good practices related to communication can be consulted in Part 1 of this volume.

The Erasmus + Key Action 2 – Strategic Partnership project: Developing All–Round Education DARE+ has proved to be an invaluable scenario for allowing participants to improve their oral and written communication competence.

5. Monitoring development, levels of development

To assess a competence effectively we must provide scenarios of real life situations where the knowledge and skills required must be employed to produce effective communication. Furthermore, the ability to self-assess this competence will be vital if graduates are to be capable of identifying and developing their effective communication skills after graduation.

From the DARE+ project (Developing All–Round Education) a rubric was developed for assessing different competences. As mentioned in section 1, the success of other competences hinges on written and oral communication and therefore this competence appears in all the rubrics, which outline a set of criteria and standards that define the achievement of each competence. These rubrics can be used both as a self-assessment tool and as a tool for external assessment and are divided into three levels of achievement from a basic degree to a Master’s degree. The presence of written and oral communication in all the competence rubrics is shown in Table 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</th>
<th>LEVEL 1</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intercultural Competence</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Interaction and communication</td>
<td>Can engage in short simple conversations with some appreciation of both verbal and nonverbal signs.</td>
<td>Can sustain longer engagement with the ability to negotiate shared understanding and overcome differences.</td>
<td>Can conduct and complete a shared task in a multicultural situation.</td>
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<td><strong>Interpersonal Communication</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Establishing good dialogical relations with others</td>
<td>Being present and paying attention to the other</td>
<td>Building a trusting and sustainable relationship by accepting and exploring the other’s feelings</td>
<td>Ability to construct meaning in dialogue</td>
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<tr>
<td>Using dialogue to generate closer, more fruitful and respectful collaborative relations</td>
<td>Uses effective listening to ensure the other feels heard and understood</td>
<td>Uses constructive criticism and recognizes the other’s perspective, including their beliefs and expectations</td>
<td>Creates an atmosphere of genuine mutuality to generate fruitful and respectful relations between those involved</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fostering a constructive communicative context for interaction</td>
<td>Expresses self with sincerity and respect</td>
<td>Systematically but empathetically questions the opinions of the other and openly recognizes own doubts and mistakes</td>
<td>Stimulates honest, sincere and open communication on the part of others</td>
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<td>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</td>
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<tr>
<td>Showing congruency between explicit and implicit communication signs and symbols</td>
<td>Body and gestures convey information that is consistent with verbal message</td>
<td>Body and gestures contributes valuable information and enrich verbal message</td>
<td>Body language is totally consistent and suitable to enhancing communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate accountability and good judgment in communication</td>
<td>Demonstrates awareness of the need for discretion in given situations</td>
<td>Assumes responsibility for the possible outcomes of the communication and makes wise choices in the conduct of the dialogue</td>
<td>Shows a comprehensive understanding of the ethical dimension of the communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing effective communication strategies</td>
<td>Communicates initiatives with clarity</td>
<td>Engages others to convey initiatives</td>
<td>Fosters others’ enthusiasm for/with own initiatives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriately expressing recognition for things well done/Providing constructive feedback to team members</td>
<td>Appropriately expresses recognition for things done well.</td>
<td>Through recognition, stimulates satisfaction of group members with the work they’ve done.</td>
<td>Fosters the initiative of others through recognition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict/Negotiation</td>
<td>Prefers to work alone, however tries to work with others. Unable to mediate/ Difficulties when mediating.</td>
<td>Ability to encourage teamwork. Forges team identity and can mediate in most situations of conflict.</td>
<td>Successfully gets others to work well as a team. Effective mediator.</td>
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<td>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Project Development and Management</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Project writing and reporting: understanding guidelines, responding with structured narrative introducing novelty and convincing arguments</td>
<td>Responds to a template in a clear way</td>
<td>Responds to a template in a clear way or constructs own structure</td>
<td>Responds to a template in a clear way or constructs own structure and writes with conviction and originality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective communication: to convey ideas in a clear, collaborative and convincing way, both internally and externally</td>
<td>Communicates in a clear and unambiguous manner, open to the views of others</td>
<td>Negotiates alternative positions and generates agreement</td>
<td>Promotes the project to third parties with conviction and passion</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Social Entrepreneurship</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Inspiring others to take part in projects with social impact</td>
<td>Shares knowledge and argues visions with possible partners</td>
<td>Engages individuals and groups to participate in the social initiative. Identifies necessary resources.</td>
<td>Develops a business plan to move towards the shared vision. Procures the necessary resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>Finding resources</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Teamwork</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Actively participating and collaborating in team tasks</td>
<td>Completing assigned tasks within deadline as group member, participating actively in team meetings, sharing information, knowledge and experiences</td>
<td>Collaborating in defining, organizing and distributing group task towards the achievement of shared objectives</td>
<td>Providing constructive feedback to other people on the work carried out</td>
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<td>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Promoting confidence, cordiality in the group relationship</strong></td>
<td>Listening to others’ opinions and expressing his/her own opinion</td>
<td>Accepting the opinions of others and knowing how to give own point of view constructively</td>
<td>Promoting constructive dialogue and maintaining atmosphere of collaboration and support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contributing to the consolidation and development of the team, by fostering communication, good atmosphere and cohesion</strong></td>
<td>Accepting and respecting group norms and applying the team’s work processes</td>
<td>Interacting positively with other group members, supporting and encouraging them</td>
<td>Proposing ways of getting together apart from formal meetings to improve group cohesion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acting constructively to resolve team conflicts</strong></td>
<td>Avoiding addressing conflicts.</td>
<td>Acting positively to resolve conflicts that arise in group.</td>
<td>Own actions provide constructive ways out of conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coordinating groups, ensuring members integration and empowerment</strong></td>
<td>Obtaining commitment of each member by enabling the group to function as such.</td>
<td>Achieving personal and collective commitment of the team in all key aspects</td>
<td>Getting members involved and committed, by accepting in a positive way others’ suggestions as their own proposals</td>
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<td>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conflict Transformation Competence</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Listening and considering the positions of others in situation of conflicts. Being able to understand own and others’ position and the ethical responsibilities</strong></td>
<td>Listens to and understands only the opinions and interests which do not conflict with own position, and gets tense when differences are expressed</td>
<td>Takes the opinions and interests of others into account, recognizing and understanding points of agreement or divergence</td>
<td>Promotes an atmosphere of respect and dialogue where everyone can speak freely and be listened to, and comprehends ethical implications of own and others’ position, seeing possibilities for reconciliation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</td>
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<tr>
<td>Showing assertiveness and strategy when proposing and defending own positions and managing conflict</td>
<td>Expresses own opinions and interests calmly but with firmness and conviction, even though different from those of others. Is open to dialogue, but there is little strategy, and defense of own position weakens when a competitive atmosphere arises or the process takes an unexpected direction</td>
<td>Expresses own position and interests with clarity, and knows how to defend it in an atmosphere of dialogue. Knows how to plan a strategy and adapts own position to the process with flexibility</td>
<td>Expresses own positions and interests to others, remaining open to dialogue and the possibility of reconsidering own standpoint(s). Analyses and plans the best strategies, responding quickly and with versatility and cooperation in process of negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking acceptable alternatives and solutions for conflicts</td>
<td>After listening, is clearly open to considering others’ proposals, and to conceding points in order to reach agreement</td>
<td>Contributes actively to dialogue with proposals to explore possible alternatives and achieve agreements and commitments with others</td>
<td>Tries to reconcile and integrate different postures to reach agreements satisfactory to everyone involved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Conclusions

There is no question as to the paramount importance of written and oral communication as the linchpin which facilitates the functionality of all other competences. However, as mentioned in Section 1, a gap remains between graduates’ competence and employers’ requirements, highlighting the need to improve training in written and oral communication. In an attempt to contribute to this, the competences required for effective communication have been identified and described, and the benefits of non-formal contexts in Higher Education written and oral communication competence have been underlined. A combined rubric for monitoring and self-assessment of oral and written communicative competence has also been presented.

7. Bibliography


LEADERSHIP AND TEAMWORK IN INFORMAL LEARNING

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Anna Serbati
(University of Padova)

Introduction

This chapter considers some more theoretical aspects of the competences of leadership and teamwork in informal and non-formal learning settings. In particular, it considers their importance as learning outcomes of further and higher education and investigates some of the dimensions that these competences imply. It points to examples of practice that are contained in the first part of this volume and reflects briefly on the recognition and accreditation of leadership and teamwork in the settings described. It begins with the competence of leadership and takes up the theme of teamwork in the later sections.

Whole libraries could be filled with the literature on leadership and its importance in almost every aspect of human endeavour from the fields of purely commercial and economic entrepreneurship to the projects of governments and non-government agencies and extending to feats of physical and mental prowess in expeditions. In order to contain and focus the discussion, attention will be paid here to leadership among youth and also in the context of informal learning situations, that is, outside of institutional classrooms.

Importance of Leadership and the Possibilities for Learning

The importance of leadership in all manner of fields of enterprise is well documented (Overall, 2015; Goodman & Dingli, 2013; Bush, 2010) but its importance in youth activity and
the ways in which it can be developed in the years of university undergraduate education are not particularly well-known, despite the ubiquitous call that students should be educated for leadership. It is of some interest and importance, then, to inquire into the possibilities and contexts in which leadership can be learned and exercised in situations and circumstances that might be very different from those encountered in professional life. There is a wealth of literature on types and understandings of leadership but from this vast literature we take that small corpus that has examined how young people define leadership and here the research indicates that collaboration (Roach et al, 1999), listening and communication (Mitra, Sanders & Perkins, 2010) and representing a group (Cassell, Huffacker, Tversky, & Ferriman, 2006) feature most prominently indicating an attitude and approach to leadership that is firmly rooted in context, relationships and democracy. Also, the prominence of these particular features may indicate a certain, age- and experience-related slight insecurity and lack in confidence. As such, this type of definition differs from some traditional notions of leadership that are framed around authority, power and influence (Kellerman, 2010) and are more in keeping with contemporary theories that emphasise transformation, distributed leadership, trust and social exchange (Spillane & Diamond, 2015). In the absence, in most of the situations that are discussed in this book, of formal learning about leadership, it is probably more reasonable to assume that the framework of the students who find themselves learning about leadership is governed by these ideas of collaboration, communication, relationships and representation. The diagram below gives a view of the structure of the discussion in the rest of this chapter under these four themes:
Taking these definitional factors as a starting point, it is useful to inquire into the conditions and enablers for leadership in young people and what these may imply for the informal learning of this competence. With regard to *collaboration*, it would seem reasonable to assume that one of the conditions for this to be realised is a degree of *trust and goodwill* among those within the group and with the one who might emerge as a leader. Trust, according to Luhmann (1979), is a function of the *complexity* of world and the relations that we hold to others in that world. In the complicated instances of working, studying and personal life in which students have to make a decision on future action, the time that is available for analysis and rational decision-making is often severely limited. Any effective living and managing of these situations is concerned in no small way with limiting or reducing the complexity of the world in a given situation, otherwise we would be overwhelmed and incapable of acting. There is often not enough time to engage in a rational analysis of the situation and to come to a well-founded decision. These situations therefore demand that a way is found to deal with the *unfamiliar* from a position which is currently familiar and which makes the unfamiliar tolerable. Also, what is not familiar very often poses a risk in the sense that it is not possible to see all of the consequences of engaging with the unfamiliar. Trust is then a solution to the problems of *risk* and for those concerned with leadership, a first consequence of this analysis is the acknowledgement that trust is demanded in settings that are characterised by...
complexity, uncertainty and with some degree of risk offering a way of dealing with these by accommodating what is unfamiliar, strange and perhaps even threatening into what is familiar and manageable (Borge, 2001). So, collaboration is not simply a matter of an instrumental approach to problem solving. It is achieved only on the basis of trust and this trust is only acquired when there is a willingness to go with another collaborator into situations that are unfamiliar and characterised by risk. Happily, perhaps, there is good evidence that young people especially are willing to take on risk and venture into the unfamiliar (Abdullah, 2014). If this is the case, then at least this condition for the development of collaboration and hence for leadership can be met in the group and context of interest here.

Turning to communication, this is regarded as a key enabler of relationships, the construction of shared meanings and therefore is regarded as the foundation for organising any group of people around a project. For a leader to communicate in this role, credibility, consistency and competence are sought by those who would follow. Credibility and consistency with others is further dependent on the experiences that others have had of a leader’s behaviour and integrity. This demand, both on a leader and on situations in which leadership can be learned, is often not easily met in the context of informal and non-formal learning among students. This is because many student campaigns, enterprises and shared activities do not have a long time-frame and engagement among a group may often be quite short. In these cases, it is difficult for a group or leader to amass the kind of experience of behaviour and consistency in behaviour that is required to ensure that communication between leader and group is firmly rooted and thus effective. However, a major aspect of authentic communication is the degree of self-awareness and reflection that it entails (Men & Stacks, 2014). In the case of student learners, many of which are still in the process of constructing their leader and other identities, there is evidence of strong
self-awareness, self-questioning and critique. Thus, in this group of learners it is to be expected that this condition for the development of the competence of communication in leadership can also be met.

Leadership for and in students is also characterised, in their own definitions, by a strong identification with relationships. Perhaps distinctly in this group, the leader has to stand in a network of relationships that is supportive, affirming and relatively stable. It is in the nature both of being a student and also being engaged in informal and non-formal learning settings that the relations that one holds to others are not established and maintained by contract or economic value exchange as would be the case of leadership within a commercial or other professional organisation. On the other hand, in the context of this paper, the kinds of relationship that can and are constructed among students engaged in shared endeavour is one that is characterised by a large degree of affective commitment not only to the project at hand but also to each other. In very many cases, they have sought each other out, they are willing actors and though power and influence are always also at play, there is ample scope in most situations for relationships to develop that generate what are sometimes known as ‘citizenship behaviours’ which include going beyond the task in hand and developing loyalty to the group (Tonkin, 2013). At a time of life when for many of the actors, relationships are of central life-importance, it is not surprising that the idea of taking on a leadership role is centrally identified with constructing and maintaining a set of affectively charged relationships. This may also distinguish student leadership from other types more common in the literature and in organisational and management theories.

Finally, leadership is also associated by the group under consideration here with representation. This aspect indicates perhaps most clearly the tension that is at the heart of the leader-follower relationships in informal and non-formal enterprises and learning situations of students. The leader never
steps completely out of the group nor are the leader’s ideas necessarily those that are defining for the group or the project in hand. It would seem to be much more the case that strategy, policies, plans and actions are developed in the group as a whole and the leader acts as a primus inter pares in the communication and promotion of the decisions of the whole group. In this regard, once again, the characteristics of leadership in this particular group may need to be differentiated from those found in professional leadership situations.

Importance of Teamwork and the Possibilities for Learning

This section of the chapter concerns itself with a theoretical consideration of the competence of teamwork in informal learning situations. More specifically, it examines the learning associated with three aspects of successful teamwork in informal learning settings: commitment to an identified, shared goal, (Eraut, 2004); interdependence [mutual accountability, support] (Scarnati, 2001) and commitment to team and inter-personal learning processes (Kets de Vries, 1999). Below we examine these in just a little more detail.

A commitment to a shared goal and a shared understanding of the purpose of a group is a characteristic of effective teamwork but the question to be posed in the context of this study concerns the learning that is needed in order to foster this and to see it emerge in the work of a team. Most of the literature focuses on the conditions for effective teamwork but does not inquire further into the learning that is required in order for these conditions to be met. We suggest that learning in three areas is required in order to support the decision to commit to a team goal in informal settings where there is no institutional directive and sometimes not even strong peer-pressure. The first learning that can be identified is that of self-knowledge in the form of self-awareness, good self-image and an ability to learn from how others see them, not just
how they see themselves. The second area of learning is that of learning trust and risk-taking with others and the third is concerned with moral courage and ethical responsibility.

Self-knowledge is both one of the conditions and one of the benefits of teamwork and because of this causal interdependence it is difficult to think of this learning in a linear way. This knowledge comes about as a result of a constant dialectical movement in which team members are challenged to view themselves in new ways as they encounter the views and positions of others. This is a challenging experience, especially in the young, but there is a strong sense in which the accomplishment of a shared task in a team enables the strengthening of self-esteem and mutual regard in a way that also provides a more robust basis for the activity of self-questioning, self-awareness and ultimately, self-knowledge. Teamwork can thus provide a ‘safe space’ in which more fundamental work on the self can take place, and equally, teamwork that is not successful can be damaging to that work.

It was indicated earlier in this chapter that one of the key aspects identified by younger adults with regard to leadership was that of collaboration, and within this the argument was made that collaboration is only successful on a foundation of trust and an ability to take risks. One of the ‘spaces’ in which trust and risk taking can be exercised and learned without perhaps the consequences that might issue from the same behaviours being taken as an individual leader, is within a group and the ability to take on risk with others can also be a precursor of building a team as a consequence. Risk taking with others is quite different in nature and quality from risk-taking alone. Indeed, risk-taking with others can be a source of excitement and can lead to a greater sense of identification and loyalty, thus enhancing bonding that helps the formation of the team. Learning to be this way with others is one of the key enablers to successful teamwork as it engages the psycho-social lure of risk and even danger that attends a shared project that might succeed but equally might fail.
The third kind of learning that is associated with the development of the competence of teamwork is that of moral courage and ethical responsibility. When and how these are learned is not the theme here but there is ample evidence, at least from the fields of healthcare and education, that points to the importance of team-workers displaying these attributes. In the case of many teams that form in order to achieve a certain shared goal, there is an underlying or even explicit normative dimension to the both the purpose of the team and also the means and methods by which the team is to achieve its end. Even in the most benign situations, the aim or objective of a team could have consequences that require ethical examination and participants in an endeavour need sometimes to possess the courage to either change a course of action or, indeed, to withdraw from the team. On the other hand, the aim of the team might be one that attracts the full, responsible affirmation from the members, but the means by which the goal is to be achieved are such that moral courage is demanded in making an often public stand on the issue. In both positive and negative cases, the need to have learned a strong sense of one’s moral standpoint is important for the life of the team.

Allied to the idea that the learning of trust and moral courage is important to the competence of being able to work in a team is the understanding of the relations of interdependence that a team both requires and can foster. The interdependence of members of an effective team can be viewed as playing out on two levels; the first is that of relations of mutual accountability. Team members depend on each other to perform in certain ways and with respect to particular tasks. They depend on them, for instance, to carry out duties and jobs that have been assigned to them by the group. They depend on them also to bring their expertise to the group in a generous, open and honest manner that does not conceal other motives and intentions from the rest of the group. They depend on them to act responsibly in their social interactions within the team, and so on. Within these ties of interdependency, team mem-
bers can and sometimes must also call each other to account in a way that demands reasoning, courage, careful judgment of situation, but also diplomacy and sensitivity, all of which are high-level learning processes and outcomes.

The second level on which the interdependence of a group is played out is that of support. The learning that is demanded in order that a team-member is supportive includes the experiential and intellectual understanding of the benefits of support, not only to the group and the achievement of the group’s aims and purposes, but also the benefit to self that a supportive attitude brings to teamwork and collaboration. Once again, much of this learning can be achieved only by taking the risk of engaging with a group and examining the experiences gained in a reflective and critical manner.

The third domain of learning that can be identified with the engagement with teamwork is that of commitment and interpersonal learning processes. This learning is associated with a significant degree of personal disruption and transformation. Ket de Vries has explored the psychodynamics of teams and their workings and revealed the way in which the work of teams evokes behaviours and dramas that have roots that extend often into childhood. Issues such as projective identification and transference, known well in the field of psychoanalysis seem to feature also in the learning and activity of teams. If this is indeed the case, then there may be need for some caution when the psychodynamics of teams reveal deep-seated insecurities and vulnerabilities in individuals. Once again, the context of our project is crucial so that there is need to understand teamwork in the context of students and young adults in a way that may well differ from frames of understanding used in other contexts.

In addition to some of the dimensions of learning outlined above, there is also a set of specific learning processes that belong to and are enhanced by working in teams. The first is that of shared reviewing, shared decision-making and shared planning. Each of these activities constitute possibilities for learn-
ing targeted outcomes. The second is that of communication, specifically the how of communication rather than the what. This learning features in other sections of this volume which concern themselves with project management and communications and therefore is not pursued here, except to comment that it seems clear that the competences that form the basis of this entire project are deeply and inextricably linked. This is, of course, particularly true of the competences of leadership and teamwork when they are considered in the context of the informal learning of young adults.

**Examples of practice**

To develop students’ leadership and teamwork competences, non-formal training contexts make ample use of group or team based activities, debates, students’ self-led communities and initiatives. In the landscape of several projects carried out at national and international level to foster soft skills, see for examples, the project ModEs: Higher Education through Soft Skills, the Erasmus + Key Action 2 – Strategic Partnership project ‘Developing All-Round Education DARE+’ has offered several opportunities to participating students to improve their teamwork and leadership competences, during local activities and in organising and contributing to Summer Intensive programmes.

Moreover, in Part I of this volume, a number of examples are given of student and institutional initiatives that are designed to construct learning experiences that target the core competences of the project and the learning of leadership and teamwork feature in many of them. For example, its seems obvious that the undertaking to manage a restaurant, lead a choir, run a library or organise the festival of Varannan Vatten, as in the student nations of Uppsala University will require the learning of considerable leadership skills that include the elements of collaboration, communication, relationships and representation
when dealing with a large and diverse student population (see chapter 1.8). Similarly, in the case of the officers of the Student Union in Trinity College Dublin (as described in chapter 1.4), these students take on considerable leadership roles during the year in which they act in a full-time capacity for the Union. They regularly lead on local and national student political campaigns and within the College are members of the Board of the University with all of the duties and responsibilities of a Company Director under national law. These roles, however, are exercised always in a culture and context of democratic election and representation so they must constantly look to their constituency and actively promote and nurture strong teamwork within the Union. In Part I of the volume, other examples may be found, as, for example, chapter 1.6 presents an experience carried out at the Maria de Molina College within the campus of the University of Valladolid and another one in chapter 1.2 at the University of Padova. In the case of Valladolid, the participation to the College Council represents an opportunity for students to participate in decision-making of activities related to the College, and therefore to experience engagement and responsibility, to organise events, to find agreements and to develop a shared leadership of the residence. The case of the University of Padova offers a further point of view on leadership for young people, describing how it is possible to build a bridge between formal contexts and informal/non-formal ones. This practice is related to the use of a virtual environment, in which students take on the role of leader and interact in a simulated organizational context. The chance offered to participants is, on one hand, to “taste” possible situations where leadership behaviours are expected in typical business situations, and, on the other hand, to foster individual reflection on the learning process occurred and to collect information regarding the effectiveness of this learning process and possible impact in the virtual context.

There are many more examples to be found in these pages but the final remarks in this chapter are reserved for a brief
consideration of the challenges and call to recognise the kinds of learning promoted here.

**Monitoring development of leadership and teamwork in informal settings towards their recognition as learning**

The competences of leadership and teamwork that can be developed in informal and non-formal settings constitute a type and mode of learning that is often invisible to formal learning institutions such as universities. As such it regularly goes un-noticed or at the very least it is taken for granted that it is or might occur. The learning that results is deemed tacit, simply part of a natural development of capabilities that are a feature of maturation and is therefore not seen as something that is actively and intentionally learned. Because most formal learning institutions are dominated by a knowledge discourse that valorises codified, propositional knowledge, this kind of learning that is more complex than can be resolved in a set of propositions is largely ignored or avoided because of this complexity (Smith & Clayton, 2009). The result is at least a two-fold difficulty. First, because formal education has not presented an educational language to learners which they can employ to formulate their learning in a systematic and rigorous way, learners often struggle to describe the complex aspects of their learning and the nature of their newly learned expertise. Secondly, formal institutions themselves do not have a language which they can employ to recognise and assess this type of learning, despite the current ubiquity of policy statements lauding these ‘softer’ skills and declaring their importance for work-place readiness and the consequent impact on economic prosperity. There is some indication of a move to recognise a wider scope of capabilities in the development of the Diploma Supplement within the Bologna process and also in the development of structured PhD programmes that are designed to produce more generic skills, but these still produce little
more than the context in which learning takes place and do not say much about competences. At individual institutional level, there are few instruments available for the recognition of informal learning other than unstructured self-reporting of civic engagement and other extra-curricular learning in the context of what are often referred to as ‘Deans’ Rolls of Honor’ or similar modes of validation.

In the framework of the DARE+ project, a first effort towards the design of methodologies and instruments to support recognition of the competences of leadership and teamwork acquired and developed in informal and non-formal settings was the collective creation of an agreed and shared standard.

Indeed, it is very important to have a clear and precise framework of reference when assessing competences described and demonstrated by students; for this purpose, two sets of rubrics have been created, one for teamwork and one for leadership.

Starting from the work of Villa Sánchez & Poblete Ruiz (2008), the project team developed indicators defining different aspects of the competence and, for each of them, three progressive levels of achievement. This instrument was devoted to students’ self-assessment: as a conclusion of the learning activities developed at local basis by partners, all students were asked to read the rubrics and to select the appropriate levels of each indicator of their own competence. This self-assessment exercise was then followed by a narrative description of concrete examples and experiences where the competence was exercised and developed, a reflection on learning occurred and appropriate evidences collected in a portfolio.

Moreover, the rubrics (see tables 1 and 2) can provide the required reference for a Committee in charge of accrediting competences acquired in informal and non-formal contexts, described and demonstrated by students in the above-mentioned portfolio.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence indicator</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing effective communication strategies</td>
<td>Communicates initiatives with clarity</td>
<td>Engages others to convey initiatives</td>
<td>Fosters others’ enthusiasm for/with own initiatives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegating, distributing work in balanced way</td>
<td>Distributes work among team members in order to cover all tasks</td>
<td>Distributes work in order to cover all tasks matching tasks to team members’ skills.</td>
<td>Distributes work effectively among team members in order to cover all tasks, thereby building confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriately expressing recognition for things well done/Providing constructive feedback to team members</td>
<td>Appropriately expresses recognition for things well done.</td>
<td>Through recognition, stimulates satisfaction of group members with the work they’ve done.</td>
<td>Fosters the initiative of others through recognition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict/Negotiation</td>
<td>Prefers to work alone, however tries to work with others. Unable to mediate/ Difficulties when mediating.</td>
<td>Ability to encourage teamwork. Forges team identity and can mediate in most situations of conflict.</td>
<td>Successfully gets others to work well as a team. Effective mediator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative/creativity</td>
<td>Enthusiastic in role of leader. Requires prompting and lacks initiative.</td>
<td>May have some original ideas or build on others’ ideas. Acts when situation is critical.</td>
<td>Shows initiative, acts without prompting. Innovative and highly motivated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence indicator</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>Level 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotional maturity</strong></td>
<td>Tries to cope with pressure and demands, but is not always successful.</td>
<td>Can cope with most demands and remains calm in most situations.</td>
<td>Is calm and composed under pressure. Provides an example for other team members in difficult situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Decision-making</strong></td>
<td>Decisions taken lightly without thought for consequences.</td>
<td>Appropriate decision-making taking into account complexities of issues.</td>
<td>Sound decisions and judgements made and respected by other team members.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Rubric of the “leadership” competence developed by DARE+ project team
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence indicator</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actively participating and collaborating in team tasks</td>
<td>Completing assigned tasks within deadline as group member, participating actively in team meetings, sharing information, knowledge and experiences</td>
<td>collaborating in defining, organising and distributing group task towards the achievement of shared objectives</td>
<td>Providing constructive feedback to other people on the work carried out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting confidence, cordiality in the group relationship</td>
<td>Listening to others' opinions and expressing his/her own opinion</td>
<td>Accepting the opinions of others and knowing how to give own point of view constructively</td>
<td>Promoting constructive dialogue and maintaining atmosphere of collaboration and support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contributing to the consolidation and development of the team, by fostering communication, good atmosphere and cohesion</td>
<td>Accepting and respecting group norms and applying the team's work processes</td>
<td>Interacting positively with other group members, supporting and encouraging them</td>
<td>Proposing ways of getting together apart from formal meetings to improve group cohesion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acting constructively to resolve team conflicts</td>
<td>Avoiding addressing conflicts.</td>
<td>Acting positively to resolve conflicts that arise in group.</td>
<td>Own actions provide constructive ways out of conflicts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence indicator</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>Level 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinating groups, ensuring members integration and empowerment</td>
<td>Obtaining commitment of each member by enabling the group to function as such.</td>
<td>Achieving personal and collective commitment of the team in all key aspects</td>
<td>Getting members involved and committed, by accepting in a positive way others’ suggestions as their own proposals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinating groups, ensuring results achievement and high performance</td>
<td>Distributing feasible tasks to members in a co-ordinated way with clear guidelines and achieve a balanced participation of all</td>
<td>Stimulating integration among tasks towards a common result</td>
<td>Challenging the members to reach further goals beyond the expected ones</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Rubric of the “teamwork” competence developed by DARE+ project team
At the end of this volume, this theme of the recognition, validation even accreditation of informal and non-formal learning is taken up in a more systematic way and an argument is put forward for a credible and robust instrument that might be used by institutions to capture this important learning in a more significant and reliable way. For now, it suffices to say that this chapter has tried to present the richness and some of the complexity involved in a theoretical consideration of the competences of leadership and teamwork as part of the overall argument for the importance of their recognition.

List of references


1. The importance of conflict-resolution nowadays

Since its creation in the second half of the twentieth century, the UNESCO has played a major role in the transition from a culture of violence to the so-called culture of peace (Suter, 1996). This transition involves replacing a culture based on distrust, intolerance and the inability to interact constructively with those who are different (Symonides and Singh, 1996), with values related to such key notions as justice, human rights, democracy, development, behavioural patterns, non-violence and peaceful resolution of conflicts, all of which constitute, according to the UNESCO (1996), the essence of a culture of peace.

In the creation of a culture of peace, education and, more specifically, education for peace plays a central role, as reflected by the words of Federico Mayor Zaragoza, the Director-General of the UNESCO, at the opening session of the Forum for Education and Culture held in El Salvador, on 28 April 1993, when he highlighted the importance of promoting “the apprenticeship and practice of a culture of peace, both in the formal and non-formal education process and in all the activities of daily life” (Symonides & Singh, 1996, p. 10). Education for peace also received attention at the World Conference on Human Rights, held in Vienna in June 1993 (Moawad, 1996), which recognized the potential of human rights education and education for peace for fostering mutual understanding, tolerance and peace.

Following the presentation of the attempts of the international community to develop a culture of peace, as well as the role that education for peace can have in its development,
The moment has arrived to focus on one of the values that, as mentioned before, is at the core of a culture of peace, that is, conflict-resolution and -transformation.

The commitment of the international community to peacefully resolve conflicts and to implement education for conflict-resolution and -transformation was formally expressed in the meeting on “The Contribution by Religions to the Culture of Peace”, organized by the UNESCO and the UNESCO Centre of Catalunya. In this meeting, which took place in Barcelona from 12 to 18 December 1994, the participants committed themselves “to resolve or transform conflicts without using violence, and to prevent them through education and the pursuit of justice” (UNESCO, 1996, p. 271).

It is pertinent to specify that a culture of peace does not pursue the absence of conflict, which would be an impossible task due to the fact that conflict is inherent in human interaction (UNESCO, 1996; Cascón, 2001; Muñoz, 2004), even more in a world characterised by diversity (UNESCO, 1996; AMANI, 2004). On the contrary, the basis of a culture of peace and of education for peace is to deal with conflicts in a constructive and non-violent way:

The aim of a culture of peace is, therefore, not to eliminate conflicts but to find ways to deal with them non-violently. It is not correct, then, to try to end a conflict either through zero-sum management or by a call to forget or ignore the reasons for it […]. What is needed is ‘amnesty not amnesia’ (Moawad, 1996, p. 184).

The transition to a culture of peace also involves a change in the traditional perception of conflict, which has been considered to be negative. In education for peace, conflicts are perceived as positive experiences, as they offer opportunities to learn from ourselves and from others, to adapt to the diverse world in which we live and to discover unexplored ways of thinking and behaving. In other words, conflicts can be an engine of mutual growth, change and evolution, as long as
we utilize constructive conflict-transformation skills (Moawad, 1996; Cascón, 2001).

Nevertheless, and even though we deal with conflict every day (Muñoz, 2004), most people do not feel prepared to resolve conflicts in a constructive way, due to the fact that they lack the necessary skills and tools (Cascón, 2001). This shows that there is a need for education on constructive conflict-transformation nowadays.

In this paper, the authors will attempt to start satisfying this need, for which, first of all, some basic concepts related to conflict-transformation will be explained. Secondly, the pertinence of dealing with conflict-transformation in non-formal environments will be discussed, after which a methodological approach to constructive conflict-transformation will be described. Finally, the assessment of this competence will be addressed.

2. What Does Constructive Conflict-Transformation Imply?
From Conflict-Resolution to Conflict Transformation

Conflict can be defined as follows:

- A struggle or clash between opposing forces; battle. A state of opposition between ideas, interests, etc.; disagreement or controversy (Collins Concise English Dictionary, n.d.).
- A situation in which two or more people are in opposition or disagreement because their opinions, interests, needs, desires or values are incompatible or are perceived as incompatible. In this situation emotions and feelings have an important role and the relationship between the parties could be reinforced or damaged depending on the results (Torrego, 2001).
- According to dictionaries of Psychology, conflict is the emotional and painful state produced by stress between opposed & conflicting desires (Aguilar and Canale, 2012).
In all these definitions the fight or clash between two or more parties that have different interests is mentioned. Therefore, they show that for a conflict to exist there must be two or more parties involved with real or apparent disagreements that lead them to the clash referred to.

It is also worth mentioning that conflict cannot be reduced to a punctual moment, but is a whole process with its own life-cycle. In this sense, Cascón (2001) identifies the following phases in all conflictive situations:

- **First phase:** the origin of conflict lies in the existence of different needs (economic, ideological, biological...). When these needs are satisfied, because they are not incompatible or because cooperative relationships have been achieved, a problem does not arise.

- **Second phase:** a problem arises when the parties have different needs and they seem to be antagonistic. If the problem is not confronted or solved, the starting point of the conflict dynamic will be reached and different elements will be added to the situation: mistrust, lack of communication, fear, misunderstanding...

- **Third phase:** the conflictive situation will burst into a crisis, which could include violent reactions. It is this third phase which people identify as conflict. This is the worst moment to resolve conflicts in a creative and non-violent way and to learn how to do it, since none of the conditions that are necessary to manage conflict in a positive way are present.

An outline of the process according to this model is shown in Figure 1.
Galtung (2000) also distinguishes three phases in conflictive situations: before violence, during violence and after violence, separated by outbreak and cease-fire. However, this does not imply that violence is unavoidable, and for that it is necessary to act in the first phase. The author also highlights the perception of conflict as a positive experience already mentioned:

a conflict is an invitation for the parties, the society, the whole world to move ahead, taking the challenge presented by the issues head-on, with an attitude of empathy (with all parties), nonviolence (also to stop the meta-conflicts from developing) and creativity (to find ways out) (Galtung, 2000, p. 15).

Therefore, the challenge nowadays is to constructively resolve or, in other words, transform conflict by trying to find creative goals that satisfy the needs of all parties and, of course, do so without any kind of violence. Conflict transformation means “to envision and respond to the ebb and flow of social conflict as life-giving opportunities for creating constructive change processes that reduce violence, increase justice in direct interaction and social structures, and respond to real life problems in human relationships” (Lederach, 2015).
According to this approach, conflicts represent an opportunity for constructive change and for mutual and personal growth (Moawad, 1996; Cascón, 2001). In this sense, the attitude that one person adopts for confronting the situation is essential for the transformation of the conflict.

There are five main attitudes when dealing with conflict. It is important to find out our own attitudes and others’ attitudes as a previous step in constructive conflict-resolution or conflict transformation. Nevertheless, it is difficult to identify a unique attitude, as it is more common to adopt a combination of several attitudes depending on the moment and the conflict.

The five attitudes that can be adopted when dealing with conflict can be defined as follows (Cascón, 2001):

1. **Competition (I win/You lose):** This attitude involves the belief that achieving one’s goals is the most important thing and prevails over the relationship with the other parties. For one’s victory it is common to think that the other party has to lose.
2. **Submission (I lose/You win):** In order to avoid confrontation, the person does not present his/her point of view. A person who adopts this position does sometimes confuse respect or politeness with the defense of his/her rights.
3. **Escape (I lose/You win):** When a person adopts this attitude, conflicts are not faced because of fears or neglect, and thus goals are not achieved and the relationship between the parties does not improve.
4. **Cooperation (I win/You win):** Everybody wins with this attitude. It is important to highlight that cooperation does not involve submission; everybody must feel that they are winners and they do not give in to their main goals.
5. **Commitment:** Due to the fact that full cooperation is very difficult to achieve; this model in which both parties win their essential goals can be followed.
In Figure 2 these attitudes are organised according to the importance of the objectives and the relationship of the parties involved in the conflict.

Figure 2. Attitudes when dealing with conflict (Cascón, 2001)

This figure shows that the more important the goals and the relationship between the parties are, the more important cooperation is. In these circumstances, other attitudes are not valid options in the mid- and long-term because at the end everybody loses. Because of this, learning to cooperate constitutes a huge challenge for the current society in which the message of competitiveness is present everywhere. It is essential to learn that collaboration could be the best way to peacefully resolve conflicts in the most satisfactory way for both parties.
3. Dealing with conflict transformation in formal and informal environments

As explained in the previous section, Cascón (2001) distinguishes three phases in the process that leads to a conflict. The first phase relates to the needs that may initiate the conflict. The second phase takes place when each person or group of people involved in the situation has different needs and an agreement cannot be reached. In the third phase, if the problem is not dealt with or solved, violent reactions will arise.

We should not wait until the third phase to deal with conflict. In fact, this is the worst moment to peacefully and creatively solve it or to learn to do so, since we lack the necessary conditions for conflict transformation, such as time, distance or calmness. That is why our response to conflict is immediate, which prevents us from analysing what is happening and why, from identifying the resources that we have, from looking for alternative solutions, and thus, from reacting in a positive way to conflict (ibid.).

Therefore, in education on constructive conflict-resolution or conflict transformation it is necessary that learners have enough time and space to develop and internalise resources and tools that allow them to analyse conflict and to think about constructive solutions, so that when dealing with conflict in real situations their natural response to it will be not violent (Moawad, 1996).

Non-formal contexts fulfill the requirements of time and space needed for the acquisition of conflict transformation skills, as they offer facilitators the possibility to choose a space which they consider appropriate and to give learners the time they need to develop such skills. This contrasts with the time and space constraints existing in universities and other formal contexts, where schedules and distribution of classes must be respected. Moreover, as Iglesias (2007, p. 195) explains, in formal education contexts, due to the way in which the curriculum is designed, competitiveness is fostered to the detriment of cooperation, which, as explained in section 2, is an essential attitude in conflict transformation.
Nevertheless, non-formal and formal contexts complement each other in conflict transformation education. On the one hand, the learning and skills previously assimilated in the time and space offered by non-formal contexts can be put into practice in formal contexts, where learners must deal with conflict in real-life situations. These situations may include, among others, having to take decisions when working in teams or being part of a multicultural class, which, according to AMANI (2004), is conflictive by nature as it implies the confluence of different cultures and of people who may have the same or different needs, interests or conceptions of power. On the other hand, formal education on conflict transformation offers the possibility to provide learners with more conceptual or theoretical information about the concept of, the process of or the attitudes towards conflict-transformation.

What is more, not only are formal and non-formal contexts complementary, but they can be perfectly integrated into a training programme in conflict transformation. This last statement can be illustrated by The Interregional Project of Schools to Promote Community Conflict Management in Violence-Prone Urban Areas, launched within the framework of the Assisted Schools Project and the Culture of Peace Programme of the UNESCO. In this project, a series of schools located in cities plagued by violence have developed programmes to train students, teachers and other staff, parents and the surrounding community in non-violent conflict-resolution. In these schools, training in conflict-management is an integral part of the curriculum, as well as the activities of the surrounding communities (UNESCO, 1996).

4. A METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH TO CONFLICT TRANSFORMATION

As mentioned in section 3, the aim of education on constructive conflict-resolution or conflict transformation is to provide learners with internal resources that allow them to replace their instinctive negative reaction to conflict with a constructive re-
sponse. In order to meet this aim, education must take place when the conflict is still in the first phases, as once the third phase is reached, learners have no time to analyse the situation and thus will automatically react to conflict in the way which they have previously assimilated.

Experts in the field, such as Cascón (2001), Iglesias (2007) and AMANI (2004), consider that the most appropriate methodology to meet the aim pursued by conflict transformation education is the socio-affective approach. This approach is based on the potential of personal experience to develop empathy and a real commitment. According to the socio-affective approach, learners experience the situations with which they work during their training, so that they can experientially understand what they are learning and develop an empathic attitude, all of which can lead them to change their values and behavior (ibid.).

The techniques in which the socio-affective approach materializes include role play, theatre representations, simulation games and other games aimed at improving certain conflict transformation skills, such as cooperation or confidence, which will be explained later in this section (Cascón, 2001; Iglesias, 2007). As Cascón (2001) explains, the adequacy of these techniques lies in the fact that they allow learners:

- To take into account emotions arising when dealing with conflict.
- To analyse others’ perceptions objectively.
- To put themselves in others’ shoes to understand their needs and perceptions.
- To develop an empathic attitude which helps them not only understand what the others feel but also try to look for creative solutions that satisfy the needs of both parties.
- To analyse the causes of a conflict.
- To develop creativity and become aware of the fact that there is not a single solution for a conflict.
- To look for and implement alternative solutions.
We have already explained the main aim of conflict transformation education and the methodological approach that can be applied to help learners acquire and develop non-violent conflict-resolution skills. But what are these skills? Below we outline them, as well as the concrete way in which the methodology and the techniques described can contribute to their development.

For this purpose, we will present the framework for the development of conflict transformation skills suggested by Cascón (2001), based on the principle that conflict transformation education is a process where the development of each skill depends on the acquisition and development of the previous one. Therefore, the author underlines that it is essential that the training in conflict transformation follow a systematic progression in order for it to be effective. The training proposal suggested by Cascón (ibid.) includes the following skills:

a) *Creation of a group in an atmosphere of respect and confidence*

All people have the need to feel that they belong to a group where they are accepted and appreciated irrespective of their flaws. To achieve these feelings and avoid lack of integration, which can become a source of conflict, games\(^1\) aimed at letting the participants get to know each other better could be implemented.

Moreover, games intended at boosting self-confidence and confidence in the other members of the group are a useful tool to help learners deal with conflict without fear and with sincerity (Cascón, 2001; Iglesias, 2007). In addition, it is a good practice at this level to

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1. Our aim is not to present examples of the different types of games referred to in these pages but to describe a framework for the development of conflict transformation skills that can be adapted to different settings, circumstances and groups of learners. Nevertheless, the following publication can be consulted to find examples of all types of games mentioned here: Cascón Soriano, P. & Martín Beristain, C. (2006). *La alternativa del juego I. Juegos y dinámicas de educación para la paz*. Madrid: Catarata.
help learners develop their self-esteem and reflect on their culturally conditioned identity (Cascón, 2001; Iglesias, 2007) through games.

b) Communication skills

Dialogue is one of the main tools for dealing with conflict from a positive perspective. That is why training in conflict transformation must include games that help learners communicate effectively. Communication games can be related not only to verbal communication but also to body language, and can be aimed at developing learners’ ability to listen actively (Cascón, 2001). Given the relation between communication and conflict transformation skills, all those practices described in Part 1 of this book which are intended at improving effective communication can also be applied in education on conflict transformation.

c) Decision-making skills

The time has arrived for learners to put into practice dialogue and effective communication in order to freely express their opinions to the other members of the group in which they feel integrated, and above all, to reach a consensus on the matter in question. For the practice of participative decision-making Cascón (2001) recommends starting with simple conflictive situations with which learners deal every day (for example, interpersonal conflicts), and to then continue working with more complex situations (social or international conflicts).

d) Cooperation

The aim of this phase of the training proposal described here is that learners deal with conflict by taking into account the perceptions of all the parties involved and collaborating with
them. It is important that learners realise and internalise that diversity and differences constitute a source of mutual growth and that the fact that a person is different does not mean that he or she is their enemy, but someone to learn from and to cooperate with. Cooperative games can be implemented in this phase. It is also relevant to try to look for alternatives to competitive sports or games and to find stimuli that do not foster competitiveness as prizes do (Cascón, 2001).

e) Conflict analysis, negotiation and search of solutions

When analysing a conflict, learners must separately reflect on the parties involved, the steps followed up to that moment and the needs or interests of the parties. Once the needs or interests that initiated the conflict have been identified, cooperative negotiations can start and must be aimed at finding creative solutions that satisfy the needs or interests of all the parties involved (Cascón, 2001).

In order to help learners be capable of analysing conflict and of negotiating to come up with creative solutions, techniques such as role play and theatre representations, as well as simulation games can be applied (ibid.). Moreover, as creativity plays a crucial role in the process of looking for solutions to a conflict (Cascón, 2001; Aguilar & Canale, 2012; Carnevale, 2014), techniques for the development of creativity can also be implemented in this phase².

Similarly, Galtung (2000) proposes a method for constructive conflict-resolution or conflict transformation called the “Transcend” method. According to this method, it is necessary to go in depth into the culture and social structure where the conflict arises for preventing and stopping the outbreak of violence. As Calderón-Concha (2009) explains, the main elements of this method are the following:

- It is necessary to attempt to overcome the conflict with the purpose that all parties involved can reach their goals, and to create the conditions for having transformative aspects as dominant ones.
- Dialogue is seen as the most appropriate tool for conflict transformation.
- It is based on empathy, creativity and nonviolence as methodological elements.
- It considers all actors involved as equals. Transformation goes beyond social asymmetries.
- It is necessary to get to know all the circumstances surrounding conflict and the origins of violence.
- It recognizes the presence of a third party, the peace worker, who acts as a moderator between the parties involved.
- It implies the concepts of 3R: reconciliation, reconstruction, resolution.
- It implies different levels: micro, meso, macro and mega.
- It incorporates the nonviolence principle of reversibility.

Before moving to the next section, we would like to specify that apart from the techniques described in the paragraphs above, international collaboration and its materialization in

3. Apart from the techniques presented here, Part 1 chapters can be consulted to get an idea of other good practices related to conflict transformation.
international training programmes offers a unique scenario for the development of conflict transformation skills. This is due to the fact that this scenario is presided over by cultural diversity, offering participants the opportunity to learn to cooperate with people from other cultures and to realise that cultural differences are an engine of personal development. Moreover, as cultural diversity can also be a source of conflict (UNESCO’s Culture of Peace Programme, 1996; AMANI, 2004), participants will have the chance to deal during their training with real conflicts with which all of them feel identified.

At the same time that international training programmes contribute to the development of conflict transformation skills, they also benefit from welcoming participants who have received training in constructive conflict-transformation, since they will be able to deal with the conflicts that may arise in a non-violent and creative way and thus a culture of peace will be present during the event.

This is the case of programmes such as the Summer Week that took place in July 2015 in Padova and the Summer Week that will be held in Brussels in 2016, both organised in the framework of the Erasmus+ Key Action 2 – Strategic Partnership project Developing All-Round Education DARE+.

5. Monitoring development, levels of development

The best way to assess a competence is in real situations in which the knowledge, skills and attitudes involved have to be used. In our daily life we continuously deal with conflict at work, with the family, etc., so it is important to know our level of competence in the management of these situations to try to develop it if necessary. In this sense, it is essential that we know ourselves, as self-awareness is an important step in understanding what our current personal development needs are (ABP, 2010, p. 8) and it is through self-awareness that we will be able to change the aspects that affect negatively our
ability to deal with conflict. Self-assessment of this competence is thus essential in order to identify and develop the necessary skills for conflict transformation.

To become aware of our own attitudes towards conflicts, we need tools to help us in this task. An interesting tool very useful for self-assessment is the rubric. According to Barberá & De Martín (2009), a rubric takes the form of a double entry table that can join and relate evaluation criteria, achievement levels and descriptors. The column indicates dimensions of quality and lists a series of items or areas to be evaluated. The row indicates proficiency levels. At the intersection, one finds a textual description of the qualities of the results and products at that dimension and level.

Using rubrics for self-assessment or peer-assessment makes people more aware of the assessment mechanisms and criteria. This awareness helps them to work with those criteria in mind so that they develop metacognitive learning tools, since they are more aware of how they perform these processes.

From DARE+ project (Developing All-Round Education) a rubric was developed for assessing this competence. This rubric collects a set of criteria and standards that define the achievement of said competence. It can be used both as a self-assessment tool and as a tool for external assessment. The rubric is divided into three levels of achievement from a basic degree to a master degree. This rubric is shown in Table 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</th>
<th>LEVEL 1</th>
<th>LEVEL 2</th>
<th>LEVEL 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing strategies for coping with emotions caused by differences</td>
<td>Tolerates feelings of frustration in interaction with others</td>
<td>Feels at ease with different views and discrepancies</td>
<td>Empathizes with others’ views and emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing strategies for coping with intellectual conflict caused by differences</td>
<td>Tolerates tensions in arguments with others</td>
<td>Accepts different views and discrepancies</td>
<td>Values positively expressions of differences among others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening and considering the positions of others in situations of conflict.</td>
<td>Listens to and understands only the opinions and interests which do not conflict with own position, and gets tense when differences are expressed</td>
<td>Takes the opinions and interests of others into account, recognizing and understanding points of agreement or divergence</td>
<td>Promotes an atmosphere of respect and dialogue where everyone can speak freely and be listened to and comprehends ethical implications of own and others’ position, seeing possibilities for reconciliation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPETENCE INDICATOR</td>
<td>LEVEL 1</td>
<td>LEVEL 2</td>
<td>LEVEL 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showing assertiveness and strategy when proposing and defending own positions and managing conflict</td>
<td>Expresses own opinions and interests calmly but with firmness and conviction, even though different from those of others. Is open to dialogue, but there is little strategy and defense of own position weakens when a competitive atmosphere arises or the process takes an unexpected direction.</td>
<td>Expresses own position and interests with clarity, and knows how to defend it in an atmosphere of dialogue. Knows how to plan a strategy and adapts own position to the process with flexibility</td>
<td>Expresses own positions and interests to others, remaining open to dialogue and the possibility of reconsidering own standpoint(s). Analyses and plans the best strategies, responding quickly and with versatility and cooperation in process of negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking acceptable alternatives and solutions for conflicts</td>
<td>After listening, is clearly open to considering others’ proposals, and to conceding points in order to reach agreement</td>
<td>Contributes actively to dialogue with proposals to explore possible alternatives and achieve agreements and commitments with others</td>
<td>Tries to reconcile and integrate different postures to reach agreements satisfactory to everyone involved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Rubric of the “conflict transformation” competence developed by DARE+ project team
This rubric can not only be a useful tool for self-assessment, but it can also be used in education on conflict transformation in formal or informal contexts by trainers or even peers, who must be able to be aware of their own abilities to deal with conflict in a constructive way but also to identify them in the person who is being assessed.

6. Conclusions

Constructive conflict-resolution or conflict transformation plays a major role in the transition from a culture of violence to a culture of peace. However, as several authors state, most people do not feel prepared to resolve conflicts in a peaceful and creative way, which shows there is a need for education on conflict transformation nowadays. With the aim of contributing to satisfying this need, the necessary skills for conflict transformation have been identified and described in previous sections. Moreover, a methodological approach and specific techniques for the development of such skills have been proposed and the usefulness of non-formal contexts in education on non-violent conflict-resolution has been highlighted. Finally, self-assessment of said competence has been addressed and a rubric for monitoring conflict transformation has been presented.

7. Bibliography


The development of intercultural competence (IC) in the university has at least ten justifications: **First, intercultural competence is intrinsic to universal knowledge.** The university exists for the creation and development of universal knowledge. Given the need for broader perceptions beyond one’s own, as well as the need for analysis of different behaviours, approaches and systems that are so intrinsic to true university-level knowledge, it is difficult to imagine how such universal knowledge can be conveyed without intentional inclusion of IC. This competence broadens one’s awareness of other perspectives and other “truths”.

**Second, intercultural competence is at the core of universities’ internationalisation efforts.** Universities look to internationalisation as a key means to improve the overall quality of teaching and learning within the institution. The degree of internationalisation is an important factor in determining the quality of a university, because the richness of the international dimension is one of the undeniable pillars of our systems of knowledge development and knowledge transfer. Students, as well as teachers, learn other realities, other perspectives, other ethos and other cultural traditions by participating in programmes through interactions with those from different backgrounds and countries. This learning occurs through both formal and informal encounters and interactions, which can be maximized through the intentional development of IC. IC, then, is a key dimension of internationalisation.

The internationalisation efforts of universities mean that intercultural, international, and global dimensions need to be
integrated throughout curricula and programmes. This happens more explicitly as a result of increased student mobility (e.g. Dimitrov, Dawson, Olsen & Meadows, 2014; Salisbury, An & Pascarella, 2013; Vande Berg & Paige, 2009; Williams, 2005; Yarosh, Lukič & Santibáñez-Gruber, 2014), but also because an intentional intercultural approach seems to be gradually becoming a sign of a more complete and even “responsible” education (Jones, 2013, p. 3). In fact, a number of authors (Deardorff & Jones, 2012; de Wit, 2015) and institutions argue that intercultural competence development is one of the most important outcomes of the higher education experience (de Wit, Hunter, Egron-Polak & Howard, 2015; Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2014) and a responsibility of higher education providers, as well as one of the prestige criteria (cf. Deardorff, 2012, pp. 14-15; Haber & Getz, 2011, p. 463; Jones, 2013, p. 3).

**Third, intercultural competence is essential in maximizing networks.** Several authors (Clark & Fujimoto, 1991; Midler, 1995; Castells, 1999; Söderlund, 2005) have written about the "projectification" or the capacity for networking in our society. The capacity to create and maintain networks and projects at all levels also calls for a solid foundation in IC. Projects and networks are indispensable arenas for knowledge elaboration, knowledge testing, knowledge sharing and knowledge growth. Only a strong capacity to understand and value differences can create the necessary way to learn from diversity and to succeed in furthering multicultural networks.

**Fourth, intercultural competence is interwoven with globalization and migration.** In the words of Amin Maalouf (2012), CIsn’t it a characteristic of the age we live in that it has made everyone in a way a migrant and a member of a minority?” Today’s world is one of global mobility which requires new ways of understanding the multicultural societies in which we live, as well as recognition and celebration of difference and, finally the capacity to be able to integrate diversity while at the same time respecting all cultures including one’s own. IC is thus needed at the level of both individuals and societies.
Fifth, intercultural competence is necessary for peaceful societies. This means it is not only about social inclusion but also about building a society without violence, which is essential in today’s global society where people are increasingly interacting across differences and borders. In this sense, IC is not only a question of knowledge and understanding, but of actions and behaviours. In diverse societies, IC becomes a necessary tool to ensure a way forward and it should be intentionally developed not only at university level but at all levels of schooling, as well as within municipalities, in NGOs and civil society and in the corporate world. IC is also particularly essential in post-conflict societies; and universities can play a key role in developing IC among and beyond those formerly in conflict.

Sixth, intercultural competence helps develop successful leaders. One of the tasks of the university is to prepare people for taking roles in society, and leadership roles are clearly among those. Given that most societies are far from homogeneous, those in leadership must have the capacity to understand the needs as well as the potential of the vast and diverse citizenry within society. This means that topics such as global leadership, global citizenship, and diverse teamwork must form a key agenda for higher education institutions to address.

Seventh, intercultural competence is fundamental in preparing global-ready graduates who can succeed in the workplace. IC could be seen as indispensable for avoiding failures and catastrophes in the workplace, as well as within larger society. IC opens new possibilities and permits graduates to develop and succeed in their careers (Haber & Getz, 2011, p. 463; Jones, 2013; McKiernan, Leahy and Brereton, 2013, p. 227; or Odağ, Wallin & Kedzior, 2015, p. 1). Importantly, IC is linked to professional success not only in the EU, but also in Canada (Dimitrov, Dawson, Olsen & Meadows, 2014), China (Wang & Kulich, 2015), Russia (Karnyshev & Kostin, 2010), Singapore, Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam (Jones, 2013), the US (Deardorff, 2006), and Qatar (Haber
Employers desire workers with the requisite skills, attitudes, and knowledge areas found within IC.

**Eight, intercultural competence is necessary for global citizenship.** It is increasingly common for universities to include global citizenship in their missions, and within that, IC is frequently stated as being required of *every citizen* of the 21st century. For example, IC is deemed necessary for any person, regardless of one's age or occupation (Commission of the European Communities, 2005, p. 13). Or, as Lustig and Koester (2003, pp. ix and 23) observe, IC is “an absolute necessity” in public and private lives, “in all personal and professional endeavours” and is “an imperative” both in the domestic and the international arena. Many other scholars concur with this point (see, for example, Byram (1997), Chen and Starosta (1996), Council of Europe (2008), Deardorff (2006), Fantini (2000), Jones (2013) and Huber and Reynolds (2014), Maiztegui and Santibáñez (2006), UNESCO (2009), Vilá Baños (2005)).

**Ninth, intercultural competence, particularly within the diverse European region, must be intentionally addressed, given its fundamental role within democracy** (Council of Europe, 2016). IC development cannot just be expected to happen naturally, however, as if “by magic” (cf. Deardorff, 2015; Dimitrov, Dawson, Olsen & Meadows, 2014, p. 87; Huber & Reynolds, 2014, p. 7). Rather, IC needs to be developed intentionally throughout society with the university playing a key role in doing so. One of the consequences, and perhaps the most significant for all those who are involved in working with students throughout the university years, is a recognition that helping students develop IC is a shared responsibility. (cf. Haber & Getz, 2011, p. 464; and Huber & Reynolds, 2014, p. 7).

**Tenth, intercultural competence is vital to the future of Europe.** IC becomes the “glue” which holds society together, and when combined with interculturally competent policies, institutions, and structures, can help move the whole of society forward toward a more positive future of a strong and
integrated Europe with robust democratic nations that respect many different kinds of diversity. Without IC, such possible scenarios are not as hopeful. In light of Europe’s dramatically changing demographics, as well as the emerging backlash to globalization, along with other related issues, Europe’s future depends on the societal “glue” of IC.

What is intercultural competence?

First of all, it must be said that many different terms have been and are still used for what is referred here as IC, and much of the usage depends on the context and discipline (cf. Bennett 2009, p. 122; Deardorff, 2015; Fantini, 2009). Yet, it is not our purpose here to enter into the debate about the ideal term. It seems more important to focus not on the label but rather on what it stands for, and what students need to develop.

Participants in the DARE+ project recognize that there are many different definitions of IC, including the first research-based IC definition (Deardorff, 2006). Many of these definitions can broadly define IC as a dynamic combination of values, attitudes, knowledge, skills and any other type of elements that permit a person to communicate and behave both effectively and appropriately with those different from him/herself (Bennett & Bennett, 2004, p. 149; Council of Europe, 2016; Deardorff, 2006, pp. 247-248; Tuning, n.d.).

In the DARE+ project, it was agreed to define IC as the competence to perceive, be curious about, open to and respectful of cultures, including one’s own; to be able to understand, express and appreciate different values and norms, ways of thinking, practices and behaviours, and to engage with others by initiating or being receptive to a constructive exchange.

To implement IC development support in any particular context, it is necessary to specify IC building blocks, prioritize essential elements and formulate related intended learning outcomes (Deardorff, 2015).
For the members of the DARE+, the following elements appeared as key for university students’ IC development, regardless of their chosen area of studies.

**Attitudinal dimension:**

1. **Curiosity**: willingness to learn more about any culture and take a pro-active approach towards such learning. Students need to become interested in more than the easily perceived elements of different cultures, recognize the value of learning about and from any culture, and start actively seeking such learning moments (through engaging with representatives and with products of different cultures).

2. **Respect**: treating with respect any and all aspects of any culture, be it through respective behaviour toward representatives of these cultures or through demonstrating respect appropriately toward practices of cultural communities. Students need to learn to value and appreciate cultural differences and recognize different cultural practices as valid and worthy of respect.

**Cognitive dimension:**

3. **Cultural awareness**: awareness of cultural conditioning of self and others. Students need to be able to identify (possible/potential) manifestations of own and others’ cultural conditioning in intercultural interactions they are involved in or learning about.

4. **Knowing how to learn about a culture and further develop one’s own IC**: a working knowledge of the concepts of culture and IC which permits self-directed continuous (lifelong) learning and IC development. Students need to be familiar with the iceberg model of culture, with at least one taxonomy of cultural dimensions, as well as with IC developmental models,
in order to be able to reflect on, discuss and plan their own learning and IC development.

**Behavioural dimension:**

(5) **Capacity to see from more than one perspective:** an ability to shift perspectives and look at a situation or own behaviour from a culturally-different perspective. Students need to learn to look at any situation of intercultural interaction from the perspective of the different cultures involved, or at least to try to imagine how representatives of the other culture(s) can interpret a situation/behaviour.

(6) **Empathy:** acting in such a way that takes into account the other’s feelings and emotions. Students need to learn how to find out what culturally-different others feel and respond appropriately.

(7) **Choosing an appropriate and effective behaviour in different cultural contexts:** monitoring and modifying one’s own behaviour in order to prevent or resolve cultural misunderstandings and achieve common desired goals. Students need to learn to be flexible in their behaviour and to adopt behaviour that permits fruitful collaboration with culturally different persons.

**Developing IC in non-formal context**

With the increased focus on internationalization of higher education, more intentionality is needed to ensure the inclusion of intended learning outcomes related to IC development into the university curricula (cf. Deardorff, 2015). Yet, in order to develop IC, students need to be exposed to culturally different others and interact with them in meaningful ways beyond mere contact (e.g. Allport, 1954; Larfaya, 2011, p. 30). Students need to leave their comfort zones (Pusch,
2009, p. 80) and gain intercultural experience (either within a domestic context or in a cross-border context), reflect upon such intercultural experience and interpret it in terms of (the need for) new knowledge and skills acquisition (cf. Renwick, 2004, p. 446).

Although not completely impossible in the classroom, it seems much easier to stimulate such experiential learning outside the classroom (Deardorff, 2009, p. xiii; SALTO, 2009). For example students need to have both challenge and support in order to develop IC, and this challenge and support must be balanced, according to Sanford. Too much challenge in a learning environment, and the student won’t learn, and conversely, too much support in the learning experience means the student will not learn as much either (Sanford, 1966; Vande Berg & Paige, 2009, p. 424).

All this suggests non-formal learning as an optimal solution, or at least an indispensable complement to formal learning approaches in the classroom (Deardorff, 2015, p. 140; Lafraya, 2011, pp. 5 and 27; SALTO, 2009). Informal learning, followed by guided reflection and theoretical framing, might well be seen by students as more “natural” (Yarosh, Lukič, Santibáñez-Gruber, 2014). However, it is important to recognize that unstructured or unguided experience does not necessarily lead to inherent IC development (Deardorff, 2015, p. 31).

In other words, the role of a non-formal educator is to provide students with structured and planned opportunities for transformative learning (Pusch, 2009, p. 80), followed by debriefing and setting of new goals, thus complementing and augmenting classroom experiences. Within non-formal experiences, preparation for intercultural learning becomes crucial (Vande Berg & Paige, 2009). Non-formal activities could help students link practice and theory, real-life experience and critical reflection (i.e. develop IC in a more holistic manner (Deardorff, 2015, p. 31)), permit each student to recognize his/her own strengths and learning preferences in relation to IC (cf. Bennhold Samaan, 2004, pp. 370 and 378) and focus
on teaching students how to develop IC wherever they are and throughout a lifetime of learning (Deardorff, 2009, p. xiii; Pusch, 2004, p. 16).

**What exactly can be done to develop IC**

Those interested in helping their students develop IC outside the classroom (through non-formal education), need to consider the following four ideas: First of all, the practices found in Part 1 of this publication can be adapted to your context (especially chapter 3), or these can be used as sources of inspiration. Secondly, there are some general principles central for IC development (outlined below). Knowing these can help you, regardless of what you decide to do. Thirdly, there exists a wealth of resources for anyone interested in helping others develop their IC, and you can start exploring the options with the references included below. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, it is critical to remember to make full use of the diversity found on today’s university campuses and surrounding communities. There are so many differences that exist beyond cultural differences in a narrow sense, including those of age, gender, socio-economic backgrounds, religions, political beliefs, and so on. Even students who cannot spend considerable time abroad can be helped to develop their IC – such diversity is no longer the question of far-away exotic and exceptional places, but can be found within one’s own local campus and community.

Before recommending some resources, we would like to draw your attention to some **key principles** most of the experienced trainers and IC scholars suggest should characterize any successful IC development initiative. Darla Deardorff (2015, pp. 141-142) speaks of five design considerations to be taken into account, regardless of the context in which you work:

1. Relevance – how relevant are the assignments/tasks to what your students actually need? Are you meeting them where they
really are instead of where you think they are? It is important to remember that not all students are at the exact same place in their intercultural journey, so a one-size-fits-all activity may not be relevant for all of your students.

(2) Collaborative approach – How are you involving your students in their own intercultural learning and development? What kind of personalized feedback are you providing to your students? Your students need to have a say and they need your feedback throughout their learning process so they can continue their intercultural growth and development.

(3) Experiential nature of learning – How are you engaging your students in their intercultural learning beyond listening to lectures or reading and discussing articles? There are many activities that can be used in the classroom (Berardo & Dardorff, 2012; Mompoint-Gaillard & Lázár, 2015), as well as real-world assignments that can engage students experientially and in a hands-on manner. Students need to develop as whole persons; experience and practice need to be linked to theory through guided reflection.

(4) Continuous learning – How are you helping your students learn to think interculturally and to develop an intercultural lifestyle? IC development is a lifelong process, so it is important to equip your students for that journey by going beyond a focus on knowledge to also include a focus on skills and attitudes.

(5) Focusing on the process rather than the result – How are you helping your students focus more on the process of intercultural development than on the results, such as memorizing certain knowledge? Goals should include both process goals (such as the ability to reflect) as well as results-oriented goals (such as greater self-awareness).

As for the **type of processes or stages** students must go through in order to develop IC, the authors of “Developing intercultural competence through education” (Huber & Reynolds, 2014, pp. 29-30) indicate the following five:

1) **experience** - experiencing how representatives of other cultures “act, interact and communicate” – whether in reality
(direct, via social media), in a simulated context (e.g. through games) or in imagination (through readings, films, etc.) – is a necessary first step to be able to compare and analyse;

2) **comparison** - a facilitated process of identifying similarities and differences should help students move from comparing in terms of judging (better-worse, normal-bizarre) to a comparison which seeks understanding and where one’s own values and attitudes start to be regarded as no more than one possible “choice”;

3) **analysis** - invites students to explore the “why” behind the differences identified, the possible reasons that led different cultures to different choices;

4) **reflection** - permits the consolidation of the learning of the previous stages, while

5) **action** is the stage of experimentation that presupposes engagement with that which is culturally-different, and leads to new experiences and understandings.

The facilitator’s role is to ensure that students are invited, encouraged and given space and opportunities to go through the five stages/processes in each learning cycle.

Janet M. Bennett (2009, pp. 125-134), in turn, proposes a global learning sequence of 4 steps in developing IC, to be converted into concrete actions and activities depending on your context:

(1) fostering attitudes that will motivate students to develop their IC;

(2) being conscious of particular students’ interests, discovering knowledge to be able to speak of at least two different cultural positions (one’s own and that of the culture the student has decided to explore);

(3) comparing the two cultural realities and identifying what needs to be learned in order to bridge the gaps; and

(4) developing the skills necessary for effective and appropriate interaction.

In the same publication, *The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence*, Craig Storti (2009, pp. 272-280) describes in great
detail how he addresses the “four fundamentals of cross-cultural training”: (1) defining culture and explaining how it can manifest in interactions with people from a different culture; (2) identifying the key values and assumptions of the participant’s own culture; (3) identifying the key values and assumptions of the target culture(s); and (4) identifying the key differences between own and other’s culture, along with the effects these differences are most likely to have, and offering strategies for resolving such challenges.

With these general guidelines in mind, you will need to identify the learning outcomes relevant for your students and select activities aligned to those learning outcomes that can help your students reach these.

Some of the most easily accessible collections of activities are those available online.

1. SALTO-YOUTH, a network of resource centres for youth workers, has an online resource centre (https://www.salto-youth.net/rc/), where you can search for activities by category or keyword;
2. The already cited Council of Europe publication (Huber & Reynolds, 2014) includes a section on “Approaches and activities that help to develop intercultural competence”; while the next publication of the series (Mompoint-Gaillard and Lázar, 2015) proposes activities on different aspects of IC;
3. Chapter 3 of Gurgen Balasanyan’s Masters thesis on Intercultural Learning and Non-Formal Education (Balasanyan, 2011), focuses on non-formal education tools for intercultural learning;
4. You might also find of interest two toolkits developed for supporting Bachelors and Masters students who go abroad: IEREST’s manual for Erasmus Students (IEREST, 2015) and the EMIC toolkit for Erasmus Mundus Masters students (EMIC, 2015);
5. Other recent projects that have produced resources for IC development for the same age group are INCOM-VET (INCOM-VET), whose context is one of Vocational Education and Training, and LLP PICT (LLP PICT), which targets student translators.

If you have access to a well-resourced library with English language publications, *Building Cultural Competence: Innovative Activities and Models* (Berardo & Deardorff, 2012), or any of the two volumes of the *Intercultural Sourcebook* (Fowler & Mumford, 1995; and Fowler & Mumford, 1999) could be ideal sources of ready-made activities or inspirational ideas.

To sum up, you need to first identify concrete learning outcomes your students need to achieve with respect to IC development (meaning you need to prioritize key elements of IC upon which to focus), and then search for the means to provide your students with opportunities to reach these. International collaborations, including international intensive programmes where students from different cultures live and work together (as was the case of the DARE+ project, funded by the European Commission), might be one option, but these are neither sufficient by themselves, nor the only worthwhile endeavours.

Alternatively, any local activity, if planned with these underlying key general ideas and guidelines in mind, can support your students as much or even more, since it will help your students realize that IC is not something only travellers, workers or migrants need, and will permit your students to start or continue their lifelong journey of learning to live and interact with culturally-different others both appropriately and effectively.

What is important is to help students engage in meaningful intercultural interactions, preferably on a continuous – day-to-day – basis, and to integrate reflection, skill development and knowledge acquisition exercises around this authentic, first-hand experience. Experiencing intercultural interactions is a necessary first step in raising awareness for the need to
develop further IC. Students need multiple, long-term and diverse intercultural interactions in order to develop the different aspects of IC. To make this feasible, it is essential to use the actual cultural heterogeneity present on campus and in the surrounding community.

**Monitoring development**

Within the framework of the DARE+ project, with its focus on supporting competence development in non-formal context as a complement to what can be expected to happen in the formal context (university classroom), the rubric presented below was agreed upon. It builds on the rubric proposed by the University of Deusto team (Villa Sánchez & Poblete Ruiz, 2008), on the rubric elaborated by AAC&U (n.d.), as well as on the developmental trajectory of intercultural maturity (King & Baxter Magolda, 2005), all of which were created to help higher education institutions address the IC development of their students. INCA’s Framework (INCA) was also consulted.

The adaptations and innovations introduced are due to the following three reasons: First of all, the rubric was intended to be used not only by facilitators but also by students themselves (for self- and peer-assessment, as well as for formulating further developmental aims). This meant that the rubric had to be simple and as easy to understand by the learner as possible. Second, it was developed to be used by persons involved in non-formal learning activities whose aim is to complement university learning. As a consequence, the need to help students become autonomous lifelong learners was prioritized. Thirdly, we had no intention to account for every single aspect of IC, but rather wanted to focus on the IC elements we could aspire to help students improve through the DARE+ project activities. These three guiding principles defined the rubric proposed here and need to be kept in mind if you would like to use or adapt it in your particular context.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Curiosity</strong></td>
<td><strong>Level 2</strong></td>
<td><strong>Level 3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shows interest in above-the-waterline aspects of other cultures, but is not actively seeking to learn more. Is not interested in below-the-waterline aspects of other cultures. Is interested in only one other culture or a limited number of other cultures (that all have in common something that is perceived as valuable/attractive).</td>
<td>Actively seeks opportunities to explore above-the-waterline aspects of other cultures. When offered an explanation about below-the-surface aspects of other cultures, embraces this learning opportunity. Is interested in many different cultures, but not in every different culture.</td>
<td>Actively seeks to explore both above-the-waterline and below-the-waterline aspects of different cultures. Is interested in any cultures, no matter how different or similar to the familiar one(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Respect</strong></td>
<td>Admits that theoretically all cultures deserve respect, yet cannot help feeling and showing that representatives and/or aspects of certain cultures deserve more respect than others.</td>
<td>Demonstrates respect towards representatives and/or any aspects of any culture in the world. Values and appreciates cultural differences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considers certain cultures to be more interesting, more prestigious or better than others. Respects attitudes, opinions and actions of representatives of such cultures, but not others.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultural Awareness</strong> (awareness of cultural conditioning of self and others)</td>
<td>Can recognize manifestations of cultural conditioning of representatives of one's own and of other cultures.</td>
<td>While involved in an interaction with representatives of different cultures, can identify manifestations of cultural conditioning of oneself and others in own and others' actions, attitudes, and opinions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can recognize manifestations of cultural conditioning of representatives of other cultures.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knowing how to learn about a culture and further develop own IC</td>
<td>Speaks (and thinks) of cultures as devoid of any internal structure, which means that that there is no “way” or “means” of learning about cultures, and such learning happens randomly, when it does. Has never thought that IC might need to be developed or believes that it comes naturally with spending time abroad or with representatives of other cultures.</td>
<td>Can explain the culture iceberg model, name and illustrate dimensions of cultures (Hofstede’s, GLOBE’s, or others) and apply this knowledge to learning about the culture(s) of interest. Conscious of not knowing how to develop own IC, and seeks external help (through reading about IC (development) or attending training(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity to see from more than one perspective</td>
<td>Always sees things from own cultural perspective (either because is not familiar with/aware of other possible perspectives or due to not considering them valid/important enough).</td>
<td>If prompted about an aspect of culture which he/she is familiar with in at least two cultures, can explain how representatives of the (two) different cultures are likely to see a phenomenon related to this cultural aspect. Easily forgets about the existence of multiple perspectives, when involved in interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Empathy</strong></td>
<td>Acts guided by imagining what him/herself would feel in the circumstances.</td>
<td>Conscious of others potentially experiencing different feelings. Would try guessing what the other might feel and either give up or act on a guess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Choosing an appropriate and effective behaviour in different cultural contexts</strong></td>
<td>Always follows the supposed dos and don’ts learned in relation to a familiar foreign culture. If they do not work (or if in intercultural situations for which no dos and don’ts have been learned) behaves as if dealing with representatives of own culture. May feel frustrated and blame the other if the interaction is not successful. Does not think in terms of appropriateness of own behaviour.</td>
<td>Adapts his/her behaviour to that of the representative of a different culture, on the basis of the verbal and nonverbal signs observed. May feel frustrated if the interaction is not successful and will blame own lack of intercultural competence (own inability to choose appropriate behaviour). Might discuss unsuccessful interactions later on with persons who have not been involved in the incident in question.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Rubric of the “intercultural competence” developed by DARE+ project team
The rubric proposed was piloted with students. It was used as part of self-assessment exercise before and after a period of learning activities. Students were also encouraged to set their own developmental goals for each or any of the IC elements they wanted to focus on. Together with trainers and peers they could also discuss how these goals could be achieved and, as a result, could agree on individual developmental plans.

The same rubric was used as the basis for a portfolio development during the project cycle in which IC was addressed. To help students learn to monitor their own developmental process, at certain key points, peers and eventually trainers were invited to provide a contrasting assessment, which was discussed and compared with the self-assessment diagnostic.

**Accreditation and recognition**

In Europe, the establishment of systems for the recognition and validation of all forms of learning has become one of the central themes in all sectors of education and training. Three routes can be followed in the search for its collective development: The Bologna process, the work of the European Commission and the attempts of higher education institutions.

In relation to the Bologna process, this was present from the early days with several procedures to develop recognition of prior learning. But the two more explicit moments for advancement were first in 2005 in the Bergen communiqué and second in 2009 in the Leuven/ Louvain-la-Neuve communiqué.

In the Bergen communiqué (Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2005, p. 3), the ministers recognised:

*We will work with higher education institutions and others to improve recognition of prior learning including, where possible, non-formal and informal learning for access to, and as elements in, higher education programmes.*
This was seen as a means to address two parallel needs: (1) the need to move to a competence-centred system and (2) the need to support graduates in the changing society – from permanent, life-long jobs found directly after graduation in the same place where one was born or studied, to a culture of temporary jobs, often in different sectors and sometimes in a completely different geographical or cultural context.

At the same time, the dominance of the concept of lifelong learning seemed to have made implicit the need for the means to recognise the learning done in different contexts and situations and to have it validated.

In the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve communiqué (Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009, p. 3), the ministers declared that:

Successful policies for lifelong learning will include basic principles and procedures for recognition of prior learning on the basis of learning outcomes regardless of whether the knowledge, skills and competences were acquired through formal, non-formal, or informal learning paths.

The Commission has taken an important stand on the issue of recognition, in particular within the European agenda for the modernisation of higher education where the Member States are invited to: Develop clear progression routes…. as well as mechanisms for recognising prior learning and experience gained outside formal education and training, especially by tackling challenges related to the implementation (Eurydice, n.d., p. 2). The theme of the recognition of prior learning in higher education has been addressed in several reports produced or co-produced by Eurydice and the Modernisation Agenda, namely EACEA/Eurydice, during the years 2011 and 2012.

Thirdly, European institutions have supported national developments in this field through various initiatives and projects, including the Common European Principles for the identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning, the
European Guidelines for validation of non-formal and informal learning and several editions of the European Inventory on the validation of non-formal and informal learning. These attempts ended in the adoption of the Council Recommendation inviting EU countries to establish validation systems allowing individuals to obtain recognised qualifications on the basis of non-formal or informal learning in December 2012.

Similar developments are happening all over the world. For example, numerous accrediting bodies in the United States include IC in their accrediting standards, including the accrediting agencies for business schools, engineering programmes, health programmes, social work schools, and teacher-training programmes. Digital badging is also becoming more prevalent in documenting elements of IC (for example, see Purdue University’s intercultural program, Deardorff, 2015). However, it is important to note that while some universities offer IC certificates, it is actually quite difficult to “certify” IC broadly since that raises questions as to who should certify, to what level, based on whose definition, etc. It should also be noted that efforts are underway to include IC more intentionally in the Tuning Process. Beyond accreditation and recognition, it continues to be imperative that IC becomes more intentionally addressed and integrated into all disciplines within a university.
REFERENCES


**Webpages:**

EMIC – http://www.emic-project.org/
IEREST – http://www.ierest-project.eu/
INCA – www.incaproject.org
SALTO – https://www.salto-youth.net/rc/
1. Why develop Social Entrepreneurship competence?

Social Entrepreneurship, commonly defined as “entrepreneurial activity with an embedded social purpose” (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006), has become an important economic phenomenon on a global scale. Some of the most striking social entrepreneurship innovations originate from developing countries and involve the deployment of new business models that address basic human needs. Yet, social entrepreneurship is a vibrant phenomenon in developed countries as well. For example, according to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2010 survey, an estimated 1.2M people in the UK are social entrepreneurs (defined in the survey as being involved in founding and running a socially-oriented venture younger than 42 months). Given that the comparable number for commercial entrepreneurship is 6.2%, this data raises the possibility that social entrepreneurship may be almost as important a phenomenon as commercial entrepreneurship (Harding, 2010).

Although social entrepreneurs usually start with small, local efforts, they often target problems that have a local expression but global relevance, such as access to water, promoting small-business creation, or waste management. The innovative solutions that social entrepreneurs validate in their local context often get replicated in other locations and can create new global industries. Social entrepreneurship is thus having profound implications for the economic system: creating new industries, validating new business models, and allocating resources to neglected social problems.
These developments have started to spark academic interest. Research and several books focused on social entrepreneurship have been published in the last few years. Business schools which, with a few exceptions, had ignored this phenomenon, have been joining the field in recent years by creating academic centers and developing new courses and research.

The concept of social entrepreneurship should be seen in the context of the development of social and entrepreneurial competences, and in accordance with the new role and changes in function of the entrepreneur from a historical perspective to the present day (Bikse & Riemere, 2013), as well as European Commission guidelines on the development of basic competences (Key Competences for Lifelong Learning — A European Reference Framework - http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN), including social competence for all people, starting from childhood and continuing throughout their whole life.

In the recommendations of the European Parliament and the Council (EC, 2006) an expanded definition of social competence was given; it was also determined what knowledge should be acquired, and what skills and attitudes should be developed.

According to the Key Competence Framework, social and civic competences “include personal, interpersonal and intercultural competence and cover all forms of behaviour that equip individuals to participate in an effective and constructive way in social and working life, and particularly in increasingly diverse societies, and to resolve conflict where necessary.

Social competences are most closely associated with entrepreneurial competences. In that context, entrepreneurial competence includes two main elements: an individual’s personal qualities and attitudes, and formal knowledge and skills concerning what must be done to establish a new enterprise and how to be successful in developing an idea into a practical, goal-oriented enterprise.

As regards personal qualities of the individual, the ones which are important to develop are: management competence, social competence, personal fields of competence, and entrepreneurial qualities.
Joining the two concepts (entrepreneurship and competence) gave rise to the researchers’ concerns in different perspectives. In Kiggundy’s (2002) vision, entrepreneurial competences give a realistic picture of the know-how required for leading a company, perhaps more than studies at the large organisational level. Bird (1995) views entrepreneurial competences as the mechanism by which a company’s potential success can be improved. One perspective is to study which competences are necessary for being an entrepreneur or practicing entrepreneurship (creating a company). Another perspective looks at entrepreneurship as a competence field for top and successful managers, as a form of competence determining valuable management for the companies where they work.

A recent perspective considers entrepreneurship either as behaviour or independent competence (Mitchelmore and Rowley, 2010). Moreover, this vision is also supported by the European Commission’s inclusion of entrepreneurship as key competences that a person must possess to have a successful life in the knowledge-based economy.
The entrepreneurship competence is also present in the EQF, a proposal of eight key competences necessary for a person to live a successful life in the knowledge-economy era (Bjornavold and Coles, 2008; Young, 2008). These competences are: mother tongue communication, communication in another language, basic skills in mathematics, science and technology, digital competence, learning to learn, interpersonal and civic competences, entrepreneurship, and cultural expression (Directorate-General for Education and Culture, 2007).

Few competence studies exist, and those that do are mainly based on entrepreneurial and commercial thought (quantitative and qualitative), they provide a first step toward defining competences related to social entrepreneurship. This is probably due to the idea expressed by Thompson (2002) that the set of competences necessary for commercial and social entrepreneurs are similar, but issues such as social mission, the availability of funds from external donors and previous experience and tacit knowledge create a basis for distinction between the two entrepreneurial types. An example is a 2011 study of Austrian social entrepreneurs (Hamzei, 2011), which determined that opportunity, strategic, conceptual, organisational, networking, engagement, fundraising, mentoring and ethical competences are key competences for social entrepreneurs managing successful organisations (social ventures), especially for the survival of the organisation.

In the past few years, there has been an exponential increase in social entrepreneurship classes at universities, to teach not only how to create business plans for social ventures, but also to teach the key mindsets and skill sets that help make successful social entrepreneurs such as: **1. Leadership.** These people take initiative and action to solve problems (rather than complaining about what’s wrong). **2. Optimism.** These people are confident that they can achieve a bold vision, even when many other people doubt them. They have a strong sense of self-efficacy and a belief that they have control to change their circumstances. **3. Grit.** This is a combination of
perseverance, passion, and hard work—the relentless drive to achieve goals, complete commitment to achieving their task. 4. Resilience in the face of adversities, obstacles, challenges, and failures. When things fall apart, these people rise to the occasion. They see failures as valuable feedback. 5. Creativity and innovation. They see new possibilities and think in unconventional ways. They see connections and patterns where few other people would imagine. 6. Empathy. These people are able to put themselves in the shoes of others, and imagine perspectives other than their own; this is one of the most valuable qualities for understanding the needs of others whom they serve. 7. Emotional and social intelligence. These people are excellent at connecting with others and building strong relationships.

In conclusion we can affirm that Social entrepreneurship stands out as an alternative model of entrepreneurship by providing an innovative means of civic engagement and participation, i.e. entering the public sphere and the labour market at the same time. The importance of this competence is growing, and the variety of courses and curricula across the world are helping to train the next generation of social entrepreneurs, innovators, and problem solvers for the 21st century.

It is essential to develop and encourage social entrepreneurship as a way to develop new answers to current social and ecological challenges. Social enterprise is used to refer to a different way of doing business, which occurs when enterprises are created specifically to pursue social goals (i.e. foundations, mutuals, cooperatives, associations). Today social entrepreneurship and the social economy are still largely absent from the classrooms. This means that these companies have more difficulties in finding staff and managers with the necessary mindsets, skills and competences than conventional businesses do. Furthermore, young people are generally much more keen in developing social projects and it thus represents a great opportunity for them to acquire entrepreneurship competences. Social entrepreneurship should be inserted within entrepreneurship education activities.
in schools, universities, vocational education and training and in non-formal education.

Social enterprises bring the self-sufficiency of for-profit businesses and the incentives of market forces to bear on global social problems in a way that neither pure capitalism nor pure charity has been able to match.

There is a great deal of interest in social enterprise today because this approach offers a new — and possibly more sustainable — path for us to address the world’s most pressing challenges.

2. What is social entrepreneurship competence?

Many definitions have been given of social entrepreneurship, such as: a business model whose main goal is to respond to social issues combining creativity and innovation using profit for community benefit; a business where the real profit is in the community; an initiative/action which is mainly focused on bringing benefits on social, economic and/or environmental levels; a versatile sustainable business model involving a democratic decision-making process that is based on an innovative cross-sectorial approach to a given set of problems in a community, and that has a potential to inspire people and to be further multiplied/developed.

First of all, we should distinguish social entrepreneurship and commercial entrepreneurship: is it the same, or is it different? Despite attempts to isolate the concept of social entrepreneurship, research until now has shown that it shares many characteristics with commercial entrepreneurship: the entrepreneurs have the same focus on vision and opportunity and the same ability to convince and empower others to help them turn their ideas into reality (Catford, 1998).

The nature of the vision creates grounds for differentiation, as Nicholls (2008, p. 20) points out: “social entrepreneurs usually have a vision of something that they would like to
solve in the social sector or a socio-moral motivation in their entrepreneurial focus and ambition point”. Along the same line, social entrepreneurs’ acts will always be linked to an objective of social value creation (Austin et al., 2006), as well as change agents (Ney et al., 2014). Social and commercial entrepreneurs share behaviours: the ability to detect opportunities, proactive behavior toward survival, growth and serving the market (Mort et al., 2003; Mort, 2006) and a willingness to bear risk. However, they exhibit a key difference in terms of motivation to engage in social activities: social entrepreneurs demonstrate a socio-moral motivation for their entrepreneurial initiatives.

Boschee and McClurg (2003) identified two important ways in which a social entrepreneur differs from a traditional entrepreneur:

1. social entrepreneurs are driven by a double bottom line, a virtual blend of financial and social returns
2. profits are reinvested in the social mission.

As we can see, entrepreneurship is a multidimensional discipline with a broad definition and with roots ranging from psychology and sociology to economics and strategic management (Mitchell et al., 2002). Concepts that have been identified with entrepreneurship include risk, opportunity and innovation.

The European Commission defines a social enterprise as “an operator in the social economy, whose main objective is to have a social impact rather than make a profit for their owners or shareholders. It operates by providing goods and services for the market in an entrepreneurial and innovative fashion and profits are used primarily to achieve social objectives. It is managed in an open and responsible manner and, in particular, involves employees, consumers and stakeholders.”

The set of competences necessary for commercial and social entrepreneurs are similar, but issues such as social mission, the availability of funds from external donors and previous experience and tacit knowledge create a basis for distinction between the two entrepreneurial types.
Having all this for consideration, we can see the competence framework put forward by Le Deist and Winterton (2005):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Competence</td>
<td>Theoretical and practical knowledge</td>
<td>Identifying opportunities for personal, professional or business activity development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional Competence</td>
<td>Skills, knowing how to do something</td>
<td>• Planning, organization, analysis, communication, implementation, debriefing, assessment and registration.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Development skills and project implementation.</td>
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<td>• Working in cooperation and flexibility as part of a team.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Identifying a person’s strengths and weaknesses.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Displaying proactive behavior and change appropriate response.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Risk assessment and risk taking as if they were guaranteed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Competence</td>
<td>Behaviour and attitudes, knowing how to behave</td>
<td>• Willingness to show initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Positive attitude towards change and innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Willingness to identify areas that demonstrate the full range of entrepreneurial skills (e.g., at home, at work and in the community)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 1. The elements of social entrepreneurship competence

Le Deist and Winterton (2005) proposed a multidimensional view on competence as a construct that holds both the personal and the individual parts of a person and cannot be separated: functional competence, cognitive competence and social competence.

In the DARE+ project it was agreed to define SE competence as: “the competency to respond to social challenges and create opportunities by undertaking innovative and sustainable projects in collaboration with others.” And the Competence Indicators and its elements prioritized in DARE+ project (see table 2, below in section 4 of this chapter) are:

1. **Awareness of social challenges and proactive approaches**: First of all, it is important that the future entrepreneur is aware of the social context he/she lives in: the challenges and opportunities. He should be able to detect problems and challenges to be able to propose a proactive approach.

2. **Inspiring others to take part in projects with social impact. Finding resources**: A second step is to meet and inspire people with similar mentalities to think and create a project. It is also very important to find human, material and economic resources.

3. **Undertaking ambitious (complex and challenging) projects that respond to social challenges**: Now is the moment to put the ideas into practice and to start a pilot project, acknowledging the positive and negative aspects of the experience, and adjusting to go ahead beyond the limits of failure and criticism.

4. **Application of management skills (financial, personal, organizational...) to guarantee the sustainability of the project**: At this point, the entrepreneur should know what financial, personal and organizational elements are required for the sustainability of the project, so that he/she can identify procurement sources for the necessary elements, along with being able to organize and monitor the three aspects in a way that promises to bring the project to the desired aim and profitability.
3. Why non-formal?

It is essential to take into consideration non-formal and informal learning as privileged environments to acquire entrepreneurship competences. Entrepreneurship mind-sets are mostly about “know-how” rather than academic knowledge. The “Study on the impact on non-formal education in youth organisations on young people’s employability” (https://issuu.com/yomag/docs/report-nfe_print, authored by the University of Bath/GHK consulting for the European Youth Forum found that 5 out of the 6 most demanded skills in the labour market are those developed in youth organisations. Furthermore, there is sometimes a gap between formal and non-formal education. An involvement in voluntary activities should particularly be acknowledged and encouraged by educational institutions. Indeed, volunteering enables individuals to gain or develop entrepreneurial competences such as teamwork, personal confidence, motivating oneself and others, etc. These experiences and the development of these competences are seldom acknowledged. On the other hand, the support and development of partnerships and cross-sectorial cooperation brings us to the idea that partnerships should not only be foreseen between formal education and businesses but also with other stakeholders such as civil society or regional and local authorities, that are also high quality learning providers and are often much more advanced than education systems when it comes to entrepreneurship competences. Both parties can benefit from transectorial collaboration (“entrepreneurial ecosystems”). Yet communication is lacking between the world of education and business; the way education actors see their business peers has to be improved, while more incentives are needed to convince businesses to get involved in education and training.

Non-formal education and learning also has an important role to play in responding to youth unemployment. This is because it supports development by helping to transform young peoples’ potential, creativity, talents, initiative and social responsibility, through the acquisition of related knowledge,
skills, attitudes and values. It is often community-based and outside of formal institutional contexts. These include teamwork, communication, leadership, flexibility and responsiveness. The social entrepreneurship competences also include creativity and innovation, which involve defining problems, coming up with ways of dealing with them, and sticking to a chosen course of action. In this way youth work contributes to closing the gap between the competences acquired by young people and the needs of the labour market.

Increasing awareness of entrepreneurship as a career option and developing a set of knowledge, skills and attitudes that are conducive to entrepreneurial behavior, has been identified by the European Union (2012, p. 12) as an important goal. Young people need support, however, to be in a position to consider self-employment and entrepreneurship as viable options. This includes the simplification of administrative procedures, the provision of information about social security systems, and better access to business incubators. It involves the integration of entrepreneurship in education (formal and non-formal) from an early stage, involving youth organizations in developing these education programmers. Crucially, and particularly for disadvantaged young people, it requires support from highly skilled and knowledgeable non-formal education workers, and especially youth workers who need to be able to:

- Engage with and communicate with young people in an open, friendly and business-like way.
- Energize and stimulate creative and innovative capacities in young people, and provide a sense of direction.
- Enable young people to think critically, to express their desires, to formulate goals, and to see through commitments. Have the competence to act as mentors, advisors and role models.
- Be equally at home in youth centers or outreach settings, as well as with formal education or the world of work. Possess the know-how to make links between informal and formal education and also to business and enterprise.
So to summarize, we can affirm that the non-formal education, defined as any organized, systematic educational activity, and carried on outside the framework of the formal system, complements the formal education. This needs to be developed through carrying out initiatives outside the classroom, because students need to know and study the reality of life as well, which is outside the classroom, and this cannot be left to informal learning only – learning which is not organized by any educator.

The European Youth Pact (http://pjpeu.coe.int/documents/1017981/3084919) reaffirmed the focus on the recognition of non-formal learning, which has again been confirmed and underlined in the renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field -2010-2018- (http://pjp-eu.coe.int/documents/1017981/3084919/doc1648_en.pdf): “As a complement to formal education, non-formal learning for young people should be promoted and recognised, and better links between formal education and non-formal learning developed.”

Embedded in this policy framework, two key instruments were developed to facilitate the validation and recognition of skills and competencies acquired through non-formal learning. The European Union launched Youthpass, and the Council of Europe introduced the European Portfolio for youth leaders and youth workers. Both tools are meant to support users in identifying, describing and assessing competencies and as such intend to contribute to the recognition of non-formal education and learning.

4. What exactly can be done?

An almost infinite number of things can be done to develop Social Entrepreneurship Competence among the students and young people, in the formal as well as in the non-formal context. A few ideas may be:
1. To read and adapt some of the good practices described in the first part of this publication. The chapter “A Workshop in Social Entrepreneurship - Entrepreneurs to Change the World” provides a detailed description of a workshop on Social Entrepreneurship, with each activity described in detail. The activities suggested can be adapted, changed, or serve as an inspiration for other activities and good practices.

3. There are an enormous amount of written and visual resources for anyone interested in helping others develop their Social Entrepreneurship Competence. The few references mentioned below in the Bibliography may open a door of infinite possibilities to explore further.

3. Start by doing: organize a simple workshop asking the young people to think first in terms of the social challenges around them, and secondly, in terms of the possibilities to respond to those challenges, and improve their local context, their country, the world.

4. Search for a Test of Social Entrepreneur (there are many in the web), so each person can realize of his/her hidden capabilities to be developed...

5. Etc.

5. Monitoring development, levels of development

The following table was created within the framework of the DARE+ project with the objective of supporting competence development in a non-formal context as a compliment to other possible activities in the formal context (university classroom).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence indicator</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Awareness of social challenges and proactive approaches</td>
<td>Has a basic sense of social challenges: observes reality and identifies challenges</td>
<td>Sees opportunities for action and possible approaches; weighing the risks and potentials</td>
<td>Has the capacity and self-esteem to take decisions with inclusion of risks. Develops a plan of actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiring others to take part in projects with social impact</td>
<td>Shares knowledge and discusses visions with possible partners</td>
<td>Engages individuals and groups to participate in the social initiative. Identifies necessary resources.</td>
<td>Develops a business plan to move towards the shared vision. Procures the necessary resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undertaking ambitious (complex and challenging) projects that respond to social challenges</td>
<td>Starts a pilot project</td>
<td>Considers positive and negative feedback from the pilot, demonstrates flexibility necessary to adjust the project to build on its strengths</td>
<td>Develops complex projects and networks to replicate the pilot experience, and is able to turn criticism and failure into success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application of management skills (financial, personal, organizational...) to guarantee the sustainability of the project</td>
<td>Knows what financial, personal and organizational elements are required for the sustainability of the project</td>
<td>Can identify procurement sources for the necessary elements</td>
<td>Can organize and monitor the three aspects in a way that promises to bring the project to the desired aim and profitability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Rubric of the “social entrepreneurship” competence developed by DARE+ project team
This table was piloted with students in a non-formal context and it was used as part of self-assessment tool before and after a period of learning activities.

6. Accreditation and Recognition

Entrepreneurship is crucial for economic recovery, growth, job creation, employment, inclusion, poverty reduction, and also innovation and productivity. As such, it has become a policy priority in Europe and the European Union and Member States are taking measures to incorporate entrepreneurship into different policy fields. The Entrepreneurship competence, defined as “sense of initiative and entrepreneurship”, is recognized by the European Union as one of the eight key competences for lifelong learning, and thus necessary for all members of a knowledge-based society. **Entrepreneurship as a competence** is being progressively incorporated into school and vocational training curricula and efforts are being made to create frameworks and tools to operationalize entrepreneurship, among other transversal skills, in education, training and youth fields.

According to the European Civil Society Platform on Lifelong Learning (EUCIS-LLL), there is a need to promote the validation of learning outcomes gained in non-formal learning and youth work in a vocabulary that is understandable to educators and employers. A link to the European Qualifications Framework is needed. It will be important to develop, provide and make the most of existing user-friendly, accessible tools (for example Youthpass, Europass) that can enhance the ability of non-formal education workers and youth in general to offer activities that promote innovation and creativity in young people, and make young people aware of the skills gained through participation in such activities.

Adopting a broader definition and goal of entrepreneurship mind-sets, mainstreaming entrepreneurship education in curricula, bridging different learning settings, and fostering
cooperation between stakeholders cannot be achieved without consistent reforms at national and EU levels. As much as the best grassroots practices can lead to bottom-up innovation and change, policy-makers from education and employment also have to enter into a transectorial dialogue in order to **provide the right conditions for a paradigm shift in entrepreneurship education**: providing spaces for dialogue and exchange of experience, adequate financial support, leading research, coordinate policies, raising awareness, etc.

*The Entrepreneurship Action Plan and the Communication on Rethinking Education* (EU, 2012), asks Member States to ensure that all young people have a concrete entrepreneurial experience before leaving education. With a stronger focus on entrepreneurship, youth work can play a greater role in connecting young people with the local community, including social enterprises and businesses, thus enhancing their opportunities to find a job, or to start their own project. Once more, the importance of developing the creative and innovative potential of young people through non-formal learning in ways that are relevant to employability cannot be ignored.

As the *Expert Group* affirmed, there is a need to recognize and value non-formal learning in a creative and innovative way, raising the visibility of skills acquired outside the formal system and fostering complementarity between non-formal and formal learning, while at the same time promoting equal opportunities (*Rethinking Education*, 20.11.2012, COM (2012) 669).

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1. Rationale

Project Development and Management is probably one of the most relevant competences in the workplace today. While in the past most project-based initiatives were undertaken by the construction and defence industries (IPMA, 2006), our society has seen a progressive and unambiguous “projectification” of most if not all sectors in recent years (Castells, 1998). There are at least four main reasons for this. The first is the increasing decentralization in the way organizations get their work done. The rise of information and communication technologies and decreased shipping and travel costs enable people to work together even remotely, not bound by the physical proximity of the same workplace (McKinsey and Co, 2012). This allows organizations to pick and choose the best people for a particular job, even when these are based in different locations, and often employ them on a temporary or contractual basis. This is the case with companies that hire consulting firms to receive recommendations on a specific issue, or that outsource a particular function of a business initiative to specialized firms. This also applies to social sector organizations that partner with local institutions for specific developmental initiatives in developing countries. Since projects have a particular aim and are time-constrained, they allow for the flexibility to select collaborators according to need.

A second reason is linked to the increasingly widespread culture of productivity. Common features of projects, such as fast delivery, business metrics, data analysis, or standardization
and streamlining of processes are appreciated because they reduce costs and make companies more efficient (PMI, 2010).

A third reason is connected to the measurability of work outcomes. Since most traditional project methodologies require a clear identification of objectives, as well as resources necessary to reach those objectives, projects are predominant means to push forward certain initiatives in a focused, efficient and synergetic manner even inside organizational boundaries (The Economist, 2005). For instance, it is common to review the extent to which goals have been reached during the phase of closure of a project, in order to define the “success or failure” of the initiative (PMI, 2010). In business, performance reviews and variable compensation are often linked to delivering the numbers, a crucial component of project evaluation. In the social sector, it is increasingly common for large transnational bodies to provide funding to smaller charitable organizations for project-based initiatives, to increase transparency of where the money goes, and be better able to measure social impact. A fourth reason is linked to a need for greater responsiveness. In the private sector, increased competitiveness due to more global actors competing for scarce resources is pushing businesses to respond to market changes quicker than ever before. There is no basis any longer for multi-year implementation plans to enact a strategy - short-term projects are a better fit to hit moving targets, by delivering their own meaningful impact right away (HBR, 2015). For different reasons, this is also true for public sector actors: public opinion expects governments, NGO’s, and international organizations to quickly respond to emergencies and crises around the globe, such as in the case of disaster relief projects.

The project-based approach is relevant for young people in particular. More competitive labour markets push students in secondary and tertiary education to get involved in extra-curricular activities to complement their formal university education, when it does not contain (a) work placement(s). Among these activities, summer internships/placements and
volunteering experiences are very popular and often take a project-based form since this allows students to jump on board with an organization’s real-life challenges for a limited period of time (EC, 2013, 2015). In this regard, projects can be platforms for young people to take ownership of their work while still contributing to the mission of the organization they are working for. Projects can also be opportunities to expose oneself to new situations, such as traveling abroad, meeting new people and sharing ideas, which can all lead to self-growth. By getting involved in projects, young people also gain important transversal or general competences, such as oral and written communication, teamwork and leadership – all DARE+ competences – as well as boosting self-confidence and self-efficacy (IPMA, 2006). Of course, they will also gain specific project related competences as well as a good understanding of issues confronted by the project itself, which can often shed light on personal career ambitions.

Universities seem to favour the project approach as well. Hands-on projects, such as building a website, launching a social entrepreneurship venture, or conducting interviews with professionals in one’s own field of study, can provide students additional learning opportunities in a non-formal or informal setting, complementing in-classroom learning, thus enriching curricula. Moreover, universities themselves, collaborating in partnership to achieve a specific aim or aims may use the project format in order to have an impact in the wider society and beyond their institutions’ boundaries. With all the partner institutions across the different European countries, our DARE+ project exemplifies this well.

At the European level, one of the two main aims of the EU youth strategy for 2010-2018 is to “encourage young people to actively participate in society” (EC, 2016). One of the approaches to achieve this objective is through specific initiatives “targeted at young people to encourage non-formal learning, participation, voluntary activities, youth work, mobility and information” (EC, 2016). By their nature, projects drive young
people to be proactive, participatory and mobile, often taking place in work or voluntary contexts, and favouring non-formal or informal learning. Also, the increasing diversification of European communities makes projects of greater interest due to the different perspectives that can emerge from multicultural settings, and might even reinforce the continent’s integration effort among its youth.

Given the clear relevance of projects, it follows that being able to properly manage a project is very valuable in today’s world. The EU-funded survey “PROVE: Improving Quality Assurance of EU-Project Management in VET sector” confirms this. Targeting 665 professionals involved in the management of EU-funded projects from 35 different countries, 84% acknowledge the importance of using project management methods and two-thirds agree with the importance of certified training for successfully managing EU projects (Leonardo Prove, 2014). Therefore, it was decided to include ‘project development and management’ in the set of DARE+ generic competences, with the aim of empowering university students both at a personal and professional level.

2. Framework

In the context of DARE+, the competence of project development and management (from now on, PDM) has been defined as “the ability to identify a need, analyze and define context and resources, and to design, develop, implement and enhance the action idea(s) with the aim of producing appropriate and feasible response(s)”. This definition, as well as competence indicators and levels that will be presented later in this chapter, have been developed by considering several definitions, theoretical paradigms and competence components from the PDM literature as well as from the experience of the project partners. The most important theoretical aspects of the competence will be presented here. For the sake of clarity, we
consider “development” and “management” complementary terms that, together, indicate the conception, creation, implementation and control of a project itself.

The first step to understand a definition of PDM is to obtain clarity about what is meant by a project. In this respect a distinction should be made between the concepts of ‘operations’ and ‘projects’, which share some features: they are both performed by people, are subject to constrained resources and are planned, executed and controlled (PMBOK, 2000). However, a project has three main distinguishing characteristics: it is temporary, meaning it has a clear beginning and a clear end; it is unique, meaning that the output of the project will be different from any other output produced; and it requires progressive elaboration – this means that since the characteristics of the output are unique these will be broadly defined early in the project and will be made clearer only at a later stage, when the team gains a better understanding of the output features (PMBOK, 2000). To give an example, creating a new website can be considered a project, but maintaining or making minor updates to it is not, since the product is already fully elaborated, no new output is produced, and maintenance work is not temporary but continuous (Meri Williams, 2008). The PMBOK guide, which relevance is explained later, defines project management as “the application of skills, tools and techniques to project activities to meet project requirements” (PMBOK, 2000). We decided to approach our definition from a more operational perspective, thus defining the phases as well as the aims of PDM.

In practice, projects are usually divided chronologically into five phases, namely initiation, requirements, planning, implementation, and closure, which define the project lifecycle (APM, 2014). These make up the backbone of PDM. The needs analysis is conducted at the start of the initiation phase – that’s because if the project is not tackling any important need, then there is no justification to start the project in the first place. As a next step the context, resources, timescales
and constraints should be identified, considered and analyzed in order to ensure that the project is feasible (APM, 2014). The design and formation of the project happen during the planning phase, when several “how” questions are answered: how the project should be organized and be carried out and by whom; how it will be monitored and controlled; and how communication will occur among stakeholders. The project must then be implemented, and finally closed: at this stage outcomes are acknowledged, and successes and failures are reviewed. This leads to an elaboration of best practices, which can then be formalized and disseminated, or leads to the development of (a) follow-up project(s) if new needs for action are identified. In our definition, this is what is meant by enhancement of ideas and actions.

It is worth noticing that some forms of PDM do not follow the structure described above. For instance, agile approaches follow an iterative process of trial and error: they implement potentially complete versions of the project, evaluate its workings, make suggestions for improvement, make a second version of the project and so on, until all project requirements are fulfilled. However, the DARE+ project focused on the more traditional PDM approach, since this intends to be applied to wider contexts.

PDM also has a series of key processes, including monitoring, control, communication and people management. These processes cut across phases and happen throughout the whole duration of the project. Monitoring includes ensuring the project is respecting budget and schedule, milestones are reached, deadlines respected, and actual results are equal to or exceed estimates. Control includes dealing with problems emerging during the project, as well as minimizing risk and maximizing opportunities. Communication should be written and verbal, formal and non-formal, and people management should ensure, among other things, that each member of the project team is motivated and receives feedback for his or her work etc. (APM, 2014).
Following from these points, let’s move on to PDM competence dimensions or components according to the literature and the experience of the partners. The PMBOK outlines some general management skills, as well as key PDM knowledge areas that should be known, understood and proficiently applied by a professional project manager.

At least some of the following general management topics – those relevant to the project at hand – should be dealt with: finance and accounting; sales and marketing, research and development, manufacturing and distribution; strategic planning, tactical planning, and operational planning; organizational behaviour and personnel administration; motivating, delegating, supervising, team building and managing conflict (PMBOK, 2000). Some sources even highlight the importance of managing oneself, as a prerequisite to effectively managing others and reaching project success. This includes personal time management, stress management, effective use of electronic communication and taking care of one’s own professional development (PMBOK, 2000; Pinnacle Projects, 2016).

In addition, some specific PDM knowledge areas should be grasped. Among these are project integration management, which ensures project coordination of different elements of the project; project scope management which defines and controls what is included in the project and what is not; project time management, which makes sure the project is completed according to schedule; project cost management, which ensures the project respects its set budget; project quality management, which guarantees that the needs for which the project was undertaken are satisfied; project human resources management which makes the most effective use of the people involved in the project; project communication management, which generates, collects, disseminates, stores and disposes of project information; project risk management, which identifies, analyses and responds to potential risks; and project procurement management, which takes care of acquiring goods and services from outside the organization (PMBOK, 2000).
There are also different approaches possible. For example, the International Project Management Association (IPMA) divides PDM competences into three types: technical, behavioural and contextual. In the technical range the competence elements described are needed to initiate and start, to manage the execution of, and to close a project; in the behavioural range, competences such as leadership, creativity and negotiation skills are presented together with descriptions of different competence levels; the contextual range, instead, introduces the concepts of project, programme and portfolio and the linkage between these concepts and the organisation or organisations that are involved in the project (IPMA, 2006). For the sake of clarity, a programme and a portfolio are sets of projects undertaken by an organisation, the former having its projects related strategically to each other and the latter not necessarily so.

Following from the skills, knowledge areas and competence analysis above, DARE+ PDM competence components and levels have been summarized in a (self-)evaluation rubric presented later in this chapter. The latter should be taken as an appropriate indicator for students intending to acquire the PDM competence at the non-professional level.

3. Non-formal contexts

The project’s acronym, “DARE+”, stands for “Developing an All-Rounded Education”. It is no surprise that all the competences selected as part of the DARE+ initiative, allow for being developed outside the classroom. The PDM competence is no exception. While project types, phases, processes, skills and knowledge areas can be learned in a formal educational setting and do provide a necessary background for PDM, this knowledge in itself is not sufficient. In fact, the PDM competence can best be developed in the non-formal context: by actually engaging in a project. Initiating a project, for example, means: setting a meeting with several stakeholders, introducing
and justifying the project in front of an audience, addressing doubts, and possibly getting to know the project team at a reception after the presentation.

Most of the competence components necessary to do this can only be learned (or improved) “by doing”: ranging from soft skills like making eye contact while answering a team member’s question, to hard skills like creating a compelling and dynamic PowerPoint presentation. In addition, by exposing oneself to more PDM opportunities, one not only becomes more effective in the various competence’s dimensions but also acquires a certain “automatism” that allows one to dedicate more time to those key areas or behaviours that really ensure project success. Not only that: project experience also means facing all those ambiguous situations that lectures or books cannot teach. Finally, competences relevant in the context of PDM can also be acquired through activities that provide for the development of transferrable skills. For instance, competences like team-building, creative problem solving, or time management can all be developed in non-formal or informal settings, such as sports teams, student organisations or by volunteering.

Formal and non-formal learning environments are, however, very complementary in relation to PDM. Formal settings provide the theoretical grounding, frameworks, tools, techniques and case studies that can better help the hands-on approach to PDM favoured in non-formal environments. The formal context is particularly important for those students who intend to choose PDM as a profession, or who want to manage a sophisticated project with several team members. Here the high levels of complexity require more than just common sense to properly manage the project. Moreover, those who want to become project managers might need formal learning and accreditation to be recognized as such on the labour market. Some examples of formal learning in the context of PDM include: recognized courses offered by certifying organizations (see section 4); briefer conference style seminars; online PDM courses that provide action guidelines on how to structure a
project; and individual evaluation rubrics provided to students to track progress on their PDM competences if these lead to competency certification.

4. Learning Process

Many things can be done to develop PDM competences. While ample material and countless courses exist both online and offline, some recognized sources which offer a good basis, are:

“A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge” (PMBOK Guide): this guide, published by the Project Management Institute (PMI) has the purpose of identifying and describing the subset of the PMBOK that is generally accepted. This includes an introduction detailing what a project and project management are, and explains the relationship between project management and other management disciplines; the project management context describing project phases, the project lifecycle, project stakeholders, organizational and socio-economic-environmental influences to project management, and key general management skills necessary for the job; project management processes; and project management knowledge areas. While this is a guide designed for professional project managers, it is rather useful at the non-professional level.

“IPMA Competence Baseline (ICB)”: this guide presents 46 elements to describe the competences of a project manager. These are divided into three competence ranges, the technical, behavioral and contextual ranges.

“International Organization for Standardization (ISO) Guidance on Project Management”: this guide provides high-level descriptions of concepts and processes that are considered good practice in project management.

Official courses and certification through the Project Management Institute (PMI), the International Project Management Association (IPMA) or the APMG International. More information on these providers is offered in the last section of this chapter.
Educators can help students in developing the PDM competency by providing and guiding them through the above resources. However, while these resources provide a very good starting point, not every student will have the opportunity to engage in PDM competence building in such a comprehensive way. Where should students interested in PDM as non-professionals then start from? Our recommendation is to start from an area that the student is passionate about, and explore the opportunities that area has to offer. For example, if one is interested in international development, he or she can research the numerous volunteering projects abroad that are available online and offline: a first step could be taking part in one as a simple volunteer, and after having gained some field experience, applying for a position as (assistant) project manager. This will allow the student to get to know more about his or her area of interest, see first-hand how projects in that area are handled, as well as to get acquainted with project processes, methodologies, and common obstacles. It’s important to remember that in the end projects are mainly tools to get something done; they are bridges to achieving a particular objective. That is why students should start by identifying a goal they believe in, and then learn how to develop and manage a project while reaching that goal. Thus, another way educators can help their students to develop their PDM skills, is to actively encourage them to acquire experience in a field of interest and incite them to apply and take part in the development and management of a particular project in that field.

In light of the DARE+ project, concrete steps have been taken to describe and apply PDM competences through international collaboration among the partners and the Intensive Programmes (IPs). Projects have been completed by individual university teams in anticipation of the IPs, and then shared with the other teams: for example, video-interviews of individuals embodying a particular DARE+ competence have been prepared throughout the year by each university group and then presented to the others during an IP. Again at the same IP,
several activities have been devised and coordinated by different teams of students, who were essentially managing some mini-projects for the day. For example, in the activity “Europe in a Room”, each student was assigned a different European state of which he or she had to represent the interests. The design, management, and execution of the exercise were handled by a team of students who were not taking part in the role-play itself but acting as organizers. Finally, some students have even structured and prepared an IP itself. For instance, an earlier IP has been fully organized by the staff and students of one partner university. Among the PDM activities involved were planning, budgeting, scheduling and running the weeklong event.

5. Monitoring learning

As means to monitor the development of the PDM competence within the framework of the DARE+ project, the following (self-)evaluation rubric, with competence indicators and levels, has been developed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence indicator</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Needs analysis: understanding needs and gaps, causes and drivers</td>
<td>Gathers relevant data and identifies the pertinent facts</td>
<td>Identifies the deeper linkages, relationships and gaps in the data</td>
<td>Identifies the drivers of change in the situation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Creative and proactive problem solving: evaluating challenges and come up with</td>
<td>Identifies alternative solutions</td>
<td>Evaluates such solutions</td>
<td>Creates an innovative plan of action capable of gaining support</td>
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<td>innovative solutions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Resource identification and procurement: acknowledging available assets, prioritize</td>
<td>Has an overview of the available and required resources</td>
<td>Constructs a hierarchy of resources and evaluates their relative</td>
<td>Evaluates the relative potential and impact of resources, and realizes the material support</td>
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<tr>
<td>and evaluate them, and draw them into the project</td>
<td></td>
<td>potential and impact</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project writing and reporting: understanding guidelines, responding with structured</td>
<td>Responds to a template in a clear way</td>
<td>Responds to a template in a clear way or constructs own structure</td>
<td>Responds to a template in a clear way or constructs own structure and writes with conviction and</td>
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<tr>
<td>narrative introducing novelty and convincing arguments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>originality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Time management: judging time requirements of tasks and foreseeing the relative</td>
<td>Sticks to pre-defined deadlines in the different stages of the project</td>
<td>Allots time into tasks in a structured and planned manner</td>
<td>Exercises prudent foresight on the time-weighting of important issues</td>
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<td>demands of completing elements</td>
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<tr>
<td>Budget design and control: following financial rules and taking the budget to its</td>
<td>Follows and understands the budget template accurately</td>
<td>Brings budgetary concerns and matters to the broader project debate</td>
<td>Makes effective use of budgetary measures to maximize their impact on the project</td>
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<tr>
<td>maximal impact</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competence indicator</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>People management: identifying needs and available human resources, and evaluating and mobilizing these to their maximum potential</td>
<td>Identifies the human resources needed to build the team</td>
<td>Identifies gaps and evaluates strengths and weaknesses in the available human resources, and considers possible outsourcing</td>
<td>Delegates and promotes empowerment of participants to perform to their highest potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective communication: conveying ideas in a clear, collaborative and convincing way, both internally and externally</td>
<td>Communicates in a clear and unambiguous manner, open to the views of others</td>
<td>Negotiates alternative positions and generates agreement</td>
<td>Promotes the project to third parties with conviction and passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team building: creating, coordinating, motivating and dealing with conflict within a working set-up</td>
<td>Designs and implements team building activities</td>
<td>Takes ownership of ideas and project objectives</td>
<td>Negotiates tensions and deals with conflict in an effective way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process monitoring: initiating, defining, planning, managing, executing and closing a meaningful project</td>
<td>Initiates, defines criteria, develops and produces a basic project plan, and brings the project to completion</td>
<td>Defines the scope of the work, implements and manages expectations, develops and produces a detailed project plan, and successfully brings the project to completion</td>
<td>Ensures relevance and continuing impact of the project, plans for sustainability and quality, and successfully brings the project to completion with a full final review of impact</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 1. Rubric of the “project development and management competence” developed by DARE+ project team
This rubric has been elaborated using the PDM skills, knowledge areas and competence components analyzed in the literature as well as the experience of the partners, and has been contextualized for the use of university students at the non-professional level. Note however that students who wish to embark on a professional route will also find this rubric a very useful reference. The table can be used for self and peer assessment, as well as to form one’s own developmental goals. This encourages students to become autonomous life-long learners, which can be valuable not only for increased self-knowledge but also to portray and justify one’s skills accurately when entering the job market. Educators and trainers can also use this table to monitor the competence development of their students in a more formal setting. Together with a self-evaluation diagnostic, a contrasting assessment by peers and supervisors can help students form a complete image of their own competence levels. The rubric was used both before and after periods of learning activities in our DARE+ project, to track the students’ PDM progress.

6. Certification

For those who intend to become professional project managers, the PMI, the IPMA and the APMG International provide PDM accreditation in Europe. They are especially relevant in the European context, where 76% of EU Project Managers are not certified, thus giving a real edge in the job market to those who do obtain such recognition (Leonardo Prove, 2014). These types of certifications, however, require extensive work experience as well as specialized education, and should thus mainly be pursued by students after a significant period of immersion in practice.

As far the PMI, the following certifications are offered: Project Management Professional (PMP), Program Management Professional (PgMP), Portfolio Management Professional
(PfMP), Certified Associate in Project Management (CAPM), PMI Professional in Business Analysis (PMI-PBA), PMI Agile Certified Practitioner (PMI-ACP), PMI Risk Management Professional (PMI-RMP), and PMI Scheduling Professional (PMI-SP). For further information on these certifications types and processes please consult www.pmi.org.

The IPMA offers four certification titles: Certified Project Director (IPMA Level A), Certified Senior Project Manager (IPMA Level B), Certified Project Manager (IPMA Level C) and Certified Project Management Associate (IPMA Level D). For information on how to obtain these titles, visit www.ipma.world.

The APMG International offers a variety of specialized courses and certifications, ranging from Agile Project Management to Management of Portfolios to Project Management for NGO’s. Further information can be found on http://www.apmg-international.com.

Finally, the contribution of the DARE+ project in the field of recognition relates to the development of a new tool: the DARE+ Project Portfolio, which was designed by the project participants in order to support the development of the set of competences identified for the DARE+ project. It is inspired by the European Portfolio for youth leaders and conceived as an instrument for self-assessment and reflection. This presents definitions and dimensions that have been developed in the project and has a competence framework as well as questions for reflection, personal evaluation and evidences. The tool may be validated by peers or even by academic staff. It is an attempt to move further in the recognition of the learning of competences developed in non-formal or informal contexts.
7. References


CONCLUSION
RECOGNITION OF LEARNING IN INFORMAL AND NON-FORMAL CONTEXTS: EXAMPLES AND REFLECTIONS FROM THE DARE+ EXPERIENCE

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(University of Padova)

Introduction

Over the years, the European Commission has published several documents highlighting the need of strengthening the relationships between education and learning with the world of labour, as key drivers in a society based on knowledge. By 2020 the European Union aims at reaching high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion. This generates new challenges related to economic transformations, migrations, and uncertain political situations.

Within this framework, all higher education institutions are called upon to rethink their agendas to seize the opportunities offered by cooperation with the business world (CEC, 2009) and therefore to provide students with appropriate learning outcomes for the future.

The recognition of prior learning represents an important way to connect higher education institutions (HEI) and the organisational world. Therefore HEIs are invited to develop a system to assess and recognise all forms of prior learning experiences.

In 2001 the European Commission’s document *Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality* clearly defined the importance of valuing lifelong learning wherever it is acquired. European Union Member States were asked to enable citizens to integrate and to build on learning from school, universities, training organisations, professional and voluntary work, leisure time and family activities: “All forms of learning can be identified, assessed and recognised. A comprehensive new approach to valuing learning is needed to build bridges between
different learning contexts and learning forms, and to facilitate access to individual pathways of learning” (CEC, 2001, p. 15).

More recently, the Council Recommendation on the validation of non-formal and informal learning (2012) highlighted the importance of recognising knowledge and skills acquired in formal, non-formal and informal contexts\(^1\), and it encouraged Member States to put in place national arrangements for competence validation by 2018.

The strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth calls for valuing knowledge, skills and competences, wherever acquired. This means more flexible educational pathways and appropriate services to offer individuals the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned outside formal education and training and to combine prior learning for achieving new employment and careers and/or further learning aimed at professional and personal development.

**European context**

Within the European landscape, there is a wide effort to make citizens’ skills and qualifications visible and understandable all over Europe. Among valuable examples it is worth

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1. According to the European Commission (2001, pp. 32-33), “formal learning is typically provided by an education or training institution, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and leading to certification. Formal learning is intentional from the learner’s perspective. Non-formal learning is not provided by an education or training institution and typically does not lead to certification. It is, however, structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support). Non-formal learning is intentional from the learner’s perspective. Informal learning results from daily life activities related to work, family or leisure. It is not structured (in terms of learning objectives, learning time or learning support) and typically does not lead to certification. Informal learning may be intentional but in most cases it is non-intentional (or “incidental”/random)”. 
pointing to the *Europass* tools such as the CV (a document to present skills and qualifications effectively and clearly), the European Skills Passport (a comprehensive picture of skills and qualifications), the Language Passport (self-assessment tool for language skills and qualifications), the Europass Mobility (a record of skills acquired during a learning experience in a European country), the Certificate Supplement (a description of skills acquired by holders of vocational training certificates) and Diploma Supplement (a description of skills acquired by holders of higher education degrees).

In the case of higher education institutions, the *Modernisation of Higher Education agenda* aims at increasing the number of higher education graduates, improving the quality and relevance of teaching and learning, promoting mobility of students and staff and cross-border cooperation, strengthening the “knowledge triangle”, linking education, research, and innovation and creating effective governance and funding mechanisms for higher education. Therefore the need for recognition is urgent both in terms of qualifications - in order to allow citizens to move around Countries and find job opportunities on the basis of their qualifications wherever acquired -, as well as in terms of cross-sector dialogue. The building of the “knowledge triangle” requires a common language across education and business worlds as well as cooperation to map and to make any learning explicit wherever it may occur. While learning in a study programme foresees a standard referential based on expected learning outcomes and the validation of learning outcomes achieved by students is common for the whole group of students (typically, an exam), knowledge, skills and competences acquired in personal and professional activities must follow a different process. Identification, documentation and validation of learning outcomes are different from one person to another, therefore the recognition of this prior learning requires systems responsive to individuals and a strong methodology to ensure rigour and consistency, as it will be described below.
The Bologna process also included recognition of informal and non-formal learning in the strategies developed to increase mobility and transparency: in the Bergen communiqué (2005) it was mentioned in terms of flexible pathways to access to higher education programmes and the Leuven communiqué (2009) highlights the need of principle and procedures based on learning outcomes to recognise learning wherever acquired as successful policies for lifelong learning.

Since 2004 the European Commission has tried to propose principles on identification and validation of non-formal and informal learning, in order to offer guidance and a unique framework for the implementation of Member States strategies.

In 2009 Cedefop published the European Guidelines on validation of non-formal and informal learning (updated in 2015), as a tool to clarify all elements concerning validation processes: EU Member States are called upon to build systems that allow individuals to identify, document, assess and certify all forms of learning to use it for their career and for further education and training. In recent years the visibility of this topic has increased and nowadays there are more available resources from practices for experimentation and implementation. However a lack of political commitment and a comprehensive strategy with continuous activities and monitoring seem still to remain.

Cedefop, in collaboration with European Commission and Member States is in charge of preparing a periodic European inventory on validation of non-formal and informal learning (2004, 2005, 2008, 2010, 2014), which includes reports for each country, thematic reports, case studies and a synthesis report of main findings. This represents an important tool for sharing the state-of-the art situation and the main choices for peer learning among countries, towards the development of more structured approaches rather than small projects on local basis.

In the youth field the SALTO-YOUTH Training and Cooperation (a network of eight resource centres working on European youth priority areas) supported by the European Commission, and the Council of Europe have been working on this topic
and have developed two very useful tools for recognition of non-formal and informal learning in youth work.

The first one – developed by SALTO - is the Youthpass, an instrument to document and to recognise learning outcomes (what has been done and learnt through youth projects), available for projects funded by Erasmus+ and Youth in Action programmes. This tool fosters two dimensions: on one hand, it contributes to the social recognition of youth work and to the employability and mobility of young people by giving them a recognised sort of “business card”. On the other hand, it strengthens a personal reflection on skills and knowledge acquired through experience.

The second tool – proposed by the Council of Europe – is the Youth Work Portfolio, which aims at helping young people and youth workers to become aware about their competences, wherever acquired, as well as understand strategies for better development and improvement.

The tool offers a structure for self-assessment based on a defined framework of youth work competences. Each person using the portfolio can first self-assess his/her own competences by comparing his/her experience with the specific youth work competences and more general competences indicated.

After this process, a reflective narrative is requested, where participants are asked to describe their evidence for the answers provided. This activates a self-analysis and an explication of episodes, events, experiences where the competences have been acquired and developed. Several prompts guide this autobiographical description to scaffold writers in being precise and detailed when motivating the competence and in finding appropriate evidence which demonstrate experience and competences. These usually take the form of certificates, letters from employers or stakeholder, documents, reports, etc.

The Youth Work Portfolio is an open and dynamic tool that can potentially be updated during the whole lifespan, revisiting previous self-assessments to see what has changed, and in which learning aims can be identified in the personal and professional development.
Process, tools and actors for recognising and validating informal and non-formal learning

UNESCO guidelines (2012) offer some indications for the recognition, validation and accreditation (RVA) of all forms of learning outcomes as key levers in making lifelong learning a reality with the double aim of improving individuals’ self-esteem and well-being, and therefore strengthen their labour market opportunities, as well as of creating a more permeable, flexible, inclusive and fair society. The document suggests six key points to be developed at national level in order to guarantee a fruitful and effective system of recognition validation and accreditation:

1. “Establishing RVA as a key component of a national lifelong learning strategy.
2. Developing RVA systems that are accessible to all.
3. Making RVA integral to education and training systems, by creating more flexible pathways in formal learning.
4. Creating a coordinated national structure involving all stakeholders.
5. Building the capacities of RVA personnel by investing in training for assessors, facilitators, counsellors and other practitioners which can ensure reliability and trust in RVA practices.
6. Designing sustainable funding mechanisms”.

As mentioned above, Cedefop guidelines represent an important tool for design, implement and develop practices of validation. Since each context has its own features, the document presents required choices, tools, actors, and sustainable solutions – also concerning the main issues recalled by UNESCO - that will be tailored according to specific situations.

In general, the process requires 4 steps (Cedefop, 2015, pp. 14-20):
1. Identification of knowledge, skills and competence acquired: since learning outcomes vary for each person, the guidance of a counsellor is often required in this phase, in order to help candidates in understanding and becoming aware of their own learning. Narrative and dialogical tools are often used, sometimes combined with more standardised ones for costs reduction.

2. Documentation with appropriate evidence of the learning outcomes previously identified. This phase is often supported with a portfolio, where experiences are described appropriately and related to documents and proofs which can attest individual knowledge, skills and competences. Transparency and comparability are possible thanks to the development (still ongoing) of a student centred approach and therefore common formats for the learning experiences presentation across different sectors.

3. Assessment: in this phase, individuals’ learning outcomes are compared against specific reference points and/or standards. If in formal learning assessment tools are applied across large cohorts of students, assessing non-formal and informal learning requires a unique and diverse process of assessment for everyone, therefore a combination of tools is often used, to ensure a rigorous process.

4. Certification of the learning previously identified, documented and assessed. This can be the award of a formal qualification (or part-qualification) or, in professional contexts, a licence to carry out specific tasks. This final phase must be carried out by a credible authority which confirms the achievement of individual learning outcomes against a specified standard and needs to be linked to the national qualifications systems. “Establishing validation of non-formal and informal learning as a normal route to qualifications – in parallel to the traditional route of formal education and training courses and programmes – could imply a legal right to validation. Such a right, as already found in some European countries, would
guarantee access to a qualification, but not specify the learning path on which it is based. This might take several forms and will depend on the constraints and opportunities offered by the national legal and political context” (Cedefop, 2015, p. 19).

Moreover, the guidelines also present a detail description of professional competences of practitioners and tools for recognition and validation processes.

Regarding the first aspect, each step requires well-trained practitioners.

Since the process of making implicit learning more explicit through reflective narrative process and dialogue with an expert is not spontaneous, the role of counsellors is crucial in two ways: to foster awareness and to begin a real self-empowering process with the person and to prepare appropriate documentation for validation purposes and enhance the possibility of success. The Cedefop guidelines (2015, p. 33) offer a list of key knowledge and skills for this role:

- “thorough knowledge of the validation process;
- thorough knowledge of the education system;
- capacity to rephrase learning experience into learning outcomes that can be matched with existing standards;
- understanding of the labour market;
- a list of contacts (experts) to answer specific technical questions (social partners and other sector experts).”

Other studies have investigated the counsellor’s competences (Salini, Ghisla, Bonini, 2010; Serbati, 2014) and highlighted two main dimensions: methodological competences and relational ones. In the first one, areas of actions such as “processes management”, “interaction and collaboration”, “use of tools and portfolio creation” and “merging competences with qualifications” are included. The role of the counsellor never substitutes for the candidate. The role of the counsellor is to be aware of the
aim of the process and to know the qualification framework in order to scaffold people to “return back” to themselves and to their own experience to trace trajectories and common elements, consolidating narrative lines (Savickas, 2011). In the second dimension, relational competences, areas of action such as “communication management” as well as “counselling and accompanying” are highlighted. The guiding and counselling of the counsellor consists in an asymmetric relationship with specific aims, processes, and directions; indeed, considering the context, the counsellor helps the person to proceed, using reminders and reinforcements, towards a discovery and new awareness of themselves and their possible future roles and developments.

Assessors have also a big responsibility, since they are to judge whether individuals’ learning outcomes meet required standards. They need to have both content knowledge in relation to the standards as well as methodological competences regarding assessment techniques; often different experts can be combined in a Committee to ensure that all aspects are well covered. The Cedefop guidelines (2015, p. 34) offer a list of key knowledge and skills also for this role:

- “be familiar with the validation process (validity and reliability);
- have experience in the specific field of work;
- have no personal interest in the validation outcome (to guarantee impartiality and avoid conflicts of interest);
- be familiar with different assessment methodologies;
- be able to inspire trust and to create a proper psychological setting for the candidates;
- be committed to provide feedback on the match between learning outcomes and validation standards/references (via support systems);
- be trained in assessment and validation processes and knowledgeable about quality assurance mechanisms;
- to operate according to a code of conduct.”
Managers of services as well as external observers can also influence the sustainability and quality of validation systems. It is indeed very important to guarantee rigorous procedures in the whole process, in order to enhance the credibility of validating informal and non-formal learning.

Finally, Cedefop (2015) offers a clear description of possible validation tools, both for formative and summative assessment, by distinguishing methods to extract evidence (tests and examinations, conversational methods, declarative methods, observations, simulations, evidence extracted from work) and methods for documenting and presenting evidence (such as “live evidence”, CVs, third party declarations and portfolios).

For the purpose of this chapter, a description of the portfolio will only be provided, both because it is one of the most used tool and because is the one chosen by the DARE+ partnership for the implementation of the recognition of non-formal and informal learning in the project. Being a collection of appropriate selected evidences, portfolios provide the audience with comprehensive insights into the achievements and successes of the learner. A first crucial element is the product itself which can be combined with other tools and assessment by third parties to increase validity. A second crucial element is the process promoted by portfolios which promotes self-assessment, deep reflection and focuses candidates’ attention on quality criteria and empowerment, and which is necessarily mediated by the counsellor.

Once the candidate has collected appropriate evidence and shown his/her own competences in a flexible and authentic way, these competences should be compared against the standard by experts and/or committees for summative assessment. Practical texts and interviews are often combined with the portfolio for validation purposes.
The case of DARE+ project to recognise informal and non-formal learning

In the DARE+ project, nine partners explored and experimented ways in which university students can develop generic competences thanks to integrating formal learning with experiences outside the classroom in informal and non-formal contexts.

Beginning with the building of clear and shared definitions and frameworks for the competences addressed (communication, teamwork and leadership, conflict transformation, intercultural competence, social entrepreneurship and project development), the partnership has proposed means to further improve non-formal learning initiatives to support students in the development of those competences.

As a complementary activity, it has promoted constant reflection by students, in order to become conscious of the competences acquired thanks to participating in such initiatives and, more in general, in non-formal and informal contexts.

With the aim of supporting recognition of such generic competences, the project has adopted a process and a tool to identify learning that occurs outside the classroom.

In line with the Cedefop guidelines and with several practices in the field, the portfolio has been chosen as a key instrument to support narrative reflection and the evidences seeking and collection. The structure of the process envisages 4 steps:

1. Self-assessment grid filled by each participant for each DARE+ competence against the framework of competences prepared by the project (indicators and levels of mastery)
2. Evidence based narrative of each competence and evidences seeking
3. Feedback from a peer
4. Feedback from trainer.
This portfolio has been greatly inspired by the European portfolio for youth leaders and youth workers. The DARE+ version, adapted from the original one, reproduces the structure and some of the tools for the instrument, but uses as framework the competences, indicators and descriptors produced by the project. The reason of adapting the Youth work portfolio is because it represents a validated and well-known tool and it is a very flexible instrument in which the list of functions and competences presented in the framework is interpreted as not exhaustive. Therefore the partnership decided to modify the youth competences with the generic ones mapped and proposed by the project.

The first part of the portfolio is the DARE+ “competences framework”, where definitions and indicators for each competence are defined.

The second part is the “self-assessment and reflection”, in which participants can self-evaluate their own competences in the grid (by selecting for each indicator in the rubric their own perceived level of mastery) and then reflect and present evidences on the experiences where these competences have been developed.

As in the European portfolio for youth leaders and workers, the reflective narrative part is an important element of the process because it helps students to analyse their previous experience as well as to start defining and describing their competences. Furthermore, this helps in putting together supporting materials which demonstrate experience and competences such as: certificates from courses and seminars; implemented projects; video or picture of products; letters from stakeholders reports; minutes; etc.

The prompts/questions proposed guide students through a deep reflection which begins with remembering recent and previous events to show the competence described, detailing what happened and who was involved, and, thanks to this verbalisation (Vermersch, 1994), grasping the learning from the experiences. This process avoids general descriptions, allows distancing and
ownership (awareness and mastery of each competence) as well as formalization of competences. At all levels of analysis, distancing facilitates understanding, awareness, and identification of exercised competences, particularly the learning gained from the practice described, and the understanding of emerging learning needs to be put in the personal development and learning plan.

This reflective process requires time and effort by students. Therefore, as stated above, it needs the support of a counsellor and as a result the DARE+ partnership also offered in each institution a tutor to help students in developing their portfolios.

Moreover, feedback from a peer and from a trainer represent the final step: this is designed with several aims in mind: to improve peer learning and mutual review among students, to “test” the effectiveness of the portfolio as seen by another person (which in future can be an employer or a colleague), to understand areas of improvement of the tool, and to receive external evaluation.

Conclusions and reflections on pedagogical implications

The portfolio and the overall process is being piloted by all partners as a final step of the project. The main aim is to foster identification and documentation of competences by developing awareness and self-assessment. Some institutions may be able also to implement the assessment part of the overall process of validating informal and non-formal learning by creating specific Committees for the portfolios’ assessment against the agreed framework.

The opportunity of reflecting and transforming implicit learning into knowledge transferable to new experiences and new challenges for the future leads to a process of change (Feutrie, 2000). Learning how to recognise and express competences and how to use a language that can be understood by other
stakeholders can allow better employability and better balance among different aspects of life.

New knowledge comes from a complex and holistic process involving action and reconstruction, interpretation and reflection on what has happened, especially in situations with problems to be solved and in collaboration with other people involved in the practice. According to Kolb’s (1984) learning cycle and experiential-reflective model, the concrete experience is “grasped” from the context by doing practice, generating abstract conceptualization, observation/reflection, and active experimentation. This reflection has a transformative learning value and the opportunity to make tacit knowledge explicit (Vermersch, 1994) allows people to develop awareness of competences.

The autobiographic reflective process has the transformative power (Mezirow, 1991; Taylor & Cranton, 2012) to identify and to explore real life moments or past experiences and create new connections between these, generating new coherences among previous informal and non-formal learning and new perspectives for personal and professional growth.

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As I write these words nearing the end of the Dare+ project, it seems appropriate to reflect briefly on the world we have lived in over the past three years since the project was first designed, and we first identified the priority generic competences which we felt we should help promote amongst our university graduates through an “all-round” approach to their learning experience.

Over these 30-odd months, many parts of the world, from Pakistan to Brussels or Paris, from Nice to Afghanistan, from Iraq to Ankara, have suffered atrocious terrorist attacks, with terrible and senseless loss of life. Syria and other countries are torn apart by war, the civilian population fleeing as they can, many of them losing their lives in their pursuit of the basic human right to a decent and peaceful life; others reaching a promised land, only to be met with arms, fences, walls, hostile locals and detention centres. The European Union has proved totally unable to address the situation and has left millions of refugees in deplorable conditions on its borders while national governments quibble over receiving even small numbers of them. Precisely in one of those border countries, the Turkish government has dramatically limited public, press and academic freedoms. Xenophobic campaigns and extreme right-wing ideologies have proliferated in countries across Europe. The United Kingdom has voted in a referendum to leave the European Union, which has left the country torn by constitutional doubt and an unprecedented incidence of xenophobic violence; and has forced the European Union to question its own essence, its own viability. Colombia has voted in a referendum to reject
a long sought after peace agreement between the government and the FARC. The United States has elected a president who threatens to build a wall to keep Mexican immigrants out and who denigrates women. Thousands of migrants drown trying to reach the coasts of the European Union from Turkey, from Libya, from the southern Mediterranean in general… And so it continues, constituting a grim panorama.

As academics, as universities, when we designed the Dare Plus project we recognized that we had the obligation (and also the desire) to contribute to facilitating the development of competences in our graduates which would allow them to become the critical citizens all our countries and our increasingly interdependent world need in order to address, to tackle and to attempt to resolve the enormous challenges we face today and will continue to face in the future, only some of which have been outlined above. Hence the choice of competences we identified as central to this aim: communication, teamwork and leadership, conflict resolution, intercultural competence, social entrepreneurship and project management. All six are closely related to each other, and interact to form the aware, critical and committed citizens who are destined to lead future generations in wide-ranging spheres of human activity.

Our idea was - is - to facilitate, to promote environments in which these competences may be developed outside the classroom, in a wide range of inspiring learning contexts. This publication has collected examples of how this can be done. Similarly, with a view to enabling assessment and thereafter certification of these competences, we have produced a description of how each of the competences develops, and a rubric identifying different stages in that development. And we have attempted to adapt current practice in the recognition of prior learning to the certification of these six competences.

Where next? In the course of the project, we have been reinforced in our view of the centrality of our proposals for two main reasons.
Firstly, it has become even clearer to us that the competences we identified and worked on are absolutely central to the all-round competent graduates we need to drive human and societal progress. The alleviation of all of the tragic circumstances I describe above, and the avoidance or successful management of new conflicts - whether they be at world, regional, local or personal level - will require intercultural understanding, communication, initiative and entrepreneurship, or the ability to work together in teams towards common goals.

And secondly, the presence of millions of refugees and migrants on Europe’s borders has challenged our ability to incorporate into our higher education systems even those very few who actually manage to enter and attempt to settle. A substantial percentage of the refugees are young people with higher education qualifications, halfway through their studies, or wishing to commence them. But most of them have no formal proof of those qualifications, or their prior learning even in formal institutional contexts, as documents, certificates and diplomas have been destroyed or lost in their flight, and records have been lost in the shelling and bombing of schools and universities. It behoves us to find ways of preserving this precious talent, of nurturing it further for the good of their countries of origin, for the good of their countries of asylum. And in order to do so, we need to be able to adapt our mechanisms for assessment and certification for informal and non-formal learning to this extreme situation. Beyond the originally more modest objectives of improving in general our graduates’ all-round and life-wide learning, our project team sees this as an important next step in application of our results.

On behalf of the multinational, multilingual, multicultural and multi-generational team which has carried out this project, and shared its goals and its implementation, it remains to me to hope that our experience and analysis will be of use to others, and to encourage others to join us in further work in a similar direction.
Developing Generic Competences Outside the University Classroom

What do we give credit to? What do we recognise nowadays and how? A useful book which draws attention to the increasingly-blurred borders between formal, non-formal and informal learning. Inspiration also for those educators NOT involved in the university system!
Mark Taylor, Trainer, writer and editor of Coyote and Tools for Learning online magazines

What does it take nowadays to be actually competitive in a world which runs fast and changes even faster? This book offers to higher education students various instruments to understand and develop competences even through non-formal learning, which on top of academic knowledge can contribute to their all-around growth
Enrico Marchetto, Students’ representative, Galilean School of Higher Education, University of Padova

This book is particularly interesting in the way it defines and describes how generic competences (very well presented in the second part) can be acquired at universities using various forms of non-formal learning. Many universities will probably recognize some of their activities in those described in the first 8 chapters. What I personally found very important is chapter 9, which shows how non-formal learning can become recognized in the same way as other formal learning activities. This book will be valuable to all higher education program developers.
Professor Vincent Wertz, Université Catholique de Louvain, Chair, Education Innovation Working Group, Coimbra Group of Universities

This publication highlights some of the benefits of voluntary engagement in non-formal learning. It is a thrilling thought that more universities and other actors might come to see the value of such engagement, remarkable though it might sometimes seem. I am convinced that the experiences acquired by exposing yourself to the challenges that can arise from voluntary engagement in non-formal learning will be of value for the rest of your life. It is therefore a true pleasure to see that this is gaining recognition.
Adam af Ugglas, President/First Curator of Stockholms nation, Uppsala

Very welcome, a publication that makes the learning of generic competences - so important for a sustainable society - a central concern. Competences which are still developed largely outside the class room. This requires a clear framework, crucial for recognition purposes, which is now offered to us.
Robert Wagenaar, Director International Tuning Academy