Learning mobility
and non-formal learning
in European contexts
Policies, approaches
and examples

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Introduction: learning mobility and non-formal learning

The Council of Europe (since the mid-1960s), the European Commission (since the late 1980s) and many European states and civil society organisations (in the aftermath of the Second World War) have long fostered programmes and strategies to enhance the mobility of young people.¹

The prevailing notion of such programmes is that the process of economic and political integration in Europe will indeed remain fragmentary and unstable without accompanying social and educational measures. Instead of a Europe with non-transparent bureaucratic institutions, a “Europe of Citizens” was meant to develop wherein people would get to know each other, appreciate their mutual cultural differences and, at the same time, form a European identity by saying “yes” to core European values. As such, mobility is considered important for the personal development of young people, contributing as it does to their employability and thus their social inclusion.

¹ This introduction refers partly to a text by Elisa Briga: http://youth-partnership-eu.coe.int/youth-partnership/ekcyp/BGKNGE/Mobility, accessed 30 January 2013.
These programmatic aims are increasingly confronted with the economic situations in some European countries where the unemployment rate among young people reaches nearly 50%.

But mobility is also important since it is considered to enhance intercultural competences and to contribute to the development of participation and active citizenship. In this respect, the learning dimension in mobility schemes is crucial: learning mobility in the youth field focuses on non-formal learning as a relevant part of youth work with links to informal learning as well as to formal education; it is understood as physical and organised learning mobility but does not neglect virtual mobility, which facilitates and supports physical mobility experiences.

From an institutional perspective, the Council of Europe was the first intergovernmental organisation to address the phenomenon of learning mobility at the European level; when the youth sector started opening up in the mid-1960s, youth mobility was included among its major themes. It is about an inclusive policy in the European context. It is about exercising rights to disadvantaged social groups to give equal rights to everyone independent of gender, generation, sexuality, disability, ethnic background and faith. Inclusive policy implies education, training, housing, equal resources for the disabled, immigrants and participation (democratisation). Inclusive policy is about equal rights for everyone and efforts to eliminate injustice. An inclusive policy is about social cohesion, which is a political term. It underlines the essentials for the attainment of the three core values of the Council of Europe: human rights, democracy and constitutional legality. It is a matter of how to develop and strengthen social relationships and provide access for all to educational and social programmes.

The first initiatives in this field were the European Agreement on Travel by Young Persons on Collective Passports (1961) and the European Agreement on “au pair” Placement (1969). In 1972, the European Youth Foundation (EYF) was established to provide financial support for European youth activities which serve the promotion of peace, understanding and co-operation among young people in Europe. From the mid-1980s, youth mobility became a permanent part of the agenda of the ministerial conferences and the number of texts covering specific aspects of mobility increased with the mobility of youth workers and local policies to promote mobility. In particular, in the 1990s the Council of Europe took important steps towards the promotion of youth mobility by founding the European Youth Card Association (EYCA) as well as the Solidarity Fund for Youth Mobility (now Mobility Fund by Rail for the Young and the Disadvantaged) and by adopting two recommendations, one on youth mobility, and another on the promotion of a voluntary service. Today, the most relevant political document for youth, The Future of the Council of Europe Youth Policy: AGENDA 2020, includes support for the development of youth mobility, which is also encouraged in the Committee of Ministers Recommendation on the participation of young people in local and regional life, wherein an entire article is dedicated to the role of local and regional authorities in the policy for mobility and exchanges.

Following mobility schemes for young workers in the framework of the European Social Fund in the 1960s, the European Union started at the end of the 1980s to promote youth exchanges through specific funding programmes such as Erasmus (1987) and Youth for Europe (1989). The Treaty on the European Union, signed in Maastricht in 1992, states that Community action should also be aimed at “encouraging the development of youth exchanges and of exchanges of socio-educational instructors”. Youth mobility became an asset of the EU youth policy.
due to the further development of funding programmes promoting mobility, such as the European Voluntary Service. The White Paper “A new impetus for European Youth” (2001) underlined the importance of the recognition of specific skills gained through mobility experiences, and youth mobility emerged as a transversal policy which has to be taken into consideration in other policy fields.

One of the main focuses of the youth mobility programmes was the inclusion of young people with fewer opportunities. Several important policy documents have been produced on the topic of youth mobility, including the European Quality Charter for Mobility (2006), the Council of the European Union’s Recommendation on the Mobility of Young Volunteers Across the European Union (2008), the Council’s conclusions on youth mobility (2008) and the European Commission’s Green Paper on “Promoting the learning mobility of young people” (2009). The promotion of youth mobility is also included in the Council of the European Union’s Resolution on a renewed framework of cooperation in the youth field (2010-2018). These developments paved the way to the Youth on the Move initiative as one of the seven flagship initiatives in the Europe 2020 strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth in the European Union. The strategy is the answer of the EU to the high youth unemployment rate and aims at preparing young people to face future economic challenges. The main idea behind Youth on the Move is that learning mobility is an important way for young people to enhance their development as active citizens, and strengthen their future employability both by acquiring new professional competences and developing a positive attitude towards mobility. Therefore, mobility is seen as a key instrument to prepare young people to live in the society of the future, and to be open to new ideas and opportunities.

In some chapters in this book (e.g. Cairns, Chapter II) it is underlined that attitudes towards mobility are changing due to the living conditions in some European countries. It is rather the habitus of a family than the attractiveness of European programmes which has a decisive impact on the mobility of young people. Overlapping reasons are seen in the consequences of financial crises.

What remains to be explored in this analysis are the influences upon mobility decision making, including migration to other countries. The most obvious answer is the neoclassical economic explanation: young people move to pursue better career opportunities and/or to escape what may be difficult financial circumstances at home.

On the other hand, findings from other research on the mobility of students and young apprentices consistently show the following outcomes:

- increase of self-confidence and enhancement of social competences;
- gaining intercultural competences;
- improvement of foreign-language skills;
- sustainable significance of the mobility experience for personal development.

The debate on youth mobility goes on and encompasses related policy fields, particularly employment and education. There are obvious links among these different sectors, but the youth sector also claims its own specificity and identity. Obviously, there is no clear common understanding as to what is considered youth work in the European countries. Nevertheless, we need a common basis, especially in the field of youth mobility. Therefore, we stress the importance of linking the rationale

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and the spirit of the Declaration of the 1st European Youth Work Convention\(^3\) with youth mobility activities.

Youth work is defined in the Council of the European Union’s Resolution on a renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field (2010-2018) as:

> a broad term covering a large scope of activities of a social, cultural, educational or political nature both by, with and for young people. Increasingly, such activities also include sports and services for young people. Youth work belongs to the area of “out-of-school” education as well as specific leisure time activities, managed by professional or voluntary youth workers and youth leaders and is based on non-formal learning processes and on voluntary participation.

The following questions are embedded in this discussion: how to validate and recognise the skills and competences acquired through non-formal learning, and how to assess the impact that mobility schemes have on young people’s personal development, as well as the added value of fostering civil society structures and democracy. It is not an easy exercise to provide answers to these questions, which is why cooperation with researchers and experts from practice and politics is crucial.

To gain a better understanding and knowledge on the topic several events have been held in the past, among them the conference Framework, Quality, and Impact of Young Europeans’ Learning Mobility in May 2011 at the European Youth Centre of the Council of Europe in Budapest. It aimed at taking stock of current debates and research findings on the learning mobility of young people, exchanging insights into quality factors and programme formats that contribute to the desirable impact of learning mobility schemes for young people, and identifying common interests, resources and interfaces as a basis for collaboration projects, studies and further exchanges within a European network of experts.\(^4\) The conference proved that despite the existence of a certain amount of research there is still a lack of knowledge and understanding. More efforts are needed to close this gap.

Another important result of the conference was the suggestion to implement a European Platform on Learning Mobility (EPLM) in the youth field, as an actor independent of existing institutional actors. The aim of such a platform is to facilitate a sustainable exchange between policy makers, researchers, practitioners, institutions and organisations involved in the youth sector. The continuous cooperation of these parties is seen as providing added value to the further development, visibility and recognition of learning mobility in the youth field. The platform is seen as an independent interdisciplinary network co-ordinated by a steering group in which researchers, policy makers and practitioners are working together in order to improve the quality of mobility and its effects on young people’s lives. The 1st European Platform conference in March 2013 in Berlin may be considered a milestone and a concrete result of this initiative.

In this context, this book, titled *Learning mobility and non-formal learning in European contexts – Policies, approaches and examples* and published as part of

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a series of youth knowledge books under the EU/Council of Europe youth partnership, aims at contributing to better knowledge and understanding of the subject. The structure of the book corresponds to different dimensions in the youth field which are of fundamental importance.

In Section I, the authors will provide readers with an insight into historical developments, the political framework of youth mobility and achievements. Section II will draw on concepts and approaches concerning mobility and learning and shows, together with a European literature review on learning mobility, remarkable evidence concerning the high productivity of related research in this field.

To learn from others, to transfer knowledge, and to offer access to experiences, these are crucial elements in this context. Therefore, Section III refers to and offers good practice examples and project reports.

All chapters are written by experts in the field of youth mobility. The particular value of this book is that academics, researchers, political stakeholders, policy makers and practitioners have put together their knowledge and experience. The book intends to contribute to dialogue and co-operation among relevant players and to the discussion on the further development and purpose of youth mobility schemes in terms of outcomes for young people.

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Developments and political framework
Learning mobility in the youth field: starting to set a framework

Introduction

The association between education and mobility is not a new phenomenon. Goethe, for instance, wrote in Wilhelm Meisters Lehrjahre: “die beste Bildung findet ein gescheiter Mensch auf Reisen”5 (Goethe 1795/96). Moreover, journeyman years, in the form of Wanderjahre in Germany as well as the French Compagnonnage and its Tour de France, were popular practices among craftsmen especially in continental Europe from the late Middle Ages to the 19th century. Despite their disappearance with industrialisation, these practices represent an important root of the institutionalisation of youth in society. Considered thus they are similar to other mobility roles, such as mercenaries, migrant students or domestic workers who have left their home country to work abroad. All the examples mentioned are interesting because they relate not only to the upper classes, but provide a moratorium between childhood and adulthood also to young people from more rural or working class backgrounds. In the United States, migrant workers became a phenomenon in the 19th century after

5. “An intelligent person gets the best education while travelling.”
the civil war; they were mainly former soldiers looking for a temporary job. Social science research on homeless workers started in the US with Nels Anderson’s book on hobos, published by the University of Chicago Press in 1923. Raffaele Rauty notes that Anderson, a “paradoxical figure of Chicago sociology” who was once himself a hobo, frightened the parents of students who took lectures with him (Rauty 1998).

After the Second World War, attitudes towards mobility changed. Mobility evolved from a marginal to a central moment in society, and became important for young people. Moreover, icons of mobility, such as the Vespa, the Solex or the 2CV became generational markers. Matter-of-fact means of transport gained an abstract signification, as they stood for youth freedom or even youth rebellion. With Jack Kerouac, “being on the road” became an expression of the so-called “beat generation” of the 1950s (Kerouac 1998). From then on being a novelist implied being an adventurous traveller. The road travelled became the equivalent of life itself: “Our battered suitcases were piled on the sidewalk again; we had longer ways to go. But no matter, the road is life.” (Kerouac 1998)

For philosophers and social scientists mobility expressed a new state of mind in a more open and fragmented world (e.g. Berg and Milmeister 2009). In parallel to this evolution in social thinking, mobility was rediscovered as a means of education. It was used notably in the context of new settings, transgressing the narrow objectives of formal education and promoting ideas such as European citizenship, intercultural understanding and peace. New international actors emerged, for instance the Franco-German Youth Office created in the aftermath of the Elysée Treaty signed by Charles de Gaulle and Konrad Adenauer in 1963. The aims of the treaty were optimistically drawn from models of political rhetoric: “The aim of the Office is to tighten the bonds between young people in both countries, to strengthen their mutual understanding and, to this effect, to provoke, encourage and, where necessary, to set up encounters and exchanges between young people” (Deutsch-Französisches Jugendwerk 2012). A similar example is the European Voluntary Service allowing young people to spend a period of 2 to 12 months as a volunteer in a foreign country. In both examples the educational aims are connected directly to political considerations.

Today, learning mobility has become a frequent practice in the European youth field and is supported by European organisations. Often it goes beyond formal education and constitutes a fertile ground where innovative and alternative learning experiences can thrive. International experiences are important in the life-course of young people growing up in a world with fewer boundaries and frontiers, with distances that are easier to overcome, and access to audio-visual information from all over the world as well as a higher rate of international contacts. Nevertheless, the lack of shared reflection in and on learning mobility, which would be most helpful to an emerging educational area, represents an essential drawback. Classical disciplines such as psychology, sociology and educational science often do not gain access to the experiential realities of the youth field and thus have difficulties in providing a conceptual framework on their own. Obviously an interdisciplinary approach based on exchanges among different groups of professionals and stakeholders such as researchers, practitioners, decision makers and representatives of international organisations would be a helpful option. This is the concern of the EPLM. The current text adopts a researcher’s perspective. It wants to contribute to a conceptual framework of learning mobility in Europe, helpful in programme planning, the evaluation and recognition of non-formal learning, as well as in the more general understanding of the role of
learning mobility in young people’s lives. Furthermore the EPLM should be open, flexible and participatory, giving dialogue and bottom-up initiatives a chance. Three possible entries could be useful: a look into the European youth research landscape; a consideration of different conceptual backgrounds concerning both mobility and learning; and a look into innovative ways of producing evidence and developing knowledge, representing methodological and professional challenges for researchers eager to contribute to the EPLM.

→ The European youth research landscape

The research on European youth which should form the foundation for the work of the EPLM cannot be reduced to the different national youth research backgrounds put together. It has only a short history, which might be divided into three stages (e.g. Chisholm and Kovacheva 2002; Chisholm 2006a; 2006b). A first formative period covers the period from 1970 to 1990. It is mainly dedicated to constructing a shared concept of European youth and even global youth. In the second stage (approximately 1990 to 2000), European youth research emerges as a relevant and visible field of research and knowledge in Europe, recognised by the framework programmes of the European Union. It is essentially international, intercultural and interdisciplinary. In a third stage (after 2000) youth research is seen as an indispensable ingredient in a unique model of governance in the field of European youth policy which bears the hallmark of being transversal, participatory and knowledge-based. A whole set of international structures support European youth research. As sociology has taken the lead in European youth research the two following scientific networks play an important role: Research Committee 34 (Sociology of Youth) of the International Sociological Association (ISA) and Research Network 30 (Youth and Generation) of the European Sociological Association (ESA). As far as international organisations are concerned, the most important structures are the European Knowledge Centre for Youth Policy (EKCYP) and the Pool of European Youth Researchers (PEYR), both run by the partnership between the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of youth. Milestones in the development of European youth research include: the report on youth research in the EU member states by Bergeret and Chisholm (1991); the IARD study (2001), comparing living conditions and expectations of young people as well as youth policy making in the EU member states; the White Paper “A new impetus for European Youth” (Commission of the European Communities, 2001), which explicitly emphasised the necessity of a greater understanding of youth as a key issue of European youth policy making. The national policy reviews of the Council of Europe (Williamson 2002; 2008), which represent a new genre of knowledge- and dialogue-based, policy-relevant writing, have been crucial instruments in the development of European youth research. Eurobarometers and European youth reports (e.g. Eurostat 2009) were added to the tool kit. A very important step was the development of the M.A. in European Youth Studies (M.A. EYS). The dominating discourse figure of the emerging field of European youth research became the “magic triangle” between policy, research and practice (see Milmeister and Williamson 2006). This means a definite farewell to the superiority of academic knowledge and a belief in knowledge produced through exchanges among researchers, practitioners and decision makers.

Providing an understanding of changes in youth life cannot, obviously, be reduced to the sole issue of learning mobility. Today, only some of the following relevant topics are related to learning mobility: youth in an ageing society, youth in a knowledge society, young people confronted with globalisation (who are the winners, who the losers?), young people and digitalisation, access to literacy and academic skills in the context of urban super-diversity, gender and generational...
relationships in liquid times, youth health and wellbeing, political participation and civic commitment, transition from education to employment, gaining access to autonomy and founding a family, as well as leisure activities and participation in culture. Furthermore, European youth research is also dedicated to a critical exploration of paradoxes and tensions (e.g. Coussée 2010). One of its important tasks consists in keeping a distance from the existing discourse and in creating a nurturing ground for the reformulation of youth policy, addressing for example participation v. disenfranchisement of young people, inclusion v. exclusion, and formal v. non-formal education. At stake is not just the confirmation of what exists, but also the consideration of discursive conflicts and nuances in order to imagine alternatives to ongoing policies. European youth research aims at creating reflective knowledge by studying the history of young people’s mobility, of youth work (see Verschelden et al. 2009) and of youth research, as well as of science-policy-interaction in the youth field, for example by exploring good practice examples of scientific policy advising (e.g. Berg and Weis 2009). The ultimate prospect is to establish a critical and mutual interrogation and cross-fertilisation of policy, practice and research. This contributes to youth policy development at different levels – European, regional, national and local – and also concerns sub-topics such as the recognition of non-formal education, criminal justice, school climate, health and learning mobility.

The whole domain is far from being stable, and does not have a cast shape. European youth research is on the move. Different tendencies can be identified: the image of youth as life stage has evolved to youth as an object of public policies with European youth policy dynamically shaping national youth policy developments. Youth is no longer seen as a source of problems but as a positive resource on which society has to build its future. Following the Italian sociologist Alessandro Cavalli, youth is not regarded any more as a process but as a condition (Cavalli 1980). Young people are no longer considered as objects of educational actions, but as autonomous social actors constructing their learning and their active citizenship. The focus has gradually changed from national youth to youth in a globalised world, in which protest movements in the Arab world and generational changes in China (Lagrée 2009) affect the future of European societies. It has also become important to bridge the gap in prestige and methodology between research and evaluation. Thus, fundamental and applied research approaches appear as two sides of the same coin, without either of them being considered inferior to the other.

This short and obviously subjective overview shows the richness which has developed in the European youth research landscape during the last few decades. European learning mobility research does not stand on its own. The important task will be to create links to existing European youth research and put the EPLM in context with questions on living conditions and youth policy making in Europe.

**Different conceptual backgrounds**

The previous section having considered the general background, we will now turn towards the conceptual foundations. In a first step, the two key concepts, mobility and learning, will be briefly examined. Then, dichotomies which are important for a debate on European learning mobility will be identified. Finally, the multi-sector and the multi-disciplinary nature of the reflection on European learning mobility will be pointed out, showing that professional exchanges take place in a context of a larger scientific and cultural discourse on mobility.
Regarding mobility the EPLM should preferably use a broad definition as a starting point. Buliung, Sultana and Faulkner give a good example of what could work in this context:

Mobility = the ability of people or machines to move information, the body, and/or goods between physical, mobile, or cyberplaces (Buliung et al. 2012)

The focus of social science research on mobility has been definitely narrower, covering both research on children’s and young people’s transport opportunities from home to school and sociological research on young actors’ construction of mobility patterns, such as car-public transport-multimodality (e.g. Buliung et al. 2012; Milmeister and Roob 2010). Nevertheless, we should give innovative thinking a chance by including research on the use of space in children’s and young people’s lives such as shifts from outdoor to indoor activities, contemporary streetscapes and streets as homes (e.g. Berg et al. 2005). Also the discovery of the interval, time and space between the starting and the arriving point (Roulleau-Berger 1991; Berg and Milmeister 2009), may be a relevant consideration. Often social actors’ appropriation of locations and time slots related to transport re-creates them as lived-in and socially experienced spaces. Consequently, regarding the range of cultural and sociological studies on space and mobility, the EPLM debates on the one hand need a kind of sensitivity for this larger background, and, on the other hand, they will be dedicated to a more specialised area: learning mobility governance research and evaluation. Consequently, as a public debate they should not be confined to a purely instrumental approach.

A brief look at the current research on learning (Leander et al. 2010) also opens up a broad horizon. Today learning is no longer understood as the result of knowledge transmission confined to a container-like classroom, dominated by a pre-established curriculum and an intransigent teacher-centredness (e.g. Coffield 2000). Learning is more than mere transmission of knowledge; it is seen as growth in the sense of Jerome Bruner (1996) or even Paulo Freire (2005). Linking learning and mobility means crossing boundaries, such as those between school and out-of-school spaces, and those between curricular objectives and extracurricular individualised and localised aims. Education is no longer reduced to instruction but mainly means creating opportunities to learn. Learning is understood as situated learning, since it happens through participation in authentic activities (Lave and Wenger 1991). It is seen as an interactive and social process as opposed to a psychological process inside the individual. The opposition referred to can be articulated under different aspects, although a strict opposition only represents the extremes of a continuum. “Instructional places” are dominated more by one-answer questions, whereas in “learning spaces” questions referring to situative and individualised meanings prevail. Following a similar pattern, official academic careers contrast with subjective learning trajectories. Regarding outcomes, accountable disciplinary knowledge as required in a traditional instructional culture is opposed to learning networks relying on actor network theory. As far as learning mobility is concerned, the learning space can no longer be conceived as a confined container; it becomes a set of opportunities, corresponding to an open geography including varied spaces of learning and the paths in between.

As the topic of learning mobility has to be seen against the complex background of the evolution of learning realities and the understanding of learning in liquid times, future debates will have to address a certain number of dichotomies. A distinction should be made between mobility for learning and learning through mobility; the first term is purely instrumental, the second sees the fact of being mobile as
a transformative source of learning. It will also be important to keep in mind the opposition between independent and organised mobility, and to identify hybrid forms. A third dichotomy is linked to the contemporary media environment: it is the opposition between physical and virtual mobility. Without moving physically one’s references can be related to global social groups and networks. Furthermore, an important nuance lies in the aims of (learning) mobility: enhancing competitiveness or furthering European citizenship. In the first case, the aim could be to increase employability through qualifications acquired abroad and in that way learning mobility could be seen as an antecedent to employment mobility. In the second case, the aim is broader because mobility as an antecedent to open-mindedness, tolerance or intercultural understanding is supposed to change a young person’s personality. Finally, higher education mobility can be seen as the current practice of student mobility between existing structures, for example the Erasmus Programme, or as a new design for higher education courses, for example in the shape of the international virtual faculty in M.A. EYS, creating an innovative academic learning space in the area of European higher education.

The dichotomies mentioned above make obvious the multi-sector and multi-type character of learning mobility in Europe. Learning mobility covers a wide range of fields: the educational exchange of students under the Erasmus Programme related to the internationalisation and globalisation of education and higher education in particular; international language courses; individual or collective travelling and tourism which can be seen as instances of informal learning; the youth field sector with initiatives such as the voluntary service, international non-formal learning, Youth in Action projects, and finally, youth field-related transversal aspects of learning mobility.

Since “learning mobility” is a research topic for many disciplines, the debates of the EPLM should be nourished by diverse multi-disciplinary inputs. They could come from social and human geography, from social and cultural studies/history, from architecture and urbanism as well as from political, social and educational sciences. They could include types of literature normally outside mainstream educational research, such as novels, philosophy or architecture. Karin Priem (2012) for instance has used a contemporary novel by Hanns-Josef Ortheil (2011) to elucidate the ways of learning in post-war Germany. As in fiction mobility often appears as a metaphor for growing up; the discourse on learning mobility appears in no way to be a privilege of social and educational sciences, for it belongs to the everyday and also to cultural semantics.

Similarly, mobility realities are doubled by mobility myths in the media, and reality is influenced both by experiential and imaginative factors. An illustration might be given by referring to movies in which mobility plays a major role. Very often mobility gives access to freedom and autonomy, is linked to identity stress, personality quest, intercultural misunderstandings as well as learning. Nicholas Ray’s Rebel Without a Cause (1955), with James Dean, would probably not have produced a time-resistant icon of youth protest without the 1949 Mercury. What would Easy Rider (1969) by Dennis Hopper be without the Harley-Davidson bikes, John Landis’ The Blues Brothers (1980) without the Dodge Monaco or Ridley Scott’s Thelma and Louise (1991) without the blue Ford Thunderbird? In Taxi Driver (1976) and Bringing out the Dead (1999) Martin Scorsese has demonstrated how urban mobility can constitute a visual language. Cédric Klapisch’s L’auberge espagnole (2002) has as a topic the experiences of Erasmus students from all over Europe.

6. Thanks to Özgehan Şenyuva, Ankara, for drawing our attention to this movie.
Learning mobility in the youth field: starting to set a framework

in Barcelona. Sofia Coppola’s *Lost in Translation* (2003) shows subjective vulnerability resulting from an intercultural gap between Japan and the Western world. The semantic universe of mobility myths, made up of typical elements such as cars, motorbikes, foreign countries, leaving home, losing oneself, the road and encounters with other people, can fulfil diverse functions: be it allegory, metaphor or metonymy. It clearly indicates social knowledge and imagination, which function as a foundation of mobility policies, generate motivations, and are in turn fuelled by changing mobility experiences.

The debate on learning mobility is not homogeneous. Firstly, the political discourse shows a tendency towards different dynamics and secondly, the scientific discourse in itself can be contradictory. Moreover, political as well as scientific views may not match young people’s life experiences. Political arguments are based on diverse fields. A first approach consists in extending Erasmus, the so-called flagship of European higher education policy, beyond the confines of universities, and developing a similar scheme for secondary schools or people in vocational training. Sometimes the higher education area also goes beyond Erasmus by integrating mobility patterns into innovative higher education offers, bridging higher education and non-formal learning, and using encounters with cultural otherness as an academic learning source. In addition to the higher education mobility policies, a further pattern, related to the European youth sector, consists in learning from the history of youth exchanges and their long European or bilateral tradition with a focus on intercultural understanding, human rights and European citizenship.

Within the scientific discourse there is on the one hand a tendency to celebrate mobility as the mark of a new time, a new social space and a new society. This started with the Chicago school with Ernest Burgess and Robert E. Park investigating the relationship between “mentality” and “locomotion” (Park and Burgess 1925) in a modern urban context. It continues today with Saskia Sassen’s “global city” (2001) showing how New York, Tokyo and London turn into command centres in a globalised economy, Arjun Appadurai’s “cultural flows” (2005), Zygmunt Bauman’s “liquid times” (2010) and Manuel Castells’ “network society” (2010). But they include more factual analyses as well, such as Iain Borden’s study of the city space in the eyes of skateboarders (2006). On the other hand, social sciences also provide an impassive analysis of empirical data. In this context, the discursive euphoria just mentioned disappears. There are different types of young people and inequalities exist among them. Some of them are excluded because they belong to a mobility hostile environment. Access to mobility is socially differentiated. Interval spaces exist, but they are often perceived differently by social scientists and in the discourse of young people themselves. There are multiple perspectives on learning mobility, depending on whether it is considered by adults, experts or young people (see Berg and Milmeister 2009).

The contextualised mobility experiences of young people may be different from theoretical discourses on mobility. Political thinking can produce a structuring of mobility governance which corresponds to divisions imported from the political arena. The mobility policy of higher education students, for instance, is separated from the policy in the youth field, although both are at least strongly related if not intermingled in the reality of a young person’s life. Very often, a common underlying competence exists, linking the notions of “learning to learn” and “learning to participate” (Hoskins and Crick 2010), which is affected by mobility, but which through the political lens is not valued by decision makers. All these tensions correspond to semantic splits in highly differentiated societies: splits between the
political discourse and the material world, between formal systems and real life, and between the managerial and the functional view.

**Methodological and professional challenges for researchers**

The third and last entry for the work of the EPLM concerns ways of producing evidence, ways of developing knowledge. Researchers will have to face ambitious challenges if they want to contribute to the building up of the platform. These matters go far beyond the scope of the present contribution; nevertheless, a few hints will be given in order to indicate some of the methodological and professional challenges for researchers and at least refer to the added value contemporary social science could bring to a politico-practical debate.

The EPLM takes place in a context of innovation in social science research methods (Williams and Vogt 2011). It is advisable to combine quantitative and qualitative analyses as well as to promote mixed method approaches (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). An important challenge will be to link structural (macro-level) and actor related (micro-level) inquiries, especially since practitioners expect to go beyond the mere juxtaposition of structure and agency in order to answer their questions.

Young people should not only be talked about but be given a voice to express themselves while realistically considering their localised contexts. Ideally researchers do not only evoke inter-disciplinarity and inter-professionalism in their discourses, but apply them in their exchanges and their work on European learning mobility. This will help to qualify them both in inter-culturally sensitive and comparative analysis as well as in policy-science-practice interactions. A quality criterion for work will be to find a balance between political/practical relevance and research integrity. Evaluation, especially formative and participatory types of evaluation, ought to become part of the agenda. Applied research based on solid general foundations and rooted in European youth research should be produced. The fostering of critical and close scrutiny as well as the development of innovative conceptual grounds, using concepts such as hybridity (Nilan and Feixa 2006) or transformative and post-linearist sociology (e.g. Machado Pais 2003; Leccardi and Ruspini 2008) are of high importance.

**Conclusion**

The present contribution is not an EPLM theory manifesto. With the current state of affairs this would probably be neither possible nor even desirable. So the text gives an overview of three possible entries for the work of the EPLM: a brief sketch of the European research landscape, a partial and subjective exploration of the conceptual backgrounds as well as a brief reflection on methodological challenges. Learning mobility – playing a role in a changed context of growing up and requiring innovative forms of educational governance – is a complex phenomenon which can only be reflected in the light of a multiple hermeneutics. This refers to a specific role of social science, which is qualitative and multi-grounded, participatory and democratic. It is more issue- than discipline-oriented; it plays its major role outside the ivory tower, sharing knowledge and responsibility with other professionals. Hopefully, these remarks will be a motivating and stimulating overture to the platform’s future debates.
References


Europe will not be made all at once, or according to a single plan. It will be built through concrete achievements which first create a de facto solidarity”, stated the Schuman Declaration of 9 May 1950. The concrete achievements of the European project are many. Not all of them are immediately perceived as positive outcomes of the European Union, while mobility schemes like Erasmus or the European Voluntary Service are overwhelmingly considered “success stories”.

Education and youth as part of the European project

It was not an obvious matter to introduce the fields of education and youth within the competences of the European Economic Community.

From the mid-1980s onwards, however, various steps were taken, aiming at revitalising European integration among Community member states. The Spinelli draft European Union treaty, adopted by the European Parliament in 1984, foresaw a chapter on “policy for society”, including education. The 1985 Adonnino report A People’s Europe, endorsed by the Milan European Council, suggested that greater effort should be made with regard to co-operation and mobility
among universities and proposed voluntary work for young people and exchanges among schools. One must also mention the 1989 Commission medium-term priority strategies for education in the context of the implementation of the Single European Act (which came into force in 1987) and its main objectives, namely the completion of the internal market by the end of 1992 and the economic and social cohesion of the Community: free movement of persons and recognition of qualifications for vocational and academic purposes; initial and continuing vocational training; development of higher education; adapting to technological change; improving the quality of education systems; language teaching; and youth exchanges.

These and other initiatives paved the way for the inclusion in the Maastricht Treaty (1992) of a specific article on education and youth. While fully respecting the diversity of national situations and the principle of subsidiarity, the new Treaty provided that Community action should be aimed at promoting co-operation in education and at “encouraging the development of youth exchanges and of exchanges of socio-educational instructors”.

In the meantime, following the example of Community programmes to promote research and technological development such as ESPRIT, the first spending programmes were adopted in the field of education, training and youth, notably Comett (1986), Erasmus (1987) and Youth for Europe (1988):

In a similar fashion to the major RDT programmes, [they] provide practical demonstrations to the public of the meaning of the Community dimensions and the value of joint efforts. They also have an important multiplier effect on the free movement of ideas and people and in increasing a sense of partnership in shared endeavours. Through the opportunities they offer for young people to meet and to learn from each other, they serve to enhance mutual understanding of cultural differences and also to counteract xenophobia by giving young people a window on the wider world (European Commission 1989)

The purpose of these programmes was clearly twofold: economic (providing the necessary human resources to ensure that the potential of the internal market was exploited to the full) and sociocultural (bringing Europe closer to its citizens and giving the Community the human face it lacked):

With the adoption of the Single European Act, the priority objectives became the completion of the internal market and the free movement of persons, goods, capital and services. The question of the mobility of students and teachers became more important, particularly in a context in which discussions within the Community had brought to the fore the question of developing a citizens’ Europe (European Commission 2006)

The Youth for Europe Programme, proposed by the Commission in 1986, aimed at allowing young people to meet, develop joint transnational, cultural, social or other projects and thereby develop a sense of European awareness and solidarity.

→ Programmes supporting transnational mobility came first

From these early years till today, and whatever the sector concerned (formal learning and training or non-formal learning in the youth field), learning mobility has been an essential component of European co-operation in the fields of education/training and youth. It has steadily developed through successive programmes (including the current Lifelong Learning and Youth in Action programmes 7).


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Mobility is part of the flexibility considered important for the European labour force. Learning mobility, that is transnational mobility for the purpose of acquiring new skills, is one of the fundamental ways through which individuals, particularly young people, can strengthen their future employability as well as their personal development (European Commission 2009).

Transnational non-formal learning experiences, such as participation in a cross-cultural youth exchange or in the European Voluntary Service, have long-lasting effects on the participants. They can also act as an “eye-opener” to help young people identify new perspectives or better orient their career goals. Studies indicate that participation in voluntary service schemes reduces career indecision.

Foreign-language skills are among the major benefits of transnational learning mobility, and non-formal learning settings can strongly contribute to their development: the full immersion in another language context, even for short periods of time, allows for daily exposure to the target language and practice of communication in real situations. Active use of languages in interaction with peers across boundaries enhances intercultural competence. Even short-term exposure to another language can increase the chance that one will continue learning the language afterwards. Moreover, it becomes more likely that someone will go abroad for a longer period in the future. Experiences abroad also offer an opportunity to open up to the world, and success in such experiences is often a factor that strengthens self-confidence.

Mobility can also help foster a deeper sense of European identity and citizenship among young people. Transnational friendships and freedom of movement across the continent construct a more positive attitude among young people towards the EU and its institutions.

Youth exposure to cultural diversity does not only benefit the individuals directly involved but also the communities concerned, as well as families and peers. It helps spread a culture of openness, solidarity and tolerance which has an impact beyond the individual participants directly involved.

This is valid both within and beyond EU borders. International exchanges and youth work activities involving young people from third countries contribute to enhancing intercultural learning, combating prejudices and promoting solidarity and mutual understanding across EU borders as well. By adding a more “human face” to international relations, the development of people-to-people contacts leads to better and stronger relations between the EU and its partner countries and also builds a stronger image of the EU globally.

Beyond the direct support to young people’s mobility, encouraging youth workers’ transnational mobility and training contributes to increasing and improving their capacity to help young people in a more professional way. Fostering co-operation and the exchange of youth work practices contributes to improving methods, developing innovation and quality in non-formal learning and youth work, which in turn can lead to better recognition of non-formal learning outcomes and of youth work.8

8. On the rationale of EU support to activities in favour of youth and in particular to youth mobility, see also Impact assessment on youth actions, accompanying the Commission proposal for Erasmus for All, COM(2011) 788 final (European Commission 2011a).
→ A domain where the Union makes a difference

Keeping in mind subsidiarity as a guiding principle of any European initiative in this sector, it is worth noting that learning mobility is also among the most obvious activities where direct intervention by the European Union offers true added value and can make a difference.

Against the fragmented and uneven provision of opportunities across member states, only an EU programme can ensure an equal basis of possibilities for transnational mobility, notably in those countries where such opportunities do not exist. Transnational mobility is also more effectively organised at EU level: an EU-wide network of national agencies handling mobility (not limited to bilateral exchanges between two given countries) generates economies of scale by avoiding replication of similar schemes and institutions in all member states.

The existence of EU-wide instruments ensures the consistent quality of the mobility as well as the recognition of its benefits (e.g. the accreditation of structures participating in the European Voluntary Service or the development of Youthpass). The Youth in Action Programme provides an important contribution to the quality of youth work at all levels:

It is a “carrier” of a wide European experience on recognition of non-formal learning and the prospects are encouraging for becoming a factor of greater influence in the near future for national policies regarding lifelong learning (Christodoulidis 2010)

EU intervention broadens the scope of opportunities that are available, by bringing European themes to the attention of young people, which would not necessarily be tackled in similar activities organised at national or local level. It complements national initiatives concerned with young people’s civic engagement and non-formal learning. It also ensures visibility and credibility to the commitment of the European Union vis-à-vis young people and translates at European level the new objective introduced by the Lisbon Treaty (2010), according to which Union action shall be aimed at “encouraging the participation of young people in democratic life in Europe”.

An EU-wide tool to support youth mobility can achieve strong systemic impact by acting as a laboratory enabling the testing of new approaches, which can inspire national/regional schemes or help them develop a transnational/European dimension. Noticeable leverage effect has been achieved in some countries (e.g. Greece and Italy) and regions (e.g. Ile de France) where additional funds have been allocated to complement the support to transnational youth projects funded under Youth in Action.

The activities supported by this programme offer convincing examples of the effectiveness of non-formal learning mobility. Ninety-one percent of young people consider that having participated in a Youth in Action project has increased their competences in a foreign language; 75% said they were in a better position to identify opportunities for their personal or professional future; 73% declared they felt more European. These are only some outcomes of a programme which will benefit in 2013 from a budget of more than 200 million euros, making it possible to reach more than 200 000 participants, a majority of them taking part in mobility projects.

→ Beyond the programmes: policy developments

Beyond their intrinsic value, EU programmes in education/training and in the youth field are also important tools to support the implementation of the Open
Method of Coordination developed in these sectors. They foster progress towards the common objectives agreed upon, promoting exchange of knowledge and good practices as well as peer learning among national policy makers and practitioners, supporting the involvement of the civil society; in addition to bringing together participants from different countries, they ensure compliance with EU objectives, priorities and policy goals.

In particular, the European education, training and youth programmes implemented since the mid-1980s support and add credibility to the political processes which have developed over time with a view to fostering transnational learning mobility. In higher education, an obvious link exists between Erasmus and the Bologna process. In the youth field, the positive experience of the European Voluntary Service since 1996 led to the adoption of the 2008 Council of the European Union Recommendation on the mobility of young volunteers across the European Union (Council of the EU 2008), which encourages the member states to give more young people the opportunity to volunteer in another country.

→ And now?

The most recent EU initiatives for youth put a strong emphasis on learning mobility.

In the framework of the Europe 2020 Strategy, the Youth on the Move flagship initiative (2010) underlines that:

*smart and inclusive growth depends on actions throughout the lifelong learning system, to develop key competences and quality learning outcomes, in line with labour market needs. Europe needs to extend and broaden learning opportunities for young people as a whole, including supporting the acquisition of skills through non-formal educational activities*

This vision, endorsed by the Council of the EU in 2011, stresses the importance of promoting learning mobility as a way for young people to strengthen their future employability and acquire new professional competences, while enhancing their development as active citizens. This builds on the recommendations of the High Level Expert Forum on Mobility (European Commission 2008), according to which learning mobility should become a natural feature of being European and an opportunity provided to all young people in Europe through all forms of education, including non-formal education.

In the framework of the Youth Opportunities Initiative (2012) the Commission proposed, among various measures, to help unemployed young people, increased support to learning mobility through Erasmus, Leonardo da Vinci and the European Voluntary Service.

Moreover, learning mobility will remain a key action of the new Erasmus for All programme proposed by the European Commission for the period 2014-20. Like the current programmes, Erasmus for All will support activities aimed at furthering co-operation for innovation and good practices and at encouraging policy reform, but the bulk of the budget will be devoted to learning mobility, be it in formal or non-formal settings.

This new setup frames the development of non-formal learning mobility for the years to come. Never has the political impetus or financial support from the European Union been stronger. But important challenges remain to be tackled if we really want learning mobility to become the rule rather than the exception.
The first obvious challenge relates to the capacity to mobilise public and private actors operating at local, national and regional levels to increase mobility opportunities. The European programme, however important its budget is, can only offer a partial response to rising demand. Part of the justification of the intervention of the Union in this field stems from the “show window” function of a programme like Youth in Action, which can inspire national or regional schemes to broaden their remit to transnational mobility. The many actors (youth workers, youth organisations, national agencies, etc.) involved over the years in the mobility programmes supported by the Union can act as multipliers and contribute, through a reinforced dissemination of the results of the projects, to mobilising new partners. Some modalities of the support to mobility by the European programme may also be revisited with this objective in mind.

Another important challenge concerns the capacity to be inclusive and able to reach out and involve young people with fewer opportunities, not only those who are better off and more naturally open to a learning experience abroad. This is of particular relevance when it comes to non-formal learning, which is sometimes experienced as being offered a second chance. The flexible and informal methods used in youth work practice help youth workers reach out to young people more effectively and develop trusting and qualitatively different relationships compared to the more formal and structured ones developed in schools or the workplace. Youth workers help to provide alternative routes to training, qualifications and employment to those conventionally provided within education. In addition, they can also act to open up opportunities in the mainstream education sector. This has been confirmed by the Youth in Action interim evaluation, which acknowledged the role of the programme as a stimulus to motivate young people to study (Ernst & Young 2010; Little 2010), as well as by various surveys on young participants and youth leaders: over 80% of Youth in Action participants planned to engage in further education opportunities after participation in the programme (European Commission 2011b). In times of unprecedented economic crisis, with young people affected so severely, this dimension is particularly important.

→ Conclusion

In 2013, we celebrate the 25th anniversary of the adoption of the first European programme in the youth field. From the entry into force of Youth for Europe until the completion of Youth in Action, 2.5 million young people or youth workers will have taken part in youth projects supported by the European Union, notably for non-formal learning mobility purposes. This impressive quantitative result as well as the increasing number of applications which are unsuccessful due to budgetary limitations underline the expectations of European citizens vis-à-vis such mobility opportunities.

Behind these statistics are individual stories of Europeans whose lives have been enriched by invaluable personal experiences such as spending several months volunteering in another country, travelling abroad, maybe for the first time, to meet youngsters from other origins, or exchanging professional experiences with youth workers from other backgrounds. Today, this is also what Europe is about!

Non-formal learning mobility has contributed a lot to shaping this vision of a European Union which cares about its youth, a mission which should not be underestimated. In times of economic crisis and of a tendency to turn inwards there is a need to do more in this field, because what is at stake is not only increasing the skills and competences of young people but also enhancing their participation in society and

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their feeling of being European. In other words, making a reality of Jean Monnet’s vision: “We are not seeking a coalition of states, we are uniting people”.

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Advocating for youth: the European Youth Forum helping to increase recognition of mobility and non-formal learning

David Garrahy

Introduction

The European Youth Forum (the “Youth Forum”) is a key stakeholder in the European education and mobility debate, representing youth organisations as providers of non-formal education (NFE) and often mobility. Education is one of the Youth Forum’s five strategic priorities. Mobility is part of the Youth Forum Work Plan – especially seeking to increase mobility for young people and for volunteers.

Mobility, for the Youth Forum, is at the core of the European dream. In the 2007 Youth Forum Resolution “Europe is our Home – No visas”, it was set out that mobility is the freedom to move from one European country to another and to experience cultural difference while feeling a sense of unity with other Europeans. The Youth Forum role is to advocate for measures to be taken against the various barriers that impede mobility, including visa requirements. The European Youth Forum supports the improvement of learning mobility, the removal of visa barriers and the mobility of all young people generally.

For many young people, a mobility experience also includes an education and learning experience. The Youth Forum
sees education as a process aimed at providing young people with the opportunity to gain the necessary competences for personal development, citizenship and access to quality employment. In the move towards a knowledge-based society, it is essential for everyone to learn and build competences on a lifelong and “life-wide” path. To achieve this aim, the further development of recognition instruments, together with opportunities for learning mobility of young people, is crucial.

→ Mobility

The Youth Forum’s Work Plan for the period 2011-12 mandates the platform to work on increasing learning mobility opportunities, the removal of visa barriers and the mobility of all young people generally. The Youth Forum advocates for an end to the visa requirement for young people participating in youth activities within Council of Europe member states.

The Youth Forum participates in many advocacy activities to implement these Work Plan commitments. These include participation in the European Commission’s Expert Group on the Youth on the Move card – which seeks to give incentives for young people to be mobile across the EU’s borders. The Youth Forum’s priorities include ensuring that the card encourages the active citizenship elements of mobility, learning through involvement in the country where the young person has moved.

The Youth Forum is part of the Steering Group of the European Platform on Learning Mobility and continues to contribute its knowledge and experience in non-formal education and learning mobility to this exciting collaboration. The Youth Forum will continue to encourage the involvement of young people in the foundation of the Platform in March 2013, so that young people themselves will be involved in the debate.

The Youth Forum also believes that the visa process across Europe is unnecessarily long, expensive, bureaucratic and often upsetting for the people who need visas. The European Parliament and Council “Visa Directive” of 2004 (2004/38/EC), while a step forward in terms of mobility by recognising the category of “volunteer” for the granting of visas, still does not go far enough. The Youth Forum, in its response to the consultation on the revision of this directive, advocated for easier mobility for volunteers and other young people, especially in including the right of residence in the definition of the visa.

→ Non-formal education

For the Youth Forum, the learning gained through a mobility experience needs to be further recognised and acknowledged, in order to encourage more mobility experiences. Recognition of non-formal education (NFE) and the learning outcomes of organisation-based volunteering is a precondition to develop a true lifelong learning reality in Europe. This recognition is reflected in the Youth Forum Work Plan for 2011-12 where the Youth Forum pledges to “work towards recognition of non-formal education and learning outcomes of organisation-based volunteering, as well as lifelong and life-wide learning opportunities”.

Recognition is to be sought at individual, social and political levels, equally. The Youth Forum seeks to increase this recognition in many ways, for example through the Youth Forum’s NFE week, held each autumn, which seeks to increase understanding of NFE and discuss how to increase its recognition by bringing together

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stakeholders, politicians and NFE providers. The European Youth Forum has also responded to calls for quality and certification demands for NFE by taking the lead to set up a quality assurance framework.

→ Recognition

Through its Policy Paper on recognition of Non-Formal Education: confirming the real competencies of young people in the knowledge society (European Youth Forum 2005) and its Policy Paper on Non-Formal Education: A framework for indicating and assuring quality (European Youth Forum 2008a), the Youth Forum has sought to contribute to the political recognition of NFE and has advocated for it in various processes at European level. Further, as a contribution to generating further knowledge and understanding on the contribution of NFE to the holistic development of young people, in 2008 the Youth Forum published The Sunshine Report on Non-Formal Education (European Youth Forum 2008b), compiling best practices in NFE from Youth Forum member organisations.

The Youth Forum has also contributed to the revised Pathways 2.0 Paper,9 regarded as a solid basis for future action of the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of NFE. The Youth Forum will continue working towards implementation of the 10 elements for the renewed strategy as set up in the Pathways Paper 2.0. Also the Youth Forum has been successfully advocating for NFE recognition through the various European instruments for recording of competences, such as Youthpass and the European Skills Passport. The Forum has also closely followed the new strategic framework for European co-operation in the field of education and training (“ET 2020”). In this process, particular attention has been paid to gaining political recognition of NFE and its learning outcomes, and connecting it with other lifelong learning fields and with the development of recognition instruments.

The Youth Forum has also been a member of the Expert Group on the recognition of NFE and youth work since it first met in January 2011. Through its participation in the group, the Youth Forum joins efforts with other key stakeholders for stronger advocacy before EU and Council of Europe institutions and co-operation in the implementation of its policies on the recognition of the role of youth organisations in NFE. The Expert Group is following up on the outcomes of the Symposium on Recognition of Youth work and Non-Formal Learning held in November 2011 in Strasbourg. Current priorities for the work of the expert group include setting up a political process for NFE (the proposed “Strasbourg process”).

The Youth Forum has welcomed, as a step forward for the recognition of NFE, the proposal by the European Commission to the Council of the European Union for a recommendation on the promotion and validation of non-formal and informal learning, which ministers are expected to endorse at the end of 2012 or early 2013. The Youth Forum contributed to the consultation during the development of the proposal, advocating strong but accessible validation mechanisms. The Youth Forum’s official reaction10 to the proposal outlined regretted that

9. The Pathways 2.0 document is the follow-on document of the 2004 document Pathways towards validation and recognition of education, training & learning in the youth field. The document was elaborated jointly with the SALTO Training and Cooperation Resource Centre, the European Youth Forum and the directorates responsible for youth in the European Commission and the Council of Europe.

the Commission did not seize the opportunity to incorporate further elements of recognition, which would contribute to the development of a true lifelong learning society in Europe.

In 2012, the Youth Forum's NFE Week focused on NFE and the employability skills which this can develop. The event demonstrated to EU policy makers and stakeholders, including those drafting the above recommendation, the importance of NFE for future employability of young people. This is part of a yearly dialogue on NFE the Youth Forum has organised over recent years with the aim of bringing together providers of education with institutions, social partners and stakeholders. The event serves as an open space for dialogue on specific issues relating to NFE. To concentrate on 2012’s theme of employability, the Youth Forum commissioned a study on the impact of NFE in youth organisations for young people's employment. The research was launched during NFE Week and brought visibility to the role of NFE within the area of Lifelong Learning (LLL).

**Quality Assurance**

The Youth Forum considers Quality Assurance (QA) in NFE a key process in enhancing recognition by relevant stakeholders of both the importance of NFE and also the role of youth organisations as primary NFE providers. Likewise, QA is deemed to be a valuable asset to organisations, as it contributes to an increasingly effective fulfilment of their educational goals while also facilitating communication about the nature and quality of their NFE, both internally and also to stakeholders.

The Youth Forum continues the process started in 2009 to set up the first European-wide QA scheme for NFE. The 2011 Revised Policy Paper on Quality Assurance (QA) of NFE (European Youth Forum 2011b; www.nfenetwork.eu) establishes the road map for its development. A series of training cycles have been held with the aim of building the capacity of Youth Forum member organisations in this field. The Working Group on NFE, together with members of the Youth Forum Pool of Trainers (PoT), has been instrumental in promoting and disseminating the QA framework among the members.

After a pilot phase of the proposed cycle for implementing QA in NFE projects and the consequent updates and improvements in the QA process, the next step foreseen is the establishment of a “co-managed support structure” (i.e. a network) by 2015 that will coordinate and provide support for the implementation of the Quality Assurance Framework for NFE. The QA process is thus an inclusive one: convinced that full recognition of NFE and its value for citizens in Europe will only be realised when policy makers start working together with providers of NFE on a common agenda, the European Youth Forum strives to join forces with all relevant institutions and stakeholders to take this process forward.

A capacity-building programme has been developed to provide training on how the QA framework is to be implemented in a selected NFE project/activity. Both the QA framework and the training cycles have been tested since the pilot phase began in 2009. The feedback received by participating member organisations has been the basis for further development and improvement. Since the Quality Assurance Framework was first piloted in 2009, a total of 15 member organisations have participated in the training cycles organised by the Youth Forum to build their capacity on QA.
→ Conclusion

The Youth Forum continues to work and advocate for easier and more accessible opportunities for mobility and opportunities for NFE, especially for young people. There are findings on the impact of NFE on youth organisations and young people which show that even short periods of mobility help in skills acquisition in young people, especially in language learning. For the Youth Forum, mobility and NFE are valuable experiences that need to be encouraged for young people. Mobility experiences give young people the vital skills they need, not only for future employment, but also to be citizens and active participants in society.

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In the Wallonia-Brussels Federation, the administration, policy makers and the National Youth Agency (*Bureau International Jeunesse* – BIJ), in charge of the implementation of the Youth in Action Programme, have drawn up a methodological framework to monitor youth initiatives at a local and international level. A step-by-step approach has been proposed in the field of non-formal education. These are considered the essential steps to self-affirmation among young people.

The step-by-step approach mentioned here is purely indicative: stakeholders are free to explore the key steps through which their projects might be implemented.

This framework serves as a reference for youth mobility practices. Starting from this point, together with the BIJ, many stakeholders have considered mobility issues and set up a “rating scale for mobility” which implies a step-by-step approach through the identification of barriers and the implementation of the mobility process. In the following pages, we ask you to examine this formalised process.
You have mobility…and mobilities

Mobilities rather than mobility

Mobility is clearly not a panacea: it is however an indispensable way of working towards personal and collective emancipation and of ensuring the participation of young people in society. Mobility is also essential for the well-being and autonomy of human beings. All young people must be able to leave behind their own daily routines to step into different worlds or to make a contribution to society; they must have access to knowledge and culture, and be given leisure opportunities and a stage to express themselves. They must be able to travel to learn from other cultures, to become aware of their own identity, to gain new skills. They must have access to economic and social spheres. These kinds of challenges therefore invite us to consider mobility in the plural tense, which is why we will be talking of “youth mobilities”.

Youth mobilities comprise all the personal and collective measures adopted to help young people follow a project and to advance in life, that bring about a change in their habits and that drive their emotional, social, cultural and professional development.

This implies working on three major aspects: geographical mobility, which relates to the possibility of “pulling up their roots” from a precise territory; social mobility, which covers all experiences that encourage the acquisition of knowledge and access to employment as well as to different social groups; and cultural mobility,
Youth mobilities, step by step

which refers to transitions via which young people can succeed in stepping from one universe to another, from one language to another, from references imposed by their immediate environment to other references.

→ Moving…

Many young people in difficulty are often caught up in a dependent family or social context. However, our guess is that they want to leave behind this confinement, as borne out by the many cases of young people running away from home, or going to live on the streets, or even resorting to violence. Some of them wish to change their life script, and to go and see what else is out there, sometimes only around the corner: they seek another way of looking at things, another way of living, other symbols, other places…in short, new opportunities.

**Gender and cultural confinement**

In many working-class neighbourhoods, especially those composed of immigrant communities, many girls are not allowed to simply go out after school; generally speaking, they are not entitled to choose their own lifestyle.

In youth centres, a growing feeling of being confined and controlled both by their peers and family (brothers, friends, cousins) can be noticed among girls. Religion and culture are indeed constantly used to limit their freedom. It may be noted that this binding culture of origin is completely imagined. In this light, it can be stated that some groundless references slowly emerge that have no historical basis.

Cultures, therefore, need to be further explored in order to respond to this process of confinement. Encouraging young people to discover writers, poets, architects, sculptors, philosophers, film-makers, painters, photographers, playwrights, historical figures, scientists – through their respective cultural backgrounds, they could notably point out the key role of Art and Science in unlocking their daily codes. This is a prerequisite process.

→ Stage 1: Mobility is not an easy option

**You’re not budging from here!**

In an age of globalisation, mobility remains a luxury that is the reserve of the lucky few. We observe that for many young people today, immobility is gaining ground. In the age of the Internet, many young people never leave their friends, their neighbourhoods, their families, their habits: don’t they dare?

**I’m afraid…I can’t do it!**

Many young people suffer from a lack of self-esteem, a fear of the unknown, a fear of failure.

In underprivileged areas, we are also seeing that young people are starting to mistrust youth workers and find it difficult to picture their long-term future, to adopt a project approach. This difficulty is exacerbated by the importance they grant to the opinion of those around them and therefore escaping from this environment and from these opinions can be a good starting point. Finally, attitudes spawned by the culture of “the here and now” and a consumerist culture can also prove to be barriers to mobility, in particular through drug use and its immobilising effects.
Where does money come into it?

Money is a problem! First of all because of the cost of public transport but also, in some cases, due to the difficulty of accepting the idea of doing something “for free” given that the foremost concern of young people is to earn money.

Stage 2: making the move

Pushing open an unknown door...not very far away

Methods and approaches that help to overcome the small and large local barriers are developed by the players in the field on an everyday basis. The general principle behind these methods is to start with the experience of the young people in order to turn them into a learning support, with the emphasis on listening and discussion. The aim of these methods is to pave the way for a transition towards mobility, towards social change in gradual stages, both individually and collectively, using concrete and creative tools. In this respect, in issues linked to gender relations, the status of girls and boys also proves to be crucial.

Grabbing ideas

Grabbing hold of an initial idea formulated by a young person or a group of young people as soon as it is tentatively expressed is a good starting point to build a mobility project. This involves listening to them, and knowing how to intervene by exploiting the dynamism of a group or a group’s desires, which is sometimes not easy to express.

It's possible for everyone!

For a youth worker, it is important to be able to play down the obstacles linked to the fear of the unknown, the administrative procedures and the long-term difficulties by anticipating solutions and by providing for a network of partners. Setting up a network in which young people can trust well before the project is rolled out is crucial.

Understanding what is going on inside

Lots of young people are caught in limited and limiting “neighbourhood” logics, or are simply prisoners of their family circle. Sometimes silently, some young people are caught up in the maelstrom of drugs, alcohol or violence. These problems can also concern groups. The youth worker must be able to formulate a good diagnosis before trying to draw these young people into a mobility project, to try to unlock what is being shut away.

Here and away

How to foster self-esteem, openness, but also help each young person know himself or herself? Experience and imagination can often be exploited as precious catalysts that can trigger a mobility project, by geographically anchoring it into a local environment (neighbourhoods, village) that ties in with a more faraway environment.
How to cross to the other side of the looking glass? Young people are also players in their own right in this adventure. Becoming heroes at home.

It is essential for a mobility project to address fundamental issues surrounding “life in my neighbourhood, with others, my family, etc.” The contact is established on the basis of an experience linked to the day-to-day life of young people in an immediate environment. When it comes to access to local or international mobility, another educative practice that is important is cultural mediation: daring to go into a museum, pushing open the door of a theatre. For many young people, another boon comes from the fact that a mobility project can be underpinned by work on theatrical, musical, videographic expression of which the young people can be proud and which they can show to other young people: theatre, music, videography, slam texts, and so on.

Another ingredient is essential in this process: the project to go abroad or to welcome young people from abroad must obtain the backing of the family, and of other associations, potentially of the schools.

Becoming reporters of their own history for other young people elsewhere

Travelling also means opening your eyes. And that starts by looking at your own region, your own living environment. How? Many young people are anxious to speak of their realities with young people from other countries. It is therefore important to support the desire of these young people to meet other young people from elsewhere through projects that talk about their life; this incorporates the desire to share difficulties and hopes with young people from elsewhere.

Being responsible for their project

Finally, it is useful for the young people to be financially involved in their project and for them to personally organise activities likely to bring in some money. This is a way of making them project carriers.

→ Stage 3: Crossing borders

Ok, off we go!

Under what conditions can young people benefit from their experience in another country? This may involve speaking another language, experiencing another culture, knowing how to behave and putting aside their own habits, sometimes doing without that which is most important to them in their day-to-day life.

We’re ready to go now, right this minute! But it’s taking so much time...

A contrast sets in between the immediate urge and the long, drawn-out process. Many young people live in the here and now. However, the processes and procedures entailed by a planned stay abroad, whether a collective or individual project, often take time. It is difficult to keep up one’s motivation.

We’ll never get there!

The obstacles along the way include fear of self-assertion and fear of change. In quite a few cases, sudden changes appear in the personal or professional social
situation of the young people. Generally speaking, the young people sometimes find it difficult to define their project: what am I capable of, particularly in a foreign language? Given these difficulties, it is important to have access to a database, to organisations ready to welcome them and inform them.

**Empowering young people!**

We do not take care of everything on behalf of the young people. The youth workers must allow young people to take their own initiative to foster their long-term autonomy. To encourage this autonomy, we underscore the importance of preparatory visits, in particular when the project concerns very vulnerable sections of the population. In this context, there is a clear interest in encouraging the creation of partnerships between institutions and associations in the field to combine the travel project with a training process.

**No, they don’t eat the way we do!**

Several young people want to make the move and at the same time do not want to give up on their little habits. It is incredible how many of them want to find their own “foodstyle” wherever they go, whether Africa, America or Europe! To leave or not to leave! Meeting other people without changing ourselves! All of that is impossible and the youth workers need to organise simulations to acquaint young people with a foreign reality.

It is important for young people to learn the dos and don’ts of travel! A large number of young people are paradoxically limited by very community-based or very local living habits at a time when the Internet and social networks put them in touch with the whole wide world. In view of this, youth workers have to take up the challenge of teaching these young people to be good travellers. The aim is teach them respect towards those who will play host to them. To do so, the youth workers must help them discover and accept other ways of doing things: getting them used to eating unknown or unusual food, knowing how to thank their hosts for any gifts, knowing how to fit into new or strange settings or places, and not withdrawing into community or cultural habits that hamper the experience of being abroad and of foreignness.

**Back already?**

In a great many cases, after a travel experience abroad, it is not easy coming back. This problem is underestimated at the beginning and not taken into account. The young person has changed and finds it difficult to get used again to his or her neighbourhood, family and friends, who have not changed. Certain associations have a minimal follow-through but in general the youth workers have little time and few resources to devote to returnees. The priority goes to the “new ones”.

This difficulty of “finding one’s feet” again on return can concern one young person in particular (for example the return from European Voluntary Service) or can concern a whole group of young people (for example the return from a youth exchange). In the case of a collective return, the follow-through has a very high importance.

**Building on the lessons learnt**

The experience of a stay abroad will be even more beneficial for young people if, upon their return, the environment is ready to recognise the achievements and to appreciate them. This appreciation can be expressed in everyday and family life;
it can give rise, within the associations, to the presentation of concrete souvenirs or to internal discussions on what has been learnt and how this can be put to good use in future.

→ Indicators and good practice

To evaluate the quality of a mobility experience, five criteria are important:

- “leaving” must give the young person an additional “distinction”: an identifiable “plus”;
- they must have the certitude of finding what there was before on their return: being sure of not losing anything;
- they must have the feeling of being up to the new situation;
- the support of a youth worker is indispensable, as someone who guarantees protection in the event of conflicts, who has a positive view of the young person, and reassures them about what they are worth;
- this youth worker must be the heart and soul behind the action, should draw pleasure from the process, and must be a key part of success and of failure.

Mobility, a step-by-step process to be fostered in the field of non-formal education – this is the will expressed by the youth partners in the Wallonia-Brussels Federation.
Table 1: Mobility step by step

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Mobility isn’t an easy option</th>
<th>Making the move</th>
<th>Crossing borders</th>
<th>Learning and giving back</th>
<th>Discovering new practices</th>
<th>Putting all the chances on your side</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“It’s not easy going to another area, another town, meeting other people…”</td>
<td>“I found the courage to leave behind my family and friends, to find myself through others”</td>
<td>“I found the courage to explore another country, another culture, to speak a foreign language…”</td>
<td>“I learned something important for my future life, as an individual and as a citizen…”</td>
<td>“I found the courage to push back my horizons, to get first-hand experience of a practice, a trade, a professional environment…”</td>
<td>“By accepting mobility, I improved my CV, my employability”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The first step towards making the move is taken close to home, through a social and cultural local mobility venture. A great many obstacles have to be overcome but sometimes it doesn’t take much to unlock the doors of opportunity by first focusing on the day-to-day life of each young person, taking into account their family life, isolation, housing situation, financial difficulties…</td>
<td>Self-esteem is of the essence when it comes to widening our horizons. Creative and educational approaches allow young people to gradually switch from one way of life to another. These are the measures and tools that help young people find their way.</td>
<td>Crossing borders is one way of building self-confidence. However, young people and those responsible for them sometimes tend to be too easily dissuaded by the language barrier. Above all, collective projects: a good trampoline.</td>
<td>Mobility is an indispensable condition for social inclusion. It is also essential for well-being and autonomy. Each young person must be able to access knowledge, other cultures, and must be able to travel for training purposes.</td>
<td>The mobility programmes encourage access to new professional environments, to new practices and organisations.</td>
<td>Which conditions need to be created for young people to be able to grab mobility opportunities that make an impression on their CV and increase their chances of employment?</td>
</tr>
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Cross-border youth mobility, meeting the neighbours, learning from each other: international exchanges of young Poles and their peers from abroad

Introduction

Democratic states are supposed to organise their educational systems in order to develop the skills and competences of young generations which will become active in contemporary society and in the labour market. In many European countries formal education is considered to take place in school, while non-formal education takes place outside the formal education system and is voluntary (Lafraya 2011). For many years already, non-formal education has been recognised as a valuable form of learning, providing the right background to support it within state youth policy. Moreover, mobility is considered an important element of the modern lifestyle, and participation in international youth projects is one of the main aspects of mobility in Europe. International youth exchanges, which require the mobility of young participants from different countries and non-formal education approaches, combine these two aspects and create at the same time a model of work with young people that is easily applicable under various circumstances and conditions and can be a good basis for cooperation between states. In this respect, the Polish authorities have developed a diversified structure of mobility and
exchange schemes for young people, particularly with neighbouring countries, over the past couple of decades.

**The German-Polish Youth Office: youth exchange as a way to reconciliation**

On 17 June 1991, the ministers of foreign affairs of Poland and Germany signed an agreement on German-Polish youth co-operation, establishing an intergovernmental youth exchange fund – the German-Polish Youth Office (Deutsch-Polnisches Jugendwerk – DPJW). In this way, they realised the idea of the first non-communist Polish Prime Minister, Tadeusz Mazowiecki, and the German Chancellor, Helmut Kohl – the idea of reconciliation of young people from both countries.

With the fall of the “Iron Curtain”, the end of communism in Eastern Europe and the process of reunification of Germany, these two leaders wanted to give a new impetus to relations between their countries; the driving force behind rapprochement would be the DPJW. After a difficult and painful period of common history, the young people of both nations were given the opportunity to meet their neighbours, to establish friendships, and to overcome prejudices and stereotypes about each other. The DPJW was supposed to be based on the model of the French-German Youth Work (Deutsch-Französisches Jugendwerk – DFJW) existing since 1963.

The establishment of the DPJW was already foreseen in the Treaty on Good Neighbourship and Friendly Cooperation between Poland and Germany, which was signed at the same time (17 June 1991); this agreement constitutes a milestone in post-war Polish-German relations. It is worth mentioning that the treaty states explicitly that both parties are convinced that the mutual knowledge and understanding of young generations are essential to contributing to reconciliation between Polish and German societies.

The DPJW has the official status of an international organisation and it is the only one such bilateral institution in Poland. Its budget consists of national contributions from both governments. The organisation has two offices, located in Warsaw and in Potsdam.

The programme supports youth exchange and youth co-operation projects between Poles and Germans, though trilateral projects are also possible, and special agreements with France, the Russian Federation, Israel and the Czech Republic have been signed in this respect. The DPJW is open to all entities and initiatives. Its activities are based on partnership and equal co-operation between the Poles and the Germans. Its main objective is to contribute to the free personal development of young people and to learning to assume responsibility in society and the country. Active engagement and self-responsibility of youths are expected in all supported projects. Young people should acquire the ability to maintain new contacts on their own and – in that way – to contribute to sustainable co-operation between the two countries.

In the 20-year history of the programme, the biggest interest in joint youth projects was noted immediately after Polish accession to the European Union in 2004. Obviously, such a new opening, a strong will to get to know the neighbours and their country and to work together was the impetus for the establishment of many new partnerships and projects.
The “Jugendwerk” (DPLW) supports Polish-German and trilateral projects (mostly with France, the Czech Republic, Ukraine and Russia), involving young people between 12 and 26 years, over 4-28 days. It is underlined that young people should be not only beneficiaries, but also be actively involved in the preparation and running of the projects. The projects can involve, for example, trainings, sport activities or theatre workshops. The most important aim of the programme is to promote teamwork among the young participants. As the idea of reconciliation through youth exchange was a point of departure for creating the DPJW, today, the programme aims to respond to current needs and trends and is being enriched with new elements, such as Education for Sustainable Development.

According to the application procedure, youth projects are divided in two general types: school exchanges and out-of-school activities. However, both are based on non-formal education methods, and their objective is active engagement of young participants. School partnerships constitute the most common basis for co-operation. Each year the programme supports out-of-school youth exchanges for more than 50,000 participants; the total number of young people participating in DPJW projects annually is more than 100,000. In 2010 and 2011, more than 3,100 projects have been financed in each year. The total number of projects implemented under the DPJW between 1993 and 2010 is almost 54,000 (Brodowski and Hetzer 2011).

To assure the quality of the youth meetings, the DPJW supports and organises conferences, seminars and trainings for professionals and practitioners dealing with youth work. In this respect, the organisation is also active in publishing.

Taking into account the results of the last survey run from 2005 to 2010 (Ilg and Dubiski 2011), it becomes clear the DPJW has an important impact on implementing non-formal education in youth work. For example, language competence is an area where international meetings of young people can boast the best results. Over three quarters of the young participants of DPJW projects surveyed believe that the exchange has increased their language skills and 77% feel motivated to continue learning the language of those they are partnering with. Thanks to the personal experience of meeting new colleagues from other countries, this motivation becomes stronger, which is usually difficult at school. International youth meetings are also an important site for acquiring social skills. In particular, they help young people to understand each other’s identities through the prism of their culture.\textsuperscript{11}

→ Polish-Lithuanian Youth Exchange Fund

On 1 June 2007, the prime ministers of Poland and Lithuania signed an agreement on the Polish-Lithuanian Youth Exchange Fund (PLYEF). The Fund was established in order to bring the two nations closer by promoting the development of trans-boundary co-operation, developing actively friendly and good neighbourly relations, and inspiring cultural co-operation and promoting tolerance.

The budget of the Fund is composed of national contributions from the Polish Ministry of Education and the Lithuanian Ministry of Social Protection and Labour. So far, in the first five years of running the fund, there have been six calls for projects launched and 292 exchanges have been held involving young people from the two countries. Each has had its unique theme, with the help of which young people have been able to get to know better their peers from a neighbouring country.

The call for projects and the selection are organised once a year. Young people aged 13-30 years and youth workers who are legal residents in Lithuania and Poland may participate. According to the rules of the competition, each project should be based on the principles of intercultural education, youth participation and equal partnership; this last rule is one of the main principles of the Fund, as all project activities must be based on an equal responsibility towards the partner. Both organisations (from the Polish and the Lithuanian side) taking part in the project should make a similar substantive contribution to the creation and implementation of the common initiative. This allows partner organisations to get to know each other, build trust and share experiences and good practices in developing common solutions.

Active participation of young people in the projects helps to develop partnerships between youths and adults at all levels of activities, at every stage of the project: during creation, implementation, and finally in the evaluation and dissemination of results. This enables young people to embrace meaningful roles in their group, and in society, allowing them their individual development through the achievement of new skills and improvement of competences. Their active participation should be seen as a learning process and – at the same time – the effect of an exchange.

The guidelines to the Polish-Lithuanian Youth Exchange Fund indicate in a clear and detailed manner what kind of attitudes and behaviour should be promoted and maintained within a youth project in order to guarantee the active participation of young people (Przewodnik 2011). They include:

- creating opportunities for interaction among participants, avoiding passive listening;
- learning respect for individual knowledge and the skills of each participant;
- ensuring participants’ influence over project decisions, not just their participation in the project;
- empowering as a key principle of the learning process, instead of just asking questions;
- facilitators and trainers developing and maintaining a self-critical approach towards their own activities.

Many young people confirm that thanks to their participation in PLYEF projects they have changed their opinions about their neighbours; they have realised that, despite their proximity, they are quite different, live in another culture, have different opinions on many issues – but still, all of that does not exclude their joint work to achieve the aims of the project!

One of the Polish young participants said:

I was quite sceptical about participation in a Polish-Lithuanian exchange. I’ve never had to deal with people from Lithuania before, that’s why I was afraid of our meeting. Our activities were designed to learn how to accept and to share different views and to discuss them. We learned to work together in the group, each task required an agreement and listening to each other. Despite the disputes we were able to finish the job and to present results of our work. The Polish-Lithuanian exchange was for me a lesson in acceptance, understanding, and above all the ability to be an objective person (Milorć 2012)

The results of the projects can be seen on many different levels: on the one hand, enhancing the capacity of youth organisations and their ongoing co-operation can be expected; on the other hand, young participants of the projects profit from
the non-formal education process by gaining new skills and broadening their horizons; finally, on the political level, it is a fact that it is worth investing in the Polish-Lithuanian relations of young people who are supposed to build the future of the two countries.12

→ Polish-Ukrainian Youth Exchange

Since 2006, the National Centre for Culture of Poland has implemented the Polish-Ukrainian Youth Exchange, addressed to youngsters from Poland and Ukraine aged between 12 and 18 years. Currently, the programme is financed only by the Polish Government. The main objectives of the programme are: getting to know young people from the partner country, exploring cultural similarities and differences, as well as focusing on the local history of their home towns.

The programme has its particular cultural approach, as it derives directly from the agreement on co-operation between the Polish Ministry of Culture and National Heritage and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Ukraine. Therefore, entities allowed to apply for financial support are local cultural institutions and non-governmental organisations active in the field of culture. The projects must be planned and run in co-operation with Ukrainian partners and they have to include components on local history, regional culture and language learning. They can take place in Poland and in Ukraine; however, in this respect, co-operation between the regions of eastern and central Ukraine is particularly promoted. Young people should also be actively involved in planning the project activities.

Within seven editions of the programme between 2006 and 2012, 729 projects for more than 32 000 young people took place in Poland and in Ukraine.13

→ Polish-Russian Youth Exchange (since 2012)

Based on different practices and experiences, and bearing in mind that youth exchange is an extremely effective tool in combating prejudices and stereotypes that might aggravate relations between neighbouring nations, a Polish-Russian Youth Exchange has been initiated within the activities of a new institution – the Centre for Polish-Russian Dialogue and Understanding. It is a legal entity, founded by an act of Parliament (Act of law 2011), the mission of which is to initiate and to support projects undertaken in Poland and in the Russian Federation and dedicated to improving dialogue and understanding between both countries. The Centre also works with Russian governmental institutions that are dedicated to the improvement of dialogue and understanding in Russian-Polish relations.

The Centre supports, in particular, academic work and publishing activities, which help to raise awareness and improve the knowledge of Poles and Russians on Polish-Russian relations, history and culture, as well as the common heritage of both nations within the territory of Poland, Russia and other countries. It is also dedicated to introducing and supporting educational initiatives on these topics, as well as organising conferences, symposia and other forms of meetings related to these issues. The Centre will support long-term co-operative projects which encourage bilateral dialogue and mutual understanding in bilateral relations.


Since the Centre was launched in 2011, there have been just two editions of the call for applicants launched. With the first one 16 selected projects for 530 young people and students from Poland and Russia have been supported. The calls were open to any type of entity, for example schools, universities, foundations and non-governmental organisations.

It is worthwhile to mention that an original approach, of a non-formal education working method, will be proposed. All applications should explore one of the five given priority subjects, which are focused on the historical, social and cultural background of Polish-Russian relations. With such an approach, young people have the possibility of completing their school curricula or even going further to make up a project according to their personal interests around these focus areas. Young participants are also expected to work actively, and on an individual basis to begin with, to prepare their project.

The massive interest generated proves a high demand for new youth exchange practices in bilateral relations between Poland and Russia, and this is one of the main reasons to continue the programme in the coming years.\textsuperscript{14}

\textbf{International Youth Exchanges competitions of the Polish Ministry of National Education}

Youth exchange – as can be seen in all the examples above – is an important instrument in creating a targeted, modern youth policy for states. Therefore, each year the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Poland supports tens of international youth projects actualised by Polish entities in co-operation with Eastern Partnership countries, the Russian Federation and Israel. This aims to improve relations between the young people of these countries and creates for the young project participants an excellent opportunity to explore the mutual history and culture of partner countries.

The exchanges are financed in the framework of open calls for projects. The selection procedure aims to promote projects which are based on non-formal education methods, develop the teamwork of participants and engage local communities. Finally, such international meetings should provide space for discussion on common history or contemporary youth culture.

In 2011, 908 young people took part in this form of mobility; in 2012, there were more than 1 600. Among the projects funded in 2012, there have been 13 Polish-Ukrainian and three Polish-Belarussian projects, two of which are related to multilateral co-operation. The direction of international youth co-operation in Poland is based on current needs and interests.

Youth exchanges with Eastern Partnership countries and the Russian Federation are a particular priority for the Ministry of Education. This reflects the focus on co-operation with eastern Europe and Caucasus countries that was explored during the Polish Presidency in the Council of European Union (July-December 2011). In executing the national priority to establish positive relationships with its eastern neighbours, Poland has been trying to make people recognise the advantages of co-operation with neighbours beyond the eastern border of the EU. Co-operation in the field of youth should constitute a starting point for further integration with

this region, since political, cultural, social and economic co-operation is based on straightforward relations between people, friendship, tolerance and awareness of one’s own culture. The Polish EU Presidency’s efforts resulted in the adoption of the Council Conclusions on the Eastern Dimension of Youth Participation and Mobility by the EU’s Education, Youth, Culture and Sport Council in November 2011.

Since 2007, youth exchanges between Poland and Israel can be financed within calls for projects of the Ministry of Education. They are open to school co-operation, as well as to initiatives run by non-governmental organisations and youth associations at all levels (national, regional, local). The importance attached by both countries to the development of mutual relations and to raising awareness and knowledge about the history and culture of both nations among young people has been expressed in the documents of the Program of Cooperation on Youth Exchange for the years 2009-11 in 2009, as well as in the Joint Declaration signed in 2011. Last year, 8 joint projects for 160 participants were supported, while in 2012 the number of participants rose to 217 young people.

A particular dimension of Polish-Israeli youth exchanges is constituted of Holocaust education and remembrance. This topic is usually addressed within the youth meetings through study visits and special workshops run in the memorial areas.15

→ Summary

International youth meetings – in the form designed in governmental agreements and schemes – serve to overcome prejudices between youth representatives of different nations, and also help develop good neighbourhood relations.

On the individual level, they constitute an opportunity for young people to make a particular learning mobility experience which is markedly different from regular school curricula. More generally, they prepare young people for living and working in a united Europe and in a globalised world. The main challenge is to keep a good balance between the quality and the quantity, within the available but often limited resources, and to extend the amount of projects and the number of participants, with the assurance that an exchange will always be a valuable personal and learning experience.

→ References


Learning mobility in the youth field: the Estonian experience with a European imprint

Setting the scene for learning mobility in Estonia

In modern societies, education is seen as the most important determinant of social position as well as a prerequisite for social mobility, avoiding unemployment, and so on. The extent and particular nature of its effect (to what degree it promotes or reduces inequality) depends on the organisation of the education system.

Nowadays it is well understood that in order to help young people to achieve, general education needs to not only instil knowledge about facts but also shape young people’s key competences. The importance of learning as a lifelong objective is increasingly acknowledged, therefore it is necessary to help learners develop their own intellectual tools and learning strategies. Even if we still have a long way to go, this means that the focus of education is inevitably shifting from teaching to learning.

All the reasons given above and the consistent decrease in the number of young people due to the demographic changes in Estonia have paved the way for recent reforms in the education system. Extensive reforms within primary and secondary education as
well as higher education have taken place, resulting in changes in curricula, conditions and the governance of general and higher education. This will of course affect Estonian development in the long run.

When looking at where learning mobility stands in this context, one finds that the conditions set by our national policy give it a rather prominent standing, although mostly in the field of higher education, where the promotion of internationalisation and student mobility in the interests of obtaining a more diverse education is of key importance.

According to the government’s policy objectives, supporting the internationalisation of higher education creates an opportunity for Estonian students in higher education to widen their horizons, obtain experience studying and living in different cultural environments, and make contacts. All of these are important components in later working life in an increasingly global world. The internationalisation of higher education encompasses both the mobility programmes aimed at Estonian students and faculty as well as measures for encouraging foreign students and faculty to come to Estonia (Estonian Government 2011). However, only about 3% of Estonian university students currently spend time studying abroad. The target set in the European Higher Education Area is for 20% of graduates to have mobility experience by 2020. So we are some distance away from the set objective.

But why look at it in such a limited way, especially when one can see the benefits of non-formal learning and learning mobility in the youth field contributing to the described aims equally? International youth work is another sphere in Estonia where learning mobility is considered to be an effective means of cultivating a wide range of life skills, in particular the intercultural competences considered important for future societies characterised by diversity.

**Learning mobility in the youth field, with a European imprint**

The conditions for activities in the youth field are laid out in the Estonian Youth Work Strategy 2006-2013, which defines the goals to achieve and the measures to be implemented in the given time frame in order to further develop youth policy and one of its domains – youth work – in Estonia. It is worth mentioning that the Estonian Youth Policy and Youth Work Strategy are largely grounded in the White Paper on Youth Policy of the EU and the framework of the EU youth policy co-operation as well as the Council of Europe framework for youth policy and related indicators.

Given the wide scope of youth work in Estonia, the strategy defines 10 fields of action, among which international youth work aims at creating opportunities for youth and youth workers for acquiring international co-operation experience and learning from other cultures (Estonian Youth Work Strategy 2006-2013).

The national strategy has been updated as a consequence of policy and practice developments at national and European level, taking the form of biannual implementation plans that are approved and monitored by the government. For the period 2011 to 2013, support to international youth work and co-operation including learning mobility in the youth field has become a priority. The reason

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16. Youth work: one of the activity areas of Estonian youth policy that creates possibilities for young people aged 7 to 26 for the versatile development of their personality in addition to formal education, work and family (Estonian Youth Work Act 1999, amended in 2010).
for this is the value seen in peer learning, exchange of expert knowledge and co-operation in contributing towards better targeting the aims and objectives set for Estonian youth policy and in advancing in European youth policy priority fields. Safeguarding the European instrument (namely the Youth in Action Programme) and fostering youth policy development (specifically the youth work sector) through international co-operation and learning mobility is considered to be of paramount importance. The endorsement of this priority by the government has helped us a great deal throughout the debates setting the scene for the continuity of the EU youth programme in the future.

What makes a difference – the biggest contributors to the advancement of learning mobility in the youth field

When looking at the conditions created for learning mobility in the youth field since the Soviet era (when learning mobility did exist but in a completely different “spirit” and space), it is important to assess how we got here and what has affected us the most.

First of all, important heritage was retained in the sense that youth work had educational value and the tracks laid out for the future were rational. Without a doubt early and stable bilateral co-operation with Nordic countries with particular emphasis on youth policy played its part. Estonia has also, with remarkable rapidity, entered various types of European partnerships on an equal footing, so one can say that we appeared to be well prepared for our own ambitions of becoming a modern, European country as quickly as possible.

In the process of reconstructing a modern youth policy, Estonia has used previous advantages together with a conscious European orientation. At state and local levels various bilateral and multilateral channels have been used for study visits and exchange of staff and youth groups, with the clear purpose of gaining experience and forming opinions on solutions for youth work and policies (CDEJ 2000).

The biggest systemic effect related to learning mobility has been achieved through Estonia’s participation in the Youth for Europe Programme and its successors YOUTH and Youth in Action (YiA), as has the establishment of the National Agency in 1997, through which an important contribution has been made to the development, internationalisation and quality of youth work at all levels.

The strategies applied by the National Agency, as of the beginning of the programme, have certainly been one of the preconditions of the success of the YOUTH Programme. The National Agency has not only been an intermediary, but an active influencer in the Estonian youth field by participating actively in the development of youth work concepts and youth worker training, thereby learning about the daily problems of young people and youth workers. The National Agency and the smallness of Estonia allow one to see the real life behind the priorities of the programme – from the grassroots level to the development of youth policy (Jõe et al. 2003).

The latter is especially important given our point of departure, in the sense that youth work had to be “started” all over again and the establishment of youth work structures had only begun when the National Agency was created. It was largely thanks to the Training and Co-operation plan of the National Agency that we were able to support the necessary developments in the youth field, including becoming competent in fostering quality in non-formal learning activities with intercultural dimensions and enabling partnership building to give them a solid basis.
The EU youth programme has also been a major instrument in supporting the learning mobility projects of individuals and groups of young people in Estonia, allowing more than 3,600 Estonian young people yearly to experience international co-operation and acquire competences needed to make it in the modern world. With reference to the policy goals on learning mobility of young people, this output by far tops the yearly statistics on student mobility for Estonia!

Having said that it’s worth emphasising that pure determination would probably not have been enough for the modernisation of youth work and bringing about new forms of youth participation, because of the lack of financial resources in Estonia for the sector and policy field and the low levels of recognition, especially in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Nowadays the value of young people’s engagement in international non-formal learning activities is no longer debated. Nevertheless it clearly has not reached a level whereby the activities of non-formal learning mobility are taken into consideration when planning the state budget, as has been the case for student mobility in higher education (especially for master’s and doctoral levels), where the government has decided to invest both national and European Social Fund money, enabling a tripling of Estonian students in comparison to those in the Erasmus Programme. To cut a long story short, learning mobility in the youth field would probably not have come that far in Estonia without the support and co-operation of European institutions and the EU contribution to the decentralised implementation of EU youth programmes over the past decade and a half.

What’s in it for youth?

Having described the evolution and the most important aspects of the development of the conditions for learning mobility, an important question to ask is: what is the actual impact of all this on young people, the youth sector and society as a whole?

When it comes to Estonia, the following can be said at least, based on extensive academic research (using quantitative and qualitative methods) carried out from 2003 to 2011 on the impact of EU youth programmes in Estonia.

Learning mobility outcomes for young people

The research results indicate that the YiA Programme contributes to a large extent to competence development, active citizenship and participation in civil society and political life, but also to employability (Chisholm et al. 2012).

Of the young people that participated in the study, 77% believe that their job prospects have improved and that the Programme has helped them with making decisions about their future careers. Sixty-five percent agreed that they now have a clearer idea about their educational pathways and 72% agreed that they now have a clearer idea about their professional career aspirations and goals (Murakas et al. 2010). Most of the respondents noticed improvement in their social skills. Such skills include co-operation skills, negotiation skills, the ability to get along with people from different cultural backgrounds and communicate in a foreign language, as well as the ability to express ideas in discussions and make oneself understood – development of these skills was reported by at least 80% of the respondents. Nearly the same percentage (76%) of the respondents planned to go abroad to study, work or do an apprenticeship and 90% of the respondents planned to improve their language skills in the future.

17. Number of Estonian young people directly involved in individual or group mobility projects of the YiA programme (Estonian YiA National Agency statistical report 2011).
Furthermore, improvement in general and cross-cultural tolerance and the placing of more value on one’s own culture can be observed. Contacts with other people and representatives of other cultures is believed to be essential in bringing about all these developments. This is what provides an understanding of diversity as well as one’s own uniqueness and value.

**Fostering European identity**

The European Union has spent millions of euros over the last couple of years on education, training and youth programmes. One of the main objectives of these programmes is to stimulate participation and develop a sense of European identity.

Commission-funded programmes, such as Leonardo and Socrates, do not always have such explicit citizenship education objectives but they are opportunities to bring rhetoric about European citizenship to the forefront and help put it into practice (Osler and Starkey 1999). Although the EU, as also the Council of Europe and even the national governments, have made a considerable effort to stimulate the promotion of a European dimension in the teaching of civic education, a comparative study of citizenship education documents shows that, compared to the emphasis on national issues, the European dimension remains rather neglected (Eurydice 2005).

Looking further into national research on this subject one finds that when European identity and support for the EU is compared between past and future Erasmus students, no significant differences appear to be present. Participation in the Erasmus Programme appears to have no impact on European identity since participating students are more likely to feel European before participating in the exchange (Pilviste 2012). It may well be that those going for Erasmus student exchanges have been previously active in youth projects with a European dimension, where the favourable attitude towards Europe is first actualised.

European citizenship – making young people aware that they are European citizens and ensuring that they engage themselves actively in European issues – is also a priority in the Youth in Action Programme (European Parliament and Council 2006).

YiA research findings show strong effects on participants with respect to attitudes and values related to active citizenship and participation as well as “feeling like a European” and being interested in European topics. Particularly strong effects are expressed with respect to knowledge about Europe, awareness of European values, awareness of inequality in society – in particular of people with fewer opportunities – but also increased knowledge about Europe, inclusion and youth policies (Chisholm et al. 2012).

Non-formal learning mobility experiences have turned out to be an important factor contributing to the formation of personal attitudes. Through these experiences it has become clear that integration does not merely mean visa-free movement between different states and that the whole process is far more complex – there are psychological and emotional borders to be crossed. This effect on young people is also important because low awareness can and has caused prejudices and fears associated with the EU and such apprehensions can by no means be underestimated.

→ The impact of European Voluntary Service on third sector development

When reflecting on the impact of the European Voluntary Service (EVS), two aspects should be kept in mind – the objectives and priorities of the programme and the conditions and environment where an attempt to achieve those objectives is made.
In the case of Estonia, after the long forced pause in the active development of civil society, the conditions for the implementation of the EVS were insufficient especially during the early years of programme implementation. Although people knew in general what voluntary work was in theory, the respective attitudes and values involved were not adopted in Estonia as quickly. On the one hand, there were too many organisations that were associated in people’s minds with the legacy of Soviet voluntary obligation. On the other hand, there was this new opportunity for young people to volunteer without specialisation or experience that benefited not only society in general but individuals, organisations and communities. So it was something new to understand and to adapt to for those receiving foreign volunteers for the first time as it was for those local communities where EVS programmes took place.

While it was not difficult to motivate young people (the activities created great interest), the contribution of organisations (willingness and also capability) was not sufficient. A lot of effort had to be put into actively promoting the concept of EVS in Estonian society.

Since then, however, the EVS has been quickly growing in numbers of both outgoing and incoming volunteers. Besides these easily measurable effects we can also see more systemic consequences. For one, volunteering abroad has become popular among Estonian young people and gives a solid alternative to student mobility schemes. Secondly, EVS has contributed strongly to the development of competences and the readiness, intentions and plans with respect to educational and professional development of the young people involved. Thirdly, it has helped to build capacity and internationalise third sector organisations and contributed to the creation of such organisations in Estonia. In fact, the main organisation dealing with the development and co-ordination of voluntary activities in Estonia was created as a result of the EVS within the framework of the EU youth programme.

**Outcomes for the youth sector and youth policy**

According to the research on the competences of Estonian youth workers conducted in 2005 and 2010, the international training activities of the Estonian National Agency occupy a prominent place alongside the different formal and non-formal training providers in the youth work field. The studies also tell us that in Estonia, where the youth work sector is still rather young and dynamic, non-formal learning mobility opportunities are an important complement in youth workers’ professional development to formal learning possibilities.

Next to the impact on professionalisation of the (national) youth work sector, learning mobility activities have also had an effect on bridging important youth policy issues such recognition of non-formal learning, promotion of young people’s active citizenship and human rights, combating social discrimination, and so on. Also, efforts to build more inter-sector co-operation activities at European level in recent years have paid off in creating synergies with other sectors targeting youth, including their development and involvement in society through education and training, employment and social care. As a result we can see more initiatives taken by the youth sector to stimulate practices involving relevant stakeholders to create better conditions for young people’s development.

To a large extent, Estonian secondary education has essentially been based on knowledge of facts rather than development and expression of one’s opinion. The
same can be said about the Estonian youth work scene in the early 1990s and its heavy pedagogical and instructional tradition (CDEJ 2000). One of the EU youth programme’s advantages, valued by participants, is the fact that a very different approach from formal education often motivates young people to learn (Murakas et al. 2007). Further, non-formal learning mobility projects have certainly functioned as new forms of youth work. The young people involved have been given more freedom to explore and experiment with their own ideas and take responsibility for the success of their own learning. This without doubt carries an important function of social integration.

**Fostering non-formal learning**

Non-formal learning – its principles and practice – have always been at the heart of the National Agency’s systematic approach in supporting the development of the youth work sector in Estonia. It has been the core criterion in assessing learning mobility project ideas and applications submitted to the National Agency. In order to support the quality of non-formal learning in the youth field, a series of training activities oriented at competence building with European partners and nationally have been organised.

At the same time it’s been important to address the recognition aspect of non-formal learning in society, targeting also the employment and formal education sector alongside the youth sector. As an example, the first public discussion around the importance and quality of non-formal learning in youth activities, in the form of a national conference, was organised in 2003. Another more in-depth step towards supporting the implementation of non-formal learning principles in everyday youth work was taken by the National Agency in 2005 through the organisation of a summer school on non-formal learning for youth workers, people responsible for youth worker curricula development, youth researchers and trainers active in youth work.

**Future perspectives and further developments**

Work related to learning mobility is never done! A lot still has to be done with regard to building trust and changing the culture and attitudes toward non-formal and informal learning in Estonia. Taking prior learning acquired in youth work seriously is still a big challenge to be overcome by both general education as well as most higher education institutions and employers. The European policy developments are surely of great help to us but the principles and systems of validation in Estonia also need revamping.

In order to build trust and acknowledge learning in the youth field, it is important to explore the effects of learning mobility projects and generate new knowledge about the processes and outcomes of non-formal learning activities in general, and more specifically in non-formal learning activities in the youth field with an international dimension.

**Reaching the unreachable**

Another challenge involves reaching young people with fewer opportunities who are today certainly underrepresented in mobility schemes. Mobility involving young people with fewer opportunities requires, however, continuity, stable structures and youth workers able and willing to contribute to inclusion. Even though we have taken a giant leap forward in making social inclusion a priority in the youth policy
agenda, there’s still a long way to go in developing everyday youth work practice that is more responsive to young people’s needs and transnational mobility projects that reach out to those who do not even know or dare to consider that this might be something for them. Strengthening the youth work sector to really have a significant effect is a work in progress in Estonia and needs to be continued.

To be continued…

To be able to continue supporting young people’s non-formal learning mobility in the future, the words setting it as a priority must turn into action. Estonia’s experience shows that when it comes to creating related conditions, we are very much dependent on European support. I certainly hope that with the new EU programming period learning mobility opportunities for the youth field will grow in terms of quantity, accessibility, quality and diversity and that the national systems of support will be safeguarded and further developed.

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What are the effects of international youth mobility projects? Research-based analysis of Youth in Action

→ Introduction

It is a widely accepted hypothesis that travelling, experiences in foreign environments, encounters with different cultures and the like can provide for personal development, learning experiences and education. This notion is at least part of the rationale for most international/transnational exchange programmes established during the past decades, but it was also at the origin of mobility in previous centuries, for example the mobility of travelling craftspersons.

But what is actually learned through these kinds of experiences? And how does such learning take place?

There is limited evidence regarding the effects of international mobility/learning experiences in general. Research in this field is rather fragmented and focused on (individual) student exchanges – therefore in the context of formal education

18. The term “exchange programme” might be misunderstood, suggesting reciprocity of visits between different partners/countries, but has become synonymous for any kind of international/transnational encounter with an (explicitly or implicitly intended) educational dimension.
or internships, work placements or voluntary placements abroad – in the context of work-related learning. While these studies might also refer to informal learning rather as an added value, there is limited evidence about the effects of mobility projects aimed (explicitly or implicitly) at non-formal learning, that is youth exchanges or mobility projects in the field of non-formal youth and adult education.

While evaluations of the various international mobility programmes explore if, and possibly also to what extent the objectives of the respective programmes are met, there is little knowledge about their effects at large, whether intended or not.

This was the starting point for the ongoing project Research-based Analysis and Monitoring of Youth in Action (RAY): what is learned by actors involved in international/transnational projects in the youth field, no matter if intended or not, and how does this learning take place? The EU programme Youth in Action (YiA) provides for a broad range of formats of international learning/mobility experiences and thus for an enormous research field with access to large amounts of data on potentially far beyond the 100 000 persons involved in this programme every year.

→ Rationale: why research-based analysis and monitoring of Youth in Action?

There are various reasons for pursuing research-based analysis and monitoring of the Youth in Action (YiA) Programme: policy makers are interested in the impact and sustainability of the measures established to implement policies as well as in demonstrating that public funds are being spent effectively and efficiently; practitioners are interested in their own and their colleagues’ professional development as well as in demonstrating to others that they are doing a good job; and researchers are interested in generating knowledge and understanding about the design, processes and outcomes of (international) youth work and non-formal learning in the youth field.

A shared motivation is to identify and understand quality in all its expressions in order to recognise and improve youth work and non-formal youth education. While research cannot ultimately decide what quality is, it provides a relatively neutral and autonomous sphere in which different examples of process and outcome can be placed for observation and discussion, enabling a distanced and external view of phenomena and offering an analysis in relation to hypotheses and expectations. In this respect, research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA can help to provide a solid foundation for decisions about “what else” and “what more” can be done to improve the quality of experience and impact of activities supported under European youth programmes.

→ Objectives and research questions

Research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA is ultimately aimed at producing reliable and valid documentation and understanding of the processes and outcomes of the YiA Programme and of the activities it supports. “Research-based” implies that the approach is systematic, neutral, evidential and transparent in attempting to understand the meaning and significance of the phenomena explored, no matter if they were intended or not. In this respect, research-based analysis of YiA goes beyond and at the same time differs from an evaluation which ultimately implies a judgement by relating the findings to aims and objectives of the evaluated phenomena.
In view of the rationale outlined above, the main objectives of research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA are to:

- contribute to quality assurance and development in the implementation of YiA;
- contribute to evidence-based and research-informed youth policy development;
- develop a better understanding about processes and outcomes of non-formal education activities, in particular in the youth field.

In this respect, the main questions addressed in research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA are: what is the effect of YiA projects on the actors involved and on the respective groups, organisations, institutions and structures? More specifically, what do participants, youth workers and youth leaders participating in YiA projects learn and which competences do they acquire thereby, in particular, with respect to attitudes, competences and behaviour related to active/democratic citizenship and participation in civil society and political life? At the same time, it is explored how the actors involved in YiA projects do learn: how do they develop their competences? Which pedagogic approaches, methodologies and methods are applied in the projects and how are they implemented? Furthermore, research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA aims at studying the effects on organisations involved in these projects and on youth structures at large as well as the effects on local project environments.

Research approach and methods

In principle, this research initiative takes a multi-method approach which envisages a combination of quantitative and qualitative social research methods and instruments, providing for a triangulation of methods, data and outcomes:

- standardised surveys with project participants and project leaders, key staff of beneficiary organisations as well as applicant organisations which were rejected;
- case studies of selected projects as well as longitudinal studies;
- action research in selected projects;
- interviews with different actors involved in YiA, including youth leaders and youth workers not participating in YiA;
- focus groups/group discussions with project participants.

The development of research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA

Research on European youth programmes is not new: there have been a number of studies on various aspects of these programmes in the past, partly commissioned by European institutions, partly resulting from national initiatives and partly as student dissertations or master/diploma theses. The starting point of the present initiative dates back to when research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA was established as an inherent element of YiA Programme implementation in Austria in 2007 with its assignment to the Institute of Educational Science at the University of Innsbruck for the full duration of the programme, until 2013 (Chisholm et al. 2011; Helling et al. 2011).19

In 2008, the Austrian National Agency of the YiA Programme, in particular its consortium partners Interkulturelles Zentrum and the Institute of Educational Science at

the University of Innsbruck, initiated the establishment of an international network and the development of joint transnational research activities related to YiA in line with the objectives outlined above. A first network meeting took place in Innsbruck in June 2008, involving YiA national agencies and their research partners from Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany and the Slovak Republic. Since then, network meetings have taken place twice a year, aimed at developing and coordinating research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA and its implementation. Presently this network for research-based analysis of YiA (the RAY network) involves the YiA national agencies and their research partners from 16 countries: Austria, Belgium (Flemish-speaking region), Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, the Netherlands (until 2011), Poland, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and Turkey.

→ The added value of an international research approach

At national level, research instruments and methods are usually developed and applied in only one language – normally the language of the country where the research takes place (exceptions are countries with more than one official language, or research specifically aimed at involving linguistic minorities). For research in a national context this research approach is normally sufficient.

When it comes to research in an international context – which is the case for research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA – it is normally necessary to work in more languages. While it might be possible to work with one or more languages which are largely understood in an international context (such as English, French, Spanish, Russian, etc.) these languages might still be foreign languages for most people involved/addressed, and only for a minority might they be a first language/mother tongue.

In the case of research-based analysis of YiA, a purely national approach can normally involve only actors from the respective country – and not actors from other countries who were involved in activities funded through the national agency of that country (at least not in their first language). The RAY network allows its partners to address and involve YiA actors in projects funded by them in 14 different languages currently (including in English, French, German and Russian) and to address and involve actors from their country in projects which were funded by national agencies in 16 different countries at present: this provides for a truly international research approach and for transnational analyses of the responses.

→ Research activities

Based on concepts and research instruments developed by the Institute of Educational Science at the University of Innsbruck, two multilingual online questionnaires in 14 languages were created – one for participants and one for project leaders/team members of YiA-funded projects. Between October 2009 and November 2011, more than 45 000 participants and project leaders/team members of YiA projects were invited to complete these online surveys and more than 15 000 did so. RAY network members analysed the responses for projects funded through their YiA national agencies; a first transnational analysis of data collected between October 2009 and June 2010 was presented in 2011 (Fennes et al. 2011), and a second transnational analysis of data collected in November 2010 and in May 2011 was presented in 2012 (Fennes et al. 2012).

20. Bulgarian, Czech, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Hungarian, Polish, Russian, Slovak, Swedish and Turkish.
These “standard surveys” will be continued by the RAY network on an annual basis in order to collate a sufficient number of responses, also at national level, to provide for meaningful results throughout the duration of the programme (until 2013) and possibly beyond, since many projects funded by the YiA Programme will not end until 2014.

Furthermore, a study on non-formal education and learning in YiA projects has been developed with a view to exploring which conditions and contexts support learning and the development of key competences in YiA projects and beyond. This study is based on a “special survey” with multilingual online questionnaires for project participants and for project leaders/team members in 14 languages (see above) as well as qualitative methods involving interviews with project leaders and group discussions with project participants, thus providing for a triangulation of data and outcomes. The online surveys were implemented in May and November 2012. The qualitative methods will be implemented during the first half of 2013. Accordingly, the publication of a research report is planned for the second half of 2013.

Finally, a study on competence development in YiA projects has been developed by a group of RAY network members, to be implemented in autumn 2012. This study should also validate some of the results of the standard surveys. A research report should be available early in 2013.

→ Conclusions

The Transnational Analysis 2011 arrives at the following main conclusions (see Fennes et al. 2012).

Participation in YiA projects contributes to the development of all key competences for lifelong learning. While the most distinct development is reported for interpersonal, social and intercultural competence as well as communication in a foreign language (as might be expected), a significant development is also reported for sense of entrepreneurship, civic competence, cultural awareness and expression and learning competence (learning to learn). Distinct developments can also be found for communication in the first language (mother tongue), mathematical competence and sense of initiative. All other competences are reported to be developed for a minority of participants. The self-assessment of participants is confirmed by the assessment by the project leaders of the participants’ competence development, showing a highly significant correlation between self-perception and external perception by the project leaders.

Involvement in YiA projects contributes specifically to the development of citizenship competences in a broad sense, in particular interpersonal, social, intercultural and foreign-language competences of both participants and project leaders. This includes the development of respective skills, but also of attitudes, values and knowledge. The responses also indicate that involvement in the projects results in an increased participation in social and political life. The development of civic skills and competences for political participation in a more traditional way is less distinct, as is the acquisition of new knowledge on discrimination, people with a disability, gender equality and minorities.

21. Some of the eight key competences defined in the European reference framework for key competences for lifelong learning were divided into sub-competences. In particular, “interpersonal, social, intercultural and civic competence” was divided into three sub-competences: “interpersonal and social”, “intercultural” and “civic”.

What are the effects of international youth mobility projects?
A significant finding is that YiA projects also have an effect on the development of the organisations, groups and bodies involved, thus creating “learning organisations”. On the one hand, this is demonstrated by an overall competence development reported by the project leaders resulting from their involvement in the project – similar to the competence development observed for the project participants (see above). Beyond the development of key competences for lifelong learning, youth workers and youth leaders also report that their youth work competences were developed, in particular with respect to non-formal education and international youth projects. This development of general and specific competences reflects “workplace learning” or “work-related learning” and contributes to professionalisation and organisational development, including cases where project leaders were involved as volunteers. On the other hand, project leaders and participating youth workers/leaders also report that their projects have had a significant effect on their organisations, groups and youth structures, in particular with respect to an internationalisation of the organisations and their activities, an increased promotion of participation and active citizenship in their organisations, and organisational development in general: this suggests that organisations, groups and structures involved in YiA projects are developing into “learning organisations”.

The results of the surveys also indicate that the involvement in YiA projects stimulated both participants and project leaders to consider or actually plan further educational activities and their professional development. Furthermore, a large majority of participants and project leaders believe that their job opportunities have increased at least to some extent: together with the competence development outlined above, this reflects an effect on the professional development of the actors involved in the YiA Programme beyond the youth field and civil society, especially in view of their involvement in the work domain. This points towards a significant effect complementing the social, cultural and political dimensions of the YiA Programme.

As for the profile of the young people participating in YiA projects, a divide can be observed. On the one hand, there is a group of participants who clearly belong to the anticipated target group of the YiA Programme: young people with fewer opportunities who are confronted with obstacles to their access to education, work, mobility and participation in society; the size of this group is hard to grasp because it is difficult to assess who is actually disadvantaged depending on the specific contexts. On the other hand, a considerable majority of participants are well educated, in education or training, employed or volunteering/doing an internship; they originate from the majority population with respect to language and cultural/ethnic background, and many of them have already participated in similar projects. These characteristics point to a group that is not disadvantaged. Nevertheless, there is a clear interest and effort on the part of project promoters to include young people with fewer opportunities: a vast majority of the participants in training and networking projects are reported to be youth workers/leaders who work with young people with fewer opportunities.

A differentiated analysis by project types of YiA confirms that there are “all-rounders” with a broad range of effects and effects which are mostly on average or above; there are “specialists” with a few effects (considerably) above average, but otherwise relatively weak effects; and there are project types which are somewhere in between – with partial effects (considerably) above average and partial effects (considerably) below average. Overall, there is no indication that the project duration has an effect on the responses on effects, for example that projects with a continuous engagement on a day-to-day basis have stronger/more effect than projects with short intensive phases.
A differentiated analysis depending on whether the project took place in the participant's or project leader's country of residence or in another country illustrates that for both types of experiences there are positive effects resulting from their involvement in the project, and that the effects on the “hosting” side (of projects taking place in the participant's or project leader's country of residence) are at least as strong as on the “sending” side (of projects taking place abroad) – and are possibly even stronger in many cases.

**Future perspectives**

There is substantial potential to expand and further develop the research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA, on the one hand by enlarging the RAY network (which is demonstrated by an expressed interest by new partners/countries), and on the other hand by developing existing and new research instruments and studies. This would not only depend on the allocation of respective additional resources to this initiative, but also on strengthening the links and the dialogue between research, policy and practice.

Further, the concept of research-based analysis and monitoring of YiA could be appropriately applied in other international (learning) mobility programmes, including in the field of formal education and in vocational education and training, as well as in other institutional and geographical contexts.

**References**


II

Concepts and approaches concerning mobility and learning
This chapter describes the practical and theoretical aspects of international youth work (IJA) in Germany, which started to develop in the 1950s and has diversified since then. Parallel to practical work, an interdisciplinary discourse about theory and research has been established that is particularly oriented towards psychological exchange research (Thomas 1991; Thomas et al. 2007) and sociopedagogical research in youth work (Thimmel 2001; Friesenhahn and Thimmel 2005; Chehata et al. 2010). The division for International and European Youth Policies within the Ministry for Families, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (BMFSFJ) plays an important role as far as administration and conceptualisation are concerned. In 1988, a network was founded that encourages dialogue between researchers and practitioners in the realm of international youth work and that is a key platform to discuss new topics and realise research projects and practically relevant evaluations (Researchers’-Practitioners’-Dialogue International Youth Work – RPD, see www.forscher-praktiker-dialog.de). Important research in the field of international youth work is being done at the Cologne University of Applied Sciences at the research centre of non-formal education (www.nonformalebildung.de).
The term “international youth work” has a wider and a narrower meaning. In the narrower meaning it refers to and addresses – as with the German term for youth work, “Jugendarbeit” – all adolescents and young adults. The aim is to support young people with the help of non-formal education and leisure activities, independent from other criteria such as social, economic and formal education. It is important that the participation happens voluntarily. Youth work supports adolescents on their way into a democratic society and helps to foster their personality. Youth work is internally split up in the fields of extracurricular education, work with youth organisations and open youth work. It is confusing that the term “international youth work” is also used for other aspects of social work with adolescents. And indeed, a wider meaning of the term “international youth work” refers to international activities in all realms of pedagogical and social work with adolescents. This includes social youth work, which helps to integrate structurally or individually disadvantaged adolescents into the employment market, as well as aid in education and upbringing, which promotes the development of adolescents living in units or hostels. Areas of co-operation are international vocational trainings, for example international internships, as well as school exchanges (as exchanges of individuals or groups). In many countries school exchanges are part of the youth work exchange discourse.

One can distinguish four forms of international youth work:

- group exchange or youth encounters;
- collaboration of youth organisations;
- volunteer work;
- the exchange of professionals in the field of youth work.

Youth exchanges and youth encounters are the forms that have been empirically examined and conceptually reflected the most. Therefore the history, structure, conceptions, theoretical discourses and empirical research of youth encounters are at the centre of this contribution that analyses the exchange sponsored by public funds between youth groups from the Federal Republic of Germany and other countries. These are usually exchanges with EU countries, the Russian Federation, Turkey, Israel, China, Japan and the USA. The number of exchanges with north African as well as with Latin American countries has declined, but since 2012 there have been efforts to correct this political and strategic mistake and revive at least the exchanges with north African countries.

→ Basic understanding, structure, types of programmes

Programmes can consist of bi-, tri- and multinational activities, and topic-oriented travels to foreign countries with a focus on encounters and work camps. Youth organisations, local youth work agencies, agencies and organisations for extracurricular education, agencies for political and cultural youth education, welfare associations and other non-profit organisations as well as organisations that specialise in international youth work are responsible for these activities. Due to funding guidelines it is usually the case that the visiting group invites the hosts in return. This applies to the group itself, not necessarily to the individual group members. The young adults live, study and work together in mixed cultural groups and also spend their leisure time together. “Together” can also mean that from time to time monolingual groups are formed to facilitate communication. Activities last between 7 and 21 days and often take place during summer breaks. Organisations, public youth work agencies or schools are partners in the visiting country. Adolescents from privileged social settings, students from universities as well as college students make up the largest proportion of participants.
For a few years now, efforts have been made in youth policy to integrate “non-privileged” adolescents, students of all school types, trainees or unemployed young people into international youth work. This includes adolescents from migrant backgrounds who have so far rarely participated in activities of the non-formal sector and could be regarded as structurally disadvantaged (Chehata et al. 2010).

The Federal Republic of Germany considers itself a social democracy. This self-understanding demands equal opportunities and participation in the “habits of internationality” for adolescents from all social and educational backgrounds. It is a central task in social, youth and educational politics to realise and finance this ambition and explains why the infrastructures of international youth work are sponsored by public funds in Germany.

Field reports and scientific research prove that international youth work can only be successful and effective if reliable partnerships with partner organisations are established. Besides the appropriate management of the exchange itself, preparation and follow-up of the event, it is very important that adequate financing is available and that the volunteering, self-employed or full-employed team members have good qualifications. International youth work builds on motivation and commitment, organisational talent and the composure of the participating persons. Sustainable international youth work can only be achieved by maintaining minimum standards of infrastructure and manpower in the general field of youth work. Therefore, international youth work is always dependent on national youth work.

International youth work is situated between the polarities of international cultural policy, collaboration in youth policy, political education as well as youth, leisure and Reisepädagogik. It has proved helpful to distinguish between youth education (micro-level), youth policy (meso-level) and foreign policy (macro-level). From an educational point of view the personal experiences of the participants, their exploration of identity in an international context as well as their interaction, communication and understanding with people from other nations are at the centre of international youth work. The political dimension is demonstrated by the collaboration between youth workers from different nations.

→ The history of international youth work

International youth work began in the post-war period in Germany (1945-1955). In the sense of democratic education it was a chance for German adolescents to get to know democracy and peaceful cohabitation after the war (international education). In the first years of the young federal republic, international youth work was mainly motivated by reconciliation and reparation in view of the crimes of National Socialist Germany. This mainly took place with Western and not with Eastern European countries (Thimmel 2001). In the German Democratic Republic (GDR), in another political context, international camps and meetings with other Eastern European states were organised.

In the 1960s, international youth work focused on the foreign policy perspective and relied on the naïve contact theory, which assumes that all adolescents are representatives of their states and international understanding can be reached just by meeting others face-to-face. No pedagogical conception or planning is needed; the visit itself and the photo at the mayor’s office are evidence enough of good work. The tension between political motivation (macro-level) – for instance a contribution to international understanding – and the motivations of the young people involved (micro-level) – including their everyday and leisure time interests – increased.
This dilemma was the starting point for empirical research in the field of international youth work: at the beginning of the 1970s, the German Department for Youth commissioned a study called the “Breitenbach-Studie”. The key concept of this study is “intercultural learning”, that is the true interactions between participants from different countries become important and differences during the encounters are recognised as cultural or influenced by culture. These “critical situations of interaction” demonstrate significant learning potential, and are indeed a topic of conversation during said encounters. Basic rules concerning group pedagogy as well as methods and didactics as formulated in the study remain valid today.

However, the success of intercultural learning also had its side-effects. When comparing the participating groups or countries the term “society” was uncritically replaced by “culture” which led to a non-reflexive use of the word “nation”. For history-related reasons this is of special importance to the federal republic. The governments’ understanding of the term “nation” corresponded to its immigration, foreign and citizenship policy that construed Germany as a mono-cultural entity and denied multiculturalism as a reality in official documents. This changed only in 1999 with the red-green federal government.

Since the 1990s, exchange with central and eastern European countries has been intensified.

The office YOUTH for Europe, the German National Agency for the EU Programme Youth in Action, receives more responsibilities while the EU is reinforcing its activities in the field of youth policy (www.jugendfuereuropa.de). International youth work is always at risk of being exploited by political aims (Thimmel 2010). The core concepts which are important for the theory and research discourse of international youth work are presented below.

Figure 1: The theoretical discourse and concepts of international youth work

22. This contribution updates the author’s discourse analysis from 2001, see Thimmel 2001, pp. 118 ff.
Information and communication: country-specific concepts

Culture, language, history, politics, geography, the customs and traditions of a country, and the experience of getting to know young people from different nations are at the centre of many country-specific concepts in international youth work. For historical, politico-financial and pragmatic reasons these contexts continue to play a primary role. The starting point is the idea that the acquisition and expansion of relevant knowledge about contemporary history and current events is important, in addition to information about the history, politics, society and relationships between the two countries involved. The respective educational, social and youth systems, as well as the personal encounters between people from other cultures and countries, are at the centre of intercultural learning and successful communication. This is valid for individuals, groups and institutions, and for the nation states involved.

Intercultural learning concept

Team members were asked to assess whether a respective situation is beneficial or not for the intercultural process, and if situations can be structured by pedagogic impulses. Basic methodical knowledge from extracurricular youth work, leisure time, event and group pedagogy, and their individual transfer to the international context are prerequisites for a successful education and learning process. This has important consequences for linguistic motivation and “free time”, which is itself an important item on the agenda. This means the entire educational arrangement, that is accommodation, organisation, provisioning, well-being, travelling, leisure-time activities, touristy and shopping needs, is taken seriously and methodically considered as a possible learning situation.

Psychological exchange research: cultural standards and long-term effects on personality

Psychological exchange research has a big influence on the conceptual development of international youth work. For efficient and successful communication, knowledge and predictions about the actions of the individuals involved in the process of intercultural communication need to be studied and analysed (Thomas 1991).

In the Regensburg study “Long-term effects of participation in international youth encounters”, Alexander Thomas and his team analysed the long-term effects of short-term exchange programmes. From a retrospective inquiry of former participants (10 years after the event) different domains of long-term effects were determined. These were especially verifiable in the areas of self-centred qualities and competences, open-mindedness, flexibility, composure, social competency, foreign languages and intercultural learning (compare Thomas et al. 2006). The findings of the study were adapted to practical work and accepted in the discourse about youth policies as a clear argument for the positive effects of international youth on personality development.

Hermeneutical and psycho-analytical concepts

The term “intercultural learning” is at the centre of the pedagogical approach that has been used by German and French researchers since the 1980s. With regard to these concepts the orientation along diversities and differences on the level of national affiliations as well as the use of methods for qualitative research is important. “Giving space to differences” and “understanding the not understandable”
are important basic premises. International youth work offers “forms or moulds in which the research processes can be promoted” (Guist-Desprairies and Müller 1997). This concept has been the only bi-national concept in international youth work in Germany so far.

**Diversity-conscious international youth work**

In the 1990s, the term “international learning” became part of the discourse. The political and economical dimension was brought into focus, the connection with anti-racist concepts was demonstrated and the danger of culturalisation in pedagogical contexts was analysed and underlined. The study by Anne Winkelmann (2006), which relates international youth work to the “pedagogy of the immigrant society”, belongs in this context. She underlines the concept of differences and describes what is needed to promote international youth work in the context of globalisation, modernism and migration. Since 2011, strong attempts have been made to implement the diversity-conscious perspective into the realities of international youth work. This shows many parallels with the concept of “reflexive internationality” that is supported by the author and presented in the section on social pedagogy below.

**Reflexive identity and political education**

In 1990, the political scientist Norbert Ropers discussed the topic of “national identity” and criticised the often inadequate use of group-related identity constructions in which the terms “nation” and “German society” were equated with each other. He extended the self-conception of the federal republic in view of a multicultural society and Europe (Ropers 1991). Later, his thoughts were linked with migration researchers’ critical discourse about identity (Hamburger 2009) and the pluralistic understanding of the German republic in political science, and the author transferred this to the field of international youth work (Thimmel 2001).

An extensive practice-oriented research project (Chehata et al. 2010) conceptually embeds the heterogeneity of the federal republic’s society in the discourse of international youth work and establishes it in practical discourse. Further political questions arise, for example, when it comes to international youth work with countries in which democracy and human rights are oppressed, or when it comes to dilemmas that occur when topics that are off-limits in the political discourse of the other country are discussed within the framework of hospitality and courtesy in communication (Thimmel 2010).

**Research in social pedagogy: evaluation/interculturalism**

Since 2000, international youth work has been promoted by the academics Friesenhahn (Koblenz) and Thimmel (Köln). The aim was to connect international youth work with research in youth work in general, taking into consideration the young persons’ self-understanding and sense of life as well as the topic of adolescence. International youth work was designed as a relevant field for non-formal education opportunities, linked to the educational discourse in youth work (Thimmel and Friesenhahn 2005) and embedded in the discourse of European social work (Friesenhahn and Kniephoff-Knebel 2011). Two research projects are outlined below.

In a practice-oriented, independent evaluation project, researchers and practitioners developed a multilingual self-evaluation tool for the German-French and German-
Polish exchanges. This tool has improved quality of research and practice in a decisive way. The study shows the high educational level of the activities, the huge importance of the team members for the learning processes and the relevance of minimum standards for organisation and financing as well as basic rules for methods and didactics and group pedagogy (www.camp-evaluation.de). This network and evaluation system is open to all organisations.

The differentiated relation between the intercultural (migration) and the international perspective was evaluated in the extensive practical research project InterKulturell on Tour (compare Chehata et al. 2010). The study underlines how important the differentiated usage of terms and concepts is for the German discourse about migration and immigration (compare Hamburger 2009). Generally, in youth work the right of the adolescents to self-definition is to accept, meaning the freedom to decide, based on the situation, whether their “individual migrant background” is relevant (in the respective context) or not.

The study states that in international youth work diversity and differences have a positive connotation. The international experiences trigger an educational process that is mainly characterised by the change of perspectives and by reflection. As educational settings, youth encounters bear a lot of staging elements and sensitive moments that offer the adolescents possibilities for individual and political discussions. In the field of international youth work, for example, the adolescents act (consciously) as German representatives which can strengthen a feeling of affinity that goes beyond the individual level. This form of “representation” can encourage adolescents to engage with their own country and possibly also its social and political conditions (also in the sense of the migration society). The discussion can also take place in the form of “self-narration”, meaning that the adolescents tell their foreign friends about their everyday life and its economical, social and political realities (Chehata et al. 2010).

More research is needed to find out how this area of learning can be used for self-education processes in the sense of discussing a construed “collective identity” in the everyday reality of international youth work.

**→ Perspective**

This practical and theoretical field is characterised by the mutual reference of everyday situations, youth policy, practical research, and the development of concepts and theories. From the perspective of youth policies the field offers extraordinary possibilities in education, learning and leisure time. From a scientific point of view the different strands of psychology, educational theory, youth work and political education need to be related more closely to each other first. Second, the separate country-related research projects need to concentrate on the entire field of international youth work. Third, research needs to be carried out in the areas of specialist exchange, student exchange, youth political collaboration and voluntary services. Fourth, studies of bi- and multinational research groups are necessary to finally fulfil the demand for international research work. Fifth, exchanges via media like the Internet and Web 2.0 need to be embedded more firmly into the practice of international youth work.

**→ References**


A comparative framework for youth mobility

→ Introduction

Starting with “Youth for Europe” in 1988, the EU has launched a multitude of programmes in order to enhance the cross-border mobility of young people. Many different actors in the youth field have implemented international activities for young people, often around the topics of intercultural learning, mutual understanding, participation and European citizenship. In a nutshell, these aims are described in the Proposal for the Council Recommendation Youth on the move – promoting the learning mobility of young people (15 September 2010):

One of the key action lines in the Youth on the Move initiative is to support the development of transnational learning mobility for young people. Learning mobility is an important way in which young people can strengthen their future employability and acquire new professional competences, while enhancing their development as active citizens. It helps them to access new knowledge and develop new linguistic and intercultural competences. Europeans who are mobile as young learners are more likely to be mobile as workers later in life. Employers recognise and value these benefits. Learning mobility has also played an important role in making education and training systems and institutions more open, more European and international, more accessible and more efficient (European Commission 2010).
Nowadays, key points in these programmes are employability, empowerment, and validation and recognition of competences gained in non-formal learning settings.

It becomes evident that the intensification of contacts between youth organisations, non-governmental organisations and individuals has led to a process of multiple means of European co-operation and, thus, to one of reflection on the nature of the diversity which characterises the social and youth services and the professions related to these fields in Europe.

Furthermore, it demonstrates that the constructive debate on the varying theoretical, methodical and social policy traditions and contexts of youth work in Europe has considerable potential for future development in this field. The practice of youth work is characterised by a growing number of different fields each of which – from a scientific point of view – requires a basis in theory and scientific enquiry and a greater reliance on research to widen the theoretical base and to improve practice.

This logic of scientific disciplines, derived from the classical enlightenment ideal of scientific endeavour, finds itself increasingly in conflict with a utilitarian notion of education which mainly emphasises employability.

The European context accentuates the complexity as different intellectual traditions can be drawn upon for the development of concepts and forms of practice in youth work. This impacts on the achieved and yet to be achieved degree of professionalisation in the youth field (Friesenhahn et al. 2011).

There are a number of different ways to approach youth and initiate youth work. Young people’s lives can be constructed and understood in a variety of ways with respect to social and scientific aspects. In the European context complexity increases with the use of different schools of thought to describe different approaches and the practice of youth work. Depending on what perspective youth work is regarded from, different images, requirements and demands arise (Chisholm and Kocheva 2002). This makes a clear identification of (international) youth work as a research object base very difficult, pointing to the necessity of providing tools for a comparative analysis.

Comparison

Comparing is an everyday activity. We compare circumstances, processes, people and things. Often this is done without any reflection. Scientifically speaking we must bear in mind, though, what we do and why we do it when we compare, for example, the situation of young people in a certain country or different theoretical approaches or educational concepts. Scientific comparisons are structured and methodologically distinguished.

The following reasoning for the relevance of international comparisons can be used (Schweppe and Hirschler 2007) for example for social work and it is surely also relevant for international youth work:

- foreign countries as role models or stimulation: when the pioneering role is attributed to a country in a specific area (for example upbringing in orphanages, community work or youth projects);
- country surveys based on literature: for example, what impact employment programmes have on certain groups of individuals in different countries;
- systematically comparative (empiric) studies: if, for example, a topic such as the values of adolescents or social help systems are compared, as in the European Youth Report.
Comparing is thinking in relation. A reference ratio is created between two or more phenomena from the professional horizon of a field of action resulting in:

- equality (congruence);
- similarity (affinity);
- diversity (difference).

This requires reflection since it is about rectifying “false comparisons”, avoiding inappropriate conclusions by analogy and analysing the conditions for a re-evaluation of facts. Basically, there are two distinct features of a comparison, pragmatic and analytical.

In the first kind of comparison, alternative forms of practice can be recognised through comparison and they can provide innovative clues to improve one’s own performance. With respect to the practical dimension of comparable work we can ask, for example: how does youth work function in other countries, what solutions does the system use for a social problem or a practical example? Is it more effective than solutions used by other systems?

Analytical comparisons force us to foster a critical examination of our own theory and practice, thus providing the opportunity to gain a new perspective. This is about decrypting the different contexts of origin and effect of youth work in Europe and analysing the impacts of current changes in different social welfare systems on the basis of disciplines and professional developments and experiences. The goal is to analyse those conditions and relationships that foster international youth work in general but also to find opportunities and limits to diversify these conditions.

**Tools**

Gaining insights through methodical comparison is to be expected with comparability in place. This has nothing to do with a stringing together of individual phenomena and facts in summary. One should also include the context, which indicates the significance of organisations, institutions and individual educational measures and actions (Pfaffenberger 1981).

To get an idea of the relevant issues and define the scope of the research the multi-level model of Treptow may be used (2006). Treptow poses the question about central comparison levels that should be taken into account when a comparison is drawn and also suggests three levels for structuring. His model differentiates between the micro-level of coping with everyday life in the close environment of protagonists, the meso-level of existing social services/organisations and the macro-level of the individual welfare regime.

**Table 1: Multi-level model of comparison**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macro</th>
<th>Society structure</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Welfare regime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meso</td>
<td>Social services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educational system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micro</td>
<td>Coping with everyday life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Needs of target groups/users</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Treptow 2006*
At the macro-level, different welfare models can for example be correlated with each other, or selected individual sub-systems (educational system, systems of social security, socio-political system, legal system, etc.) can be viewed from a comparative perspective. A well-known example on this level is the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) study of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

At the meso-level, the specific structure of social services (structure and provider) in different countries might be compared. An example would be the research on international youth welfare (Homfeld and Brandhorst 2005; Knuth 2008).

The micro-level is about the target group of youth work and their needs and different ways of coping within the national framework conditions which have also been predefined at the macro- and meso-level. The initial point of such a comparative study could be the debate about an actual case or a social problem: how are minor refugees to be treated in the different countries and what mission does this imply for youth and social work? What is to be done and where to turn if someone wants to do an apprenticeship anywhere in Europe?

The following method of comparison is based on current models from various scientific disciplines. It provides – with reservations – the possibility to systematically establish comparatively laid-out functions and to expose presumptions and comparative steps in a clear and understandable manner (Friesenhahn and Kniephoff-Knebel 2011).

Table 2: Multi-stage model of comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5th</td>
<td>Interpretation of contextual requirements in terms of the object base of comparison, assessment of comparison results in terms of questioning = actual comparison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>Confrontation and systematisation of data, commonalities and differences: juxtaposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Collecting country-specific data and facts: Evaluation of a situation and description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Selection of relevant categories of comparison based on the issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Identification of the object base of comparison and understanding the issue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Friesenhahn and Kniephoff-Knebel 2011

→ Object base

A crucial factor in a comparison is a tertium comparationis. This term is used to describe a reference system respective to a benchmark, from where or to which the explicit comparison is applied. The aim is to ensure that only comparable items are compared with each other.

The initial point of comparable research is primarily the definition of the object base of comparison and the central question: What exactly do I wish to compare?

Objects of comparison can be, for example:

- the historical development of (international) youth work;
- the role of social actors in this field;
- the embedding in the social system and welfare policy;
A comparative framework for youth mobility

Transfer to learning mobility

Stage 1: Subject – What is meant by international youth work?

International youth work is an independent area of practice and discourse of youth work in the Federal Republic of Germany. Pedagogically initiated mobility activities for children and young people for a limited period of time in an international context constitute the object base of international youth work.

International youth work constitutes itself in specified mobility dimensions that have evolved from history and it refers to organisations and networks in other countries. It includes activities in a non-formal learning area. One can distinguish between bi- and multinational activities. Key sectors are youth exchange, voluntary services and programmes for professionals.

As a cross-sectional area, international youth work affects – in Germany – all areas of children and youth welfare with the responsibility of promoting adolescents and young adults in their own personal development as well as fostering intercultural experience and, thus, encouraging a constructive impact on community development (Friesenhahn and Thimmel 2005; Friesenhahn 2006, Thimmel 2011).

Stage 2: Relevant categories of comparison – What categories can help to make my subject (international youth work) comparable at all?

On the one hand, this step clearly defines what is compared and in what sphere or in what area the comparison is to be undertaken (Allemann-Ghionda 2004). On the other hand, those issues are determined that are used to fine-tune the definition of the object base of comparison. The goal is to pre-structure the examined subject with the help of certain categories and dimensions to allow for a comparison and subsequent reference on this basis. The choice of categories of comparison is done according to their relevance with respect to the general aim of the comparison in view of the thirst for knowledge.

Upon implementation of the EU youth strategy (http://ec.europa.eu/youth/news/news1458_en.htm), one could focus on things like:

- administrative implementation;
- available resources;
- participation opportunities of addressees;
- what is made possible or prevented by this programme?

Stage 3: Data and facts – What (country-) specific current and historical data and facts are in place with reference to the subject of comparison?

This descriptive phase is about collecting relevant (previous) knowledge and data by using literature or relevant studies on both the intra-cultural context as well as the context of foreign cultures and supplementing this through field trips.
to the area examined. It is extremely important to distinguish between the individual sources of data. Do these facts and data originate from official reports or principles that throw light on an issue against the backdrop of rhetoric in terms of social or educational policy or are the statements of practitioners or other protagonists based on their own practical experience? Solely on the basis of a detailed description the researcher may be able to carry out the subsequent step of evaluation and assessment of data.

Stage 4: Juxtaposition – How are matters of common ground and differences arranged in line?

As a precondition of the actual comparison, this step is about the systematisation of data collected by clustering and contrasting in view of the selected category of comparison (e.g. legal framework requirements of international youth work). This is called juxtaposition and means the parallel listing and placing in line of categories, without however commenting on their relationship. Only a clear definition (description) and subsequent comparison (juxtaposition) makes it possible to move on to the next step in the comparison process: the categories are put in relation to each other allowing a true comparison which means the evaluation and interpretation, that is the positioning of data in the context of the individual social system.

Stage 5: The actual comparison – How can commonalities and differences be visualised, interpreted and explained?

In this step hypotheses are verified or falsified, results are substantiated and – based on the tertium comparationis previously determined – will get to the heart of the matter.

The categories that are to be compared have now been put in correlation with each other and subsequently their integration in the respective requirements of the original context must be construed and assessed according to the initial questioning. This step of clarification and interpretation of subjects of comparison in the respective original context (contextualisation) is certainly one of the most difficult steps in the comparison process and requires an appropriate in-depth knowledge of the individual meaning and assessment of social phenomena and cultural aspects in view of the object base of comparison.

Essential requirements

Contextualisation is one of the central elements in comparative research. The things that have to do with practice and research in the field of youth work and the answers that have been developed in this regard do not depend on location, time or culture. They have developed from history, were created by society and have been handed down traditionally.

The goal is to describe the categories of comparison not only in their manifestation but to relate them to a specific context and to trace the meanings that they have been subjected to within this context. This is the key factor since it is the only way to understand why certain phenomena within a certain context have taken a certain shape, why they run smoothly in a certain context and why they make sense in that situation. In many cases their meanings do not become clearly visible on the surface of the issues considered but are hidden beneath the phenomena visible on the surface. They need to be unveiled by means of reconstruction and
interpretation. These are the key elements for the gentle translation of symbolisations in view of their underlying patterns and significances of social occurrences and processes (Schweppe 2005). It is about the reflexive approach of cultural and disciplinary facts that are self-evident.

In addition to specific expertise, knowledge of foreign languages and intercultural competences are required for a comparison process in an international context.

Tracing the individual peculiarity and vigorousness of the examined phenomena requires a substantial restraint of previous knowledge and presumption, in order to let the subject speak for itself and not to look at it from the perspective of what has already been learnt, what is familiar and what has been supposedly understood. It requires the disclosure of the individual subject by keeping a critical distance to oneself and not diminishing it by the narrowness of one’s own point of view and by subsuming it accordingly.

Hence, comparisons are never value-free. In addition to demonstrating the commonalities and differences in view of international youth work in different countries, the question arises, how results that have been brought to light can be embedded in individual, national or regional argumentative patterns. Comparison as such is not detached from the interest of knowledge, which in turn corresponds to certain scientific approaches and political debates and strategies.

→ References


Introduction

Understanding youth mobility involves combining a number of different perspectives. For policy makers and youth workers, there is a need to evaluate the effectiveness of institutionally mediated mobility programmes such as Erasmus (see Teichler 1996; Murphy-Lejeune 2002; Maiworm 2002; King and Ruiz-Gelices 2003), while for researchers the emphasis is more on quantifying levels of movement abroad and understanding mobility decision making (King et al. 2011; Findlay et al. 2012). This chapter aims to use recent research to inform youth policy makers and practitioners about how and why mobility choices are made, in effect, constituting a form of knowledge transfer.

The central issue here is mobility decision making, concentrating on students at tertiary level institutions, with evidence drawn from recent research conducted across Ireland and in Portugal. Theoretically, this chapter utilises concepts associated with French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu, including the idea of “habitus”, in an attempt to explain what encourages and/or inhibits contemplating transnational mobility for the next stage in an educational or occupational trajectory. This approach hence takes into
account not only the obvious potential opened up by the removal of political barriers at a macro (political) level, but also less evident micro (personal) level factors, most prominently the role of the family to mobility choices via the informal learning of values towards mobility. Furthermore, given the unequal distribution of social and economic resources between families, the question will also be asked as to whether this informal learning process has the potential to generate and/or perpetuate inequality among youth, particularly in the context of the present economic crisis.

→ Theoretical and empirical background

It is already well known that transnational movement can be important for young people in terms of their educational, occupational and personal development (see, for example, King and Ruis-Gelices 2003; Thomson and Taylor 2005; Findlay et al. 2006; Rivza and Teichler 2007); it is also clear from this work that to be mobile is the exception rather than the rule. That such movement can be of strategic importance to attaining a high level of academic success and accessing relatively prestigious career outcomes is however often recognised by certain families, with youth mobility traditionally viewed as a privileged site, with access restricted to a social and economic resource-rich “migratory elite” (Murphy-Lejeune 2002). The extent to which this is still the case among contemporary European youth remains to be seen.

To help account for differentials in mobility take-up the present discussion draws upon pertinent theoretical ideas and recent empirical evidence. In regard to the former, particular emphasis is placed upon the importance of habitus, a concept commonly associated with Pierre Bourdieu, in respect to enabling and disabling access to the “mobility field”; in this context, “mobility field” refers to the capacity to follow educational and work opportunities outside one’s present country of residence. This means that rather than viewing transnational movement for work or study as the (passive) outcome of the existence of an international structure of opportunities within Europe, emphasis is placed upon the (active if latent) socially mediated means through which mobility plans are made. Certain ingrained actions come to appear as natural choices, perhaps without even the actor’s realisation, and act as “structuring dispositions” (Bourdieu 1990); learning mobility is hence viewed here as an informal process that may entail an inculcation of values emphasising the importance of moving abroad to success in education and the labour market.

This perspective has been developed in prior research conducted by the author, which has revealed that parents can encourage their children to migrate as a means of maintaining a family’s social class position (Cairns 2008; Cairns and Smyth 2011). But the same research has also found that a resource-poor family can negate the possibility of being mobile through creating dependency upon highly localised home-based resources, even where a move abroad is recognised as being in a young person’s own interest (Cairns and Growiec 2011). The present context considers both these scenarios, thus broadening the discussion of habitus to both mobility and immobility.

→ Research contexts and methodology

The discussion that follows concentrates upon two different European contexts, Portugal and Ireland (including both the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland). While both have their own social, economic and political specificities, these regions share at present the unfortunate distinction of being in a state of economic crisis, Northern Ireland being, nominally, an exception due to its link with the United Kingdom. Both quantitative and qualitative research was conducted in these areas, with respondents drawn from third-level educational institutions. In Ireland, fieldwork was conducted
at six different universities in Belfast, Dublin and Cork between January and April of 2010. This choice of locations was intended both to incorporate social and political diversity into the sample and include different geographical contexts. The Portuguese fieldwork meanwhile was conducted entirely at universities in the capital city of Lisbon between September and December of 2011.

In each of the two regions, a quantitative survey was conducted, with samples of 400 students at ISCED level 5 drawn from various university faculties, following gender and field of study parameters in each locale from respective national statistics agencies. While not intended as a comparative research project, these samples were generally representative of their undergraduate student cohorts, although not of their national youth populations. The quantitative survey acted not only as a source of data but also as a sampling frame for follow-up interviews, all of which were conducted, translated and transcribed by the author. A total of 40 case study interviews were conducted in Ireland and 12 in Portugal, with the selection of interviewees proportionately following trends from analyses of data.

**Discussion of results**

Given the brevity of this chapter, there is not sufficient space for a full elaboration of either the quantitative or qualitative results; rather, a case study approach will be adopted to illustrate different habitus/mobility scenarios (for a full discussion of results, see Cairns 2012; Cairns et al. 2012a, Cairns et al. 2012b; Cairns and Growiec forthcoming). But to summarise the main findings, in Ireland, the majority of the 400 undergraduate students surveyed (62%) had plans to move abroad following the completion of their present course of study, predominantly to English-speaking destinations. Such plans were more prevalent in the Republic of Ireland (72%) than in Northern Ireland (52%), reflecting the greater impact of the global economic crisis in the former region. In regard to why those with mobility intentions sought to move, parental occupational background and locality were of particular importance, with those from well-off families and living in urban areas most likely to be contemplating an exit. Correspondingly, those rurally based and from less well-off backgrounds were least likely to have such plans. The results of the Portuguese research found that 72% of respondents had intentions to move abroad, largely for educational reasons; the main objective was to pursue postgraduate educational courses in foreign universities, followed by an immediate return to Portugal. While there were no significant age, gender or social class differentials in respect to mobility decision making, an important factor here was the impact being made by the economic crisis, particularly upon personal well-being, with those feeling the strain of living under the yoke of austerity significantly more likely to be considering moving abroad.

A further observation worth remarking upon is the character of mobility sought by the respondents in both areas, which was essentially informal, at least in the sense of being individually as opposed to being institutionally driven; no one surveyed had participated in an Erasmus exchange or had plans to do so, although a few expressed an interest in voluntary work abroad. Polite views were, however, expressed towards Erasmus, but with two major criticisms voiced: firstly, financial support is not sufficient to cover all costs; secondly, and bearing in mind that respondents were usually midway through their degree courses, undertaking mobility within a tertiary education programme as opposed to following the completion of an educational stage is not viable, since such an action may have a negative impact upon educational development due to lost ground and missed opportunities at home. The additional implication here is of course that Erasmus is not being perceived as a path to further, perhaps more substantive movement, but rather as a one-off short-term mobility event.
In both research locales, the family and to a lesser extent peers played an extremely important role in mobility decision making, more so than, say, educational professionals or peers, who were rarely cited as sources of information or as mobility role models. To illustrate how the family influences mobility, the following case studies have been extracted, covering both regional contexts and different mobility scenarios.

**Ireland**

Among the case studies gathered in the course of the Irish research, there was considerable diversity in terms of influences upon mobility choices, but it was possible to locate examples of young people following a parental example. This scenario is illustrated by Helen, a 21-year-old Physics student from Belfast. In regard to her family circumstances, Helen is relatively well off and her parents have been mobile within their own career trajectories. They are now encouraging their daughter to do the same:

*I have a lot of resources myself so that I’m able to travel. So those kind of financial reasons would never be a reason for me not to travel, especially just because of my family, and their love of travelling.*

It is also notable that the recent recession has not played a part in Helen’s plans: her mobility intentions were in place before the economic crisis and have not changed. A similar situation can be observed with Celia, a 21-year-old design student from near Dublin. Celia is also from a comfortable family background, with parents who have a long history of mobility in their own lives. This means that not only is Celia “habituated” to the idea of being mobile in her own life, but she also has the practical value of transnational movement:

*Yes, my family is from Ireland but I was actually raised in London, because both my parents went to college in London. And they studied there because they thought that it would be a more beneficial education, and then they got better work over there. The reason we moved back to Dublin was because the lower secondary school education in a place like London isn’t very good and it’s better here. So we moved over, just for those few years and basically, ever since we moved here I’ve known that I was gonna go back.*

A combination of work and educational factors has thus influenced her family’s choices; they have made the best use of the available opportunities in different countries. This spatially attuned approach to planning has evidently been passed on to Celia, who has realised that while Dublin might have been a good place in which to study, London is a better place in which to work.

Both these cases clearly illustrate the role that a family plays in influencing mobility choices in a positive manner, but at the other extreme, we can find young people like Trevor, a 19-year-old arts student from a working class district of Belfast. When asked about the possibility of leaving Northern Ireland, Trevor stated that while he appreciates the potential value of such a move it would not be for him:

*Well I think that it’s a good thing for students to get to travel to another country but I wouldn’t want to go there myself. It would be too hard to leave behind all my family, who are all here.*
For Trevor, this valorisation of family helps explain the dichotomy between holding a positive view of mobility but failing to make, or feeling unable to make, any actual movement. Living within a family or community defined by its local character means that it feels necessary to stay there, and this is a belief which is stronger than his fears over the impact of the financial crisis in Belfast. This was a widespread phenomenon, in both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland, and it is apparent that those who might have benefited most from a move can be among those least likely to be actually planning to do so.

**Portugal**

In regard to those with plans to leave Portugal, two prominent scenarios could be observed, both of which share a familial dimension. The first relates to relatively well-off families encouraging mobility as a means of personal and professional development. This is exemplified by the case of Inês, an 18-year-old human resources management student from Lisbon. An optimistic and level-headed young woman, Inês was highly confident about her future job prospects in Portugal, since her field of study had been chosen due to the stability offered by educational credentials in this area. She also admits that she has enjoyed generous support from her family while studying, and she expects this to continue throughout the remainder of her studies. But despite her high level of contentment, and perhaps comfort, Inês nevertheless has plans to be mobile:

> It’s a question of personal development. To gain more experience: that is totally different. Without doubt, I would consider geographical mobility for studying, at other qualification levels, all for the experience. It would be fantastic. But not permanently. I like a lot the United States, and Japan. Places that are totally out of the comfort zone. Places as different as they could be. Japan is the other side of the world. Totally different.

Her family, who we have noted are presently supporting her while at university, also support her mobility plans, being aware of how foreign experience can enhance career chances at home. This scenario, of mobility as a form of cementing an already strong social and economic position, was common among interviewees from well-off families in Portugal to the extent of being the norm. It was however also notable that short-term mobility, particularly for study at elite universities, is supported by both emotional and financial incentives on the proviso that there will be a relatively quick return made to Portugal where this newly acquired educational capital can be used to gain a labour market advantage, thus mitigating fears of a permanent exit.

The second, and less common, Portuguese scenario is more concerned with movement due to familial social and economic constraints associated with the present economic crisis. This can be illustrated by the case of Isabel, a 22-year-old social sciences student, in the last year of her present course of study in Lisbon. Both Isabel and her family recognise the necessity of leaving Portugal due to the damage being wrought by the government’s austerity measures upon both her own social life and familial financial situation; both her parents have suffered severe salary cuts, being employees of a state-owned business. The message from her family to move is clear, and being in her final year Isabel has in fact already made plans:

> I am thinking about France, and maybe Germany. I already know the language there. I’m thinking about doing another professional degree. One more year. I don’t know where [which university] I would go to study yet. I don’t know. I have some preferences but I don’t have a direction. I don’t have any experience of living abroad either. [I will go for] one year. One year and then I am going to return. Then maybe things will be better? I don’t know.
We can thus see that in families where there is a real decline in economic condition, and no expectation of an imminent return to prosperity in Portugal, moving abroad has become an attractive proposition, even where this is not necessarily what young people themselves desire.

→ Discussion

If the aim of this collection is to discover why young people are, or aren’t, mobile, the preceding evidence suggests looking towards informal learning contexts, most obviously the family. It is the particular “habitus” created by the family that appears to have most influence in terms of creating, and destroying, mobility potential. This is of course reminiscent of what psychologists refer to as “social learning” (see Cairns and Growiec 2011) but in the present context, mobility behaviour is not so much a process of imitation as one of adhering to a set of values, usually inculcated over a period of time. And what the family says, in the case of those who are almost certain to leave, is that transnational mobility, particularly for work or study, is a good idea.

Moving on to the question of whether or not mobility is associated with familial affluence, and by implication that mobility is more a means of replicating social inequality than a way of escaping disadvantage, it is apparent that many of the most mobile young people encountered here are also among those richest in terms of inherited social and economic resources, and crucially, are from families who recognise the role of mobility in replicating social and economic advantage. This of course does not mean that those from less well-off families cannot be mobile, only that it may be harder for them to recognise a need to move or indeed work out how to incorporate transnational movement into their educational and occupational trajectories. There is however one important recent development which may challenge this paradigm, which is the growing impact, particularly in the Portuguese context, of the economic crisis and its accompanying austerity programmes, the full impact of which will be interesting to observe as the crisis continues.

→ References


Mobility as a pedagogical tool for young people with fewer opportunities

Søren Kristensen

The involvement of “young people with fewer opportunities” (or “disadvantaged groups”) is an important issue in both policies and practices on transnational learning mobility, at European as well as at national level. Many mobility schemes earmark a significant part of their funds for the inclusion of these groups, or list them as a prioritised target.

“Disadvantage” is a slippery term to work with, since the definition is generally contextually embedded. In one sense, therefore, we may all at one time or another belong to that group, given the right (or rather, wrong) circumstances. In this particular context, however, it is normally defined as a lack of formal qualifications, often combined with other problems of a psycho-social character and/or related to, for instance, health, gender or race. The arguments for including this target group in transnational mobility projects are generally motivated by notions of equity and representation: they should have the same opportunities for participating as mainstream youth. However, the insertion of fragile young people in mobility projects designed for mainstream youth is not unproblematic and may lead to negative outcomes. Involvement just for the sake of involvement seems a risky proposal, unless we have a clear
expectation of a beneficial impact and are prepared to make a special effort. Rather
than a concern for equal opportunities, our primary motivation should therefore be
reflections about mobility as a pedagogical tool and what “added value” we can
achieve for this particular target group. Key questions are: what outcomes in terms
of learning and personal development can we achieve, is it realistic to accomplish
this, what mechanisms promote the acquisition of such skills and competences,
and what organisation and support is needed to underpin this? In the following,
I will try and explore these questions on the basis of existing research as well as
available anecdotal evidence.

\textit{The objectives and effects of mobility}

Concerning the intended effects of a mobility experience on participants, even
a brief look at the field will show that transnational mobility used as a tool for
learning is indeed a versatile instrument, employed as an instrument for (mostly
non-formal) learning processes for various ends. Even though mobility schemes
often list several objectives that they wish to achieve with their activities, they
can nevertheless historically be divided into four major groups by their primary
objective (Kristensen 2004a). Schemes thus generally fund activities to achieve the
following learning outcomes:

- intercultural understanding: combating nationalism, racism and xenophobia;
- labour market mobility: encouraging (young) people to live and work in another
country;
- international skills: promoting foreign-language acquisition, knowledge of foreign
markets and cultures;
- employability: developing personal and vocational skills to facilitate insertion into
the labour market.

Some of these are more pertinent to a target group of young people with fewer
opportunities than others. The discourse on learning mobility as a means for
improving employability has thus been of growing importance in recent years,
and the word now appears in the preambles of most mobility schemes in the
fields of education, training and youth. In recent years, in particular the European
Social Fund has been used to fund or co-fund mobility schemes or activities as a
means for developing employability. As an example, one can mention the German
IdA-Programme (Integration through Exchange),\textsuperscript{23} which was set up in 2007 with
a total budget of 92 million euros for a five-year period. The programme finances
work placements abroad for a duration of one to six months, and specifically targets
young people with fewer opportunities with a view to improving their position in
the labour market or motivating them for formal vocational training. But IdA is just
one manifestation of a clearly discernible trend (European Commission, 2012).

But do these activities actually deliver what we expect them to deliver? Skills acquisition
and personal development both of a cognitive and affective nature acquired during
what are often short-term stays abroad can be very hard to observe and measure, and
even with observable changes it can be difficult to establish the chain of causality,
especially in a long-term perspective. We can thus never objectively “prove” that
this is the case, as in a mathematical equation; we need to work with probabilities
and cumulative evidence. A recent evaluative research project, financed by the
Federal Agency for Vocational Training in Germany and directly targeting learning
outcomes of mobility for disadvantaged groups (Becker et al. 2012), concludes

\textsuperscript{23} See www.esf.de/portal/generator/17840/ida__projects__calls.html, accessed 1 February 2013.
that these experiences actually do confer an added value on the participants. First and foremost this is in the shape of personal development: increased self-esteem, self-confidence, independence, adaptability, as well as social and communicative skills. In addition, the acquisition of more hard-nosed skills like increased foreign-language proficiency and vocational skills is observable. The mid-term evaluation of the IdA-Programme (2011) comes to similar conclusions, and we have several other studies and evaluations as well as masses of anecdotal evidence that all point in the same direction – enough to allow us to conclude that a structured stay abroad can be a very powerful tool for learning and personal development. Yet as with all other tools, there is also evidence to the effect that it can do harm if not handled in an appropriate manner – it is by no means difficult to find examples of participants who return home prematurely, or with a negative experience, because something went wrong along the way. Learning mobility is a pedagogical intervention, and not just a matter of logistical planning. Yet before moving on to the instrumental aspects (the “how”) of mobility as a pedagogical tool, it is important to have an understanding of the learning processes involved (the “why”).

→ Learning in mobility projects

“Learning by leaving” is a complex process, but the main dynamics spring from the experience of what the American theoretician and researcher Jack Mezirow (Mezirow 2000) has called the “disorienting dilemma” (or, in the words of the English researcher Peter Jarvis, “experiences of disjuncture” – Jarvis 1999) in the meeting with another culture. Aspects of life which have hitherto been taken for granted are challenged by other ways of seeing and doing things, and this provokes a process of reflection, where participants must adjust and rearrange their mental frameworks to try and come to terms with this “new reality” that they have become a part of. Mezirow (without actually having transnational mobility in mind) has called this process “transformative learning”. To accomplish this, both practically and mentally, the participants must develop new insights, skills and competences. The intensity of this learning process is, of course, directly proportional to the length of the stay and the degree of integration into the environment of the host country. It is perfectly possible to come out of a short-term, superficial stay with little or no learning, but properly planned and executed stays abroad represent a rich potential for learning and personal development. Yet learning through these “disorienting dilemmas” is not a painless process, as it so to speak feeds on the existence of problems and barriers. Instances of premature return due to a failure to cope with these are known from all schemes, even when we are dealing with mainstream youth who are not in the “disadvantaged” category. Subjecting fragile young people with few resources to such an experience is not without risks and pitfalls, and it certainly requires a high degree of professionalism in the organisers. The image of mobility as a “tool” is apt here: you may use a hammer to build a house, but you may also use it to hit somebody on the head, if you’re not careful...

A 2004 Cedefop study on the participation of disadvantaged groups in mobility projects (Kristensen 2004b) focuses on the development of mobility projects as a pedagogical tool for this target group. It is a qualitative study based on data obtained from document analyses and interviews with organisers from eight different European placement schemes. In the conclusions of the study, two aspects of the learning potential of these experiences are highlighted as especially relevant for the target group.

One is concerned with the use of the stay abroad as a “free space”, as an environment where the participants may act free of the expectations that they are surrounded
with in their daily life. Many disadvantages are, to a large extent, social constructions, and many disadvantaged young people are continually confirmed in their status by the (negative) expectations of their surroundings. Placing them in a new environment – risky as it might be – also gives them the possibility to act free of many of the constraints they experience in their daily life: to experiment with aspects of their personality that are normally suppressed and to a certain extent “reinvent themselves” without fearing the disapproval of their peers. The other hinges on the motivational value of a stay abroad for persons who often are hardly mobile in their daily lives, and for whom the thought of moving to even a neighbouring town to pursue opportunities for education or employment represents an insurmountable barrier. For such people, the experience of successfully accomplishing a stay in a foreign country may provide an impetus to cross other borders, which now suddenly appear less formidable in comparison with what they have achieved.

→ The “engineering” of learning mobility

Given the almost endless permutations of the target group and the many forms learning mobility may take, it is not possible to provide a detailed recipe for the planning and execution of learning mobility projects: a “one-size-fits-all” model that may be applied in all circumstances. Special allowance needs to be made for the specific nature of the target group, and interventions need to be developed or adapted accordingly. Sending out young, physically handicapped people individually on work placements abroad to improve their chances for integration into the labour market, and taking a group of young school dropouts from a socially deprived area abroad to deconstruct their prejudices about foreigners – these are surely two very different things. However, on the basis of existing theory and evidence from research, I would venture the following three general recommendations as specifically pertinent pedagogical advice for organisers of learning mobility working with disadvantaged groups of young people.

Make sure objectives and methods match

Many projects operate with a plurality of wildly divergent objectives and often at such a high level of abstraction that it is virtually impossible to evaluate the success (or otherwise) of the intervention (European Commission 2012). Also, there seems to be little conscious reflection on the connection between these and the type of mobility used: is it really realistic to achieve the intended objectives with a stay abroad of the nature chosen? Especially for a target group of young people with fewer opportunities, it is important to be clear about the objectives of the project, and to ensure that the methods used are in line with these. If the main aim is to develop intercultural understanding and the deconstruction of prejudices against people of another nationality or race, this happens according to relevant theory – for example the so-called “contact hypothesis” by Amir (1967) – best in encounters with peer groups, that is other young people of a roughly similar age, background and status. An appropriate form of mobility may therefore be participation in a work camp, where young people from different nationalities get together to carry out a specific task or project, for example the restoration of a building, or the preparation and enactment of a play. If the main focus is on employability and integration into the labour market, however, a placement in a public or private company is more likely to achieve the desired effects. Also, choices concerning for instance duration, type of accommodation (e.g. hostel or home stay), mode of sending (group or individuals), target country and so on should make sense in relation to the desired outcomes.
Strike the right balance between the challenges of the experience and the resources of the target group

At the very core of the use of mobility as a pedagogical tool lies the idea of employing “disorienting dilemmas” as a launching pad for the learning processes. If organisers consistently try to eliminate all problems for the participants to give them as pleasant an experience as possible, they have misunderstood what it is all about (Reichel 1999). But it makes sense to try and help the participants by removing trivial, practical problems that can take the focus and energy away from those that are crucial to the learning processes, to prepare them by giving them knowledge and competences that can help them solve these, and to monitor the stays so that it is possible to intervene if things threaten to fall apart. Generally, when dealing with a target group of young people with few resources, it is essential to ensure that the challenges they encounter are of a nature and scope that, realistically, they (maybe with a little help) can overcome. The term “scaffolding” from social constructivist theory is appropriate here: the organiser should provide just enough support to allow the participants to reach heights they would not have been able to scale alone, but the ownership of the process belongs to the participants.

Adopt a holistic view on all phases of the project: before, during and after

Adequate preparation for a mobility experience ideally contains linguistic, cultural, practical, psychological and pedagogical aspects. During the stay, monitoring and possibly mentoring must be provided. In the debriefing phase, participants must be helped to discuss and reflect on their experiences, learning outcomes (both intended and unintended) must be evaluated, documented and possibly recognised; and guidance must be provided to help them act on the knowledge, skills and competences they have acquired. All these phases are in themselves of vital importance to the project, but even more important – as argued by, for instance, La Brack (1993) and Stadler (1994) – is the totality of the three: without adequate preparation, the stay may disintegrate, but without provisions for monitoring and/or mentoring during the stay, even the best preparation may be of no avail. Finally, if outcomes are not properly followed up afterwards, the whole experience may be stored away in a remote attic in the heads of the participants and have no impact on their future lives. The interventions in all three phases must be geared to the target group and consistent with one another. This is true for all mobility experiences undertaken for learning purposes, but whereas one may get away with little when dealing with resourceful young people and still register a positive impact, a careless attitude to this with disadvantaged target groups is likely to produce a disaster, with participants ending up with a negative experience and even worse off than before.

Calibrating the tool

As stated initially in this article, the number of schemes and the concomitant financing available to learning mobility projects involving disadvantaged groups is rising, but unfortunately, so is the target group – levels of youth unemployment in Europe are reaching unprecedented heights as the financial crisis continues. Many young people hit by the crisis are not necessarily disadvantaged according to the definition used in this chapter – they have qualifications and are resourceful; they just happen to live at a time when there aren’t enough jobs to go round. They do not really require a “free space”, but any space that will allow them to get active and involved and add a useful line to their CVs. Generally, however, the number of NEETs (those young people “Not in Employment, Education or Training”) is growing, since bad times hit those proportionally worse who were already in a
precarious situation. As evaluations and research show, through participation in learning mobility they may acquire some of the knowledge, skills and competences or the impetus required to improve their situation, but it is not just a matter of sending them out and getting them back alive. Learning mobility is a pedagogical intervention and requires a structured and informed approach, carefully tailored to the needs of the target group and the objectives.

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Challenges for recognition of non-formal learning and learning mobility in Ukraine: education, labour market and society

Ukraine is close to signing an Association Agreement with the EU and as with other Eastern Partnership countries is encouraged to intensify its participation in European educational and youth programmes. However, the approaches proposed by the EU are not coherent with the existing national frameworks and, as a result, the recognition of competences of young people gained through participation in educational and youth programmes is structurally challenged. The added value of non-formal learning including learning mobility is often contradicted by the current approaches to education and youth policy. How to validate the best practices seems to be the biggest challenge for non-governmental actors working towards recognition of non-formal education and transformation of education in the country.

→ Non-formal learning and mobility on a policy level

As set out in the Joint Declaration of the Eastern Partnership Summit held in Warsaw in September 2011:

Co-operation and policy dialogue under the Eastern Partnership on education, research, youth and culture should be further enhanced, including through the launch of an Eastern
Partnership Youth Programme, the continuation of the Eastern Partnership Culture Programme and expanding participation in relevant programmes, including the successor of the Lifelong Learning, Culture and Youth in Action Programmes. (Joint Declaration of the Eastern Partnership Summit, Council of the European Union 2011)

Additionally, the Platform IV “Contact between People” of the Eastern Partnership Civil Society Forum emphasises the need to “facilitate non-formal education and increase funding for internships and volunteer opportunities, school exchange programmes and distance learning” (Eastern Partnership Civil Society Forum 2011) as one of its recommendations to the European Commission and national governments in the field of youth and education.

Nevertheless, the tools provided by the European Commission as well as by the Council of Europe and other EU countries, though accepted and used by non-governmental actors, are not linked to the national strategies in the field of youth, culture and education. Additionally, a cross-sector approach is lacking, which leads to incoherence of strategies in the field of youth and education. The issue of non-formal education is relevant for non-governmental actors. There is no recognition of non-formal education and training within the educational system and youth work. All extracurricular activities are integrated into the system of formal education and have a very weak mobility dimension. As a rule, non-formal education is the domain of non-governmental organisations, which are sufficiently skilled in international youth project management and/or providing trainings for youth workers. But the meaning of “youth work” is rather undefined and is set in relation to an international activity.

The current developments in educational policy are directed towards finalising the transformation of the high school system according to the standards of a European Higher Education Area. In that context, long-term learning is added to the agenda. From another perspective, long-term learning is limited to vocational training and training provided by state educational establishments; therefore the issue of non-formal education is excluded. Within long-term learning, learning and formal education mobility may be recognised as added value, but there are no clear tools and procedures. Therefore, learning mobility usually depends on the personal motivation of learners and this motivation of learners is the domain of non-governmental actors. At present, attempts to advocate non-formal learning and learning mobility have very weak output at the policy level. A reasonable explanation for this is the lack of capacity and common visions among non-governmental actors and their escaping from politics as a reaction to non-transparent procedures.

> Consequences of learning mobility and migration

Nowadays the willingness to emigrate is a visible trend with regard to young people and opportunities for long-term learning mobility are often used as chances to stay abroad for employability. Statistical data and sociological surveys show that professional development and employability are most valued by young people. Nevertheless, it is understandable that expectations of employment have a weak connection with expectations from education. In 2009, the unemployment rate among young people in Ukraine increased to 18% (30-40% of registered unemployed people are aged 35 years or younger) and 21% of young Ukrainians didn’t have any income of their own. Moreover, 44% of young people were afraid of becoming unemployed in the next two years (Diuk 2012). The newest surveys confirm the existing tendencies, with more than half of the young people aged 18 to 29 wanting to leave the country. There are up to 6.5 million Ukrainians living
in other countries (14.4% of the population), and up to 1.5 million of them left the country to find employment abroad from 2005 to 2008. Of the emigrants, 45.5% were 15 to 35 years old (Open Ukraine Foundation 2009). The situation has changed in the last 10 years, with Ukraine suffering from the emigration of adults. Currently, most of the emigrants are students or young professionals.

However, certain assessments of migration and the crisis of the labour market tend to connect learning mobility with euroscepticism. There are strong voices emphasising the negative influences of European integration and the “brain drain” caused by opportunities to study abroad. High school and ministerial representatives as well as researchers note the threats posed by the asymmetry in the exchange of human capital, claiming that emigrants are young people who will not come back in the near future. Even though there is no comprehensive research available on the long-lasting effects of students’ and young researchers’ learning or fellowship stays abroad, there are in fact many instances of such emigrants staying abroad for employment afterwards (Mokij et al. 2009). It is quite recognised that emigration is a reaction of young people to poverty, political and economic instability and to the lack of professional perspectives. The political explanations for this situation vary from statements that claim that Ukraine has a good educational system and a bad labour market to the recognition that the Ukrainian education system is bad because it does not fit the economy. Moreover, there is no comprehensive research available on this issue, although representatives of human resources departments in the business sector have emphasised that between 40% and 80% of universities’ alumni are not working in the professions they were trained for (Hryshchenko 2012).

The rising level of students’ mobility and subsequent emigration is considered to be dangerous because of the strong motivation of young people to leave the country for a long time. The number of foreign students, coming mostly from Asian or African countries, has doubled during the last 10 years (47 000 in 2010 compared with 22 000 in 2002, International Organization for Migration 2011). However, they are usually contracted for a full study period and motivated to return home. They are also not considered potential actors in the labour market. The attempts “to keep” human capital in the country is one of the most relevant issues in current discussions on educational issues. From another perspective, no political response has developed to the challenges of immigration and there is no strategy to make the educational system more open to foreigners, or to reorient mobility from migration to learning.

→ Learning mobility in a European perspective

The Erasmus Mundus Programme of the EU is aimed at supporting individual mobility for students and researchers between the EU and third countries. Promoted as the main tool for learning mobility and due to transparent recruitment, Erasmus spreads the understanding that studying abroad can be possible. However, the number of students and researchers from Ukraine remains extremely low – there were 130 students and 27 researchers who benefited from the programme during the period 2004 to 2009. In 2009/10, 36 Ukrainians went abroad for Master’s studies (National Tempus Office in Ukraine). For a country with 47 million inhabitants and 2.7 million students it seems clear that this is a very selective procedure with limited access, so students tend to look towards studying independently with a strong motivation to being employed abroad. Up to 5 000 Ukrainians were enrolled in Poland in the academic year 2010/11, for example, which accounts for 23% of foreign students in the country (Central Statistical Office 2011). Polish
universities make international exchanges available to foreign students, provide internships in business and European diplomas, and declare that they combine university traditions and history with current challenges coming from the labour market. This indicates that Poland expects foreign students to be potential players in the labour market.

The influence of strong migration on learning and employability is still not evaluated or foreseen in Ukraine. It has not been investigated to what extent students can realise their expectations for employability in EU countries or in the United States, which are the main targets of immigration. Nevertheless, studying abroad independently requires personal financial investment and makes the orientation towards studying abroad for living and working much stronger.

The statement that young Ukrainians can be considered a lost generation is a popular one in Ukrainian society. There are several perspectives on this. The first one concludes that the generation of young professionals are lost because of their low chances of finding a job on the labour market. The second perspective is a result of youth literature and cultural trends, which draw parallels to the “lost generation” in European and American young culture in the period between the world wars. In fact, Ukraine has not had social stability since the beginning of the 1980s, and the current economic crisis resulting from global tendencies could also be considered a long-lasting period of “transformation with no perspective”, which causes rapid changes of value systems, priorities, social structures and the expectations of young people. So some reasons can be found for the claims that Ukraine is losing human capital because of the openness of education in Europe. On the other hand, state policy became more restrictive, as education and living costs rose, so student migration can be considered a rational choice. In both cases, current educational policy and strategies in the humanitarian and social sphere do not correspond to the current challenges.

**Challenges for the social recognition of non-formal learning and mobility**

As learning mobility is not usual in Ukraine, the international experience is considered a personal success. On the social level, we cannot speak about the validation of learning, but of the personal experience of “being abroad”. For disadvantaged young people the experience of going outside of their own community can also be a challenge: according to unofficial surveys, one third of Ukrainians have never been in regions other than their own within the country. The lack of internal mobility in society constitutes a narrow base for the recognition of mobility as learning, so it is seen rather as a positive emotional experience. This leads to a low level of self-recognition of the competences gained outside of the formal system.

Non-formal education and the Youth in Action Programme, as primary tools for learning mobility, offer a more real possibility to be involved in another kind of learning for diverse groups of young people. The impact of the Youth in Action Programme in communities is more visible, despite the fact that the number of participants in Youth in Action is also low. In the years 2007 to 2010, Ukrainian organisations hosted 154 and sent 278 volunteers abroad in the framework of the European Voluntary Service. Ukraine led eastern Europe and the Caucasus countries in the number of youth exchanges, trainings and networking projects (from 2007 to 2010 Ukrainian non-governmental organisations took part in 520 projects, including 268 youth exchanges, 51 of which were hosted in Ukraine, SALTO EECA RC 2011). Ukraine has been sending abroad many more volunteers than it has
been hosting and the number of projects involving volunteers abroad has increased much faster than projects it has hosted.

This situation is untypical for eastern Europe and the Caucasus region and the reasons may be strongly political and structural: there is a lack of support from the state and local authorities and high living costs for volunteers in Ukraine, and there is a restrictive visa system for potential foreign volunteers as well as other legal barriers for the implementation of projects. Nevertheless, in comparison to governmental and European programmes in the framework of formal education, the Youth in Action Programme is potentially available for young people with fewer possibilities and seeks to avoid elitism. However, there are several obstacles.

First of all, the opportunities given by the Youth in Action Programme do not have direct connections to youth and education policy and involve a limited scale of actors (non-governmental organisations, youth/student groups or community leaders). As Ukraine is not included in the process of recognition of non-formal education, non-formal education activities are mostly matters for non-governmental organisations, mainly those that are apolitical or in opposition to the government. Such activities are also often involved in controversies in relation to official youth, educational, social and cultural policies. Secondly, young people, especially those with fewer opportunities, often suffer under a restrictive visa system by being considered potential migrants. Thirdly, the experience gained though participation in a non-formal educational activity is difficult to apply in the conservative school/university culture within the country. As a result the feeling of overcoming barriers remains mostly at the emotional level of being happy at going abroad, eliminating the space for rational reflection on competences.

Despite this, participants in youth exchanges and the European Volunteer Service become more aware of life in different countries, gain a critical attitude to the realities, are able to take an independent position regarding their professional pathway and become more active in society and in the labour market.

→ Extracts from best practices

During the evaluation session of the project on “The best practices for informing on participation of Ukrainians in the EU Youth in Action Programme and other international youth programmes” (Centre for Educational Initiatives 2012) leaders and participants from eight organisations with a minimum of two years’ experience in international youth programmes agreed that, “International youth projects provide participants themselves and others with experience; it is a possibility to open up to the world, to overcome stereotypes and learn how to solve problems together; it is a chance to make your dream a reality and to create a future for yourself”. There was also a strong accent on intercultural exchange (“we can bring something from our country and get new experience in your country”), skills in planning, organising and managing projects with an emphasis on promotion or idealistic attitudes to “changing yourself, making the world better and have the possibility to contribute to society”.

The evaluation of best practices shows that through participation in non-formal educational activities young people become more active in the community and become aware of themselves as active citizens. They also reflect their role as citizens of the country and as students in schools and become more inventive in the labour market. Unfortunately, they also realise that studying in high school does
not fulfil their expectations and they would rather use their skills for finding better opportunities for learning mobility in the frame of formal education. Moreover, they become more flexible in changing their professional orientation.

Final remarks should be made on the need to organise comprehensive youth research and dialogue among different stakeholders on the impact of non-formal education and learning mobility on the situation of young people. The lack of a legislative provision for non-formal education and youth work makes non-formal education the domain of non-governmental actors. Indeed, there are no support structures within the country and non-formal learning is provided in a chaotic way, causing deep gaps between formal and non-formal education.

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Youth mobility: towards more self-directed and holistic learning

Marta Brzezińska-Hubert

Introduction

One’s destination is never a place, but a new way of seeing things. – Henry Miller

In contemporary societies characterised by rapid change, complexity, ambiguity and technological innovation, young people cannot be assured about their future professional lives. It has become vital for them to de-learn and re-learn and to use their resources in the way that is best for them. Thus, the importance of the learning to learn competence, which may be understood in this context as the ability to identify one’s own learning needs, to be aware of one’s learning potential as well as to self-organise the learning process and to apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes in new contexts. What is more, learning to learn is believed to be a “meta-competence” since it influences how other competences are selected, acquired and applied. At the same time, the processes of European integration, migration, the growing physical mobility between countries as well as the development of virtual mobility bring various cultures together, making intercultural competences essential. In the light of this, the European Commission, the Council of Europe and the EU-Council
of Europe youth partnership have been implementing several programmes and initiatives in the field of formal and non-formal youth educational mobility.

Taking into consideration the above, this paper concentrates mainly on the learning process of an individual youth participant. It assumes that learning mobility gives every young person a chance to become a more empowered and responsible learner, which in turn constitutes the basis for long-term benefits such as youth employment, entrepreneurship and intercultural understanding (EC 2009). Therefore, taking the example of the Erasmus, Comenius (formal education framework) and Youth in Action (non-formal education framework) Programmes, the purpose of this article is two-fold: first, to explore the differences and interrelations between formal, informal and non-formal education in the youth field; second, to investigate how, according to the chosen learning theories and approaches, learning mobility programmes for young people may foster a more holistic and self-directed learning.

Formal, non-formal and informal learning

To quote Carl Rogers, “human beings have a natural potential for learning” (Rogers 1969). In their early years children learn spontaneously, following needs and curiosity. This is an internally motivated, organic and mostly experience-based process which may be identified as informal learning. During a life span, people continue to learn informally in various everyday situations, dealing with challenges or tasks in a given context – personal, social or cultural (Colley et al. 2003). Although often unconscious and incidental, this way of learning is learner-oriented and, as Marsick and Watkins put it, “the control of learning rests primarily in the hands of the learner” (2001).

When school obligations start, a new learning dimension is added to young learners’ lives. It is defined as formal learning and characterised by clear institutional structure, certification and external evaluation. It is to a large extent compulsory, provided by specifically qualified staff and taking place in the classroom with pre-defined objectives and methods of learning (Chisholm 2005). Based on the enlightenment rationality and Cartesian separation of body and mind, the system of formal education seemed to provide learners with accumulated and context-free knowledge and, for many decades, was regarded as superior to the informal one (Colley et al. 2002). Nevertheless, the recognition of advantages of informal education can be recently observed, especially when linguistic and “soft” skills, such as teamwork or conflict management, are concerned. At the same time, criticisms of formal education involve the fact that although it is often defined as intentional from the learner’s perspective, it does not necessarily reflect the learners’ real motivation. What is more, due to external marking the intrinsic motivation is often lost in favour of external motivation that in turn may result in “production” of dependent, passive learners and test-oriented teachers.

Between formal and informal learning there is a space that may be filled with a third dimension of learning based on conscious intention, voluntary participation, personal interests and needs. This is non-formal learning taking the form of various activities (e.g. sports clubs, choirs, scouting, youth associations). The youth partnership glossary defines non-formal learning as:

*purposive but voluntary learning that takes place in a diverse range of environments and situations for which teaching/training and learning is not necessarily their sole or main activity. These environments and situations may be intermittent or transitory, and the activities or courses that take place may be staffed by professional learning facilitators (such as youth trainers) or by volunteers (such as youth leaders). The activities and courses are planned, but*
are seldom structured by conventional rhythms or curriculum subjects. They usually address specific target groups, but rarely document or assess learning outcomes or achievements in conventionally visible ways (Chisholm 2005).

Since the 1995 White Paper on education and training, non-formal education has become one of the fundamental issues of various European strategies in the field of lifelong learning as well as mobility and youth, both from the perspective of employment and personal development (EC 1995). Non-formal learning is still strongly discussed in the European youth field due to its various definitions, approaches and features. What is essential for the purpose of this paper is: in non-formal education learners take responsibility for planning, organising and assessing their own learning process while the trainers or facilitators’ role is to support them. The methods are generally based on experience, active participation, discovery, dialogue and collaboration with peer learners.

**Clear borders or interrelations?**

Colley et al. (2002) attempted to identify “ideal types” of formal and informal learning based on 20 different definitions. Furthermore, instead of concentrating on differences and boundaries, they decided to examine the interrelations between the forms of education in different contexts by conducting empirical studies at diverse learning sites. They discovered that formal and informal dimensions are present in almost all learning situations, that there are no distinct categories, while the boundaries between them are blurred and interrelated. Thus:

seeing informal and formal learning as fundamentally separate results in stereotyping and a tendency for the advocates of one to see only the weaknesses of the other. It is more sensible to see attributes of informality and formality as present in all learning situations (Colley et al. 2003).

Following from that, it may also be assumed that an element of formal and informal learning is inherently present in most non-formal learning situations. It seems to be observable that these three theoretically defined kinds of learning overlap in practice in European mobility programmes.

In the European Voluntary Service (EVS), which is a youth mobility non-formal education programme, equal importance is given to experience and competences gained by volunteers in their work and their spare time. Moreover, EVS host organisations are often embedded in more formal, institutional settings, thus making volunteers learn in non-formal ways in a given formal framework. When it comes to Comenius pupils and Erasmus students, they learn formally in their host schools and informally by gathering with friends, living with host families or in dormitories, travelling or developing their passions in their free time. What is more, sometimes they participate in non-formal activities like workshops, student organisations or voluntary courses. As a youth trainer and facilitator I conducted trainings for incoming and outgoing pupils and assistants. Although obligatory, these trainings were led in experiential and learner-centred ways, with coffee breaks and evenings providing space for informal learning. Thus, the boundaries were shifted and blurred. It was also reflected in the evaluation by participants, who declared that apart from acquiring new knowledge they became more self-confident in establishing contacts, expressing themselves and working in a team.

Learning mobility does not only refer to international mobility, but also to educational mobility – often in the sense of personal recognition of non-formal and informal learning. This is often the case for the participants of the Youth in Action
Programme projects such as youth exchanges, EVS or training courses. The tendency to recognise non-formal learning through certain forms of certification is another aspect that moves non-formal education towards formal education. From the meta perspective, the aim of bringing together the learning outcomes from all areas of learning and making them visible is to match the human management needs of employers and the competence validation needs of individuals (Corladyn 2004). With the introduction of the Youthpass Certificate in the Youth in Action Programme, validation of learning receives another value. Based on self-assessment and learning dialogue with a mentor, Youthpass is both a certificate and a tool for supporting the process of more conscious learning.

In the light of the above, the next part of this chapter supports the assumption that different theories of learning may apply both to formal and non-formal mobility programmes. Taking into consideration the theoretical frameworks, I will be presenting some examples from my experience as educational practitioner in the youth education and training field.

**Self-directed, holistic and context-based learning: theory and practice in youth mobility programmes**

The theories and approaches that will be briefly outlined below are parts of an adult learning theory mosaic. While self-directed learning takes the perspective of the individual autonomous learner, a context-based theory focuses more on the sociocultural environment of the learning process. Yet, a question needs to be raised:

In what ways is the adult learning theory relevant in the youth field?

Cromley (2000) claims that “even though learning may seem different for adults, there is no evidence that it is different”. Also Malcolm Knowles – the father of the term andragogy – instead of opposing andragogy to pedagogy, proposed a range from teacher-directed to learner-directed learning. One of the models located on the latter extreme is the self-directed learning (SDL) approach. According to Maurice Gibbons, one of the reasons for applying SDL in the education of youth is based on the psychology of development and concerns transformational change in adolescent learners: in their bodies, personalities, values, relationships, in their place in the world. Moving from childhood to adulthood naturally brings them to the challenges and discoveries of their own identities, passions and limits, and SDL enables young people to take up these challenges (Gibbons 2002).

**Self-directed learning**

In its broadest meaning, SDL is a process in which learners – alone or with the support of others – diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify human and material resources, implement chosen learning strategies, and document and evaluate their learning results and process (Knowles 1975). It may be thus inferred that it is strongly connected with enhancing the ability to learn. According to Chisholm (2007), one of the essential features of non-formal learning is the participatory, learner-centred process based on self-directed methods. Taking the example of Youth in Action’s short-term activities, such as youth exchanges or training courses, the programme often reflects the needs of the participants and is co-created by them on the basis of individual or group evaluation time and sharing. Responsibility is given to learners with regard to what they want to learn and how they want to achieve it. In this way participants discover how to identify and express...
their learning needs as well as how to use various tools to document and evaluate their learning, like blogs, diaries and the already mentioned Youthpass. Also in the EVS Programme, volunteers become more secure and competent in setting, documenting and evaluating their learning. During their long-term projects they find out how to overcome obstacles and to redefine their learning aims according to the situation and resources available. They are supported by their mentors during the whole project and by the trainers through the training cycle. In the case of the Erasmus or Comenius Programme, it may happen that students from a hierarchic academic culture go to study in a more learner-oriented academic culture, thus developing self-directed learning skills.

Most people get involved in SDL to learn a given content and to develop the learning to learn competence. What is more, some learners experience thorough change in how they perceive themselves and their world, which leads them to the transformational dimension of learning (Caffarella 2000). First defined by Mezirow, a transformational process often begins with the “disorienting dilemma” – a personal crisis that stimulates the process of questioning embedded values, meanings or assumptions. To validate them, a person engages in dialogue with others. In some cases this personal transformation may be followed by further steps to change the realities not only of oneself but also those of others. In the EVS, Erasmus or Comenius Programmes this dimension of SDL may be related to the process of acculturation to a new environment which is often connected with a cultural shock or other “disorienting dilemmas”. If constructively solved, they lead to transformation in young people’s values and world views. On the other hand, this process may be too challenging and produce the opposite effects: hence, the importance of human and material support in the learning process of youth mobility programmes.

**Holistic learning**

Grounded in experience, driven by inner motivation, SDL may be understood as a holistic process from two perspectives. One relates to the whole person learning and is not restricted to intellectual and propositional knowledge, but involves emotions, senses, imagination, body, and so on (Heron 1999). The vast majority of Youth in Action activities are based on Kolb’s experiential learning model, which provides participants with various dimensions of learning – emotional, reflective, theoretical and practical. It gives them the possibility to reflect, both individually and in a group, on a certain learning situation, to draw conclusions and to find ideas for transferring gained knowledge, skills or attitudes into a new real context. Apart from holistic methods related to the content, there are multi-stranded activities, going on alongside the learning, which function like energisers. Although not directly linked with the subject, they enable participants to connect with various aspects of the whole person and keep them “in a good shape for learning” (Heron 1999).

From the second point of view, SDL means learning in non-isolation – it includes communication and co-operation with peer learners, facilitators or teachers, and asking them for support and feedback. It depends on a certain learning situation which in turn is influenced by wider structural – cultural, social, economic or political – factors (Hodkinson 2004; Caraferella 2000).

**Context-based learning**

One of the theories emphasising the cultural context is the situated cognition approach, in which people learn by becoming involved in communities of practice. These are defined by Lave and Wenger (1991) as self-organised, sometimes
informal groups of people with an identity defined by shared aims, passions and motivations to learn. They are practitioners who are mutually and regularly involved in the learning process, which often includes interaction between peripheral (new) and more experienced (full) participants of the community located in a certain context (Smith 2003; 2009). It may be assumed that participants of the Erasmus, Comenius or EVS Programmes create certain forms of communities of practice and sometimes become involved simultaneously in a few of them. By learning from more experienced members, European Volunteers in their hosting organisations move over time from peripheral to engaged participation in not only activities, but also organisational values, norms and rules. This also refers to the acculturation process in which the young person gradually becomes more involved in the cultural practices of a host country or in a community of international volunteers, thus developing intercultural skills and attitudes such as dealing with ambiguity and change. Furthermore, participants of youth exchanges and EVS trainings create peer learning communities for a few days by sharing common learning needs, values and aims, as well as by working together on practical issues they can transfer in their real-life situations. By bringing their life stories and experiences to the group they influence the learning situation, while in turn the learning situation affects their personal learning paths.

Getting out of the box: how to support the learning process?

Taking into consideration the above, participants of youth mobility programmes may become more self-directed and discover new ways of learning as well as develop existing ones. However, it does not happen automatically, hence the importance of learning support which can take various forms, both conventional and creative. The questions young people may ask themselves while planning a given activity or project are: “What do I want to learn?” and “how do I want to do it?” When addressing the first question, it is worth documenting, monitoring and evaluating the progress and outcomes of learning. The latter may be a starting point for discovering one’s own potential and becoming more conscious of one’s learning preferences in various situations (e.g. whether I need more chaos or structure, safety or challenge). Another key step is to identify environmental resources such as time, space, tools and people that may be essential in making one’s learning more effective, sustainable and enjoyable. Through interactions with others young learners can realise the power of dialogue and feedback in their learning process. Therefore youth leaders, workers, mentors and trainers need to be competent and willing to provide participants of mobility programmes with support that is appropriate for a particular person or a group in a given learning context.

→ Conclusion

Every situation creates a potential for learning. How this potential is used by an individual learner depends on various factors, both personal and contextual. In youth mobility programmes that are naturally embedded in an intercultural learning environment and offer all types of learning – formal, non-formal and informal – it is a complex phenomenon. The question, thus, remains how the development of learning abilities may be supported even better by learners themselves as well as by youth mobility policies, tools and people engaged in young people’s learning processes. I believe that the theories and approaches described here in brief ought to be explored further by research, but it is also my hope that they will encourage youth educators and other actors practically involved in the international youth education field to look for ways to foster self-directed and holistic learning.
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What do we know?
A systematic literature review on youth learning mobility in European contexts

Judith Dubiski

→ Context

What do we already know? This question forms the starting point of every research project. It usually characterises the researcher’s workload during the first weeks of a project and it is the headline of the first chapter of most research reports. When framing a research question, interpreting data or revising theories, we usually rely on what has already been accomplished by other researchers. In doing so, it is common practice to consider international research as well as research from various disciplines. However, depending on the particular issue being considered it’s not always that easy to determine the latest state of the art in international research. That seems to be especially true with regard to research on the topic of this publication – although we’re interested in international youth work, we know little about what colleagues from other countries work on, what the dominant questions and problems are or how specific terms are used in different languages. And there is hardly any source that provides comprehensive information on international research on these questions. To (try to) fill this gap, the European Platform on Learning Mobility in the Youth Field has assigned a research team on non-formal
education at the University of Applied Sciences in Cologne to conduct a systematic literature review on international youth mobility in non-formal educational contexts. The results of this research will be presented in this chapter.

**Methodological approach and research criteria**

According to Mark Petticrew and Helen Roberts, a systematic literature review is "a method of making sense of large bodies of information … a method of mapping out areas of uncertainty, and identifying where little or no relevant research has been done, but where new studies are needed" (Petticrew and Roberts 2006). To carry out such research, they propose seven steps – from defining the question and the type of studies that are to be considered to the actual literature research, the screening of results, and the critical appraisal of included studies.

Following those stages, the first step of this literature review was to specify the research question and to define exclusion criteria. When choosing European research on youth learning mobility and non-formal education as the general topic, it was decided to include research on international youth encounters, work camps, au pairs, voluntary service and trainings for non-professional youth workers, but to exclude studies on exchange programmes for professionals in youth work, higher education and school exchange – except for research on co-operation between the formal and non-formal educational sectors. The review was to cover studies that focus on individual and/or group programmes as well as short-stay and/or long-stay programmes, but limited to research on youth and young adults from 13 to 30 years (according to the guidelines of the Youth in Action Programme). Furthermore, for a study to be considered it had to involve at least one of the “Youth in Action Programme” countries or neighbouring partner countries (European Commission 2012).

The types of studies included in the review comprised evaluation studies as well as genuine research projects from different scientific disciplines (including theses and dissertations, and other types of grey literature) regardless of the institutional background of the research project. Qualitative and quantitative studies of different research designs, finished and ongoing projects were to be taken into account, whereas the review was limited to publications not older than 12 years (i.e. projects that were completed in 2000 or later, or are ongoing). Other exclusion criteria, such as representativeness, reception, publication in scientific journals or peer-reviewing were not considered.

The most difficult part in specifying the research question was to find appropriate key words for the search syntax. As Petticrew and Roberts state, sensitivity and specificity are two core aspects in retrieving relevant material and leaving the rest behind:

*A highly sensitive search is one that retrieves a high proportion of the relevant studies that are waiting to be retrieved; a highly specific search is one that retrieves a low proportion of irrelevant studies … The sensitivity and specificity of particular searches are often not known, because the true number of studies theoretically available for retrieval cannot usually be determined. (Petticrew and Roberts 2006)*

To be able to retrieve specified studies on particular topics as well as rather general research projects, several key words of different levels of abstraction were used. Another problem with finding key words in an international literature review stems from the different meaning of terms in various countries and disciplines. To avoid this problem as far as possible, terms commonly used in the context of European youth policy were applied as key words in this review:
learning mobility;
- youth mobility;
- non-formal education;
- learning abroad;
- international youth work;
- youth exchange/youth encounter;
- youth programmes;
- international educational exchange;
- intercultural learning/intercultural education;
- voluntary service(s).

To identify relevant databases, selected researchers from different European countries were asked to name their most important sources. Popular scientific databases that are usually analysed in German research contexts were also taken into account. Apart from that, Petticrew and Roberts’ book (2006) gave some helpful advice.

The actual literature review was conducted in July and August 2012. Using the above-mentioned key words and exclusion criteria, 15 international online databases were systematically scanned. Following Petticrew and Roberts (2006), and assuming that there might be quite a lot of small-scale research projects (like Bachelor’s or Master's theses) which are not registered in scientific databases (yet), this systematic search was supplemented by a “blind web search” with a metasearch engine (Metacrawler) as well as scanning “Google Scholar”, a non-scientific search engine specialising in scholarly online data.

Due to the researcher's language skills, abstracts and titles were taken into account only if available in German, English, French or Polish, which in fact covered most of the search results in the international databases.

By searching different international databases with key words of European standard (as mentioned above), the researcher tried to avoid any kind of systematic distortion of the results. Nonetheless, the possibility of a certain bias in favour of sources, persons or topics that are common in the research context in German social sciences cannot be excluded.

**Findings**

The amount of information concerning particular studies available on the Internet varies considerably. In some cases, the whole research report is available for download and sometimes you find a detailed abstract in the databases. In other cases, all you get is the title and the author’s name. Thus, it’s not always possible to determine if, for example, two articles or reports refer to the same research project, which countries were involved, what methods were applied or what issue the main focus was on. Considering this, the findings of this literature review do not claim perfect accuracy.

After extracting all studies, which after closer examination of the given information did not apply to all defined criteria, a compilation of 86 studies and research projects remained in the list of final results.

24. Those were: DIPF/Perine, Einiras/edn, EPPI Centre database, Eric, GESIS, Ibedocs, IJAB Forschungsdatenbank, SciVerse Science Direct, Scopus, SSOAR, WAO/IBLK, WAO/ireon, Wiso, Youth Partnership database. In addition, Open Grey was scanned in a search for further grey literature.
Based on the given information, the 86 studies were clustered by the field(s) of activity they focus on, as illustrated in Figure 1. Since many studies have a wider focus, the total adds up to 126.

Figure 1: Number of studies clustered by main field of action

![Bar chart showing the distribution of studies by main field of action]

NB: Studies filed under “Youth in Action” do not focus on one sub-action or a single project, but on the whole programme. Categories “student/school exchange”, “higher education” and “exchange of professionals” contain studies that among others deal with those topics or that focus on co-operative projects.

As Figure 1 shows, the two most frequently studied fields of activity are international youth exchange and voluntary service. Work camps, trainings for non-professional youth workers and au pair programmes in contrast enjoy less attention in research.

The most dominant general topic across all fields of study is intercultural learning while questions of political or inter-religious education are of less interest. Issues concerning integration and/or inclusion of young people with fewer opportunities, migrant youth or young people with disabilities are researched with regard to voluntary services as well as to international youth exchanges (Haapanen 2007; Rosenthal 2009; Demirovic 2010).

Studies on international youth exchange cover a wide range of aspects surrounding international youth work in educational theory and practice. They often deal with particular issues in bi- or multilateral co-operation (e.g. between Germany and Israel: Heil 2010; Nadan 2006), special target groups (e.g. young Muslims in Great Britain: Moorhead 2010) or specific types of youth exchanges (e.g. cultural education: Bianchi 2008; Aden 2010; Trunk 2011; or sports: Tyler/Fairley 2009).

Studies on voluntary services often deal with questions of learning effects on a personal and/or professional level (Hedjerassi and Razafindrazaka 2008; Iannone et al. 2010). A particular subset of research projects, especially from Germany, focuses on critical aspects of voluntary services as part of development policy.
What do we know? A systematic literature review on youth learning mobility in European contexts

(Haas 2012; Schwinge 2011; Henn 2001). Several Finnish studies cover the impacts of voluntary service not only on the volunteers’ side, but on the side of the hosting organisations, the youth workers and the local communities (Jyrkka 2012; Tikkakoski 2012). In this context, a study by Steve Powell and Esad Bratović might be especially interesting as it reviews published and unpublished studies on the impact of long-term voluntary service in Europe (Powell and Bratović 2007). While Powell and Bratović take a look back on what has already been explored, Margaret Sherraden, Benjamin Lough and Amanda Moore McBride (all are working in the US, but are also considering the European Voluntary Service) propose a conceptual model for future research on the impact of international voluntary services (Sherraden et al. 2008).

A rather unusual perspective seems to have developed in research on au pair programmes. Only one of the studies found focuses on the experiences and learning processes of the participants of au pair programmes (Nothnagel 2005). The other studies take on a less “individual-centred”, rather “political” point of view: Rosie Cox analyses how au pairs are presented in the British press and on au pair placement websites to find out how those images affect the au pairs’ life in Great Britain (Cox 2007). Maria Orthofer provides an overview of the historical changes in the role of au pairs in Austria since 1980 in light of political and social developments and how those affect the relationship between au pairs and their hosting families (Orthofer 2009). And Sabine Hess’s study shows how au pair programmes have become a relevant aspect of international migration and of child care systems in the countries of destination (Hess 2005).

These examples illustrate how a particular kind of activity in international youth mobility is embedded in different (pedagogical, social, political, historical, economic, etc.) contexts and how research can take these contexts into account.

Countries involved

As mentioned above, in many cases the available information on research studies is not that extensive. Thus, sometimes it is not even possible to identify the national context(s) a study is embedded in or which country the participants of a survey come from. Figure 2 lists all the countries explicitly mentioned in the 86 studies found – that is, the countries in which studies were conducted and where surveyed youth/professionals/experts come from. Based on the given information, the major part of research on international European youth mobility in non-formal educational contexts is conducted in or refers to Germany, followed by France, Poland, Finland and Great Britain. Presumably, one reason why Germany is so heavily overrepresented is the fact that in many studies which were conducted by German researchers, there was no further information on what other countries were involved or where the surveyed participants came from (in these cases the studies may be counted as “German” even though they might focus on a multinational exchange project). As mentioned above, there could be a methodological explanation behind these findings. Be that as it may, there is good reason to presume that research on international youth mobility in non-formal educational contexts might attract greater interest among German social scientists than in researchers from other countries.
Figure 2: Number of studies by the countries they refer to

NB: The category “EU” covers studies on the Youth in Action Programme as a whole as well as two studies on “the US and EU” that do not specify which countries in the European Union are involved.

Research institutions, types of studies and methods applied

The research covers three (not necessarily distinctive) kinds of studies which stem from different institutions. A lot of studies are conducted in university contexts, either as part of a large research project (e.g. the ongoing project on “intercultural moments in biography and the context of the Franco-German Youth Office”, conducted at the University of Education Karlsruhe, Egloff and Stock 2010), or as dissertations or rather small-scale studies for Master’s and Bachelor’s theses. In the latter case, there often is a particular interest based on a personal experience of one kind or another that constitutes the motivation for the research and provides access to the field.

Another type of studies is (funded and) realised on the initiative of organisations whose working focus usually is on the funding and/or realisation of actual exchange projects and who want to deepen their understanding, improve their work or stimulate reflection on what they are doing. They either have the possibility to accomplish an adequate study by themselves (Puls-Janssen et al. 2006; Halabi and Zak 2006) or they engage a researcher (team) to do so (Merl 2012). In this type of research, you find evaluation studies of different kinds, but also intense research on the effects of intercultural learning and so on (e.g. Ilg and Dubiski 2011; Thomas et al. 2007; Freise et al. 2010).

With a third kind of institutional background, studies are commissioned by diverse institutions on an (inter-)national or European level to gather information upon which “evidence-based policies” can be built. Among these, you will find evaluation studies on the Youth in Action Programme (Koppert et al. 2007 for the whole programme, Feldmann-Wojtachnia 2011 for Germany, The Swedish Ministry of Integration and Gender Equality 2007 for Sweden, Da Silva Santos 2010 for Luxembourg), and studies on particular programmes, target groups or aspects of mobility. For example, Mutz and Korfmacher (2003) studied dropouts from the European Voluntary Service on behalf of the German National Agency of the Youth in Action Programme and the Ministry of Families, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (BMFSFJ), and Thimmel, Chehata and Riß guided the scientific research programme accompanying “JiVE”
(Youth Work International – Experiencing Diversity), a youth policy initiative to promote education and participation through various methods and concepts of international youth work (Chehata et al. 2010).

In terms of methodological approaches, research on international youth mobility in non-formal educational contexts seems to resist the common trend in research on formal education of collecting extensive data through large quantitative surveys: as Figure 3 shows, more than 40% of the studies included in this review apply only qualitative research methods and 23% work with a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. For studies filed under “neither or not specified” there was no information available on the Internet concerning the applied methods or they were focusing on theoretical aspects (and thus not collecting and using empirical data at all, see Winkelmann 2006). There were only five studies using exclusively quantitative methods, of which one was a psychological study from Austria on the effects of international voluntary services on the volunteers’ personality (Thalhammer 2012), and another was a survey on the educational and occupational benefits gained by young people from Poland involved in EVS (Moskwiak 2005).

**Figure 3: Studies by methods applied**

![Figure 3: Studies by methods applied](image)

**→ Conclusions and unsolved questions**

This literature review was conducted in order to get a more comprehensive picture of what has already been accomplished in research on international youth mobility in non-formal educational contexts. Apart from numerous hints on interesting research projects and new perspectives on particular topics, this research leads to several rather general conclusions.

The wide range of issues, approaches and methods found in the included studies reflects the diverse realm of international youth mobility in non-formal educational contexts. However, compared to research on mobility in formal educational contexts – especially school exchange and higher education mobility programmes like Erasmus or Socrates – there seems to be much less research on youth mobility in non-formal education.
The reinforcement of international and interdisciplinary networking would help to initiate and maintain a broader discussion on the issues in question and to develop an independent research discourse. At the same time, research has to become more visible on an international level.

A fundamental task that would build the basis for any future discourse is to clearly establish which terms we use in which way. The review showed for example that “learning mobility” – the term used at EU levels to describe the entire field of youth mobility in educational contexts – in many databases refers exclusively to student mobility in higher education, while “youth mobility” is used for social mobility and has nothing to do with young people’s travelling. The term “voluntary service” often refers to volunteer work in the community or in contexts of volunteering in developing countries. In some databases “non-formal education” is mainly referred to as adult education in contexts of literacy education or educational projects for street children. Apparently, there still is a lot to discuss and to clarify on a European/international level with regard to definitions and terminology in order to create a common space for research and discourse. Hopefully, the European Platform on Learning Mobility in the Youth Field and this book will help to do so.

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III

Good practice and project reports
In Europe, a fifth of the population are young people. This makes for close to 100 million young people who face higher unemployment rates and difficulties in their personal and professional growth (European Commission 2010a). It is easy enough to define youth by age, but it becomes more problematic to define “young people of fewer opportunities” as it is a very diverse group (Ritzen J. et al. 2000; European Youth Centre 2011; European Commission 2011). Their exclusion often has an economic dimension, whereby they face unemployment, are deprived from an income, have a low standard of living and often are denied access to services such as receiving credit or owning property. With regard to the social dimension, young people face the loss of social status within society due to circumstances such as family disturbances, disabilities, health-related problems, drug abuse and risky sexual behaviours. Their exclusion can be political, often understood within a cultural dimension, when a sense of belonging to a particular ethnic or linguistic group can result in discrimination and marginalisation in civic and political participation, deprivation of minority rights and often, blame for problems faced by the
majority population. Lastly, exclusion can have a developmental dimension, whereby young people’s exclusion is due to restricted access to governmental resources and services such as infrastructure, health facilities, housing and transportation. Young people with fewer opportunities face higher motivational obstacles than their peers, and have more need of support, direction and guidance to make the mobility experience a valuable one.

For example, the European Voluntary Service (EVS) Programme sends many young people across European borders to volunteer with hosting organisations. However, the majority of EVS volunteers are university graduates with a Bachelor’s or Master’s degree, and it remains “primarily the privilege of the upper social class, not only in terms of education but also based on the height of income” (Committee of Regions 2009). Many European young people are not aware of the European mobility programmes they can take part in. A representative of an active non-profit organisation in the Czech Republic recalled the time when a group of young people did not believe that they could be part of a European mobility programme, in this case a Youth in Action Youth Exchange to Spain, and accused the organisation of being a sect trying to lure them in.25 A Danish colleague from a well-respected internationally active non-profit organisation pointed out that Danish young people with immigrant backgrounds are often eager to attend mobility programmes but encounter resistance at home, with parents refusing to allow their participation. Disadvantaged young people can benefit greatly from further inclusion in mobility programmes funded by European institutions. This is not only to give every young European, regardless of his/her background or situation, a chance to increase his/her personal and professional development, but also because of the enormous benefits that young people with fewer opportunities enjoy once they are motivated to participate. A mobility experience for disadvantaged young people often results in unexpected active participation and smoother (re)integration into their societies.

This chapter addresses how European mobility programmes as outlined in the Europe 2020 strategy can be further improved to include more young people with fewer opportunities (European Commission 2010b). The report of the impact assessment of the Youth in Action programmes pointed out that the measures aimed at encouraging the participation of young people with fewer opportunities need to be strengthened (European Commission 2011). We propose the development of three mechanisms: first, we propose a well-functioning supportive system with an inclusion quota for mobility programmes per country; second, we propose to strengthen promotion strategies to extend the outreach to relevant stakeholders, including close family members of disadvantaged young people, potential employers and untapped youth networks; and third, we propose to specifically focus on the importance of the informal learning process that facilitates the inclusion of the younger generations from disadvantaged minority communities. With these measures active citizenship among young people with fewer opportunities is promoted, their employability is advanced and they are brought out of their isolation.

**Inclusion quota**

The current European Youth in Action (YiA) Programme uses an inclusion strategy for youth organisations, youth councils and others to get extra financial assistance for their YiA events to stimulate social inclusion of young people with fewer opportunities. The inclusion strategy will continue to apply under the Europe 2020 strategy, in the

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25. Interview with non-profit organisation representative from the Czech Republic over the phone on 5 November 2012.
European youth mobility and inclusion among those with fewer opportunities

frame of the Youth on the Move flagship initiative (European Commission 2011). Such a supportive system is vital for all elements of “Youth on the Move” to guarantee more participation from young people with fewer opportunities, and could mature into a full-fledged system that guarantees systematic preparation and follow-up to encourage active participation of young people coming from marginalised communities.

We propose a quota per European country that reserves spots for young people from marginalised communities to participate in European mobility programming such as the initiative “Your first EURES job”, which finds young job seekers work in other EU countries (European Commission 2010b). Young people with fewer opportunities can benefit from an inclusion quota to increase their chance to be recruited outside their home country. The quota is not just a number, but is an essential part of the supportive system that is tailored to each individual country context and its marginalised communities. The quota guarantees that a more representative sample of young people is involved. The quota is only possible if it is backed by a thorough supportive system to facilitate inclusion through access, reliable and helpful information, and the needed financial backup. Five elements are needed to maintain the quota per country.

First, a yearly contextual assessment of marginalised young people and their communities, which includes the organisations that are effectively reaching out, and those that could potentially do so. It should also map out the heterogeneity of the group of those with fewer opportunities. The contextual analysis is needed on a yearly basis to adjust the objectives, target those who need it most, and it provides the tools to improve the inclusion of marginalised young people.

Second, language assistance packages within each host country, including mini-language courses, translation efforts and language buddies before and during the mobility experience, to help participants practise a second language and become familiar with the foreign language used in the country of exchange. One of the main obstacles is language; those without language skills are easily intimidated and afraid to be part of an international activity with hardly any basic foreign-language skills.

Third, encourage minimum language programmes. Young people from marginalised communities can be involved in mobility programmes with a focus on sports, music, theatre, and hands-on vocational activities where language requirements are reduced to a minimum.

Fourth, make use of “virtual mobility”, with guidance and distribution of information in print and online. Mentors and co-ordinators of mobility programmes need to be up to date and comfortable with the wealth of information available related to the mobility programme they are in charge of, and reach out to participants during the preparation phase and during the mobility experience regularly to share sources and practical tips on issues such as housing, transportation, language, visa and money issues, as well as the contact information of the host institution. Virtual mobility should be better streamlined on the organisational side, not only before the mobility experience but also afterwards. Employees who provide guidance should play a bigger role in alleviating reverse culture shocks and reach out to participants to share and acknowledge their experience. On a yearly basis, involved employees should have the responsibility of verifying and updating all information.

Participants should also have the option to connect with a “buddy” who has experience in a mobility programme, preferably in the same country. The buddy is met beforehand, and is a resource for questions before and after the programme. Cultural
tips and the shared stories of a young person with a previous mobility experience can help participants prepare for cultural differences and deal with culture shock. The “buddy” has the chance to share his/her own stories, facilitating the recognition of the value of his/her own mobility experience.

Fifth, financial assistance to involved organisations choosing to contribute to the quota is needed to cover the extra costs of mentoring, extra preparations and follow-up schemes. More structural financial assistance is needed to ensure that organisations provide the necessary support needed to reach out to marginalised young people and offer them the needed preparations and follow-up. Preparation costs need to be budgeted in the Youth in Action schemes, so that non-profit organisations can provide language courses and trainings to prepare young people for participation in group activities, introduce them to cross-cultural differences and support them in getting ready to take part in an international activity.

→ Outreach: promotion of mobility

European mobility programmes can benefit significantly from greater outreach initiatives. It is a win-win situation: local communities recognise the efforts of those who participated, more employers understand the added value of young people with this experience, and more marginalised young people and their families can be reached to learn about future mobility opportunities that can strongly enhance their personal lives and professional careers. It is vital for more people and organisations to become familiar with the main advantages of EU mobility experiences; this increases the support of families to their children’s participation in mobility programmes, and increases their employability, in addition to personal development (European Commission 2008).

Young people participating in mobility programmes often have access to other youth networks that otherwise remain untapped. Learning mobility programmes can put more effort into the period after the mobility experience, when the participants can share their stories, receive recognition for participation in their local communities, and open the eyes of their peers about the possibilities of going abroad to enrich their lives. With only minimal to no follow-up, participants who want to make a difference in their local communities sometimes cannot find a platform to be active. The empowerment of their mobility experience can diminish quickly if there is no platform from which to share their experiences and enable others to learn about opportunities they can apply for and take part in. While there are active alumni organisations such as the Erasmus Mundus Students and Alumni Association, several mobility programmes lack alumni activities and could benefit from a structured approach to reach out and promote the European mobility programmes, and to share their experience with others: peers, parents, as well as the educational and business sectors. The peer-to-peer approach is ideal for using the right arguments and cultural sensitivities to make the mobility programmes known and attractive to young people with fewer opportunities. For example, a Comenius Programme in Romania and Hungary that took place back in 2005 and 2006 focused on the improvement of language and communication skills of high school students through debate. The students came from towns and villages in Romania and Hungary, and several students came from remote rural areas and underdeveloped farm villages. All students participated on an equal level, interacting with and learning from each other. Eight years on, two participating students continue to be involved in public speaking and debate, and run successful training programmes in debate for young people in Romania.26

26. Interview on 11 November 2012 with a programme co-ordinator of debate programmes in Romania who participated in the Comenius Programme.
Promoting mobility programmes in a structural way, as a joint effort throughout EU mobility programming, will diminish the lack of knowledge about the advantages of learning mobility. We propose a joint effort to undertake the following three promotion strategies.

First, the implementation of local “mobility interest teams” in each country gives mobility beneficiaries the possibility to introduce mobility programmes to their networks, with the support of the EU and local authorities.

The “mobility interest team” consists of formal educational bodies such as schools, training centres and universities, and civil society organisations that work in the non-formal educational sector; companies with corporate social responsibility programmes; and the mobility beneficiaries, to whom members of alumni organisations, teachers, trainers, activists and coordinators can actively reach out in advocating for mobility (European Commission 2010a). The mobility interest team can offer the mobility beneficiaries the missing and needed structural links to strengthen the visibility and recognition of mobility programmes. A participant of a mobility experience can function as an ambassador for his/her mobility programme in local schools and universities and local radio stations, public venues and other media outlets to add an extra dimension to learned skills and development. This contributes to his/her CV and ensures deserved recognition by society, while at the same time it can provide a connection to young people with fewer opportunities in their local communities. Also, educational institutions, where there is already a bond between the families of the marginalised young people, can gain the needed trust of the parents and positively influence the lives of minority young people. Educational institutions can facilitate the exchange as a high-quality experience whereby the student is exposed to a new language and to different values. Moreover, the student can share stories of his/her own experience and get recognition for participation in the mobility programme once back in the local community.

The second strategy involves the development of peer-to-peer tools by young beneficiaries to access untapped youth networks, in collaboration with group members of the local mobility interest groups (European Commission 2008).

Young beneficiaries who have participated in a learning mobility project not only have the knowledge but also the motivation to act as mobility promoters, being natural and approachable ambassadors as they are able to speak the same language and use social media to share their experiences with friends who are not directly affiliated to mobility programmes. This method can also be used to directly reach families of marginalised young people, especially those from ethnic minorities. Young people from those groups often have to counter the negative perceptions of their families regarding the concept of volunteering and exchange. It is vital to investigate the views of minorities with regard to education, studying abroad, cultural exchange, volunteerism and non-formal activities, and break existing taboos among young people and their elders through promotion strategies.

Third, designed programmes should not only make an effort to ensure innovation, but also justify how proposed designs ensure that young people not directly affiliated with mobility projects are included in new mobility experiences. Proposed mobility projects should include a “promotion” component where activities such as sharing participants’ experiences with community-based organisations and universities and through social media are part of the project in-country and out-country. The programme, host institution or affiliated home institutions can invite participants to become promoters of their programme.
Young people with fewer opportunities do not have the same access to these mobility experiences as their peers from middle and upper social classes. Structural promotion and outreach efforts of learning mobility can have a high impact. It connects the non-formal education sector with the formal one, and boosts learning mobility in all parts of education.

→ Greater focus on non-formal learning by means of an inclusive approach

The non-formal learning process is invaluable in bringing marginalised young people back into society and ensuring their active participation through local ownership across the involved groups. Non-formal learning creates the opportunity to easily build connections that provide a basis for co-operation in the future. The Europe 2020 strategy aims at promoting the recognition of non-formal and informal learning (European Commission 2010b). Promotion is vital, according to the spokesperson of an Italian non-profit organisation active in Sicily, as non-formal learning techniques are solid instruments to bring these young people at risk in contact with society, increase their sense of belonging and break down existing negative stereotypes and prejudices. Including the marginalised means that they are involved in activities with young people in better social, economic or political situations. By means of an inclusive approach, new relations are established and nurtured, and in connection with their peers, young people are given the opportunity to transfer knowledge to each other.

This inclusive approach for disadvantaged young people to participate on the same level as their peers can be applied regionally, across borders, but can also be applied locally, within local communities introducing mobility at a local level. This creates local opportunities for mobility, where local minorities can play a role in sharing best practices and transfer knowledge between Europeans, neighbours, minorities and their local community. Young people from the community can participate in local mobility programmes with other young people growing up in ethnic minority communities in their countries, share their expertise on integration issues, share their personal stories and be the driving force in advocating the needs of those communities and opening the eyes of others on other cultural traditions, practices and beliefs. Members of the minority groups build interdependent relations with others and receive recognition from different groupings and stakeholders, and create positive images of an inclusive society that everyone shares and contributes to. Their overall greater involvement as trainers, researchers, youth activists, and active members in organisations, committees and councils will foster cultural diversity, a shared European identity and a basis to connect to minority young people that was previously inaccessible.

Young people with fewer opportunities benefit greatly from an inclusive approach whereby they are at the same level as their peers, experience new relationships, build new skill sets and deepen their breadth of knowledge. Someone with fewer opportunities who does not finish high school or has no sense of career plans, for example, can by taking part in the European Voluntary Service experience a first-time work experience and become more attractive to prospective employers.

→ Conclusion

The EU calls for greater co-operation between youth policies and relevant policy areas, in particular education, employment, social inclusion, culture and health (European Commission 2010b). The inclusion of people with fewer opportunities and the inclusion of the beneficiaries of diverse backgrounds into mobility activities, such as “Your first EURES job” and Erasmus Mundus, is key to strengthening and changing culture in the respective countries, thus working towards a long-term
vision of change for the betterment of Europe. Education and employment are primary contributors to socially cohesive societies through transfer of knowledge and first-hand personal experiences of diversity and tolerance. European transnational mobility programmes are long-term educational interventions that advance the skill sets of young Europeans and contribute to their personal development and professional growth. They strengthen their employability and provide life-enriching opportunities. The EU, with its Youth on the Move flagship project, strongly focuses on the added value of mobility in terms of employability, especially with the launch of a youth employment framework for youth to easily enter the job market. A non-formal, inclusive approach can create valuable experiences for young people with fewer opportunities in order to ensure the security and stability of Europe in times of financial crises and growing racism. Interaction with peers builds solidarity and understanding among the younger generations, which is a fertile ground for co-operation, interdependence and socially cohesive societies.

We proposed to take into consideration three main mechanisms that focus on a non-formal approach to mobility when integrating and enhancing the EU's mobility programmes.

The first is an inclusion quota, which increases the number of beneficiaries and the quality of non-formal educational initiatives by means of a full-fledged supportive system. Inclusion is not only about including a higher number of young people, but should be better facilitated and mentored to seamlessly mainstream inclusion.

The second mechanism is a stronger outreach component that promotes non-formal initiatives by creating more recognition in society at large, and in particular, delivering added value to employers through mobility interest teams and a peer-to-peer approach. The co-operation and empowerment of the beneficiaries is key to a sustainable, successful promotion of the programmes.

Third, there should be a greater focus on non-formal learning with the help of an inclusive process. A greater focus on minority groups with non-formal education can help young people with fewer opportunities to participate in the suggested regional and local mobility actions, ensuring local ownership and breaking taboos through non-formal mobility experiences (European Commission 2011).

By means of these three mechanisms, we aim to make education, employment and training more relevant to the needs of young people and increase the number of young people with fewer opportunities taking advantage of student mobility and trainee mobility programmes. Learning mobility programmes and non-formal learning are two key instruments of inclusive growth with the help of which marginalised young people are motivated to become active members of their society. Boosting their educational experience and improving their employability empowers young people with fewer opportunities to fully participate in society. The main lesson is that mobility programmes strongly contribute to the local participation and integration of marginalised young people. Giving those young people a place among their peers helps to break down stereotypes, gives peers the opportunity to educate each other and can lead to unexpected positive results once they are back in their communities.

These concrete proposals are in line with the Youth on the Move flagship of the European Commission and the Council Resolution of 27 November 2009 on a renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field (2010-2018) (European Commission 2010a). It is vital for the forthcoming set of policy initiatives of the Youth on the Move programme to be all-inclusive: to address the existing
structural inequalities, strengthen social connections and co-operation between young people, develop the capacities of young people with fewer opportunities from marginalised communities to build inclusive societies, and provide everyone, including young people at risk, with access to opportunities and a fairer distribution of resources and assets.

→ References


Sharing the mobility experience: creating more effect. Comparison of the effects on young people of two Dutch learning mobility programmes

Introduction

The Netherlands Youth Institute was responsible for the development and implementation of the national programme for learning mobility Xplore (2005-09), which subsidised internships and volunteering work in developing countries. Though a learning mobility programme, the emphasis of the Xplore programme was on sharing the mobility experience with a wider audience, for example through presentations, theatre, workshops and so on. In this chapter, we will look into the added value of “sharing the mobility experience”. Therefore, we will compare the results of the Xplore programme on the knowledge, attitude and behaviour of young people with the results of the Youth in Action Programme. We will then argue that including a strong dissemination component could be useful for other mobility programmes as well.

Results of the Dutch learning mobility programme Xplore

Framework

In 2005, the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs launched the new learning mobility programme Xplore. The programme, with a total budget of
€20 million, aimed at funding internships in developing countries for at least 1,300 young people a year. The programme was an answer to the increasing demand in Dutch society for short internships and volunteering work in developing countries. Also, the Dutch Minister for Development Co-operation at the time, Agnes van Ardenne, attached particular importance to the “socialisation” of development co-operation through the participation of civilians in promoting international co-operation. This was one of the cornerstones of her policy on development co-operation (Ministry of Foreign Affairs 2003).

The policy framework for the Xplore programme clearly stated that mobility in itself was not the main goal. The internships were merely a means of promoting support for development co-operation in Dutch society. The emphasis of the Xplore programme was on sharing the mobility experience with a wider audience, for example through presentations, theatre or workshops, aiming at a broad increase for support for development co-operation. Indicators for increased support among the participants were their involvement in volunteering work, their educational and professional choices and their consumption patterns. Another key element in the policy framework was the involvement of young persons from all parts of society. Young people from 13 to 30 years old could participate in the programme.

Programme output

Between 2005 and 2009, almost 7,500 young people of an average age of 20 participated in the programme. They travelled to a developing country, lived and worked together with local young people, and were stimulated to rethink the concept of development co-operation. Back in the Netherlands, they shared their experiences with 1.3 million Dutch people.

Their activities in developing countries were diverse, such as teaching in schools, working in hospitals, organising sports activities, participation in educational projects aimed at raising awareness on topics such as HIV/AIDS, creative activities such as making theatre or music, and research activities. The activities the participants set up to share their experiences back home in the Netherlands varied enormously as well, and ranged from presentations in schools, organising activities in their own neighbourhood (youth centre, sports club, church, bar, etc.) to interactive workshops in elderly homes, photo exhibitions in libraries, film nights, pub quizzes, debates, auctions and themed dinners.

The young people involved were obliged to share their experience in a developing country with at least 150 people through face-to-face contact. Though participants did not particularly look forward to these “sharing activities”, most of them learned to like it. The organisations involved reported that their initial resistance was usually caused by a lack of self-esteem or fear of speaking in public. With appropriate training and preparation, the sharing activities led to more satisfaction and deeper awareness of the issues involved. This was supported by statistics: on average the participants shared their experience with an audience of 180 people, far more than the compulsory 150 (NJI 2009). A simple calculation shows that in total 1.3 million people were reached with the programme.

The aim to recruit at least 40% young people with a low education level or little affinity with the subject of international co-operation was surpassed: 57% of the participants came from the less privileged parts of society. The applications for the programme came from a wide range of organisations, as shown in Table 1, thereby reaching a diversity of young people (IOB 2008).
Table 1: Main aims of the organisations applying for the programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aims</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development co-operation</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migrant organisation</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internships and volunteering work</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth organisation</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious institution</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth work</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural institution</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Nji 2009

Outcomes for young people

The learning mobility experience in a developing country made a deep impression on most of the young people involved. This not only led to a stronger involvement with development co-operation, but also to personal development. The Xplore programme has been extensively evaluated as per its effects on knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of the participants. The programme has a strong effect on the behaviour of the participants in relation to global citizenship, for example on consumption patterns, donations and volunteering work. Also, positive effects on social and communicative competences are acknowledged.

In 2007, the internal evaluation bureau of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (IOB) performed a mid-term evaluation on 46 Xplore projects (IOB 2008), for which 366 questionnaires were completed. The level of involvement of the participants with development co-operation was measured, as well as the effects on their personal development.

Table 2: Percentage of young people reporting a positive effect with Xplore, mid-term

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aims</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge on development co-operation</td>
<td>80-82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social skills</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IOB 2008

At the end of the programme period in 2009, another review was done on the level of the participants, and 168 young people completed a questionnaire. Direct questions related to effects on concrete behaviours were asked, with positive results.
Table 3: Percentage of young people reporting a positive effect with Xplore, post-programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affinity with development co-operation</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected involvement in development co-operation in the future</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase of fair trade products</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donating money for development projects</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation of (local) activities for young people</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence on (professional) education</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership of an organisation related to development work</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Nji 2009

**Sharing the learning mobility experience**

In qualitative evaluations with the participants as well as the organisations involved, a link was established between the learning mobility experience in itself and sharing the experience with a wider audience. Sharing their experience seems to make young people more aware of their own personal growth and also stimulates social and organisational skills, according to both organisations and participants (Nji 2007):

*Being an “ambassador for development co-operation” has helped me to not only relive the experience, but also write and tell people about it. It taught me to be concrete and to be more aware. I cannot leave Brazil behind and continue to live as I have done. Brazil is sketched into my heart.*

Participant, learning mobility project Livingstone

*When I come back, I am going to finish writing my thesis. Also, I will give presentations for my fellow students. I will tell them about my research and show them that they could also do something like this. I am also active as a volunteer for the organisation Enviu. I love telling about my experience in Chile. I write a blog regularly, and maybe I am also going to write for the University paper. I am pretty busy with it, but I learn from it, too.*

Participant, learning mobility project Enviu

*We have to invest much time and energy into motivating and supporting the participants to share their experiences. Every week, we come together with all participants. They tell the group about their sharing activities that week. They practise their presentations and give and receive feedback. Thereby, they practise how to present themselves, also for future job applications.*

Project co-ordinator, learning mobility organisation Welfare Scheveningen Foundation

The “sharing” part of the Xplore programme seems to amount to more than the promotion of support for development co-operation. It deepens the learning mobility experience in its own right (IOB 2008).
For a more in-depth analysis of the value of the concept of sharing a learning mobility experience, we will look into the results of another learning mobility programme in the Netherlands, the Youth in Action Programme.

Results of the learning mobility programme Youth in Action in the Netherlands

Framework

On 15 November 2006, the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union adopted the decision which established the Youth in Action Programme for the period 2007 to 2013. This document is the legal basis of the programme for its entire duration. Youth in Action is the EU Programme for young people aged 13 to 30: it aims to inspire a sense of active citizenship, solidarity and tolerance among young Europeans and to involve them in shaping the Union’s future. The programme runs in 33 European countries, of which 27 are EU member states.

Youth in Action promotes mobility within and beyond EU borders, non-formal learning and intercultural dialogue, and encourages the inclusion of all young people, regardless of their educational, social and cultural background. It is designed to encourage young people, especially the most disadvantaged and the disabled, to participate in public life and to promote their sense of initiative, entrepreneurial spirit and creativity. With a total European budget of €885 million for seven years, the programme defines general and specific objectives that are implemented through so called “actions” (budget lines) (European Parliament 2006).

Young people participate in the programme through different budget lines, of which youth exchanges and the European Voluntary Service are the biggest. Through interaction with other young people and involvement in local communities, young people learn about each other, their values and beliefs. This contributes to the aims of the programme. After the activities there is the possibility to share the experience with others, but this is not one of the aims of the programme and, therefore, is mostly not seen as a priority.

Programme output

The Netherlands provides the Youth in Action Programme with an average budget for projects of €3.5 million a year. With a total Dutch budget from 2007 to 2011 of approximately €17 million, 780 projects have been executed with more than 16 000 participants, of whom 5 920 were Dutch. Applications come from a diverse group of organisations, as shown in Table 4, thereby reaching a diversity of young people.

Table 4: Main aims of the organisations applying for projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main aim</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organised youth work</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth exchange</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural activities</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and training</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth education</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Outcomes for young people

In 2010 and 2011, the Netherlands took part in the RAY network, which has developed joint transnational research activities related to Youth in Action since 2008. In 2011, 15 countries took part in this network. The research was based on questionnaires, one for participants and one for project leaders of funded projects. In the Netherlands 264 participants and 89 project leaders filled in this questionnaire.

Outcomes of the RAY research in the Netherlands show that most of the objectives of the Youth in Action Programme have been met, with 96% of the participants saying they would recommend participation in such a project to others. Young people report that they are stimulated to participate in society and to be European citizens. The participants feel more involved in other cultures and learn to share and co-operate with people from different cultures. Some of the participants are more active in political and/or community life. Besides this, knowledge and awareness about Europe and European issues is raised. It is clear that the participants are stimulated to be more active in society. Whether this leads to concrete behavioural changes, such as participation and active citizenship, cannot be determined on the basis of this research (Lekkerkerker 2011).

Table 5: Percentage of young people reporting a positive effect with Youth in Action

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of European issues</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affinity with European issues</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal skills(^a)</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social skills(^b)</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\) more confidence and self-esteem
\(^b\) working together in a team

Source: Lekkerkerker 2011

Sharing the learning mobility experience

Looking into the sharing of the learning mobility experience in the Youth in Action Programme, we see that the European Commission emphasises the promotion of the programme by publicising good examples and using the logo of the programme on publicity materials. The Commission has created the database EVE, where project results are recorded. Also, organisations and participants have the possibility to “disseminate and exploit their project results” (DEOR strategy). This varies from presentations on the outcomes of a project, events or discussion meetings.
to the distribution of a video or project photos. From our own experience in the Netherlands, we know that DEOR funds are usually used to create and distribute a video or photos. The “sharing part” in Youth in Action is usually not more than the promotion of the Youth in Action Programme and the activity in itself. Only rarely are experiences and competences learned shared with peers. This way, DEOR activities rarely contribute to the personal growth of participants and do not stimulate social and organisational skills. Also, the opportunity is lost to reach a large audience and to bring Europe closer to them. The fact that there is no extra money available for DEOR activities from 2011 onwards has diminished its importance and rendered the promotion and sharing less visible.

→ Conclusion and recommendations

Comparing outcomes

When comparing both learning mobility programmes, the most striking difference from our perspective is the “sharing part” of the programmes. The focus on reaching a diverse group of young people, its aims of improving the knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of young people towards development co-operation (Xplore) and Europe (Youth in Action) seem roughly comparable.

In the Xplore programme, sharing the learning mobility experience was an important and obligatory part of each project. In the Youth in Action Programme, “sharing” is focused more on the promotion and communication of the programme as a whole, and is one of the many priorities. Since it does not have a fixed “place” in the Youth in Action Programme, as a hard assessment criterion, and since the designated budget for it no longer exists, it is difficult to steer this process and to put focus on the visibility of the sharing component. There are also applicants who do not see the extra value of sharing.

At the level of the young people involved, what effects does this difference lead to? In Table 6, we try to compare the outcomes on the knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of the participants.

Table 6: Percentage of young people reporting a positive effect with learning mobility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Xplore</th>
<th>Youth in Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of development co-operation</td>
<td>80-82%</td>
<td>Knowledge of European issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affinity with development co-operation</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>Affinity with European issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal skills</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Personal skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social skills</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>Social skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Even though all the research was done through questionnaires filled in by the young people themselves, and thereby cannot be viewed as objective, Table 6 clearly shows a trend: the Xplore programme seems to have better effects on knowledge, attitudes and personal skills.
On social skills, the Youth in Action Programme seems to have more effect. This could be explained by the fact that 85% of the respondents of the RAY research programme participated in group activities, such as youth exchanges and youth initiatives. Only 14% of the respondents participated in an individual programme, such as the European Voluntary Service. The focus of these projects is on social interaction and social learning. In the Xplore programme, more than 50% of the participants were involved in individual internships/volunteering work.

These findings support the trend from qualitative evaluations (Nji 2007) that the sharing part of a learning mobility programme deepens the learning effects on the participants. This makes sense, since sharing their experience makes young people more aware of their improved personal skills, and boosts self-esteem and self-confidence:

*Every time I talked about Kenya, I noticed that I learned so much in such a short time. I am continually sharing these experiences with the people around me. I feel much more involved in development co-operation. My parents and friends as well, because I talk about it all the time. I motivated many other students to participate in the project as well.*

Participant, learning mobility project Ex-change

**Comparing costs**

The sharing component of a learning mobility programme is relatively “cheap”: for the Xplore programme, the costs for “sharing” were €200 per young person. As the average cost for the internship or volunteering work was €2 194, the sharing component made up only 9.1% of the total amount. The cost for the audience reached with the sharing activities is even lower: €12.19 per person. In comparison, the costs for a participant of the Youth in Action Programme were €1 598.

**Recommendations**

There are different EU objectives aimed at young people in Europe. One of them is the renewed framework for European co-operation in the youth field that is designed to provide better opportunities for Europe’s young people. There are two interrelated objectives for the period 2010 to 2018: the creation of more and equal opportunities in education and in the labour market and the promotion of active citizenship, social inclusion and solidarity. Besides this co-operation in the youth field, there is the Europe 2020 growth strategy for the coming decade. In a changing world, the EU has to become a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy. This should provide high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion.

To support this, there is the proposal for a regulation of the European Parliament and of the Council of the European Union establishing “Erasmus for All”, the Union Programme for Education, Training, Youth and Sport (European Commission 2011).

Looking at these strategies at the European level, we recognise that employment and citizenship are important “targets” for young people. Therefore, (European) awareness, social and personal skills are of key importance. We believe that for building these competences in young people, sharing the learning mobility experience should be added to the concept of learning. When it comes to the continuity of the development of young people and learning mobility activities, there is a line that leads from the preparation phase through the learning mobility phase, the sharing phase, the evaluation phase and follow-up, which can result in planning new activities, and so on.
Adding “sharing” to the concept of learning mobility serves different goals and target groups:

- participants: sharing experiences by the participants contributes to the development of skills which can be used in their further personal or professional development. It creates awareness in the participants of European issues. It boosts their self-esteem and self-confidence, which will stimulate active citizenship;
- applicant organisations: sharing experiences by participants contributes to the visibility of the organisation, the project at hand and the outcomes. Sharing experiences and demonstrating the competences learned by participants can justify the time and effort spent by organisations in setting up a learning mobility programme;
- audience of the “sharing activities”: in theory, if there is good content to share and there is a willingness to share the outcomes, products and experiences on the part of the participants, there is a large audience that can be reached.

Figure 1: Sharing model

In practice, it is important to find the right audience. From what we have seen in our learning mobility programmes, it works well for young people to share knowledge, values, beliefs and practices with peers. Peer education works well because it is a dialogue between equals. It involves members of a particular group educating others of the same (age or social) group. A good example disseminated that motivates participants can therefore contribute to awareness on European issues, create motivation and enthusiasm for a learning mobility experience and promote organisations active in this field.

We would, therefore, recommend the inclusion of a component of “sharing the mobility experience” through peer learning in mobility programmes. As we have argued, it is a cost-effective means of strengthening the outcome of these programmes. It will stimulate young people to share their experience as a natural part of a mobility project, which will contribute not only to them personally, but also to their organisations, their audience and – in broader terms – to society.

References


NJi (2009), *The World Xplored: De resultaten van vijf jaar Xplore*, NJi, Utrecht.
Opening talent in young people: the role of non-formal learning in the UK Foyer Network

Steve Hillman

Introduction

Foyers are providers of accommodation, learning, employment and personal development support for young people unable to live in the family home or take other traditional routes to independent adult life. Since their inception in the UK in 1992, they have prepared young people for independent and thriving adulthood by offering a holistic package of services, addressing all the needs and aspirations with which individual young people present.

Non-formal learning is at the heart of Foyers’ attempt to enable young people to develop into independent and thriving adults. Foyer programmes help to prepare young people to re-engage with mainstream learning and work, and they can also be used to develop the essential life skills – for example cooking, budgeting, and working with others – that are the key building blocks for maintaining a thriving adult life. They are available to all young people resident in Foyer accommodation, but also to other young people experiencing similar difficulties. Some non-formal learning programmes address the issue of learning mobility directly by providing opportunities for
international travel and exchange with other EU nations, and occasionally even further afield.

This chapter will examine the scope and range of the non-formal learning programmes in the UK Foyer Network, touch briefly on the role of digital learning and social media, and examine the barriers that learners sometimes face and how incentives can be used to overcome these barriers. It will then discuss the experience of the UK Foyer Network in providing learning mobility programmes, and address some of the difficulties they have faced. It will also provide brief reference to the relationship between Foyers’ non-formal learning programmes and emerging policy agendas in the UK, and relate these programmes to the European Union’s Key Competences for Lifelong Learning. Finally, the chapter will conclude with the lessons that the Foyer Federation has learned from 20 years of designing, developing and delivering non-formal learning programmes for young people in the UK.

→ Background to learning in Foyers

Foyers’ offer of holistic support means that non-formal learning can be tailored in a way that meets individual needs and aspirations. Its methodology offers opportunities for a blend of individual and group tuition, information, advice and guidance and online learning. The “contract”, signed by the young person and a Foyer that promises commitment to engage in return for high-quality personalised services, offers the opportunity for reflection and recognition of the distance travelled by the young person on their non-formal learning journey.

Over the years, Foyers have funded their non-formal learning programmes in a variety of different ways, through national programme funding, European funding (usually the European Social Fund), funding from charitable trusts, or local sources of funding such as Community Chests. European programmes such as Leonardo have provided opportunities for young people and staff in Foyers to travel internationally.

The content of programmes varies widely according to the size of the Foyer, the needs and aspirations of the young people it serves, and the resources available. The next section presents a broad view of the content, scope and range of Foyer provision, taken from the Foyer Federation’s research and assessment work over recent years.

→ Content, scope and range of provision in UK Foyer Network

Activities can be catalogued as falling into four categories to do with Employment and Skills, Physical and Mental Health, and Lifeskills and Creativity. Among the most frequent are sessions on cookery, healthy eating and nutrition, employment and job search, financial capability (budgeting, debt management, etc.), and sport and physical health. The table below presents a fuller list of activities, in order of frequency under each theme:
Table 1: List of Foyer activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment and Skills</th>
<th>Physical and Mental Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Cookery, healthy eating, nutrition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literacy and numeracy</td>
<td>Sports and physical activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job search, CV writing, interview skills</td>
<td>Self-esteem, assertiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial capability, budgeting</td>
<td>Well-being, enabling change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Anger management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching and peer mentoring</td>
<td>Domestic abuse, bullying awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise</td>
<td>Sexuality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair and beauty</td>
<td>Food hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Cycling and cycle maintenance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lifeskills</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual health</td>
<td>Arts and crafts, photography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs and alcohol awareness</td>
<td>Media and film production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining a tenancy</td>
<td>Music and DJ-ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move-on/resettlement</td>
<td>Dance and drama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Citizenship</td>
<td>Discussion groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction</td>
<td>Book groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIY and gardening</td>
<td>Residents’ newsletter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety, first aid, fire safety, road safety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The content of non-formal learning programmes in Foyers strikes a balance between activities designed to engage residents, those that are designed to teach useful skills and those that promote re-entry into learning and work. Clearly, it is possible to achieve all three within one activity, and perhaps the same activity will have different outcomes for different participants. A cookery session could, for example, be offering one resident the opportunity to learn about healthy eating, another the opportunity for some numeracy work, a third the opportunity to develop team working skills, and a fourth the chance to develop their leadership potential. It is in this ability to achieve several objectives in the same activity where the real value of non-formal learning lies, and why it is so important to provide individual space for reflection around these activities, so that the value of the learning for each individual can be made apparent.

Opportunities for Foyer residents themselves to have an input into the way their non-formal learning programmes are delivered are offered in a variety of ways. The most popular is to involve residents as tutors, facilitators, fundraisers and mentors on the programmes themselves. There are other procedural ways of obtaining residents’ feedback and ideas as to how to shape their non-formal learning offer, including through consultation with the resident representative, through resident/house meetings and focus groups, and through questionnaires and evaluation forms. Another mechanism is through one-on-one support planning, keyworking and coaching sessions.

**Space for reflection**

The support planning process has an important role to play in offering time and space to reflect on the impact of an individual’s learning journey. Residents are coached by their keyworker to reflect on what they have learned, both in practical terms (I can cook, I can clean, etc.) but also in terms of their own personal development (I know I can work in a team, I know I can ask for help when I need
it, etc). Support planning sessions highlight the importance of the key worker as a coach, mentor or trusted adult who can support the resident in identifying the key elements of their learning journey.

Around half of Foyers use specific tools to “capture” the impact of informal learning, and of these tools the most frequently used was the Outcomes Star. Again, around half of Foyers include an exit assessment that provides an opportunity for the resident to reflect on the journey they have made.

† Use of social media and online learning platforms

Foyers have been engaged with the online learning agenda from the very early days, at the start of the previous decade. Many have been providing online learning services through the government-sponsored initiative learndirect through most of the last decade. In recent years, Foyers are increasingly using social media to engage young people, communicate with them regularly, and indeed track the progress of their learning journeys. An initiative from the Foyer Federation called MyNav (The Foyer Federation 2009) provides an online learning platform with social media integration for Foyers whose access to social media can sometimes be restricted through the Information and Communications Technology policies of the housing associations that own and manage them.

Social media such as Twitter and Facebook clearly have a role to play in facilitating learning mobility programmes. Facebook groups are used in joining people from different organisations in different nations together to plan and prepare and help to foster a sense of intimacy and connection in the run-up to a programme. And Twitter hashtags relating to particular events bring people together in an online space that helps keep them connected after the event.

† Barriers and incentives for learners

The difficulties faced by individual learners in engaging with non-formal learning are as follows, in order of frequency:

• poor experience of mainstream school;
• low self-esteem, fear of feeling a “failure”;
• chaotic lifestyle;
• peer pressure to disengage;
• substance misuse;
• undiagnosed learning difficulties.

It is significant that many of these barriers relate directly to the impacts that non-formal learning programmes are trying to have on the lives of young people.

Many of the activities that form part of Foyers’ non-formal learning programmes are low-cost interventions. But they do require staff to be on hand to co-ordinate, supervise and lead activities. A key organisational barrier for Foyers is that it can be difficult to recruit staff that are able to work at evenings and weekends, when demand for non-formal learning activities is at its highest.

One important incentive frequently cited by Foyers is that the outcomes attained by participating and achieving in a non-formal learning programme are an important part of “moving through” the Foyer process. Young people who participate in non-formal learning are noticeably more likely to progress quickly into independent
accommodation, which is the primary goal of most Foyer residents. Some Foyers have a formal process for this – for example, a points scale operates in the Foyer for the allocation of move-on accommodation, and for some it is simply an informal outcome of the process.

→ Outcomes and impact for learners

Foyers’ non-formal learning programmes offer a wide range of outcomes that can be grouped under three themes: knowledge and skills; behaviour; and identity. Under knowledge and skills are the outcomes that relate specifically to developing expertise in a given area, whether that area is to do with employment, learning, personal development or “lifeskills”. The behavioural theme relates to specific changes that happen as a result of non-formal learning, such as reduced substance misuse or less risky sexual behaviour. Grouped under the third theme, identity, are outcomes often described as “soft”, to do with increased self-confidence, self-esteem and feelings of well-being, but also those to do with a sense of ownership over one’s living environment, or an increased ability to set and meet challenging personal goals.

Another important outcome is that through non-formal learning programmes young people whose lives are highly chaotic can have structure, stability and routine introduced into their lives. This is a key step towards re-engagement with the mainstream.

Table 2 details, in order of frequency, the outcomes relating to non-formal learning stated by Foyers.

Table 2: Outcomes of non-formal learning, Foyers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge and Skills</th>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>Identity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased employability</td>
<td>Increased stability/structure/routine</td>
<td>Higher self-confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progression into learning and work</td>
<td>Enhanced ability to sustain healthy relationships</td>
<td>Higher self-esteem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased IT skills</td>
<td>Reduced substance misuse</td>
<td>Increased personal well-being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to work in a team, listen, negotiate</td>
<td>Less risky sexual behaviour</td>
<td>Greater independence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased ability to stay safe*</td>
<td>Better ability to make a positive contribution*</td>
<td>Increased ability to be healthy*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased economic well-being*</td>
<td>Enhanced social skills</td>
<td>Sense of achievement*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding equality and diversity</td>
<td></td>
<td>Willingness to stretch/challenge oneself</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Department for Children, Schools and Families 2004)

The longer-term impact of non-formal learning programmes for Foyer residents are grouped around two themes: firstly, that non-formal learning promotes entry into formal learning and work; and secondly, that non-formal learning promotes the development of social skills, involvement and a sense of purpose. Non-formal
learning plays a crucial role in combating the feelings of isolation, low emotional well-being, and low self-confidence that are key barriers to making the transition to independent adulthood.

A further key impact is the fact that non-formal learning programmes reduce the number of repeat tenancies by ensuring that learners have gained the skills and resources that they need to live independently in the community. The “transfer-ability” of the skills learned through non-formal learning – that non-formal learning promotes the development of skills that learners can use in their everyday lives – is of key importance.

→ Experience of UK Foyer Network in providing learning mobility programmes

As mentioned above, initiatives under the European Lifelong Learning Programme such as Leonardo have provided opportunities for young people and the staff who support them to travel within the EU on exchange programmes in order to enhance the non-formal learning programmes that they deliver. To date, staff and young people from Foyers have held exchange visits with like projects in Spain, Italy, France, the Netherlands, Germany and Romania. It is unquestionably the case that these programmes help to accelerate young people’s progress towards developing the skills necessary for independent adult life. They provide an opportunity to validate and reinforce skills developed through Foyer programmes, particularly around communication, resilience and self-esteem. There are, however, logistical challenges that need to be overcome. Firstly, the cost of obtaining a passport can be prohibitively expensive for young people in Foyers. Secondly, young people who participate in learning mobility programmes who are in receipt of welfare benefits can face the prospect of having their benefits stopped for the period that they are overseas, which can present major difficulties for young people in Foyers in terms of rent arrears.

Foyers have overcome these barriers by encouraging young people to fundraise themselves for the cost of their passport, and by liaising with benefit agencies around the eligibility of learning mobility programmes as a “volunteering” activity, though there are again difficulties with this such as the requirement to be available to attend a job interview within 48 hours (DWP 2010).

Where learning mobility programmes have been most successful, they have tended to have the following qualities:

• they focus on a specific, discrete activity during the programme, such as building and fitting a classroom, that can be completed during the programme and celebrated as an achievement;
• there is an explicit focus on the skills that will be developed through the programme, and individual progress is regularly monitored;
• there is continuity with activities in the home country, whether this is in the form of entry to a related mainstream learning programme, or continued contact with the organisations and people “hosting” the learning mobility programme.

→ “Fit” with emerging policy agendas in the UK

Recent discussion around public service reform in the UK focuses on the concept of “personalisation”: the tailoring of public services around the unique and specific needs of the individual. Reforms in some areas of social policy such as adult social care and disability have made significant progress in this area (Cabinet Office 2012).
The non-formal learning programmes that Foyers operate have direct relevance to this agenda as the programmes they operate have the flexibility and range to meet individual needs and, crucially, aspirations.

The recently launched Framework of Outcomes for Young People (McNeil et al. 2012), endorsed by the Department for Education, provides a model for commissioners and providers to articulate the outcomes that they are working towards when commissioning or providing services for young people. Most of the outcomes stated on the Framework are directly relevant to the work that Foyers do, and Foyers are beginning to articulate their services in these terms, where historically they have used a policy framework known as Every Child Matters to do this (see Table 2 above).

**The European key competences for lifelong learning**

There is a reasonably good fit between the programmes offered by Foyers and the Key Competences for Lifelong Learning (European Union 2006). In particular, in respect of the competences around communication in the mother tongue, mathematical competence, digital competence, learning to learn, and social and civic competence, there is a recognisable alignment between the definitions, knowledge, skills and attitudes outlined in the competences and the scope and range of non-formal learning programmes in Foyers.

There is a less good fit between the competences in communication in other languages, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, and cultural awareness and expression. This is not to say that these are not addressed at all, but that the knowledge, skills and attitudes outlined in these competences are more isolated and “piecemeal” than the others. A number of Foyers, for example, do have cultural awareness or enterprise programmes in operation, but these are frequently reliant upon the interests of a particular resident or member of staff, and are less “systematic” than the others.

**Conclusion: lessons learned**

Non-formal learning has a hugely important role to play in Foyers. It can be a vital means of developing those skills and resources necessary for independent adulthood. Alongside more practical things like learning to cook, clean and live on a budget, non-formal learning can be an important means of developing skills like forward planning, resilience, and teamworking that are an essential part of being an adult.

The discussion above gives a flavour of the range of non-formal learning activities taking place in Foyers, and of the benefits they have brought to young people. The key lessons that can be drawn from these examples are as follows:

- non-formal learning should begin with where the young person is, in terms of both venue and mindset. Learning that is led by the young person is much more likely to meet their needs and lead to successful progression;
- non-formal learning is much more powerful when combined with a space or a process for the learner to reflect on its impact. There are a wide range of means for doing this, including coaching sessions, journals, portfolio building and online resources;
- the range of non-formal learning opportunities should be as broad and as flexible as possible. In general terms, the less it feels like school, the better;
- the views, attitudes and motivations of the learner should be respected at all times.
This includes allowing people to disengage from time to time; 
• training staff in the principles of coaching and in the theory of learning and develop-
ment is beneficial. It can help staff supporting young people to reflect on their non-formal learning journeys and set new goals for the future; 
• initiatives to support learning mobility and international travel can be greatly benef-
eficial but barriers such as access to passports and potential loss of welfare benefits need to be overcome first.

References


Facilitating learning mobility for all: the JiVE experience

Bettina Wissing

Introduction

Impacts of international youth work and young people with fewer opportunities

Positive and long-term effects of participation in international youth work on the personality development of young people, known for a long time to youth workers and stakeholders in the field, have been confirmed by diverse studies within the last years (IJAB et al. 2012). International youth work contributes effectively to gaining intercultural skills. These skills become more and more important, not only in professional everyday life, but also for living in a culturally diverse German society. International youth work facilitates intercultural learning in authentic settings and under favourable learning conditions. In these settings, young people’s competences and resources are activated.

On the other hand, these experiences have turned out not to reach all young people in the same way. Young people with fewer opportunities participate much less in international mobility programmes (Thimmel et al. 2011). In
Germany, this concerns in particular many of those young people who do not attend the *Gymnasium*. 27

A considerable proportion of young people with fewer opportunities in Germany are young people with a migration background. 28 Young people from migrant backgrounds are often faced with worse school results and greater difficulties in the transition from school to training (Beicht et al. 2010; Hamburgisches Weltwirtschaftsinstitut 2007). That is why, in Germany, young migrants are often taken into consideration when supporting measures for young people with fewer opportunities are set up.

**The pilot project JiVE**

The pilot project JiVE *Jugendarbeit international – Vielfalt erleben* (Youth Work International – Experiencing Diversity), was run from 2008 to 2010 by IJAB International Youth Service of the Federal Republic of Germany and JUGEND für Europa, the German Agency for the EU’s Youth in Action Programme. 29 JiVE aimed to strengthen the participation of young people from the immigrant community in international youth work and profit from international youth work as a means for a greater intercultural awareness in the field of child and youth services.

The approach of the pilot project was to allow structural networking of international youth work with youth social work (especially youth migration services) and immigrant community groups. Sub-projects have been realised in three different international youth work formats: youth exchanges, European voluntary programmes and expert programmes.

The pilot project provided scientific evidence of the fact that young people’s participation in international youth work measures (such as international youth exchanges and voluntary services) has positive and sustainable effects on their personal development (Thimmel et al. 2011).

Experts can benefit from international programmes as well: the exchange of expertise with their colleagues from other countries extends their professional and personal horizons, raises their awareness of multicultural issues, and provides them with intercultural skills that increase the quality of their work in child and youth services (Thimmel et al. 2011).

27. The German school system has different coexisting types of secondary schools: *Hauptschule*, *Realschule*, *Gymnasium* and a comprehensive *Gesamtschule*, as well as special education schools. The decision for school type is taken according to the pupils’ competencies, such as academic achievement, potential and the ability to work independently at the age of 10. In general terms, *Hauptschule* and *Realschule* lead to vocational training, *Gymnasium* to university studies. A school-leaving certificate from the *Hauptschule* is often regarded as a defect when young people are applying for vocational training programmes.

28. The German Federal Statistical Office defines a person as having a migrant background in those cases where “at least one parent has foreign citizenship, is a naturalised German citizen or an ethnic German repatriate, regardless of whether they immigrated to or were born in Germany.” (Deutsches Statistisches Bundesamt 2012)

29. See the brochure *IJAB-Fachstelle für Internationale Jugendarbeit der Bundesrepublik Deutschland e.V.* and *JUGEND für Europa. Deutsche Agentur für das EU-Programm JUGEND IN AKTION* (n.d.).
The youth policy initiative JIVE (2011-14)

As the scientific research programme accompanying the pilot project JIVE (2008-10) has shown, the concepts and methods of international youth work are particularly effective in promoting integration and participation for all young people, whether they are from the immigrant community or not (Thimmel et al. 2011).

During the next phase of the JIVE initiative (2011-14), these insights are translated into practice in the context of child and youth services, particularly at the local level. Special support is given to creating partnerships between agencies and organisations responsible for child and youth services so they can reach out to a larger number of young people with fewer opportunities and young people from the immigrant community and involve them in non-formal learning processes in the course of international youth work measures. JIVE seeks to strengthen structural links between international youth work and immigration-centred youth work (e.g. youth migration services) as well as immigrant community organisations that work with children and young people.

The overarching goal of the youth policy initiative is to help young people with fewer opportunities, regardless of their background, to enjoy the same opportunities in life as everyone else. In addition, JIVE aims to:

- involve more disadvantaged young people and young people from the immigrant community in international youth work activities;
- establish sustainable structural relationships between international youth work and youth social work institutions, youth migration services, immigrant community groups, young immigrants’ organisations, youth services run by the local authorities, schools and others;
- provide training for experts working in youth services run by the local authorities, youth social workers, representatives of immigrant community groups and young immigrants’ organisations, and experts working in youth migration services, thus raising their awareness of and qualification for international youth work on the one hand and qualifying them for work with young people with fewer opportunities from various backgrounds on the other;
- increasingly promote learning mobility initiatives in the shape of international short- and long-term projects which take place abroad and initiate educational and learning processes;
- raise the profile of international youth work as a non-formal form of education.

With this profile, the JIVE initiative makes a vital contribution towards implementing the EU Youth Strategy in Germany by encouraging social integration, facilitating the transition into employment, promoting participation in society, and validating and recognising informal and non-formal learning achievements.

It becomes clear that international youth work needs to be treated as a cross-sectional topic for youth work. It should not only be set up “on top” whenever there is some free space for an extra activity, but it should be an integral aspect of all activities concerning youth. This implies that all persons working with young people have to be involved. Therefore, creating new partnerships and networking are crucial elements of the initiative.

JIVE is put into practice in the form of a network initiative and implemented by numerous organisations of various backgrounds. Youth social work organisations participate as well as migrant organisations, classically organised youth...
organisations and international youth work experts. JiVE is implemented nationwide on various governance levels with a particular focus on the local level. The six sub-initiatives are:

- Kommune\(^{31}\) goes International (IJAB in co-operation with the Association of Local Authorities);
- International. Interkulturell (Deutscher Bundesjugendring – German Federal Youth Council);
- Interkulturell goes on! (transfer e.V.);
- Jugendsozialarbeit macht mobil (Kooperationsverbund Jugendsozialarbeit – Co-operative Federation for Youth Social Work);
- Diversity-oriented international youth work (JUGEND für Europa);
- Pilot project “Facilitating learning experiences for young people through transnational mobility” (JUGEND für Europa in co-operation with IJAB). This pilot project began in July 2012 as a sixth sub-initiative of JiVE.\(^{32}\)

These sub-initiatives are connected by shared public relations, annual expert conferences for representatives from all sub-initiatives, and a joint steering group. JiVE receives funding from the German Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth and from the EU Youth in Action Programme.

\(\rightarrow\) Networking and new partnerships – supporting international youth work at local level

**Kommune goes International**

Twenty-one local authorities applied in 2011 to join the sub-initiative Kommune goes International. In doing so, they committed themselves to work together with statutory as well as voluntary organisations at local level in order to further international youth work and to make it available to all young people, with a special focus on young people with fewer opportunities and young people from the immigrants’ community.

In each participating town or district, networks have been set up with representatives of very different types of organisations working with young people, for example from the youth office, youth organisations, youth centres, youth social work, youth migration services, schools, commissioners for integration, vocational assistance facilities, and local non-governmental organisations. During the first months of the initiative, the members of the respective networks elaborated a “Local Development Plan” for international youth work. Starting with a review of the current situation of international youth work in this local area and an analysis of needs, the networks have set aims and objectives for the years up to 2014. They have thus worked out what they intend to achieve until the end of the initiative, in order to strengthen international youth work on the local level, allow all young people to participate, establish permanent networks on the local but also on the regional, national or international level, and raise the recognition of the potentials of international non-formal

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30. For more information on the JiVE initiative as well as the sub-initiatives mentioned, see www.jive-international.de, accessed 3 February 2013.

31. Kommune in German stands for “local authority”, the administrative level responsible for youth services in Germany, but can also mean “city” or “town”.

32. The German Sports Youth and the Federal Forum for Child and Youth Travel also intend to join the JiVE initiative with two more sub-initiatives.
learning formats. In their Local Development Plan the networks finally describe who
commits (and in co-operation with which other member of the network) to what
measure(s) to achieve the set aims and objectives and ensure sustainability of the
newly set up provisions. In this context, new partnerships between stakeholders
that have so far not worked together are of high importance.

For the whole duration of the initiative, local networks are supported by a
counselling team of experts, managed by IJAB. Additionally, IJAB offers train-
ings and network meetings on diverse topics regarding international youth work
(e.g. financing, introduction to international youth work methods and organisation,
expert exchange programmes, public relations). These are important moments for
the exchange of experience among the participants. The towns and districts that have
joined Kommune goes International are very heterogeneous as regards their size, their
experience in international youth work and their local basic conditions (e.g. personnel,
financial provisions, political support, already existing co-operation networks). In spite
or even because of this, the exchange of experience is very rich and helpful.

Kommune goes International is scientifically evaluated during implementation and
also until a year thereafter. This research aims to come up with general recom-
mandations for action to strengthen international youth work. It will describe
both beneficial and inhibiting elements for a sustainable structural anchoring of
international youth work on the local level and make its findings available to all
towns and districts in Germany.

**Benefits to this day**

The progress of the initiative has so far revealed that the exchange of experience
facilitated by the different network meetings during the initiative is a great asset,
and participants strongly benefit from it. From among the group of participating
towns and communities, some participants have established smaller work groups
to address specific topics (e.g. how to integrate international youth work in the
municipal planning of youth provisions). Discussions centre on questions such
as: How can youth exchanges, work camps or voluntary services be designed to
appeal to young people with fewer opportunities? What does this mean for the
pedagogical setting (methods, number of accompanying staff, financial questions)?
How can we set up close contacts with these young people? What experiences
have resulted with different types of financing?

For local authorities, the fact of being part of a nationwide initiative represents
additional backing for their activities in the field and especially for political support.
The supporting activities for the participating towns and districts are accompanied
by activities at Land level. IJAB is about to co-operate with all Länderministries
responsible for youth and with youth councils at Land level, in order to back up
local activities with information and training provisions at Land level.

As for international co-operation, most towns and districts maintain partnerships
with organisations in European countries. Financial support comes mainly from the
EU Youth in Action Programme and the bilateral organisations for youth exchange
existing in Germany.

Each Local Development Plan is part of a diversity of approaches and activities planned
by stakeholders in local networks. Several towns plan to install a local competence

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33. With all 16 federal states who do have their own youth office on the Land level.
centre for international youth work, offering information and counselling for young people as well as youth work experts. Some others have applied to become a local Eurodesk partner to guarantee the provision of information on opportunities for young people to go abroad. More examples of local initiatives include:

- linking the Kommune goes International initiative with several other youth policy approaches, leading to an internationalisation of youth work as a whole;
- setting up co-operation between a Hauptschule (school), a youth centre, a vocational assistance facility and the municipal youth office. In the course of this co-operation, a group of young students with fewer opportunities will spend their practical placement in France, preparing for this stay through school teaching, workshops in the youth centre and assistance from the vocational assistance mentor for one year;
- furthering the participation of young people with fewer opportunities in European voluntary services. The local network seeks to help these young people make decisions for a voluntary service. It will address young people who have already participated in a youth exchange (and have, thereby, already ventured abroad) and encourage them to undertake a short-term service. This might then give them the necessary confidence to accept a longer stay abroad;
- in one of the participating towns, young people targeted with the initiative have been included in the process right from the beginning, that is also in the elaboration of the Local Development Plan.

These are only a handful of examples from the wide range of activities planned in the frame of the initiative Kommune goes International. The evaluation of the activities has to take place before drawing a final conclusion from the outcomes. But even by the summer of 2012 one could already make out various tracks indicating outputs of the initiative:

- the importance of partnerships and networks (bringing together experts from the different fields concerned, reducing the time and effort for each partner to be spent on international activities, benefiting from knowledge exchange);
- the significance of political support at the local level (international activities are more easily carried out if youth work experts have full political backing at the local level. The results of recent research on the effects of international youth work are helpful in this respect, as well as the impetus from Land and federal ministries as well as the Association of Local Authorities);
- the provision of personnel and infrastructure by the local authority is a central precondition (this is in turn easier to realise if international youth work is acknowledged to be an integral part of youth work provisions);
- eventually, it is crucial to have youth work experts who are motivated for international activities (creating intrinsic motivation by organising expert exchange programmes).

The IKUS-Project – co-operation of formal and non-formal learning

As mentioned above, co-operation has proved beneficial in strengthening international youth work and making it available to all young people. A good example of successful co-operation the participating municipalities can build on is the IKUS-Project (Interkulturelles Lernfeld Schule – School as an Intercultural Learning Field), run by IJAB from August 2009 to January 2012. With this project, non-formal learning approaches for the acquisition of intercultural skills have been transferred into a formal learning setting, and have, thereby, led to innovative impetus for a holistic education and personality development.

34. See footnote 27.
The IKUS-Project aimed at:

- sensitising participants towards and extending intercultural skills at schools;
- developing co-operation between the field of international youth work and school;
- integrating young people with a migration background;
- motivating students for a voluntary commitment in international youth work;
- developing and testing field modules;
- documenting and publishing experiences, modules and scientific evaluation.

Fourteen secondary schools from all different school types from the administrative region of Cologne as well as international youth work organisations were involved in the IKUS project. In each school, 8-10 modules were developed for the deepening of intercultural skills. The modules considered the specific situation and education focus of the respective schools as well as the students’ needs, capacities and experiences. The modules either became part of the curriculum or were applied in a different form (e.g. projects). The development and implementation of the modules were carried out jointly by a teacher and an international youth work professional, working in tandem.

**Benefits to this day**

Overall 100 modules have been developed, tested and documented. They comprised for example intercultural workshops or trainings in the context of international exchanges, participation in group voluntary services and stays in host families, projects on interreligious dialogue, or intercultural city tours illustrating migration as an integral part of German history. The different linguistic skills of the students with a migration background were also important and have been found to be a resource for the lessons.

The participants benefited in a very concrete way from the project. The young people developed intercultural skills, made contact with out-of-school youth work and developed possibilities for voluntary commitment. The international youth work professionals got access to so far unreached target groups and acquired a better recognition of non-formal learning in general. Teachers benefited from the methods and contents of youth work and thereby gained new impetus and ideas for their own teaching.

**Conclusion**

German experts identify a paradigm shift in the perception of international youth work. Mobility programmes as non-formal learning setting have to become a cross-sectional task of youth work. The effects and potentials of international youth work, proved by recent research studies, underline the necessity to lift up international youth work from its marginal position and to place it in the mainstream of youth work.

The approaches and new co-operations developed so far in the context of the local networks of the Kommune goes International initiative as well as the other JiVE sub-initiatives are promising.

Still, some hurdles need to be cleared to achieve the aims of the initiative, for example to adjust funding rules to meet the requirements of the target group of young people with fewer opportunities and improve co-operation between formal and non-formal education. Furthermore, the basic conditions in the concerned policy fields need to be improved, in order to allow new forms of co-operation among all fields concerning youth.

→ References


This chapter aims to explore the experience of an international youth organisation with a global perspective which engages in the active promotion of the European principles, creating from its core activity, pupil exchanges, an innovative European Citizenship programme: the European Citizenship Trimester Programme (ECTP). ECTP is a trimester exchange, host family and school-based, providing an immersion in another European culture and directly tackling European Citizenship content both during the exchange and at the session in Brussels at the end of the three months, where all participants of the programme meet to share their intercultural experience and learn about being active citizens of Europe.

→ Background: AFS global/EFIL European

The European youth work sector is characterised by a number of international youth organisations which originated as global entities before acquiring a strong European identity and before youth policy became an interest of the Council of Europe and later of the European Union. AFS belongs to this category: it was born in 1914 as the American Field Service when young
Americans living in Paris volunteered as ambulance drivers at the American Hospital of Paris, and in 1946, after the two world wars, it became a permanent international organisation promoting pupil exchanges between the United States and the rest of the world. Only in 1971 was a federation of AFS organisations in Europe established – the European Federation for Intercultural Learning (EFIL), which viewed its founding thus:

*The birth of EFIL can be seen as the result of the crisis of old naïve idealism, of the loss of image of the USA, of the hope for a united Europe, and of a new trend towards internationalisation (EFIL 2011).*

Although the creation of EFIL might suggest a global/European dichotomy, the immediate result was to open the AFS network to multilateral exchanges and globalisation, breaking the idea of unilateral exchanges with the United States. AFS organisations, in 1971, were initiators of change, led by active citizens who wanted the AFS mission to come closer to reality by providing intercultural learning opportunities with a wider range to help people develop the knowledge, skills and understanding needed to create a more just and peaceful world (AFS 2012a). EFIL's objectives are intertwined with AFS's mission because its role is to support its members to “strengthen their programmes, quality and reputation, in particular in the European context” (EFIL 2012).

As Europe – through EFIL – is a space for innovation within AFS, Europe – through the work of the Council of Europe and the European Union – aims at being an area within which to experiment with “global citizenship” in a multicultural society, based on human rights, democracy and intercultural learning. This notion of “Active Citizenship” is called European Citizenship (Partnership Council of Europe and European Commission Training-Youth 2003).

EFIL strongly relates to the concept and values of European Citizenship and since its foundation it has been co-operating with the Council of Europe and the European Union, providing its expertise in intercultural learning for the building of a European identity. In particular, in 1998-99 EFIL managed in the framework of the Council of Europe, the pilot project European Secondary School Student Exchanges (ESSSE), funded by the Norwegian Government. The programme consisted of a three-month individual school exchange from/to 10 countries in Europe to encourage East-West communication and integration (EFIL 1999). The programme was “successful but funding for continuation could unfortunately not be secured” (Department Education, Culture and Heritage, Youth and Sport of the Council of Europe 2004).

Although ESSSE was discontinued, EFIL continued promoting pupil exchanges to the European institutions and in 2006 it won the tender for the preparation of the European Commission’s Individual Pupil Mobility Scheme under the Comenius Programme. Between 2007 and 2008 EFIL co-ordinated the various project phases and in 2010 the European Commission launched the new initiative (EFIL 2008).

This substantial contribution of EFIL in the development of pupil exchange programmes in the framework of the European institutions is both an expression of the effective pursuit of the AFS mission in the European context and of the opportunities for innovation that Europe provides to international youth organisations.
Youth work practice: the European Citizenship Trimester Programme

Concept

Through co-operation with the Council of Europe and the European Union, participation in several trainings and the development of a manual “Promoting citizenship in Europe” (EFIL 2006), EFIL built expertise on European Citizenship. In 2008 it explored the possibility of actively contributing to the promotion of the European ideals by launching a European citizenship exchange programme based on the AFS theory and practice of pupil exchanges. Thus the European Citizenship Trimester Programme (ECTP) was born, providing European youth aged 15 to 18 the opportunity to spend three months in a host family and school in another country in Europe. The most innovative aspect of the programme is its focus on active European citizenship, especially during the session in Brussels where all participants meet before returning to their home countries, with the objective to:

- raise awareness about identity and diversity in Europe, drawing from the exchange experiences and the cultural diversity present at the Brussels session;
- empower participants to become active citizens in their communities upon return to their home countries;
- trigger reflection on the intercultural experiences and the reintegration process in the home country.

In 2009 the programme involved 107 pupils from 13 countries and it grew quickly, attracting more and more interest on the part of EFIL members and their volunteers, reaching 141 participants and 16 countries in 2010, and 169 participants and 20 countries in 2011. Two thirds of the participants are females and the main sending organisations are Intercultura (Italy) and AFS Belgium Flanders, constituting half the total of participants. The End-of-Stay Session in Brussels is run by an international team of volunteers from EFIL members.

The following section will offer an overview of the development of the programme in the AFS-EFIL framework.

ECTP: an AFS/EFIL exchange programme

The ECTP was born as an EFIL initiative in line with its mission, namely supporting its members in realising the AFS Strategic Plan, Vision and Mission, with the rationale of:

- increasing intra-European exchange numbers in Europe by offering a new Europe-focused programme, and attracting pupils with the unique offer of the experience of the End-of-Stay Session in Brussels, the content of which is closely linked to the programme itself;
- addressing a different target group: pupils who cannot take part in an academic year programme for reasons of finance or time, pupils who would like to go on an exchange earlier, pupils who would like to do an exchange without much disruption to their school curriculum;
- offering AFS participants and volunteers a programme providing content on the actual and relevant topic of European Citizenship, besides intercultural learning.

The ECTP has been promoted and managed by each partner along its “normal AFS orientation cycle” of pupil exchange programmes, which has been functioning for decades.
The AFS orientation cycle consists of support to the learning of participants during preparation, the exchange itself and after their return to the home country. This support is provided mainly by AFS volunteers and includes ongoing contact with participants and “orientation events”, namely structured non-formal education activities and facilitated personal reflection. The orientation events include the selection and the pre-departure orientation during the preparation phase, the on-arrival, mid-stay and end-of-stay orientation during the exchange and the re-entry event following return to their home countries (AFS 2012b).

These phases have a structure and content on which AFS programmes base their quality, therefore orientations for ECTP participants are done within this framework, together with the pupils participating in the other AFS exchanges. The content of European Citizenship had therefore to be included in these pre-existing structures. For this purpose, EFIL developed and distributed to its member organisations a manual for sending and hosting orientations based on the “T-Kit on European Citizenship”, and a number of supporting measures have been developed by EFIL and AFS organisations in Europe to answer to the specific needs of ECTP participants. In fact, orientations should not only include content on the concept of European Citizenship, but also preparation for situations that are different from the ones experienced by participants in other AFS exchange programmes. First of all, they might face difficulties in understanding the link between their AFS exchange experience with a global perspective and the concept of European Citizenship: why should they narrow their thinking to the European borders, if during their exchange they meet AFS exchange participants also from non-European countries and they do not feel substantially different from them? Moreover, the fact of coming to the session in Brussels between leaving their host families and returning to their home countries can generate specific emotional and motivational problems, with participants feeling anonymous in the new environment at a time when they may require personal attention to feel comfortable to talk and share their feelings.

Further, volunteers in charge of preparing and counselling participants also perceive the concept of European Citizenship as vague and abstract, do not feel confident with the topic and are not always aware of the specific situations faced by ECTP participants. They have stated that they can “hardly fit in the European Citizenship aspects in the orientations prepared for participants to the other AFS exchanges” and consider it “more important to work with the participants on other aspects of their intercultural learning process”. The challenges faced by volunteers with the new content focus are due to the fact that most of them, during their AFS exchange programme and within the organisation, have been exposed mainly to intercultural learning workshops, and this is what they associate with orientations.

The analysis of the development of the ECTP shows that, although it exists thanks to the valuable AFS orientation cycle, this framework has also created issues for the adequate preparation of participants on the topic of European Citizenship. These challenges suggest that the historical tension between global/AFS and European/EFIL has an impact on youth work practice.

ECTP: an exchange programme embedded in European youth work

Despite the challenges faced in adding a new content area to AFS orientations, ECTP is today a programme with its own learning concept, and its framework and content are recognised as different from the currently running AFS programmes, although it was born out of the AFS experience.
During the trimester exchange participants develop intercultural understanding through informal and non-formal learning. The informal learning takes place thanks to daily interactions with the society in the host country, the host family, friends, other exchange pupils, and the ongoing support of AFS volunteers. Non-formal education activities offered at the orientations in the hosting country at different moments of the AFS cycle (on-arrival, mid-stay, end-of-stay) allow participants to reflect on their informal learning. Through discussions with people from all over the world that are participating in other AFS exchange programmes, they reflect on identity and, while developing a global identity as a citizen of the world, they also come to define what makes them European. In addition, they discover differences and similarities between values and behaviours in societies across the world, and therefore reflect on what citizenship is and whether citizens of Europe share any commonalities.

These reflections on identity and citizenship are precious elements on which the additional learning mobility of the Brussels session builds. The session in Brussels is structured in order to create a bridge between the exchange in the host country and the re-entry, providing the setting to develop competences related to “European citizenship” and “Active Citizenship”, as well as two key moments of the AFS orientation cycle: guided reflection with the support of volunteers in small groups and re-entry orientation.

In particular, the first day is devoted to reflection and sharing of the exchange experience, followed by a session on the concept of Europe where participants discover the EU and the Council of Europe and discuss European identity under different perspectives. During the sessions on Europe, the contributions from participants from the Russian Federation and Turkey, but also from Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia, make for interesting discussions.

On the second day, the participants visit Brussels, first the EU institutions, and then the city centre. In the different editions, participants have visited the European Commission, the European Parliament or the Parlamentarium, and the newly opened and interactive Visitors’ Centre of the European Parliament, which offers an overview of the European project and the functioning of the EU.

Finally, on the third day participants attend sessions on different aspects of Active Citizenship and then reflect on the return to their home country. The sessions on Active Citizenship provide the opportunity to reflect on how European citizenship can be translated in concrete behaviours and attitudes towards issues faced by today’s society, and expose participants and volunteers to the developments in European youth policy and youth work which EFIL follows closely. The sessions tackle topics such as youth rights and youth participation, human rights, and social inclusion. Also, the EU funding programme Youth in Action is introduced, outlining how the European Voluntary Service and youth initiatives specifically support Active Citizenship projects for and by young people. The sessions on Active Citizenship link well with the following and final session on re-entry, where participants think about how they will re-adapt to the life in their home countries and how their behaviours and attitudes might change.

The ECTP and especially its Brussels session improved considerably through its three editions thanks to feedback and evaluation, and in particular because of the increasing support from EFIL members and especially AFS volunteers, the driving forces of the organisation. Those who volunteered at the Brussels session discovered a European dimension of volunteering, received training on European Citizenship and became great supporters of the programme in their home countries.
The ECTP, thanks to a learning concept which blends intercultural learning and European Citizenship, provides a unique experience and participants at the Brussels session evaluate it positively, valuing the learning opportunity given by this additional European dimension to the trimester exchange. Moreover, the awareness of and interest in the programme is spreading among volunteers who, being in charge of orientations, are key for the standardisation of the content of the programme across the organisation.

Future perspectives

EFIL members are well aware of the value of ECTP and its challenges and held a meeting to discuss the future of the programme in September 2011 in Brussels. First of all, there was agreement on the need for a standardisation of the programme across countries and for a holistic approach to the experience itself, from preparation to re-entry. Objectives were rephrased to ensure that they encompass the whole period of the exchange, and not only the Brussels session, so as to:

- gain a wider concept of Europe;
- appreciate European diversity;
- recognise the importance of Active Citizenship;
- be motivated to be an Active Citizen;
- have the opportunity to implement Active Citizenship throughout the exchange;

Moreover, a calendar was prepared, outlining the essentials of the programme in each phase of the AFS cycle.

It was also decided that the programme would focus more on the topic of Active Citizenship through the development of a personal task/project by the participants, such as exploring a specific aspect of Active Citizenship in the hosting country by writing a blog or essay, and making videos, pictures or interviews. The Brussels session would be an integral part of the programme, being the tool supporting and motivating participants for their personal projects/tasks, and providing the connection between the projects and the wider concept of Active Citizenship in Europe. There are still concerns regarding the capacity of EFIL members to fulfil this request and the fear of overloading participants that are already going through an intense intercultural experience. However, there is a commitment from their side and the belief that through its special focus, ECTP will provide innovation in the frame of AFS, building on the intercultural aspects of citizenship to explore concrete opportunities for the participation of young people in society.

Standardisation of the quality of the programme not only requires efforts on the part of EFIL members but also from EFIL itself. It was suggested that EFIL should have had a clearer guidance role in the running of the programme by providing standard promotional material, a booklet for host families and a booklet and online tools for participants to assist them in the learning path throughout the programme, from preparation to re-entry. Moreover, EFIL will run specific trainings on European Citizenship and ECTP addressed to volunteers and staff, also with the support of the Youth in Action Programme, with the main aim of developing tools and models for the standard preparation for all participants to the ECTP in the different countries, within the framework of the AFS cycle. In order to increase awareness and interest among volunteers, training sessions will also be offered at the Volunteers Summer Summit, the yearly training and networking event organised by EFIL for 200 AFS key volunteers in Europe. EFIL is also considering a more extensive use of social media and e-learning as tools for improving ECTP and bridging the structural challenges
faced by EFIL members in delivering standard content as part of the programme and also to train volunteers.

These improvements in the programme and commitments on the side of EFIL and its members show a strong belief in the ECTP and the engagement to provide an innovative and quality programme on European Citizenship through the development of new valuable orientation models based on the AFS cycle.

In conclusion, although developing a European Citizenship programme on the well-established dynamics of AFS organisations creates challenges, the programme itself would not exist or be possible without its orientation cycle, managed by its members along with all the other AFS programmes. However, only the contribution of EFIL as a European federation could create the environment for the conceptualisation of the programme itself and promote its continuous improvement thanks to its exposure to youth policy and the realities of youth work in Europe. Thanks to its multiple identity as both a European and global youth organisation, EFIL has been able to create the ECTP, enriching European youth work with AFS global identity and vice versa.

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Youthpass
the educational practice

Introduction

Youthpass, the European recognition tool for youth work activities, was introduced in 2007. Established within the framework of the EU Youth in Action Programme, it serves as a recognition tool for the youth mobility projects supported by the programme. Since the start of the development of Youthpass, it has been considered a concept that reaches beyond a certificate. The so-called Youthpass process provides a framework for reflecting on, becoming aware of, planning and assessing one’s learning. The process is a prominent part of Youthpass that on the one hand supports the quality of the contents of the certificate, and on the other hand serves as a carrier of the educational value of (international) youth work.

During the strategic implementation of Youthpass and its process within international mobility projects across Europe, experience and reflection on the practice has shown that Youthpass has specific potential to support the development of the learning competence. Acquiring competences to become an active lifelong learner needs a supported process. This chapter offers a first attempt to explain the potential of Youthpass in turning an international experience into a real learning mobility experience.
YiA as a learning environment

The projects supported by the EU Youth in Action Programme (YiA) are generally viewed as non-formal learning. They cover a broad variety of topics; are set or at least greatly influenced by the individuality and interests of the participants; the learning activities are structured and planned with an aim to learn about something; the participation in the projects is voluntary. A big role in the projects is also played by elements of informal learning – unstructured and unplanned learning that happens in the context of the project, for example by interaction between the participants – and in some cases also by learning that can be characterised as quite formal. The latter cases can be observed, for example, when there is close co-operation in the project with a formal education institution, or when the design of the project does not leave space for flexibility determined by the participants. In most cases, though, YiA projects are to be seen as non-formal learning projects. As such, they have a big potential to meet the needs and interests of the participants.

Regarding learners in a project supported by the YiA Programme, three actors can be identified: the participant, the youth leader/mentor/youth worker within a project, and the project organiser. All of them enter a specific learning environment where the mobility experience is the key to learning possibilities. The learning mobility experience is characterised by a stay abroad and/or contact with other (young) people from a different culture with a different language, a programme designed according to the type of mobility involved, an appropriate variety of methods and methodologies and accompanying support through preparation, on-going reflection, regular evaluation and a follow-up.

A few resources provide an insight into the learning results of people who have participated in the YiA Programme. The European Commission regularly carries out monitoring exercises to evaluate certain aspects of the YiA projects. According to the last survey (European Commission 2011), most participants confirm the increase of their competences at least to a certain extent in all eight key competences of lifelong learning (European Commission 2006). Furthermore, they agree that the experience made them better aware of themselves regarding their future educational and professional pathways. Participating in the projects positively influenced their attitudes towards other cultures, raised awareness of diversity in society, and prepared them for active participation in societal and political issues.

This is largely supported by the findings of the study carried out within the YiA participants in Germany (IKAB et al. 2011). The majority of the young people answering the questionnaire thought that as a result of the project, they are better aware of other cultures, and that their knowledge about Europe and the EU has increased. A big proportion of respondents are more interested in European policies and think that young people should become more active in European issues.

The learning environment created in the YiA projects depends on the facilitation of the learning in different activity types. For example, a youth exchange with participants from six different countries about environmental issues provides different learning opportunities from a voluntary service project where a young woman carries out her service in a youth centre abroad. On the level of discoveries and findings there might be similar experiences when it comes to intercultural learning, social learning, self-awareness and language learning. The duration of the experience could influence the depth of learning.
The intensity of the learning depends much on the facilitation of the accompanying process. The engagement and capacities of youth leaders in youth exchanges or of the mentor in European Voluntary Service projects have an important impact, together with their experience or educational background. With the help of the various educational methods used in the youth field, the learning process of individual participants can be deepened. Often, the methods are chosen so that they fit various learning preferences, but also support the participants in making their own conclusions and discoveries on certain issues. The group can be used as a further source to support the individual learning experience through feedback and sharing.

For youth workers/mentors/youth leaders of projects, the challenge to create such a learning environment offers possibilities to question their established practice, use the learning environment for their own learning, and develop their existing educational practice further. Their professional and personal learning process consists of setting up the learning environment in co-operation with their partners, providing individual learning opportunities, group learning and learning around a theme, developing the attitudes necessary to facilitate the learning processes of others, and so on. Organisers of projects also encounter learning potential through the implementation of a learning mobility project. They are often involved in the organisational development of their organisation, in supporting volunteers or professional workers in their projects and/or developing concrete projects with international partners. However, as currently the main target group for Youthpass is participants of the YiA projects, we now focus the discussion on the learning of the participants.

→ Youthpass process

Since July 2007, participants of the projects supported by the YiA Programme have been able to ask for the Youthpass certificate to confirm their participation and, more importantly, describe their learning results from the project. The recognition instrument has been gradually, step by step, introduced to the various activity types of the programme. At the time of writing this chapter, it can be acquired for participation in transnational youth exchanges, national and transnational youth initiative projects, European Voluntary Service, and training and networking activities of youth workers. By the beginning of September 2012, more than 176 000 certificates had been issued all around Europe (Youthpass database, retrieved 11 September 2012).

Although Youthpass can also be used as a simple confirmation of participation, it has been designed to hold most value for the participant, in case the person also goes through a process of reflection on the progress of his or her learning during the project. Such a process of continuous reflections throughout the different phases of a project is called the Youthpass process. The role of the youth worker, trainer, coach, and so on in this process is to support the reflection by asking helpful questions and providing resources, including time and methodology.

The handbook explaining the Youthpass process, “Youthpass Unfolded” (SALTO Training and Cooperation Resource Centre et al. 2012), describes the different phases of the process, and their interaction, with the help of the scheme in Figure 1.
The scheme also illustrates the non-linear nature of the Youthpass process, where different elements can be realised at various moments of the project, and can also be repeated or take place in a different order. Participants in the project can identify the learning that took place, revise their learning directions, become more passionate about learning as such in the process, and so on.

**Youthpass process in the youth field: parallels with self-directed and transformative learning**

Self-directed learning, one of the most recognised learning concepts concerning adult (thereby including young adult) learners, has been described through a number of characteristics. Knowles (1975), cited in Lowry 1989 defines it as:

*a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, to diagnose their learning needs, formulate learning goals, identify resources for learning, select and implement learning strategies, and evaluate learning outcomes*

There are evident parallels between the Youthpass process and the process of self-directed learning. Firstly, the group of learners is formed according to their interest in a certain topic. In addition to the general aims and objectives of the activity, the participants are invited to set their individual learning goals for the project. They do so in co-operation with the leaders of the project or with each other. Sometimes, the individual goals may also be accompanied by the learning goals of the group taking part in the project.

The educational processes in YiA projects are learner oriented. The aims, expected results and methodology should depend on the participants of the project. As a facilitated group activity there is not always room for the participants to choose their favourite methods; however, the participation in the activities is voluntary and can in most cases be skipped if not suitable for the learner. Anyhow, the methodology used for facilitating the learning processes is typically varied and includes an important element of experiential learning.

An important part of the Youthpass process is the evaluation of the progress. During the activity as well as at the end, the participants take stock of the progress made
Youthpass the educational practice regarding their learning results, and also, if necessary, revise the learning goals. This is supported either by peer learners or by the facilitator of the project.

Such a process requires a certain degree of capacity for abstraction and is often not easy for people not used to observing and taking stock of their learning. Often in the process the participants become more self-conscious about their learning abilities and preferred ways of learning, potentially also becoming better aware of the possibilities they could use for enhancing their learning.

This suggested outcome of the Youthpass process is in turn well connected to the concept of transformative learning. Transformative learning refers to the process by which we transform our taken-for-granted frames of reference (meaning perspectives, habits of mind, mindsets, mental models) to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, emotionally capable of change, and reflective, so that they may generate revised beliefs and opinions that will prove more true or justified (Mezirow and Associates 2000, cited in Stevens et al. 2010). Many types of activities granted by YiA support the transformational kind of learning of the participants, as young people have to independently cope with a new cultural environment or a challenging task ahead of them which can be interpreted as a “disorienting dilemma” in, for instance, EVS and in youth initiatives. The participants have to critically assess their former assumptions, explore possibilities for new roles and relationships, build competence and self-confidence in their new roles, and so on. The Youthpass process assists the participants in these reflections by providing a framework. Furthermore, one aspect of transformative learning is also discovering how one learns from the experience, and the presuppositions involved in learning (Merriam, Cafarella and Baumgartner 2007, cited in Stevens et al. 2010). A study carried out by Stevens, Gerber, and Hendra (2010) demonstrates that learners going through a reflection on their previous learning experiences undergo a transformative process: they demonstrate increased confidence, and a change in self-evaluation and self-perception. It can therefore be considered that participating in YiA projects provides an important, transformational learning experience through the design of the actual project, but also through being encouraged to reflect on the learning experience as part of the process.

Further implications

It is important to conduct a Youthpass process in learning mobility projects in order to provide an even more meaningful experience for the learners and to create a bigger change. A study conducted by Kenneth S. Rhee (2003) confirms that people going through continuous reflections during their study programme assess their competences higher than those who don’t reflect. Although there is no reason to believe that the actual increase in the competence or performance on the theme of the project is bigger when the Youthpass process is applied, it is evident that through the continuous reflections, the participants are better aware of the change in their competence. This, in its turn, enables developing higher self-esteem when it comes to self-evaluation on the particular competences, and thereby more self-confident action when choosing future pathways. Furthermore, the competency acquisition process model (Boyatzis 1982, cited in Rhee 2003) suggests that cognitive awareness precedes behavioural demonstration of competency. Therefore, it is possible that people who think they can perform a specific task better than before are also more capable of accepting and fulfilling the challenging task than those who don’t think they have improved.

We have described the parallels of the Youthpass process to self-directed learning. Self-directed learning is widely thought to improve learning for a number of reasons. First, people learn more efficiently by selecting only the information and resources
necessary for their learning interest. Second, they manage their own learning in a way that ensures the most results (e.g. they choose the tasks that they feel they can understand more easily first, rather than take on too difficult tasks. Third, independently solving problems probably also necessitates a deeper analysis of the structure of the problem (Gureckis and Markant 2012). Further, by experiencing the Youthpass process, that is by pursuing their own learning interests in the project and following them up, the participants of the projects may enhance their ability to also be more self-directed learners in the future.

The impact Youthpass has made on the participants and beneficiaries of YiA will be investigated by the European Commission’s impact survey, to be published in spring 2013. Further research questions need to be addressed by future studies, to provide more evidence about how Youthpass influences individual and organisational development. Considering the analysis above, a few directions for future developments can already be suggested, to enhance the aspect of self-directed and transformative learning in the mobility programme. First, the support to the process of reflecting on one’s learning experiences can be widened to occasions and environments beyond single project experiences. This would help to place the learning happening within the project into a wider context and enhance possibilities to see the evolution of one’s competences. Second, as described above, youth workers and project organisers also go through important learning processes which deserve to be reflected on, and documented.

→ Conclusions

It can be stated that Youthpass supports the emergence and development of a culture of reflecting on learning processes and results in the projects supported by the YiA Programme. For example, numerous methods have been developed throughout Europe in recent years that facilitate this reflection. Many have been gathered into the handbook “Youthpass Unfolded” (SALTO Training and Cooperation Resource Centre et al. 2012). Considering the evident parallels between the Youthpass process and self-directed learning leading to a transformational change, there is reason to believe that Youthpass influences the culture of learning also at an individual level.

Youthpass is also a certificate, a visible outcome of learning from a project that can be presented to persons and institutions important for the future pathway of the learner. However, it is the process of arriving at the description of the learning results on the certificate that helps to make a mobility experience a true learning experience.

→ References


Experiential learning in youth mobility programmes: a tool to plan, monitor and evaluate

Introduction

Since 1951, CISV International has been offering international mobility programmes to children and young people, starting at age 11. Our mission is to educate and inspire action for a more just and peaceful world believing that we must begin with the children. Through peace education, CISV programmes foster Active Global Citizenship by focusing on four educational content areas: human rights, diversity, sustainable development, and conflict and resolution.

CISV has 69 participating countries, with 25 of those within Europe. Each country is a National Association and can include as few as one or as many as 25 Chapters. Each year, Chapters and National Associations host programmes locally, nationally and internationally throughout the world. CISV programmes include camps, family exchanges, and service learning and youth leadership development programmes.

The evaluation of these programmes is a quality assurance process to ensure we know we are good at what we are doing. Evaluation empowers CISV to increase the impact of our programmes on its participants, improve the delivery
of our programmes, and ensure we are achieving our organisational and programme goals. Based on a model of evaluation as a cyclic process CISV has developed the “Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form” to be used before, during and at the end of a programme to assist in:

- planning the delivery of educational content;
- monitoring the progress towards identified educational goals;
- evaluating the quality of the learning curriculum based upon the achievement of these goals by the cohort of participants.

Effective planning of delivery of educational content and monitoring of progress should enhance the experience for all participants. Records of achievement at the end of the programme are collated to demonstrate overall programme effectiveness and then used to identify areas where any future training of programme leaders and/or staff may be beneficial.

To support the implementation of this evaluation, CISV revised basic guides to educational principles, methods and content. A comprehensive research project was conducted to evaluate this and its results are included in this chapter, as well as suggestions for the adoption of this competence-based evaluation process in other organisations.

**CISV’s educational approach**

Within all CISV programmes, our educational approach is “Learning by Doing”, based upon David Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle. This framework is used in conjunction with the four educational content areas to develop educational activities that are engaging, interactive, fun, and address different types of learning preferences. Kolb’s theory is to create a learning cycle which offers a Concrete Experience (Do), Reflective Observation (Reflect), Abstract Conceptualisation (Generalise), and Active Experimentation (Apply). Learning begins by “doing” which allows participants to have a tangible or hands-on experience with a topic. Participants then “reflect” upon this experience through discussion, debrief, or other reflective activities. Next they “generalise” or consider how to incorporate this experience with their current understanding of the topic, and then “apply” their learning through new attitudes, skills, or knowledge (Webb 2006).

**Evaluating CISV’s non-formal education**

CISV volunteers are trained in experiential learning and how to combine this approach with our educational content to develop programmes for our participants. To ensure volunteers are providing quality educational activities within all programmes, CISV has developed the Programme Directors Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) to facilitate the planning, monitoring, and evaluation of the educational content of these programmes. Evaluation is a cyclic process that articulates learning outcomes, tracks achievement of those outcomes, interprets the findings and uses those findings to improve learning opportunities or programme quality (Kobuke et al. 2007). Based on this model of evaluation the PDPEF was designed to be used before, during and at the end of a programme to assist in:

- planning the delivery of educational content;
- monitoring the progress towards identified educational goals;
- evaluating the quality of the learning curriculum based upon the achievement of these goals by the cohort of participants.
Competency-based evaluation is at the foundation of the PDPEF, both in its design and implementation. A competency is defined as a set of attitudes, skills and knowledge necessary for a particular role, in our case, Active Global Citizenship (Gaudet et al. 2008). Therefore, each CISV programme has identified four core competences, described as goals, necessary to facilitate the development of Active Global Citizenship. Each goal is supported by a set of indicators which identify key attitudes, skills and knowledge which reflect success within a particular goal. Our camp-based programme for ages 14 and 15, for example, has as Goal 2 “Encourage social responsibility towards the community”. The indicators are:

- is able to identify current community issues and conflict;
- is willing to perform an act of contribution to local community after the programme ends;
- is able to contribute ideas on how to apply what they learned to everyday life;
- is able to act in an inclusive way.

In the planning phase, programme leaders use the goals and indicators to develop a learning curriculum for the programme. This includes various games, activities and structures within the programme setting which will facilitate the participants in demonstrating the indicators and achieving the goals.

In the planning phase, programme leaders also determine the evidence they will use and collect throughout the programme. Evidence tracks participants’ demonstration of the assigned attitudes, skills and knowledge within a programme. Evidence can include observations, discussions, photographs or videos, participation, surveys or questionnaires, crafts, or journals. The possibilities for evidence are quite extensive and are based upon the type of learning curriculum. Collecting evidence throughout the programme enables leaders to monitor the progress of the goals at regular intervals.

Monitoring the progress of the goals and indicators provides programme leaders with information that informs any need to adjust the educational content. Within programmes, leaders and volunteers can adapt and adjust the learning curriculum to provide participants with additional opportunities to learn or develop particular attitudes, skills and knowledge. If a significant number of participants demonstrate the indicators, the programme leaders can be assured that they are providing quality educational content. While the PDPEF allows programme leaders to evaluate the effectiveness of the learning curriculum, it is important to note that the PDPEF does not necessarily provide an accurate measurement of each participant’s learning outcomes at this point in time; it does, however, provide insight into the quality of the educational activities within a programme.

At the end of each programme, the programme director provides a final evaluation of the programme goals and indicators by completing the Group Evaluation section of the PDPEF where they indicate whether or not a participant has demonstrated any evidence of success with each of the goals and indicators represented in Figure 1.
At the end of each year’s programme cycle, the Evaluation and Research Committee (EVR) collates the data and provides each programme with a summary report which reflects the number of “yes” responses indicated on the PDPEFs for each goal and indicator as shown in Figure 2.

**Figure 2: Annual Summary for Summer Camp Goal 3**

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<tr>
<th>Goal 3</th>
<th>72%</th>
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Goal 3. Developing Self Awareness

3a) Lead daily programme with minimal leaders assistance
3b) Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts
3c) Express independent ideas to promote group development
3d) Increase their confidence

Then the data are assessed by the educational and programme committees to determine actions which can be taken to improve the percentage of a given goal or indicator. Typically, lower percentages are attributed to the need for increased educational resources, training or programme delivery. The quantitative data are triangulated with the qualitative data that the relevant committees receive from training evaluations, national reports, interviews and direct communications with programme directors, leaders, volunteers and participants.
The data are then compared to former years, providing a yearly comparison for each goal and its indicators. This comparison provides insight into any improvements of a particular goal and its indicators based upon any actions which may have to be taken to improve it. However, this comparison has proven to be less reliable as goals and indicators have changed from year to year since the implementation of this new evaluation process in an effort to improve the quality of specific goals and indicators. In 2011, a moratorium on changes to goals and indicators was adopted to ensure better yearly comparisons of the data. This moratorium will allow for a three-year analysis, providing committees with more reliable information about the quality of the educational content and any trends over a period of time.

The implementation of this evaluation process since 2008 has resulted in an intensive learning curve for the organisation. It has required extensive training on evaluation and the use of the PDPEF within programmes. The organisation has also developed support materials to assist with the training and implementation of the form into programmes. Evaluating the materials, training and the implementation of the PDPEF was a critical next step to this new process of evaluation.

→ Evaluating the evaluation process

In addition to using experiential learning as the basis of its educational programmes, CISV uses the somewhat similar idea of action research (McNiff and Whitehead 2010) to consider the impact of programme innovations. In this context, in 2009 the organisation approved a research project to evaluate the implementation and impact of PDPEF as well as some other recently developed educational materials, in particular:

- the *CISV Passport for Active Global Citizenship*, published in 2009: an introduction to CISV’s approach to peace education, built on the statement of purpose that “CISV educates and inspires action for a more just and peaceful world.”
- *Big Ed: Big Education Guide for Active Global Citizenship*: a more comprehensive version of CISV’s educational principles and approach, written in parallel and structured in similar sections to the CISV Passport.

Responses to questionnaires distributed to CISV adult leaders and staff members for programmes in 2009 and 2010 and informal interviews with 19 adults who had taken leadership roles in these years indicated that the *CISV Passport* had been well received and was widely used by leaders and some older participants. Several National Associations had published translations to facilitate local use in both training and promotion, but there was not yet a clear picture of how it has been used for the latter purpose. Use of the four content areas (diversity, human rights, conflict and resolution, sustainable development) on a rotating basis, as annual emphases for CISV programmes, was becoming embedded in practice. Use of the experiential educational model (Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply) was apparent in its first three stages but it was appreciated that “application” might occur after completion of the programme. *Big Ed* was used in some training workshops but in practice was not well known among leaders. As the key guide to education in CISV it would be hoped that more of those who were actively involved in running programmes would be familiar with such a key document.

Also, completion of PDPEF had become obligatory as a means of data collection for CISV International. Comments in interviews suggested that it was being used as an evaluation tool but it was not clear whether it was used to facilitate planning.
As a novel tool which combines the two functions of planning and evaluation, further clarification of its use is needed.

→ The PDPEF education section in programmes for ages 14 to 15

The PDPEF has several sections for collection of information about programme participants and related formalities but the acronym has become associated in particular with the education section (part 2) and especially with the completion of the Group Evaluation Form (GEF), occasionally with the use of the Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF). For this aspect of research the indicators developed for the programme goals were converted to statements to use in a Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire (PaRQ) so that the youth participants could score their attainment on a seven-point Likert scale (Disagree strongly, Disagree, Disagree a little, Do not know, Agree a little, Agree, Agree a lot). They were asked to complete one form at the beginning of the programme to indicate where they felt they were on each indicator at that time and to predict where they felt they would be at the end of the programme. When it came to the end of the programme they were asked to note on a similar form where they felt they were now and to reflect on where they felt they had been at the beginning of the programme. On this second questionnaire there were also two open questions about what the youth participants felt they had learned in the programme and about what they thought they had learned about themselves.

Youth perceptions of their learning

The youth participants’ self-scores generally showed movement towards “agree” or “strongly agree” from their score at the beginning of the programme to their score at the end. Very occasionally one of the participants gave him/herself a slightly lower final score on one indicator, but the overall picture suggested awareness of learning having taken place. This awareness was echoed in the comments in the open questions. Half of the participants in the Summer Camp (age 14) mentioned learning about other cultures, over a third suggested that there had been an improvement in their English or language skills, and more than 25% stated that they had learned a lot about planning activities. Similarly, in the Youth Meeting for age 14-15 (YM) over a third of participants suggested that their English had improved, while others mentioned improvement in communication abilities, and 40% stated that they had learned a lot about other countries or cultures. A quarter made comments that indicated growth in self-confidence. A quarter of the YM participants also specifically mentioned learning about the YM theme (Freedom) and a similar number mentioned learning about stereotypes (the subject of two major activities in the programme).

Adult perceptions of youth learning

Leaders’ perceptions of each participant’s learning, as recorded on the GEF and IEF, were compared with the participants’ own perceptions of their learning, as recorded on the youth questionnaires. In most cases these were in agreement. However, there were a few cases where a participant felt s/he had achieved an indicator but the leader disagreed. In the Summer Camp this discrepancy was most common in indicators that implied a significant level of language (English) competence, with leaders suggesting that several participants were not able to contribute to group discussions or to suggest clear solutions to problems, whereas the youth participants indicated that they felt they were able to do this satisfactorily (see Figure 2 above). Comments from leaders and youth participants suggested that they had differing
perspectives on language competence, with the youth participants feeling that their competence had improved whereas the leaders felt that the participants in question did not have a sufficient level of language competence to take an active part in these discussions. In the YM comparison the largest area of discrepancy was in relation to participants receiving training on how to develop the theme, with leaders questioning when and where this training should be provided. There was also some concern over the indicator “contribute to debriefing after each activity”, where it was noted that some participants took part effectively in some discussions, but not in all of them.

**Leaders’ views of purposes and use of PDPEF**

The data from informal interviews with leaders in the Summer Camp and YM were coded and analysed thematically. Nine of the fourteen leaders interviewed had experience in previous CISV leadership roles so included comments on their experience in previous programmes as well as in their current programme. Most commonly, in both experiences, the leaders saw the PDPEF as a means for evaluating the progress of the youth participants. One leader stated that he felt it is “a kind of reporting mechanism for head office” and continued, “I probably don’t use it as much as I could during the programme … to me it’s a kind of back-up thing.” He went on to explain that it was not clear how the information entered was to be used, suggesting that although it is not difficult to fill in “it’s just one of those things that’s got to be done.” Some other leaders found it more complex in that they did not like having to make a “yes or no” decision on whether an indicator had been achieved. There were various suggestions for marking scales towards achievement or having space to note more detail, and one comment that youth participants might show behaviour on one day from which achievement of an indicator would be noted, but on a subsequent day they might show behaviour which was contradictory.

Other leaders suggested that the purpose of the PDPEF was “to see how the content of the camp is aligned with the goals” or “to track the stages of development of the camp and types of activities”. None of the leaders directly mentioned the “planning” aspect of the form, either for initial planning or for identification of areas that needed further work within the programme. One leader talked about a previous programme in which a designated time had been set aside within each leader’s meeting to focus on the progress of a few identified participants. This had been useful in helping all leaders to be aware of the indicators they should be checking and in identifying areas of the programme that needed further development, but the emphasis had still been on evaluation rather than planning.

Leaders’ views on the purposes of the PDPEF (evaluation of participant progress) were, thus, somewhat tangential to the organisational purpose of the form as a means of monitoring the educational curriculum. This has been noted by members of the education department in CISV and plans are now in hand to draw greater attention to the advisory material already available and to emphasise the organisational importance of the PDPEF in the annual training cycle.

**Summary**

CISV, as an organisation aiming for continuous improvement, has found it useful to evaluate the implementation of new educational tools. While leaders, perhaps understandably in the light of their other responsibilities, focus on the learning and achievements of the young people for whom they have direct responsibility, the
research identified a need to train leaders in the broader uses of the PDPEF as a tool for developing the quality of the learning curriculum. Notably, however, the clarification of goals and indicators for each of CISV’s educational programmes has given focus to the non-formal curriculum provided and established a structure for evaluating programme quality on which the organisation can continue to build.

References


In 2013 the Franco-German Youth Office celebrates its 50th birthday. The Polish-German Youth Office, founded after the peaceful revolution in 1989, has existed for more than two decades. The longevity of these two big international youth exchange organisations (accompanied by smaller institutions with similar aims) shows that youth encounters are a well-established way to conduct international youth work in many European countries. It seems obvious that the meeting of two or more groups from different countries for one or two weeks will make an impression on the lives of the young people involved. But what effects do youth encounters have? How can these effects be measured and what can help in evaluating a programme like this? This chapter describes the system of joint self-evaluation which has been introduced since 2005 and was complemented by an “Easy English version” in 2013 (www.eiye.eu). Selected results from the questionnaires are presented and perspectives for further research with the use of these tools are given.

In order to understand the idea, a few introductory words about the background are helpful: the basic approach of this evaluation system is shaped by a youth work perspective on international youth encounters. This approach
contradicts a popular view that reduces youth work activities to additional factors beyond school for improving young people’s capabilities for future economic needs. An example for the economic approach, with key words like “employability” and “human capital”, can be found in the European Commission’s Green Paper “Promoting the learning mobility of young people”, when it states on its first page:

*Learning mobility ... is one of the fundamental ways in which individuals, particularly young people, can strengthen their future employability as well as their personal development. Studies confirm that learning mobility adds to human capital ... It can also strengthen Europe’s competitiveness by helping to build a knowledge-intensive society, thereby contributing to the achievement of the objectives set out in the Lisbon strategy for growth and jobs.* (Commission 2009)

This is not the way that youth workers perceive their activities with young people in international encounters – and certainly not what a 16-year-old adolescent would describe as his motivation and experience in a youth exchange programme.

If one looks at international youth encounters through the eyes of young people, quite different aspects gain importance: young people experience themselves in a new setting, make friends in a group, and get in touch with adolescents from a totally different background. They fall in love with a peer from another country, see how similar and yet different life for youngsters in Europe can be, and learn that a sense of community and caring can bridge cultural and economic gaps. Topics like this are at the core of the evaluation system presented here. This view certainly does not neglect that learning experiences during youth encounters can have a positive effect on professional abilities in young people’s future, but it gives priority to human encounters and not to economic needs – an approach that doesn’t seem to be self-evident these days, but that is vital for keeping up international youth work as a way of (non-formal!) education with its own characteristics.

→ The idea of joint self-evaluation

While plenty of complex empirical studies at a very elaborate scientific level have been carried out in the field of formal education (schooling and training) in the aftermath of the PISA studies over the past years, studies concerning non-formal educational settings are lagging far behind this state of research. Overviews on the state of research in the non-formal field demonstrate the growing interest in empirical evaluation research with regard to youth work, but almost all of them are only able to mention regionally limited evaluations with low case numbers, and researchers often restrict themselves to purely qualitative evaluation procedures (overviews for Germany: DJI 2009; Rauschenbach et al. 2010). Only in a few cases has it become possible to undertake a bigger scientific study – one of the most popular examples is the German study on long-term effects of international youth work (Thomas et al. 2007). Research projects on international youth work with more than 1 000 interviewees are practically not represented at all in European research literature. The same holds true for international databases of scientific publications. One of the largest studies in the field has been completed in the United States, but it focuses on camps within that country and has no special focus on international exchange (Thurber et al. 2007).

In practical youth work, there are hardly any established evaluation procedures which meet the quality criteria of reliability and validity important to scientists or
the requirements of practicability, usefulness and simplicity demanded by practitioners. Practitioners of youth work sometimes have strong prejudices towards empirical studies (Lindner 2009). Besides, empirical research usually requires the costly service of researchers and thus expenditures that most youth organisations cannot afford in the long term. Mostly, they rather use playful feedback methods which do not aim at systematic quantifications of feedback or a written documentation of it (overview: Kloosterman et al. 2007, for the Franco-German Youth Office see Müller 1996).

The aim of the project, *Freizeitenevaluation* (“camp evaluation”) was and is to move on from evaluation methods developed ad hoc in youth group travel activities (not only international youth encounters but also youth camps belong to this category) to a standard practice for generating data and providing an easy-to-use evaluation tool. Since 2001, several evaluation procedures have been developed in the course of this project. They make it possible for the organisers of camps and international youth encounters to self-evaluate their youth travel activities by means of a locally conducted quantitative procedure (overview of the project’s development: Ilg 2013; explanation of the methodology: Ilg 2010; more explanations: www.freizeitenevaluation.de). Through several scientific studies (Ilg 2008a for camps, Dubiski and Ilg 2008 for international youth encounters, Peters et al. 2011 for children’s camps), questionnaires were created, and later an optimised abridged version was made available for self-evaluation. The standard self-evaluation procedure does not generate any costs and can be used without additional staff.

In the scientific studies participants were not only questioned during the camp but surveyed once again three months later in order to ensure reliability and validity. In addition, extensive data on the camp were collected, for example on the structure of the programme. In contrary to this bigger empirical setting, the materials for self-evaluation remain restricted to three elements: the workers’ questionnaires at the beginning, the participants’ questionnaires in the end and a short questionnaire for basic data. The procedure aims, above all, at providing tools for simple and reliable self-evaluation to those in charge locally. Apart from that, the organisers are asked to send the locally collected data to a central office in order to be able to analyse all of the data at supra-regional level. But it is not possible to exert pressure of any kind on the local organisers to make them send the data.

Thus, one particularity of this evaluation procedure is that it attempts to combine the benefits of external evaluation and those of self-evaluation: just like during an external evaluation, the research tools stem from a scientifically proven development. The quantitative evaluation of the questionnaires is conducted by means of a computer programme and thus delivers results that do not depend on the person responsible for the local evaluation. Still, the evaluation procedure can – which is otherwise only the case with a self-evaluation – be conducted and statistically evaluated independently and locally by the group leaders.

The collected data show the success of the idea of joint self-evaluation: during the years 2005 to 2011 more than 35 000 questionnaires were sent in to the central office: 31 345 participants’ questionnaires and 4 199 workers’ questionnaires from 1 131 youth travel groups (Figure 1).
The experiences gained in the first four years of the application of the standard procedure were re-analysed with the help of the received data. In doing so, the advantages and disadvantages of this joint self-evaluation became apparent. Overall, the results support the idea of collecting data in this way. After only a few years, this system has produced the largest collection of evaluation data in the field of youth group travel ever. Scientific analyses, especially a comparison of Cronbach Alpha values between the base studies and the self-evaluation period, prove that the evaluation procedure (handing out questionnaires, instruction, entering data, etc.) can be conducted by untrained people in a way that will not distort the results.

Selected results

For the international youth encounters in the context of French-German and Polish-German youth encounters, the collected data for the years 2005 to 2010 were analysed and published in a book, which is available in German, French and Polish (Ilg and Dubiski 2011). Some selected results from this subsample (N=5 206 participants and 719 leaders) give an impression of the kind of data that are gained with the help of this evaluation tool.

The mean age of the participants is 16.7 years. Forty-six percent visit the country where the encounter takes place for the first time in their life. The groups are typically led by a team of young adults (most of them between 20 and 30 years), of whom the majority work on a voluntary basis.

The most important feedback of the participants refers to group-related aspects: 87% report that they have made new friends during the encounter. Four out of five (80%) agree with the statement “The atmosphere allowed us to talk openly among ourselves.” The three aspects that gain the highest rates of satisfaction are group, youth leaders and fun.

The results of the teenagers’ questionnaires show how important the youth group leaders are for them. Most of the participants feel that at least one of the leaders is a person they have confidence in – even if it is a leader who comes from another country. The high regard for the leaders can also be seen by another result in the participants’ questionnaire: more than half of the participants agreed to the item
“I would like to work myself as a youth leader at one of these encounters”. Thus, international youth encounters can be seen as a promising way of strengthening young people’s interest in volunteering for international projects themselves. The fact that three out of four volunteers actually had taken part in encounters during their adolescence shows that many of the earlier participants do, in fact, make their way to leading encounters themselves.

**Figure 2: Motivation for voluntary work**
“I would like to work myself as a youth leader at one of these encounters”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants from Germany</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>52%</td>
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<tr>
<th>Participants from France</th>
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<tr>
<td>32%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>45%</td>
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<tr>
<th>Participants from Poland</th>
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<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>63%</td>
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</table>

One of the major learning fields refers to aspects of intercultural experiences: 81% report that they got in touch with the culture and everyday life of the host region (e.g. food, music, traditions). 74% say that they improved their foreign-language skills. And slightly more (77%) agreed with the statement “I have become interested in learning the other language(s)”. A similar pattern can be found concerning the motivation for future mobility: as Figure 3 shows, between 61% and 76% of the adolescents think about a longer stay in one of the hosting countries after they have got to know it during the one or two weeks of the encounter. This is even more impressive if one keeps in mind that 46% of the participants have never before been in the respective country.

**Figure 3: How encounters enhance adolescents’ European mobility**
“Following this encounter, I could well imagine spending a longer time (at least 3 months) in the partner country/countries”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants from Germany</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>61%</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Participants from France</th>
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<tr>
<td>17%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>68%</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Participants from Poland</th>
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<tr>
<td>10%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>76%</td>
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These results mirror only a small fraction of the empirical knowledge collected by the evaluation tool. In the next chapter, even more interesting perspectives for data analysis will be presented.

→ Multi-level analyses

An important advantage of a very large sample is that such a sample allows for statistical calculations that would not make sense with fewer than 1,000 interviewees. The procedure of multi-level analysis, which is used in this process, has been established over the past years within the framework of the large school achievement studies, in particular the PISA, as an important analysis tool. Nevertheless, it has almost never been used so far due to lack of data with respect to youth work activities.

The main concept of multi-level analysis is based on its ability to analyse effects at the individual and the group level at the same time. The background of this method is constituted by complex regression analysis that will not be dealt with in depth here; the results of the multi-level analysis will be explained to readers with no statistical expertise. The data analysed in Table 1 comes from both types of youth group travel: international youth encounters (mainly between groups in Germany, France and Poland, but also with groups from other origins like the Russian Federation or Italy) and youth camps of German groups without an exchange scheme (detailed analysis: Ilg and Diehl 2011).

Table 1: Results of the multi-level analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning experiences</th>
<th>Personality reflection</th>
<th>Political reflection</th>
<th>Intercultural experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difference for girls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difference for adolescents with prior experience</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difference for French adolescents</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difference for Polish adolescents</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difference for adolescents of other nationalities</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General group variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difference for international encounters v. camps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>group size</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aims of workers (group level)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aim personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aim political reflection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aim intercultural experiences</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=5,136 participants and 973 youth group leaders from a selected sample of youth encounters and youth camps.

NB: The data ranked according to ethnicity are represented as the difference from the data of the German adolescents for reasons of simplification.

+ positive interrelation + ++ highly positive interrelation
– negative interrelation – – highly negative interrelation
The table represents crucial insights of multi-level analysis in a compact form. In the three columns on the right, three key learning experiences which potentially are to be gained during camps or encounters are listed as criteria variables (in brackets with an exemplary item): personality (“I discovered new aspects and abilities in myself”), political reflection (“I dealt with a number of social/political topics”) and intercultural experiences (“I got to know something about the culture and everyday life of the host region”). The table explains interrelations with the predictors listed in the first column.

First of all, the individual predictors are represented (Individual variables, no shading, white background). An interrelation between age and experiences of political reflection as well as intercultural experiences can be seen. Regarding gender, only one effect is statistically significant, namely that boys report a reflection on political topics more often than girls. Prior experience, that is, whether the adolescents have already attended a youth travel group or not, does not have any measurable effect on the criteria variables. The significance of the country of origin of the adolescents differs depending on the respective criteria. Regarding personality, German adolescents benefit least, while political reflection is rather typical for adolescents from Germany and France. When it comes to intercultural experiences, only the values for adolescents from the “other” countries (e.g. in trilateral encounters) are significantly higher.

Two predictors were included at group level (General group variables, light grey shading). The group size proves to have little relevance as a predictor. But there are significant differences depending on the respective type of travel groups: for international youth encounters, the values regarding political reflection and intercultural experiences in particular are significantly higher than for youth camps. This result may be considered as a confirmation of the programmatic claim that international youth encounters make a much bigger contribution to understanding strangers because of a direct contact with different countries and cultures than group travel with adolescents from the same country, even if the camp in question takes place in a foreign country, which is usually the case.

One of the most interesting results can be seen in the table under the heading Aims of workers (group level), with the dark grey background. The aims, which were asked for at the beginning of the measure, were aggregated for each measure (i.e. the mean value of all workers was calculated). If it is true that the workers’ aims influence the events during a camp or encounter, this must lead to specific interrelations between the workers’ aims and the corresponding experiences of the participants. The data show exactly this pattern – even if other predictors were controlled for within the framework of multi-level analysis as potential confounding variables. All the three aims of the workers lead to a respectively higher level of feedback concerning experiences from the participants. For practitioners in the field of pedagogy, such findings might be especially interesting with respect to staff training: The “personal value system” of the workers obviously shapes the learning experiences of the young group members. At the same time, the provable influence of a conceptual focus on the experiences of the adolescents becomes apparent – an insight that is of crucial importance regarding evidence of the effect of youth work which has rarely been shown in empirical studies to date.

**Opportunities for future research by means of panel studies**

As the short description of the research results shows, a dataset with a large number of measures has a huge additional value in comparison to the former studies with a
maximum of approximately 500 interviewees. From a research perspective, a further development of the system of joint self-evaluation described in this chapter seems to be a promising approach. One ambitious goal would be to obtain a clearly defined sub-sample which remains largely unchanged every year. In contrast to the currently “accidentally” submitted data, a fixed database from the same youth organisations would be a reliable database for ongoing changes over time – following the research principle “if you want to measure change, don’t change the measure”.

This idea is the quintessence of a so-called panel study. In concrete terms, one would have to carefully select institutions that consent to co-operate for several years in order to conduct a panel study. If one of those dropped out, it would have to be substituted by an institution with similar data. Even with a number of only about 30 to 40 encounters (approximately 1 000 participants) in such a panel study, reliable monitoring data might be collected for the field of international youth encounters over the years – this would also offer the opportunity to make multi-level analysis calculations regularly and provide new comparative data for self-evaluation every year. With such a database, changes in the results of this constant partial sample could be interpreted as reliable indicators of real change. If the scientific community in non-formal learning wants to take a major step in advancing knowledge on youth travel, a panel study based on joint evaluation might be one of the most realistic ways to get there.

References


List of abstracts

I – Developments and political framework

2 Learning mobility in the youth field: starting to set a framework
Charles Berg, Marianne Milmeister, Christiane Weis
Keywords: learning mobility, European youth research, social science

This contribution presents an overture to future EPLM debates from a researcher’s perspective. It describes three possible points of entry: the European youth research landscape, the changing concepts of mobility and learning as well as considerations regarding innovation in research methods. One of the conclusions is that EPLM is related to an in-depth transformation of social science.

3 European Union support to learning mobility: rationale of a success
Pascal Lejeune
Keywords: non-formal learning mobility, European programmes, Youth in Action, Erasmus for All, Youth on the Move

Since the mid-1980s, transnational learning mobility has been a European success story. In the youth field, the current Youth in Action Programme supports youth exchanges and volunteering opportunities among other non-formal activities aimed at contributing to youth employability, active participation in society and a sense of belonging to the European Union.

4 Advocating for youth: the European Youth Forum helping to increase recognition of mobility and non-formal learning
David Garrahy
Keywords: European Youth Forum, learning mobility, recognition of non-formal education, quality assurance

The article outlines core areas of activity of the European Youth Forum as a key stakeholder in the European education and mobility debate: working towards the further removal of (visa) barriers to young people’s learning mobility, and advocating the recognition of non-formal education in political circles, in position papers and by means of developing a Quality Assurance Framework for non-formal learning activities.

5 Youth mobilities, step by step
Majo Hansotte
Keywords: Obstacles to mobility, Rating scale for mobility, Mobility barriers, and daily living conditions

The approach to mobility developed here is part of a global policy for non-formal education. The originality of this chapter lies in a pluralistic view of youth mobility that includes the identification of obstacles. Youth actors in Wallonia and Brussels
have indeed developed a “rating scale for mobility” that could frame the practices encountered.

The principle of this step-by-step approach is based on the fact that mobility barriers are rooted both in the minds of youth and daily living conditions; when young people start to step into the existing mobility programmes, we can consider that the main obstacles have been overcome.

Therefore it is important to set up non-formal education procedures for disadvantaged young people in particular (but non-exclusively), including training them to move, and to adapt to living at a distance from their family, daily habits, community and home territory, including the patterns imposed by family, culture, environment and religion.

6 **Cross-border youth mobility, meeting the neighbours, learning from each other: international exchanges of young Poles and their peers from abroad**

*Aleksandra Karlińska*

**Key words:** youth exchange, intercultural dialogue, national programme

This chapter presents the most important existing state schemes of international youth co-operation enabling youth exchanges. Most of them are based on bilateral agreements signed by Polish authorities and representatives of partner countries (Germany, Lithuania, Russian Federation, Ukraine), which constitute a legal basis and precise ways to financially support co-operation. Each presented scheme provides information on the scope and number of realised projects and the results achieved.

7 **Learning mobility in the youth field: the Estonian experience with a European imprint**

*Reet Kost*

**Key words:** Estonia, non-formal learning, mobility, European identity, Youth in Action, youth work

This chapter unfolds the Estonian experience of learning mobility in the youth field by looking at the historic, political and strategic aspects of the developments so far and the consequences of the choices made to the youth field and young people in particular. It focuses on European influence on national youth policy and youth work development, concluding that learning mobility in the youth field would probably not have come that far in Estonia without the support of European institutions, co-operation and the EU contribution to the decentralised implementation of the EU youth programmes.

8 **What are the effects of international youth mobility projects?**

**Research-based analysis of Youth in Action**

*Helmut Fennes*

**Key words:** youth mobility, non-formal learning, informal learning, European youth projects, youth research

This chapter presents an international research project on the effects of European youth projects on the actors involved – young people, youth workers and youth leaders, but also on youth groups, organisations and communities concerned. It outlines the concept and methodology as well as main results of this research project, conducted in 15 European countries between 2008 and 2013.
II – Concepts and approaches concerning mobility and learning

9 International youth work in Germany
Andreas Thimmel

Key words: international youth work, non-formal learning, research in youth work, intercultural learning

This chapter outlines different concepts of international youth work in Germany. It aims at defining international youth work from a scientific point of view as it has developed in practice and theory and how it is still developing.

Structural characteristics for international youth work are described first. The concept of international youth work is evaluated from different perspectives such as foreign affairs, social policy, political formation, youth and leisure education, identity formation, economy and individual interaction between people from different countries.

Furthermore, a reference is made to the scientific discourse on international youth work, which is mainly influenced by education and psychology.

The chapter’s focus lies in a systematic approach to different concepts and their historical contribution to international youth work. It deals with the following concepts: country-specific concepts, intercultural learning, a psychological approach (psychologische Austauschforschung), the hermeneutic-psychoanalytical concept, socio-pedagogical concepts focusing on identity formation and interculturality, international learning stressing the political dimension, and a concept claiming empathy as a basis for international understanding.

In conclusion, a definition is suggested which characterises international youth work as an umbrella term for any pedagogical activities and settings in children and youth work linked to internationality.

The chapter also discusses the actual challenges of international youth work. It shows that within the past 10 years international youth work has been considering major issues such as youth education, migration and diversity, as well as European and political dimensions, and has therefore positioned itself as a central field of non-formal education. The chapter provides an important basis for the understanding of theory and practice of international youth work in Germany.

10 A comparative framework for youth mobility
Günter J. Friesenhahn

Key words: comparison, youth, mobility, contextualisation

Within the EU, youth affairs have been gaining in importance for some years. Action programmes with the objective to enhance the mobility of young people are at the heart of EU strategies. Mobility is regarded as important for personal development and employability. Mobility is connected with cross-border activities and requires comparative competences.
11 Preconditions for movement in Portugal and Ireland: social inequality, mobility field and habitus

David Cairns

Key words: Youth, mobility, Ireland, Portugal, habitus

This chapter explores mobility decision making in Portugal and Ireland, utilising “habitus” to help explain informal learning practices, with empirical evidence drawn from research with student respondents. This work was carried out in the aftermath of the global financial crisis, providing an opportunity to assess the impact of this event on mobility orientations.

12 Mobility as a pedagogical tool for young people with fewer opportunities

Søren Kristensen

Key words: Learning mobility, disadvantaged groups, informal learning

Young people with fewer opportunities constitute a prioritised target group in many European schemes for learning mobility. However, the insertion of fragile young people in mobility projects designed for mainstream youth is not unproblematic. Rather than a concern for equal opportunities, our primary motivation should therefore be reflections about mobility as a pedagogical tool: what outcomes in terms of learning and personal development can we realistically achieve, and what interventions in terms of organisation and support are needed to underpin this? The chapter discusses these issues on the basis of relevant theory, research and practice.

13 Challenges for recognition of non-formal learning and learning mobility in Ukraine: education, labour market and society

Yaryna Borenko, Galyna Usatenko

Key words: Ukraine, education in transition, non-formal education in Eastern Europe, migration of young professionals

Ukraine is on the way to inclusion into European mobility programmes. However, the current crisis of the system of education has created threats to the long-term emigration of young professionals. With regard to the social dimension, learning mobility still remains exclusive and elitist. The educational tradition creates a gap between formal and non-formal education, whereby non-formal learning remains a separate domain of non-state actors.

14 Youth mobility: towards more self-directed and holistic learning

Marta Brzezińska-Hubert

Key words: non-formal learning, adult learning theory, self-directed learning, communities of practice

This chapter attempts to examine how European youth mobility programmes may stimulate self-directed and holistic learning. The first part deals with the characteristics and interrelations of informal, formal and non-formal education. The second part takes the theoretical framework of self-directed learning and context-based learning approaches to analyse the practical implications for an individual young learner.
15  What do we know? A systematic literature review on youth learning mobility in European contexts  
Judith Dubiski  
Key words: European research, literature review, systematic research, learning mobility, youth, non-formal

Research on youth learning mobility is conducted all over Europe, but although it deals with an international topic, we know little about what researchers from other countries work on and what their results are. There is hardly any source that can provide comprehensive information on outcomes, relevant issues, dominant questions or the use of specific terms in different countries. This chapter presents findings of a systematic literature review on international youth mobility in non-formal educational contexts. The review covered studies on short-stay and long-stay, individual and group programmes for young people from 13 to 30 years in non-formal contexts, that is international youth encounters, work camps, au pair, voluntary service and trainings for non-professional youth workers. The results indicate that the fundamental task is to discuss and establish a more consistent use of terms on an international level in order to create a common space for research and discourse.

III – Good practice and project reports

16  European youth mobility and inclusion among those with fewer opportunities through three mechanisms  
Nagla Abed, Judith van Raalten  
Key words: immigrants, disadvantaged youth, inclusion quota, marginalised communities, promotion of mobility, alumni, peer-to-peer approach, outreach initiative, mobility interest teams, ambassador, minority groups

This chapter proposes mechanisms for the involved stakeholders to ensure the inclusion of socially marginalised youth across Europe in mobility programmes to benefit from the offered learning experiences.

First, youth work and mobility programmes should introduce quotas to guarantee the participation of young people with fewer opportunities.

Second, participating young people have access to other networks that often remain untapped. Designed programmes should not only make an effort to ensure innovation and sustainability, but also justify how proposed designs ensure that young people not directly affiliated to mobility projects get connected to be included in new mobility projects.

Third, each European country deals with minorities whose youth have roots in neighbouring countries. Mobility programmes will benefit greatly by exposing this group of young people to share best practices between Europeans and neighbours, and strengthen mutual understanding.
17 Sharing the mobility experience: creating more effect. Comparison of the effects on young people of two Dutch learning mobility programmes
Lorance Janssen, Nienke Nuyens
Key words: Learning mobility experience, sharing, young people, Erasmus for All

Two Dutch learning mobility programmes are compared on their outcome. The authors argue that the “sharing activities” in the Xplore programme deepen the learning effects of the learning mobility experience. Therefore, they recommend that such a concept be included in the future Erasmus for All learning mobility programme.

18 Opening talent in young people: the role of non-formal learning in the UK Foyer Network
Steve Hillman
Key words: Foyers, Lifeskills, Adulthood, Coaching

This chapter describes how the non-formal learning programmes in the UK Foyer Network facilitate the transition to independent adulthood. It explores how such programmes promote learning mobility for young people, how social media can be used to good effect, and outlines the contribution of Foyer programmes in the national and European policy contexts.

19 Facilitating learning mobility for all: the JiVE experience
Bettina Wissing
Key words: Young people with fewer opportunities, Potential of international youth work, EU Youth Strategy, Co-operation of formal and non-formal education, Local networks

The JiVE initiative takes up the positive and long-term effects and potential of international youth work on personality development and acquisition of intercultural skills of young people that have been proven by recent research. Creating networks and new partnerships at local levels and between different providers of facilities for young people is put into practice with the Kommune goes International sub-initiative.

20 EFIL’s European Citizenship Trimester Programme: from global to European Active Citizenship
Elisa Briga
Key words: intercultural learning, European citizenship, pupil exchanges, AFS

The European Federation for Intercultural Learning (EFIL), the umbrella organisation of AFS organisations in Europe, in 2008, explored the possibility of actively contributing to the promotion of the European ideal through its expertise on pupil exchanges. The European Citizenship Trimester Programme (ECTP) was born. Can an international youth organisation promoting intercultural learning with a global perspective have a successful programme with a European focus? What are the challenges to face and the contributions it can bring?
21 Youthpass the educational practice
Rita Bergstein, Kristiina Pernits
Key words: Youthpass, self-directed learning, transformative learning, recognition

The European recognition instrument for youth work activities, Youthpass and the Youthpass process have existed since 2007. The chapter conceptualises the Youthpass process in the light of self-directed and transformative learning concepts, known and applied foremost in adult education. The authors argue that the Youthpass process is closely related to these widespread learning concepts which describe the prerequisites to sustainable development of competences within lifelong learners.

22 Experiential learning in youth mobility programmes: a tool to plan, monitor and evaluate
Tamara Thorpe, Jennifer Watson
Key words: CISV International, Evaluation, Experiential Learning, Non-formal Education, Youth Mobility

Children’s International Summer Villages (CISV International) have been offering programmes for youth participants for over 60 years. The organisation recently developed a new tool to facilitate planning, monitoring and evaluation of its educational content. A research project to monitor the implementation of this new tool was conducted and has indicated areas where further leadership training may make use of it more effectively.

23 Evaluation of international youth exchanges
Wolfgang Ilg
Key words: evaluation, youth exchange, empirical research, multi-level analysis, panel study

The chapter describes selected results of an evaluation project based on more than 25 000 questionnaires from participants and workers in camps and youth encounters in Europe. With the model of “joint self-evaluation”, invented by the scientific project Freizeitenevaluation, an easy-to-use tool for quantitative evaluation is presented. The author explains the use of multi-level analysis and recommends panel studies for future research.
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