Young People, Entrepreneurship and Non-Formal Learning: A Work in Progress

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Abstract

[Excerpt] Often regarded as part of the solution for economic growth, entrepreneurship has reached a political momentum. Various universities now offer courses in entrepreneurship; there is an EU-wide policy on entrepreneurial learning in high schools, while the concept of the ‘enterprising child’ (Gribben, 2006) is likely to make the approach appealing to primary education and below. The potency of entrepreneurship in the policy agenda is able to reactivate discussions on the role of youth work in a way that other issues have not. Questions of if, and to what extent youth work could or should engage with entrepreneurial learning are beginning to arise.

This book tries to contribute to this timely debate. In doing so, it formulates questions more than it is able to provide complete answers. The hope is to bring fresh perspectives into an old debate on the mission of youth work in changing social and economic times. It aims to open up an uncharted area that looks into the relationship between youth work (non-formal learning) and entrepreneurship. It explores the theoretical developments in the field, the dilemmas and tensions, and proposes practice-oriented information: illustrative examples, strategies for action and methods of non-formal education.

Keywords
entrepreneurship, youth work, education

Comments

Suggested Citation
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SALTO-Youth stands for ‘Support, Advanced Learning and Training Opportunities within the Erasmus+: Youth in Action programme’. A network of eight SALTO-Youth Resource Centres, created by the European Commission, has been contributing to the implementation of the European programmes for youth since 2000.

The SALTO-Youth network aims to support ‘Erasmus+: Youth in Action’ projects in priority areas such as Participation, European Citizenship, Cultural Diversity, and Inclusion of young people with fewer opportunities, by offering Training and Cooperation activities and Information tools for National Agencies and the beneficiaries and promoters of the programme within the European Union and in third-country regions such as Euro-Med, South-East and Eastern Europe, and the Caucasus.

The network has a common website – www.salto-youth.net – where a variety of resources and online tools can be found, such as the European Training Calendar, OTLAS – a Tool for Partner Finding, the Best Practice Projects Database, the Toolbox for Training and Youth Work, and the database of youth field trainers active at European level (Trainers Online for Youth), etc.

The SALTO-Youth Participation Resource Centre was set up in 2003 and since then, has fostered the active political, social, economic and cultural participation of young people – a priority of the ‘Erasmus+: Youth in action’ programme – via its training activities, seminars, pedagogical resources, and giving support to coaching in youth work. It aims to create a space for reflection and for exchanging practices and ideas that should enable young people and youth workers to develop participatory projects. The resource centre is hosted by the Bureau International Jeunesse (BIJ), located in Brussels, Belgium.

SALTO-Youth Participation would like to thank all the authors who kindly contributed to this book. We hope you will find it useful and thought-provoking.
Often regarded as part of the solution for economic growth, entrepreneurship has reached a political momentum. Various universities now offer courses in entrepreneurship; there is an EU-wide policy on entrepreneurial learning in high schools, while the concept of the ‘enterprising child’ (Gribben, 2006) is likely to make the approach appealing to primary education and below. The potency of entrepreneurship in the policy agenda is able to reactivate discussions on the role of youth work in a way that other issues have not. Questions of if, and to what extent youth work could or should engage with entrepreneurial learning are beginning to arise.

This book tries to contribute to this timely debate. In doing so, it formulates questions more than it is able to provide complete answers. The hope is to bring fresh perspectives into an old debate on the mission of youth work in changing social and economic times. It aims to open up an uncharted area that looks into the relationship between youth work (non-formal learning) and entrepreneurship. It explores the theoretical developments in the field, the dilemmas and tensions, and proposes practice-oriented information: illustrative examples, strategies for action and methods of non-formal education.

For many reasons, this book needs to deal with several uncertainties, as ‘Entrepreneurial learning through youth work’ accumulates the difficulties inherent in defining each of the terms. First, we need to say that ‘youth work’ is a heterogeneous concept with no agreed definition. In some countries it is a recent and narrow term, prompted by European policy, whilst in others it is a notion with a longer legacy, rooted in social work and community care (see Coussé, 2010). This book endorses a definition of youth work as ‘a summary expression for activities with and for young people of a social, cultural, educational or political nature. Increasingly, youth work activities also include
sports and services for young people. Youth work belongs to the domain of ‘out-of-school’ education, most commonly referred to as either non-formal or informal learning’ (Lauritzen, 2008).

In line with the approach from ‘The Socio-economic Scope of Youth Work in Europe’ (2008), the book will consider the following activities as being the central fields of youth work: ‘extracurricular youth education, international youth work, open youth work, participation and peer education prevention of social exclusion/youth social work, recreation, youth counseling, youth information and youth work in sports’. In principle, the book remains open to the idea that we ‘need that huge diversity of youth work forms and in a broader sense, all forms of “social” work’ (Coussée, 2010). ‘Youth workers’ are defined as ‘multipliers in the field of youth work – youth workers, youth leaders, volunteers and staff in youth groups, youth organisations and other youth structures’ (Fennes and Otten, 2008: 13).

Also, there is no agreed definition of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial education. Entrepreneurship means different things to different people and the field has been described as ‘vague’ and ‘anchored in a small set of intellectual bases’ (Bridge et al., 2010; Aldrich, 2012; Alvareza & Busenitz, 2001).

'We do not really know what “entrepreneurship education” actually is; policy is generally unclear about what outputs are to be created when such education is promoted; and, even if these policy questions were resolved we do not know what works and to what end’ (Pittaway and Cope 2007)

It has been argued that entrepreneurship shares the conceptual destiny of ‘umbrella terms’ such as ‘community’, ‘intelligence’ and ‘leadership’, with many competing definitions lacking empirical validation, ‘widely used, much abused and poorly understood’, penetrated by ‘hurrah concepts’ (e.g. ‘creativity’, ‘initiative’) taken from ‘managerial tautologies’ (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). Moreover, there are strong reasons for arguing that terms such as ‘capability’, ‘skills’, ‘enterprise’ or ‘being entrepreneurial’ have lost their meaning and always call for further specifications (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). Besides this, qualitative research with young people operating their own business in the UK has revealed that they tend not to identify themselves as ‘entrepreneurs’ (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). A practical solution for the book is not to avoid, but to engage with the above conceptual insecurity and be open to and critical of the definitions used in each chapter. Authors will also be sensitive to the different social and economic contexts across Europe. Nevertheless, there are several crosscutting issues related to the definition of the terms that may deserve clarification from the onset:

For many reasons, the search for the ‘psychological profile’ of the entrepreneur has failed. There is substantial research indicating that entrepreneurs (new venture creators) differ not in terms of their personality, but due to a holistic cognitive orientation (e.g. the use of simplified strategies for making strategic decisions in complex situations, where information is incomplete, uncertain) (Alvareza & Busenitz, 2001; von Graevenitz, 2010). A by-now popular research finding states that there is as much variance between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs as there is among entrepreneurs themselves. Moreover, it may be that people develop certain characteristics as a consequence of entrepreneurship, and not beforehand. Thus, research measures what may in fact be, an effect of entrepreneurship, and not a prerequisite. Besides, entrepreneurship is very much dependent not only on individual characteristics, but on structural conditions: economic, social and political: ‘to have entrepreneurship, you must first have entrepreneurial opportunities’ (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000: 220).

Given the above limitations, this book tries to overcome the early personality based stream of research which links entrepreneurship with a set of psychological traits alone (being open-minded, confident, creative, a risk-taker, etc). One way to do this is by integrating entrepreneurial learning in a structural (social, cultural, economic, policy, political) context. Bearing in mind the weak research evidence the book will avoid unsupported arguments, as well as the uncritical use of the rhetoric of ‘entrepreneurial spirit/mind-set’.

By centring the discourse on entrepreneurship on young people, there is the risk of subjecting them to an unwarranted pressure to perform well economically, in otherwise unfriendly circumstances. The book will counteract this tendency by including the structural conditions necessary for youth entrepreneurship to develop as a choice and not a necessity. In principle, they refer to the ‘entrepreneurship infrastructure’ (i.e. secure property rights, a fair judicial system, contract enforcement and effective constitutional limits, a system that fights corruption (El Harbi & Anderson, 2010), a vibrant local economy, a friendly bureaucratic system.

There are many ways of looking at entrepreneurship. A widely used approach distinguishes between ‘employability’, ‘enterprise for new venture creation’ and ‘enterprise for life’ (EU Skills Panorama, 2012; Bridge et al., 2010; Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013). According to Bridge et al., 2010, employability (being able to get the jobs that exist) is a preparation for working for other people: having the skills and understanding that the job requires and the capacity to ‘sell’ oneself to employers. Enterprise for life (being able to get on, even when the right job does not already exist) is considered a foundation for later ‘enterprise for new venture creation’ and involves the capacity to respond positively to

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1 For very similar positions, see also: Gribben, 2006; Aldrich, 2012; Alvareza & Busenitz, 2001; Smyth, 1999; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991.

2 In the sense of small business creators.
Whilst definitions of social entrepreneurship abound, it is important not to take for granted the traditional dyad between economic and social value. Instead of seeing social entrepreneurship preoccupied exclusively with producing social value, a new proposal is to define it as ‘the pursuit of sustainable change. It is a basis for social entrepreneurship (the action of ‘citizen entrepreneurs’). Enterprise for new venture creation (being able to start a business) is oriented towards business creation. In doing so, young people are taught issues of financial literacy and how to make a business plan – apparently not a very useful strategy (cf. Bridge et al., 2010). This was the initial meaning of entrepreneurial learning. In 1989, OECD enlarged the definition, in terms of personal development and enterprising culture (OECD/CERI, 1989). The current EU policy approach embraces both the ‘narrow’ definition: ‘the capacity to identify opportunities in the market and create new business’ and the ‘broad’ meaning: ‘the attitudes and behaviours associated with creativity, innovation and risk’ (EU Skills Panorama, 2012).

To further increase the complexity, one can also distinguish between actual entrepreneurship (i.e. people that have actually started business, or doers) and entrepreneurial intention or latent entrepreneurship (i.e. people that intend to start business (Pihie, 2009:341), or dreamers. Increasingly, ethnographic research suggests that, despite the tendency to frame new-business creation as a choice, the majority of entrepreneurial activities are a response to personal or community hardships, and that people become entrepreneurial because it is their only survival option at that time (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). Along the same lines, it has become evident that the new enterprises are, for the most part, ‘clones’ of local initiatives or spinoffs, and not innovations (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). The distinction between entrepreneurship as a choice and entrepreneurship out of necessity (Naude, 2008) is, thus, instrumental in understanding the notion.

Another way of classifying the concept is by referring to economic entrepreneurship which ‘adopts an instrumental view of strategic stakeholders (workforce, customers, suppliers, community institutions) and treats them as a “means” of accumulating financial capital and producing goods and services that have utility value’ and social entrepreneurship which ‘adopts a relational view of strategic stakeholders and regards them as the “ends” of entrepreneurship: they are the recipients of financial, social, human and ethical capital in which social enterprise is the “means”’ (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013: 208). The (ideological) distinction between profit-making entrepreneurship (the capital is used for further social investment) and profit maximizing entrepreneurship (accumulation of private capital) is important (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013).

Whilst definitions of social entrepreneurship abound, it is important not to take for granted the traditional dyad between economic and social value. Instead of seeing social entrepreneurship preoccupied exclusively with producing social value, a new proposal is to define it as ‘the pursuit of sustainable solutions to neglected problems’ (Santos, 2012: 335). Yet, social enterprises are not free from their own criticism; a major risk is for the ‘social’ or environmental issues to be delegated from the commercial enterprises to social enterprises, which might, ultimately, be held responsible for ‘solving’ the externalities of profit-maximizing enterprises.

Enterprise means more than self-employment or small businesses creation. Other business models are:

- co-operatives: firms operating an egalitarian management structure, but which compete in a capitalist economy and operate with share capital;
- mutual societies: autonomous associations of people united voluntarily, with the purpose of satisfying their common needs and not to make profits or returns on capital. Mutual societies are managed according to solidarity principles, and are based on voluntary and open membership, equal voting, independence and no share capital (CIRIEC, 2005);
- community businesses (they offer socially useful goods and services to those that need them, usually without making much of a profit, cf. MacDonald & Coffield, 1991);
- associations and foundations are also considered forms of enterprise (CIRIEC, 2005).

2012 was the United Nations’ International Year of Cooperatives. Despite cooperatives being one of the most resilient business models in times of crisis (ILO, 2009), across Europe, the entrepreneurial education of young people tends to prioritize individual, small business creation. This also happens because of the bipolar institutional context: a strong private capitalist sector on one hand, and the public sector on the other tends to omit a ‘third pole’ that is ‘neither public nor capitalist’ (CIRIEC, 2005: 10). In Part I, Trovarelli will bring these alternative business models closer to the center of entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurial learning through youth work is a rather narrow topic as there are, generally, very few attempts to integrate entrepreneurship into youth work. The relationship between the two has been either assumed or contested, but not thoroughly examined. The History of Youth Work in Europe, a book series on the priority topics of the EU-CoE youth partnership, is one remarkable exception. It has been extremely useful in positioning youth work structurally: in relation to its mission and historical legacy, but also in relation to the social and economic developments of its time. The analysis of the intersection between entrepreneurial learning and youth work needs such historical and structural perspectives. More research is needed in order to explore the relationship between European youth work and employment/entrepreneurship.

Externalities are the consequences or side effects of (profit-maximizing) economic activity e.g. dislocated and/or divided communities, pollution of the environment, poor health, overfishing, land clearing, etc. It was argued that ‘externalities have been at the heart of the financial crash of 2008-09’ (COMPAS, 2011).
Entrepreneurial learning through youth work is also a divisive topic. This publication comes in the middle of a (tacit) controversy, as a large part of the practitioners’ community questions whether youth work should embrace the call for entrepreneurship, seen as the instrumentalization of youth work. A considerable part of the youth workers’ community seems to perceive entrepreneurial learning as an invasive result of having the youth work sector subjected to an external, economic discourse. Contributors come from professional backgrounds – including youth work, that share the above concerns. As editors, such dilemmas also resonate with us.

This book aims to analyze the intersection between entrepreneurial learning and youth work from various perspectives. It explores the theoretical developments in the field; the dilemmas and tensions involved in entrepreneurial learning through youth work and provides practice-oriented information: illustrative examples, strategies for action and methods of non-formal education. The book is an opportunity to open up debates and questions linking the professional communities working with young people or on their behalf.

Part I will be of interest to practitioners and policy makers looking to inform their work through the research available, or to engage in more informed uses of the concepts and main debates on the role of youth work. It broadens the understanding of youth entrepreneurship by looking into its multifaceted nature and ethical dilemmas. Kilakoski reflects on the difficult relationship between entrepreneurial learning and the ethos of youth work. He argues that youth work needs to regard young people’s social worlds in ways that do not avoid, but rather integrate the perspective of market economy. It is, thus, that youth work needs to regard young people’s social worlds in ways that do not avoid, but rather integrate the perspective of market economy. The need for ‘good examples of practice’ (Kristensen 2008).

Based on five months anthropological field study in a British affiliate of an American charity in London, Revsbech asks what learning is like in a social voluntary organization for youth. Her chapter argues that volunteers develop entrepreneurial abilities by shifting flexibly between, and by taking advantage of diverse value systems and multiple stakeholders. Katsbert then presents the approach of the Youth Empowerment Partnership Programme to empower young people at risk of social exclusion in communities across Europe by the joint actions of foundations, municipalities, youth workers and young people themselves. Paszkowska describes a Youth in Action project in Poland, aimed at increasing young people’s participation in civic life. Impedovo’s chapter explores self-regulated learning as the ability to control one’s own cognitive processes. She argues that this competence is an expression of entrepreneurship, as it relates to the notion of strategy, involves the capacity to set goals and to analyse the causes of success or failure. The chapter also brings the example of a Youth in Action project in Italy, built on the theoretical developments of self-regulated learning. Esposito explains how the World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts plays a unique role in increasing the entrepreneurial learning of girls and young women. Her chapter discusses recent findings from three online surveys responded to by nearly 1,500 current members, leaders, alumnae and Member Organizations.

Part III looks into entrepreneurial learning through formal education and mobility projects. The Editors considered it necessary for youth workers to be knowledgeable about the meanings of entrepreneurial learning in schools and universities and to engage in processes that may build on or, when needed, deconstruct the principles being advanced in formal contexts.

Serbati and Surian examine the process and main lessons learnt from a university entrepreneurial competition in Italy. They describe practices in which such competitions can revive the notion of entrepreneurial learning in higher education, as well as ways of strengthening its relationship with the business sector. Informed by her experience with community colleges, career academies
and career technology centres in the United States and Canada, Barabasch’s chapter focuses on the role of entrepreneurial education at post-secondary level. It outlines its goals and provides information on the current approaches taken in VET across several European countries. Some implications for non-formal learning are drawn. Marques and colleagues discuss examples of learning experiences among Portuguese graduates, using evidence taken from recent research conducted at the University of Minho. Kristensen examines the development of innovative thinking and entrepreneurship in connection with transnational mobility (long-term placements abroad). His chapter is based on a longitudinal study of Danish chefs whose apprenticeship included working stages abroad. He provides convincing arguments for the idea that a sufficiently large number of young people with work placements abroad may have quite a dramatic impact within an economic sector as a whole. The chapter also advises on the potentially harmful consequences of engaging young people in mobility projects that are not informed by pedagogical principles before, during and after the stay.

Part IV presents several policy approaches in entrepreneurial learning. Podlasek Ziegler’s chapter discusses the role of the Youth in Action programme as a major supporter of youth work and a driving force for entrepreneurial learning in Europe. It presents several examples from successful youth work projects and supports the idea that over the last 25 years, since their launch, the EU youth programmes have enriched the personal development and career choices of more than 2.5 million young people. Kirchschlaeger examines social entrepreneurship through the lens of human rights and argues that it could serve as a more structural frame of reference for setting the agenda and keeping the focus on social entrepreneurship. Kirchschlaeger’s chapter examines the meaning of the word ‘social’ in social entrepreneurship, and draws attention to the superficial understanding of the term, which risks ‘watering the concept of social entrepreneurship’. From a policy perspective informed by ethics, Burrowes-Cromwell examines the relationship between entrepreneurial learning and the business sector. She argues that ‘business competency’ should include guiding principles and values that support the sustainability of the enterprise. Based on policy examples from the UK, she states that youth work has the potential to inform more ethical ways of doing business.

Part V contains brief presentations of projects, tools, and resources that may be of interest to practitioners and organizations embarking on entrepreneurial learning projects with young people. The contributors carried out their work in a very short time: between a call launched in March 2013 and a final deadline in summer. It is unfortunate that, due to the time constraints, some major facets of entrepreneurship remain weakly covered (e.g. women’s entrepreneurship, the alternative economic models: cooperatives, associations, mutual associations, partnerships).

Overall, the book does not aim to be a naive celebration of the role of youth work in fostering entrepreneurial learning. Grounded in the understanding that the relationship between the two is often volatile and questioned in the youth work community, the book provides a platform for expressing various perspectives on this issue. Thus, contributors have different professional and academic backgrounds and their work is positioned differently along the continuum of entrepreneurial learning. Some feel closer to the ‘narrow’ and more technical approaches which prioritize a strict definition of entrepreneurial learning for business creation. Many others look at entrepreneurship from the broader perspective of general skills, useful in many life situations. Others (the Editor-in-Chief included), struggle with the dilemma of whether and to what extent youth work should/could enter entrepreneurial education. In the final analysis, taking into consideration the wide range of positions, the book tries to be a vivid platform for eliciting a diversity of arguments.

The volume is grounded in the concept of engaged scholarship (Longhofer et al., 2012): a recent approach which integrates the knowledge of researchers and non-academics: policy makers, young people, practitioners in non-formal and formal education, or those closer to the business sector. The underlying principle is that different professional groups have different modes of understanding and are thus able to generate different types of knowledge. The goal is not to reach a consensus among the various professional communities, but to build upon the creative tensions generated, and thus, to encourage further debate, genuine reflection and critique. We hope the book will live up to this expectation.

Maria-Carmen Pantea


FRAMING THE CONTEXT

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This chapter is based on action research conducted in the city of Kokkola, Finland. The two year action-based study aimed to explicate the unexplored knowledge of Finnish youth work. As an end result, the project gave an overview of the goals of youth work. This description did not include any strong commitments to promoting entrepreneurial learning. The chapter reflects on these findings and asks why the perspective of entrepreneurial learning is absent in the self-understanding of youth work. The starting point of the article is a metaphor of relationships.

Sometimes relationships face difficulties. Some relationships do not even get a chance to start. In real life this is usually a negative thing. In movies it is a great starting point for a narrative. One of the stories that creates a nice narrative for a film is about a couple that could make a perfect match but, for some reason, the partners do not seem to realize this fact themselves. They may be more inclined to see the differences than the similarities which could connect them to each other. Sometimes they fail. It makes a nice tear-jerker. A story about two different people who are not made for each other usually ends with the couple separating. This is usually a happy thing. We might be glad that they got rid of their unsatisfactory relationship. Perhaps both of them will find a better one?

In this chapter, I am reflecting on what kind of relationship exists between youth work and entrepreneurial learning. I am examining if it is a story about an essentially mismatched couple, or a story about two lonely agents who could...
be much happier with each other. Or to put it another way, is the relationship between youth work and entrepreneurial learning one where, despite some obvious similarities, the differences are more significant, or is it one where, despite significant differences, the similarities are stronger?

**SOCIALISATION AND PERSONALISATION**

Anthony Giddens (1991) has claimed that in recent modern societies uncertainty is becoming a basic emotion in our relationship to the world. This is manifested in the environmental crisis and the consequent uncertainty about the impact of political decisions on ecological processes, in the changing conception of work in market economies where unstable jobs and part-time work are becoming more common, or in the increasing youth unemployment after the monetary crisis. Times are changing and new challenges are emerging. The challenges and risks young people are facing seem to demand new forms of engagement with the young. Turbulent social conditions are perhaps one of the reasons why youth work is becoming an increasingly important form of building capacities and promoting learning in recent modern societies.

Theories of learning show an increasing awareness of the limitations of formal learning structures. The importance of engaging in a practice and learning through that practice is becoming better recognised. Perhaps learners may even re-create that practice based on what they have learnt (Billet, 2010). In short, the emphasis is based on learning environments and processes. The role of youth work as a non-formal learning environment means literally that the desired form and content of youth work varies from situation to situation. The professional relationship of youth work with young people is based on the voluntary involvement of those young people. The motivation to participate is usually intrinsic, since participation is voluntary and learning is not evaluated, at least not in strict manner. This means that youth work should be youth culturally sensitive to the matters at hand in order to create youth culturally attractive circumstances in which young people would be interested in participating in youth work. The voluntary nature of youth work means that young people are free to decide when they engage in youth work activities.

Youth work is a relatively loose profession. It relies heavily on tacit knowledge. Even the professional vocabulary is in some cases under-developed. Learning in youth work occurs in an adaptable manner beyond the spheres of formal learning systems. Learning processes are usually preplanned but the plans can and often will be modified during the process (Eshach, 2007). The perspective of youth work as a profession focused on learning of course emphasizes the educative component of youth work, and plays down the features of youth work perhaps closer to social work. In Finland youth work is seen as part of the educational system and is nationally supervised by the Ministry of Culture and Education. In some other European countries the border lines between youth work and social work are not so clear. The conception of youth work in this paper emphasises its educative side. This is not due only to the fact that the research material has been gathered in Finland: the interpretation of youth work in this paper emphasises that youth work is one of the agents responsible for acting pedagogically in the real lives of young people.

It is partly due to these factors that there is an inherent tension between youth work seen from two different perspectives. Youth work should simultaneously respond to the needs of society and to the needs of the young themselves. On one hand, youth work strives to re-establish the status quo for society. The goal is not to renew the processes but to make sure that the young have a chance to adapt to society. Interpreted more generally, youth work should be prepared to ensure that the existing social order renews itself. Socialising young people to existing structures is one the functions of youth work and also serves as an argumentative basis for financing youth work in dire economic circumstances. This is not the whole story, though. Unlike the socialisation perspective, youth work should help the young develop as individuals. Personalisation refers to a process through which the young can explore and discover their dreams, hopes and aspirations. The latter perspective also involves being able to act against the norms of society if the wishes of the young contradict them. Sometimes these two perspectives create tensions and a youth worker needs to find a balance between empowering young people to act for social change, and helping them to find their place in the given social situation. In this article, this tension between personalisation and socialisation is used to analyse the role of entrepreneurial learning in youth work.

Promoting entrepreneurial learning is based on a strong societal need. This might, in some cases, turn out to be a normal requirement where the young should fit into the existing structure prescribed by the adult society. The Ministry of Education in Finland states that ‘There is demand for young people in business. Young people often have the kind of knowledge, ideas and capacity for identifying with other young people that should be put to better use in the development of new services and products’ (Ministry of Education, 2009: 12). In this perspective, young people should use their skills to meet the demand (set by adult society or perhaps by the market). Responding to the demand requires them to develop the skills which are needed to be a successful entrepreneur. The skills and capacities of young people should be moulded to better fit business demands so that new entrepreneurs would be able to start-up companies. For these reasons ‘intensified measures are needed to encourage young people to embark on a business career’ (Ministry of Education, 2009: 13). It is unclear how youth work should be able to meet this requirement – should it be an agent responsible for encouraging young people by using intensified methods? And how would this transform individual learning?

One side of entrepreneurial learning emphasizes the social role of the young – being an entrepreneur, starting up a company, being persuasive when trying to sell, etc. This could be called a narrow definition of entrepreneurial learning. The broader definition concerns a certain set of individual abilities
and qualities. One should be flexible, creative, able to make brave decisions, take initiative and develop ideas. These entrepreneurial competencies ensure that the individuals are able to find their place in the labour market (Dahlsted & Hertzberg, 2012). The broader definition could indeed also be interpreted in a way that would also include the narrow perspective. This is a view adopted by the European Commission. The benefits of entrepreneurial learning also help the young to become more actively involved in their daily surroundings.

‘Whether or not they go on to found businesses or social enterprises, young people who benefit from entrepreneurial learning, develop business knowledge and essential skills and attitudes including creativity, initiative, tenacity, teamwork, understanding of risk and a sense of responsibility. This is the entrepreneurial mind-set that helps entrepreneurs transform ideas into action and also significantly increases employability.’ (Entrepreneurship Action Plan: 6)

In the two perspectives described above, the social conditions demand certain individual characteristics which could be developed by increasing entrepreneurial learning. A risk-taking, creative and inventive entrepreneurial subject is both a socially desirable agent (creating new jobs and contributing to the market) and possesses individually satisfying characteristics. Of course this kind of subject does not appear out of nowhere. For this reason, controlling education becomes necessary. The old way of educating is no longer enough. More is needed, to introduce effective entrepreneurial learning methodologies into the classroom. ‘Whether or not they go on to found businesses or social enterprises, young people who benefit from entrepreneurial learning, develop business knowledge and essential skills and attitudes including creativity, initiative, tenacity, teamwork, understanding of risk and a sense of responsibility. This is the entrepreneurial mind-set that helps entrepreneurs transform ideas into action and also significantly increases employability.’ (Entrepreneurship Action Plan: 6).

A modification of educational practices is needed to better saturate the young with the entrepreneurial spirit. This is a prime example of how the socialization perspective manifests itself: young people have to be equipped with certain abilities and ideas desired by a society. This in turn seems to require that current pedagogical practices should be re-thought and reformed to meet this requirement.

What is the status of youth work in this process? Is the emphasis more on the personalization (providing support to the young people to develop) than on the socialization perspective analysed above? Or is the socialization perspective interpreted somewhat differently? The starting point for this article is a scariness concentrating on growth might be confused with the formal educational system, which has partly colonialised the terms used to describe intentional ways of promoting learning. Words such as education or pedagogy have been used in a variety of ways in history. This seems to suggest that these words should not be seen as narrowly denoting the public education in schools. David Hamilton (2009: 15) says that pedagogy should be thought of as denoting the overlapping complexities of public, private and home upbringing rather than the delivery of direct instruction through public schooling. Historically, pedagogy has been used to describe a wide array of different practices in and outside school. What is perhaps essential to youth work as pedagogy is its open-endedness, the possibility of doing things differently, the avoidance of ensuring ‘a desired end is reached with a minimum of fuss, but rather always to complicate the scene, to unsettle the doings and understandings of those being educated, in order to keep the way open’ (Osberg & Biesta, 2006: 325).
In the Finnish project, the workers kept a work diary at the beginning of the process. There diaries were analysed thematically. After the analysis was completed, the results provided a basis for discussions with the researcher and the workers. As a result, a description of the principles that guided the workers in their interactions with the young people was provided. This in turn acted as a departing point for more detailed analysis. General guidelines are, however, adequate for the purposes of this paper.

When analysing the workers’ narratives about their work, it became evident that they aim to support a young person both as an individual and as a member of different social fields. A young person is seen as an active agent, as a personality whose growth needs nurturing, and also as an active member of different groups, communities and institutions. When youth work is successful, it manages to create processes that help young people develop as individuals and also helps them to find their place and influence their social relations. This means that personalization in youth work is not only seen as an inner process, it is also seen as a social process that requires attention to the different life contexts and situations a young person is engaged in.

Helping young people to develop as individuals involves promoting self-confidence, self-love, capabilities and empowering the young to fulfill their dreams. It also features supporting artistic skills and other means of self-expression. Helping young people to actualize their hidden potential is one of the key things in youth work. Youth work is based on the voluntary assent of the young, and the aims of youth work are achieved during a process in which young people fulfill their needs. This requires creating learning environments which support the development of individual skills in the company of others.

The young are seen as individuals in different social contexts, some youth cultural, some institutional and some political, to name just a few. Therefore young people are also always seen as in relation to significant others and different social systems. It was concluded that a relational perspective was also needed to describe what the basic principles around which youth work organizes its processes are. These relations were analysed as follows:

- **Relations between young people and other young people** (peer relations). The aim of youth work is to create social situations where the young are able to interact with each other. Fighting against loneliness, peer oppression and isolation is one of the mission of youth work.
- **Relations between the young and other adults**, such as parents, teachers, etc. (Inter-generational relations). Sometimes youth work aims at helping young people to better cope with their social networks.

- **Relations between the young and different welfare services.** The transitions from one ladder of educational system to another is one of the mission of youth work. In addition to this, youth work might work as a bridging agent helping young people to get social or health services.
- **Relations between the young and the local area.** The community work aspect of youth work extends the peer perspective and tries to help creating situations where the young are accepted as equal and valuable members of the community.
- **Relations between the young and society** (active citizenship, participation in the political life).
- **Relations between the young and the world and the eco-system.** Providing opportunities of engaging with different cultures, getting to know the ecological processes and learning how to become a citizen of the world are also principles guiding how youth work organizes its processes.

The results show that besides individual support, youth work is interested in promoting relations between young people and other different groups of young people, civil society and the welfare state. In this way, one of the ultimate goals of youth work is supporting primary relationships such as friendship, which have the potential for building self-competencies; it also works with communities, which in turn can provide self-esteem and dignity (Honmøth, 2005). This is an important task. The twin perspectives of promoting personalization and personal and societal relations highlight the enormous task of youth work.

The results of the process seem to capture well the commitment of youth work to working with young people in different roles. A notable omission, however, is the lack of interest in entrepreneurial qualities and, more generally, the relationship to the market system. The perspectives of the young as both consumers in a global economy and producers or entrepreneurs is lacking. This can perhaps be explained by the system-orientated nature of Finnish youth work, but it still seems to raise a peculiar question. When the increase in commercial culture, and the political impact of one’s lifestyle choices or life politics become more noticeable, why doesn’t youth work provide more support for developing the relationship between young people and the market? This seems to suggest that personal and social skills are seen as essential features of youth work but that the entrepreneurial or consumer skills are seen as alien to the profession itself. While the analysis is based on the self-understanding of a Finnish youth research project, it can be argued that similar tensions can be found in the research literature on other countries, too.
Youth work is about providing opportunities, enabling young people cultural expression, and responding to the needs of the young. There seems to be no inherent reason why at least some of the themes of personal entrepreneurial learning, such as the ability to transform and lead transformations, recognize novel ideas or inward critical self-reflection could not be part of youth work praxis. It can be argued that the absence of entrepreneurial learning as a manifest goal is in fact problematic in youth work.

Youth work has a wide perspective. It is not only about dealing with the young in a certain institution (young people in schools), in a problematic situation (the substance abuse of young people) or in a certain societal position (young people as voters). The definition used by Howard Sercombe (2010: 27) states that youth work is a professional relationship in which the young person is engaged as the primary client in their social context. This highlights the fact that youth work is a situational practice in which the immediate social and cultural context is important. Especially important, of course, is a youth cultural context. It can be argued that in order to understand the life situation of a young person, youth work should aim to obtain a wide perspective on what is happening in the real life context of the young person. To know a particular social context requires knowing the network of social contexts and roles a young person is engaged in.

The wide perspective of youth work is nicely formulated by Lasse Siurala. He states that ‘youth workers are proud of their comprehensive approach to youth. Unlike other professionals they do not divide people up according to the competencies of their respectable organization. Youth workers look at young people as a whole. A youth worker becomes expert in understanding young people as a unique person consisting of a large variety of life experiences and expectations.’ (Siurala, 2012, 108.) But if youth workers really are looking at young people as a whole and taking into account a large variety of life experiences, how can the roles of young people as consumers and future entrepreneurs be omitted? Or to use the discourse of relationships, why is their relationship with the labour market or the economy so marginal?

To be theoretical, the question is: are there non-commercial social contexts in the recent modern society in which consumerism reigns? If youth work aims to work with young people in their social context, this theoretical question has immediate practical value. Can the commercialized social context be isolated from non-commercial contexts? British media researcher David Buckingham states that it is increasingly difficult to make that distinction. He argues that relationships to others are at least partly built through consumption practices. In addition to social relations, individual identity or subjectivity is constructed through consumption. For these reasons he is doubtful whether it is actually possible to find a social context which is somehow totally not about consumption. (Buckingham, 2011) Although he uses the concept of consumption, it can indeed be claimed that young people are increasingly embedded in different economical practices. Learning the roles of consumer or entrepreneur can thus be seen as vital issues in a commercialized society. If the ethos of youth work does take into account these practices, it is fair to ask if it really is plausible to talk about engaging with young people as a whole.

Sometimes silence speaks louder than words. The absence of entrepreneurial learning or consumer education seems to raise questions about youth work. Does the commitment to collaboration and democracy mean that economic or commercial qualities do not belong to the ethos of youth work?

**ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING, CRITICAL AND SYMPATHETIC PERSPECTIVES**

The ethos of youth work, in Finland at least, does not seem to value entrepreneurial qualities. The perspective of peer-relations, intra-generational relations and a role in civil society is emphasised. The aim is not only to socialise young people to existing structures, it is also about empowering them to act as citizens. It is unclear if the perspective of entrepreneurship would contribute to this process. It has been claimed that promoting entrepreneurship in fact means changing the conception of what it is to be a human subject and also what important and valuable relationships are.

‘Viewed through the concept of employability, students are conceptualised as active, entrepreneurial, and (future) market dependent subjects who organize their daily practices around commercial norms. Thus the aim of restructuring around employability is to better prepare graduates for seemingly new economic realities in order to increase economic productivity and economic security.’ ( Faulley, 2012: 220)

According to the critical perspective, entrepreneurial subjects possessing these qualities are a result of technologies of self, or in other words, they are a result of internalized utility practices. The positive qualities of independent choice and risk-taking can be seen as manifestations of ‘new managerialism’ in youth work which aims at marketing the methods and practices of working with young people (Belton, 2010: 72-73). The critical perspective claims that if youth work submits to the demands of entrepreneurship, it ends up socializing young people to the status quo of the society. It does not help them to become critically aware of what is happening in society, nor to become members of human communities. So, it is claimed that socialization is a hindrance to personalization. If celebration of self-management (Sennett, 2006) and the extension of human kindness and collaboration (Belton, 2010) were the polar opposites one had to choose from, the choice for youth work would be obvious. If this were the whole story, the scarcity of entrepreneurial learning would not only be reasonable, it would also be an informed ethical choice. This might offer grounds for thinking that youth work could abandon entrepreneurial learning altogether.
But is it really that simple? Perhaps it might be a good idea to consider how young people themselves relate to the question of entrepreneurship. When studying the attitudes of young people in Finland, researchers Leena Haanpää & Simo Tuppurainen (2012) discovered that half of Finnish young people feel that the state of Finland does not encourage entrepreneurial culture. The motivation to become an entrepreneur was also low. One of the reasons for this was that the risks of failing as an entrepreneur were seen to be high. Creating an atmosphere and culture which could encourage one to become an entrepreneur is therefore not enough. Societal structures supporting entrepreneurship are needed too.

Young entrepreneurs themselves offered reasons worth considering for being an entrepreneur. These reasons included: being an entrepreneur makes it easier to use one’s professional skills and dispositions; entrepreneurship enables young people to work in accordance with their values and ideology; an entrepreneur can work with things he/she finds interesting; experience, knowledge and social networks enable an entrepreneur to operate successfully. (Haanpää & Tuppurainen, 2012.) The motivation for being an entrepreneur thus extends beyond commercial motives. The motives given combine personal and social considerations. This is clearly connected to the ethos of youth work, where support of one’s identity and social relations play a key role. The motives offered by young people show that being an entrepreneur is a social position which can give support to personalization and that can contribute to the community in many ways, including not only employing the young, but also helping the community to develop. These points of view seem to suggest that a skeptical or critical perspective on entrepreneurial learning is at least partly misguided.

Conclusions and Implications for Practice

The current situation for youth work, in Finland at least, does not include any strong commitment to promoting entrepreneurial learning. This article has reflected on reasons for this. It is time to ask what kind of relationship might exist between youth work and entrepreneurial learning. The argumentation in this article has shown that if entrepreneurial learning is interpreted as reacting only to the requirements of adult society, the critical perspective towards entrepreneurial learning is justified. The over-emphasis of socialization would obviously violate the ethos of youth work. However, as has been shown, this is not all there is to promoting entrepreneurial learning. The perspective of personalization is also available.

Learning to live in a commercialised society requires knowing one’s way around these settings. The social contexts of young people require an understanding of how consumption and entrepreneurship are domains both of control and creativity, of constraint and choice (Buckingham, 2011). Moreover, the motives for being an entrepreneur include a variety of reasons, including working for the benefit of society. If one of the key tasks of youth work is to enable the young to overcome their difficulties, work together and enable them to better fulfill their dreams and aspirations, the question of entrepreneurial learning has to be rethought. There are clearly ways of promoting entrepreneurial learning which fit well with the ethos of youth work.

Youth work practice should re-think the relationship of entrepreneurial learning to the ethos of youth work. There could be ways to improve promoting the relationship of young people to the market. The research of youth work should investigate different participation projects and point out existing links between youth work and entrepreneurial learning.

The relationship between youth work and entrepreneurial learning has been slow to start. There seem to be reasons for thinking that this is partly due to the delay in how youth work culture in Finland has perceived the many ways of being an entrepreneur. The relationship so far has not been promising, but there seems to be enough common ground to believe that it could eventually deepen in the future. It might be reasonable to suggest that in the future the developing relationship could be formulated in the manner of the movie Casablanca: ‘Louie, I think this is the beginning of a beautiful friendship’.


There is a compelling policy call for youth entrepreneurship in response to alarming rates of unemployment across Europe. Youth work is expected to act, but there is no easy answer. The diverse community of youth workers tends to have mixed opinions about the legitimacy of entrepreneurial learning through youth work. The dilemmas are rather implicit; they are often talked about, but rarely written about. This chapter aims to open up this debate. The main rationale is that a tacit refusal to engage in a discussion goes against the culture of dialogue that sits at the centre of youth work. The chapter aims to present some of the arguments for and against entrepreneurial learning through youth work, with the purpose of opening up a necessary discussion. This is a ‘reflection paper’ authored by a researcher familiar with the area of youth work, but not a youth worker as such. As this ‘outside’ position carries its own advantages, but also possible biases, the chapter will try to avoid being overly prescriptive. It is, ultimately, a very tentative and personal interpretation of the dilemmas and tensions facing youth work at present.

The ‘broader’ and the ‘narrow’ meaning: does it really make a difference?

A review of the literature (Gribben, 2006) identified two clear trends in the entrepreneurial learning environment. The first looks at entrepreneurial learning as primarily the domain of the business world. It is shaped by SME advisory...
Framing the context – theories, concepts and dilemmas

This chapter is based on the idea that entrepreneurship, be it broad or narrow
business-centred ‘narrow’ meaning, is a questionable ‘solution’ for youth work.
This broader meaning is considered to provide ‘an essential foundation for an entrepreneurial character or personality’ (Gribben, 2006: 4). This is the notion now taking prominence in the European Union, according to Gribben (2006) and which youth work is now invited to join.

In the ‘generous’ tradition of much research on entrepreneurship, this ‘broad’ meaning of entrepreneurship can be extended almost ad infinitum. Assisting young people in becoming creative, assertive, able to take initiative, self-confident, forward-looking, responsible, etc. should not pose major dilemmas to youth workers (with the exception of a potential Western cultural bias). It is, largely, what youth work has been doing for quite some time. Why is then, the issue so divisive?

One side of the argument is that the broad meaning of entrepreneurship is not only about business: entrepreneurial education ‘is not only an economic competence, but it is a competence of citizens’ (Faltin, 2001). It needs to focus on development instead of business management, and thus, to create new ideas to solve social problems. Indeed, there might be nothing wrong in assisting young people to develop creativity, and be responsible. It goes without saying that the set of negative characteristics linked with entrepreneurship (individualism, opportunism, boldness, excessive interest in decreasing costs and increasing profits, risk taking, cf. Weber, nd) remain less theorized in the arguments that invariably support the ‘broad’ meaning of entrepreneurial learning.

On the other hand, according to earlier research on formal education, both the ‘narrow’ and the ‘broad’ approach of entrepreneurship are ‘ultimately committed to, serving the interests of business, albeit through some intervening process of “personal development”’ (Smith, 1999). This line of thinking argues that the two notions of entrepreneurship are not, essentially, different and that ‘the argument is not about broad versus narrow definitions of the term, but about the unmasked (and therefore unanswered question) of “whose interests are served?”’ (Smith, 1999: 437). As a consequence, searching for extenuating circumstances behind the ‘broad’ notion of entrepreneurship as an alternative to engaging with the business-centred ‘narrow’ meaning, is a questionable ‘solution’ for youth work.

This chapter is based on the idea that entrepreneurship, be it broad or narrow in definition, is about business. The question is only about the type of business and whether or not youth work finds supporting a certain way of doing business closer to its ethical values. The private, corporate sector is accountable to stockholders rather than to any public constituency (Molnar, 2013). Youth work, on the other hand, promotes values of citizenship, participation, social justice, solidarity, intercultural understanding and critical thinking, among others. How does youth work positions itself with regard to the economic challenges of our times, given its intended separation from the commercialized social context? (see also Kiilakoski, previous chapter)

ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE CONFLICT OF VALUES – OR WHY ‘NO’

A large part of the youth work community questions what it sees as the ‘instrumentalization of youth work’ for employment/entrepreneurship purposes, at the expense of underemphasizing the ‘social dimension’ (Coussé et al., 2010; Krzanik, 2013). The call to respond to the economic imperative is at odds with youth work’s concern for intercultural learning and values such as tolerance to ambiguity, empathy and solidarity, which sit at the core of youth work (Cunha & Gomes, 2012). Entrepreneurship may not be appealing to youth workers, because as argued in Smith (1999: 443): 1. it prioritizes competition over cooperation; 2. it is short-term and focuses on immediacy, rather than long-term in nature; 3. it prioritizes private returns over collective or communal returns; 4. it is based on an analogy of the ‘survival of the fittest’, rather than assisting others in difficulty; 5. it is concerned with a calculative approach to measuring outcomes based on units of inputs; 6. ‘an almost fanatic pre-occupation with reducing every form of complexity to issues of the “bottom line”’.

As a consequence of embracing entrepreneurial learning in education, it is argued that young people learn less about understanding the world in its complexity and more about ‘extracting something from it’; they tend to avoid dealing with complex social problems, or to challenge an unjust status quo if not feeling personally threatened (Smith, 1999). Overall, entrepreneurship has an element of individualism which is incompatible with the principles youth work stands for: equality of opportunity, solidarity, social justice, critical thinking, cooperation and care.

Entrepreneurial learning has been the subject of intense debate in formal education (Smyth, 1999; Molnar, 2006, 2013; Maysoun & Stuart, 2009). There is much youth work can learn from the experience of formal education, where the notion of entrepreneurship was questioned because of the following risks: 1. the removal of processes likely to be critical of the business culture; 2. the research evidence showing that one can ‘teach enterprise culture’ is fragile; 3. falling into the ‘narrow range of enterprise ideology’ which promotes principles of greed as being virtues (Smyth, 1999).

Ultimately, there is a risk of narrowing the content, as fewer resources can be allocated to other social concerns (Smyth, 1999). This argument resonates with current anxieties over the democratic and emancipatory forms of youth work practice becoming increasingly vulnerable (Davies, 2013).
Entrepreneurship incorporates the idea of self-authorship, or control over one’s life and financial future (Ross, 2003; Dempsey & Sanders, 2010; Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991) which may render young people wholly responsible for their economic situation. This may be quite an unreasonable argument for a generation paying perhaps the highest price for an economic crisis they did not produce. Besides this, there is research indicating that small-businesses have a high-failure rate, although usually this type of information remains unpublished or less theorized (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). There are, thus, ethical concerns related to influencing those without previous employment experience to engage in entrepreneurship, without being thoroughly cognizant of the social and economic implications for themselves and their dependents. Furthermore, and as argued elsewhere, the idea that certain individuals lack entrepreneurial skills runs the risk of being qualified as gendered, racist, and classist (Smyth, 1999).

THE RISK OF DOING MORE HARM THAN GOOD

Entrepreneurship – in the sense of new business creation, is not for everyone. It requires the capacity to accept responsibility for assets (cash, investments, property, equipment, etc.) and, more importantly, the confidence to accept responsibility for liabilities (paying staff, suppliers, creditors, assuming legal responsibility for the wellbeing of fellow workers) (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). Young people also need to know that entrepreneurship may involve high opportunity costs. Previous research indicates that youth entrepreneurship may be ‘another cul-de-sac into precarious jobs’, likely to overburden individuals (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991; Smyth, 1999; Lin et al., 2000; Falton, 2001). In addition, youth entrepreneurship is subject to the same biases operating in employment settings. This becomes evident when young people need to secure trust from older, more influential and skeptical creditors, suppliers and clients.

Previous working experience seems to be an important correlate to success in entrepreneurship, but many young people lack this. Any previous working experience they may have might not have involved them being structurally positioned in organizational roles that exposed them to the type of information relevant for new venture creation (e.g. closer to management and the networks of influence). This makes entrepreneurship an uncharted terrain. And, unlike more experienced entrepreneurs who may form ‘strategic alliances’ (Borch et al., 2007) to represent their interests, there is not much collective action among young people who need to navigate the process in isolation.

For instance, UK ethnographic research involving 100 unemployed young people, who initiated a business following intensive entrepreneurial training and assistance during the 80s, depicts a depressing picture. Despite being appealing for psychological and social reasons (the idea of ‘being your own boss’), entrepreneurship became a dead-end effort for the majority. The small businesses young people created were short lived and largely ‘clones’ of some apparently successful local enterprises. Their initiators ended up competing with each other in the declining local economy. Young people needed to navigate complex, unfriendly bureaucratic environments, and work long hours with low pay. New business creation made the majority of those interviewed excessively indebted, overworked, insecure, lonely and stressed (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991).

On the other hand, youth work is mainly concerned with promoting social inclusion and challenging a dominant culture that is discriminatory (Cunha & Gomes, 2012). It involves activities with and for young people. Besides, entrepreneurship may have different meanings for minorities and immigrants facing discrimination in employment. It may be a sensible choice for some, but previous research showed that it can also be a last resort solution for those excluded from other channels of social mobility (i.e. employment, education) (Low & MacMillan, 1988; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). Under these circumstances, youth workers may be better equipped to fight the discrimination that pushes immigrants into entrepreneurship out of necessity, than in teaching minority youth how to assume their marginality and open their own businesses.

Nevertheless, there is great promise in assisting young minority women to become self-reliant by entering entrepreneurship (either as new business creation, cooperative, partnership or mutual associations). Economic autonomy means greater chances of getting health care, education for themselves and their children, making more informed choices, gaining a voice in family and community life, etc. Yet, women’s entrepreneurship is also linked with some critical barriers that make such endeavors more hazardous.

If carried out without concern for potential harmful consequences, entrepreneurial education risks subjecting young people to a ‘you can do it’ attitude, which can deepen their economic vulnerability. There is a great risk of causing more harm than good if pushing them without sufficiently prepared, into the hurdles of a process that is insufficiently informed, excessively bureaucratic, and which subjects them to an unfriendly crediting system or biased clients/customers. When carried out in the absence of some structural, protective measures, entrepreneurship may further young women’s sense of powerlessness, adding pressure and major stress (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). Thus, embarking on new business creation needs to be an informed choice, linked to an element of ‘personal readiness’.

For instance, young women’s empowerment is certainly within the scope of youth work. Opening up a business is a powerful discourse that many young women (and youth workers) may find appealing. However, youth workers need to ensure there are strong reasons for considering entrepreneurship as the avenue for personal and community growth. There are many ways of assisting young, minority women in their (economic) struggles and entrepreneurship may be a solution for some.
A solid argument against entrepreneurial learning is that there is no evidence that it can be ‘learned’. Young people are included in a process that is critically under researched. It seems that the ‘entrepreneurial’ characteristics perse are not operational and offer no support for structuring a coherent education around the notion of being enterprising; there is not much research demonstrating how to instill particular ‘entrepreneurial skills’: how to go from a set of characteristics to actual behavior (Pepin, 2012). Besides, it seems that prosperous entrepreneurs would have succeeded anyway, without any educational support (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991).

What research does indicate, however, is that entrepreneurship is ‘not a function of the entrepreneur alone, but also of the lucrative opportunities’ (Venkataraman, 2000). It is seems that the success in areas like Silicon Valley has more to do with a friendly economic climate than with individuals having the ‘right skills’. It has been argued that the current state of youth unemployment not a matter of skills, but of absence of state-driven structural measures; that it is more a ‘discourse of crisis’ than a reasonable solution and that ultimately, it is meant to avoid a dependency culture and to deflect attention away from problems like deindustrialization and global restructuring (Smyth, 1999; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991).

**What about young people’s concerns?**

Practitioners love to say that youth work starts where young people are at. When young people define the problems themselves, it emerges that unemployment is one of their major concerns. The results of a major consultation with 11,000 young people across Europe during the 2013 Irish Presidency speak about the profound way in which unemployment affects their lives. Unemployment means more than the absence of financial resources, as it interferes with young people’s social, cultural, political and private lives. It follows that if youth work starts with the ‘needs, interests and aspirations of the young people themselves’ (Delvin, 2010: 100), it need not remain indifferent to young people’s struggles, which are also economic. Is declining to play a role in this, a sensible choice? Remaining in ‘splendid isolation’ in the name of protecting professional autonomy (Cousseé et al., 2010) is, to a certain extent, a sensible option. At the end of the day, it may well be that youth work does not need to promote entrepreneurship. The crisis is not only economic, but also social, political or moral in nature and youth work has an established record of responding to this. However, a value-driven entrepreneurship needs the principles of youth work. A question arises if youth work has the capacity and motivation to engage in reshaping young people’s entrepreneurial (and consumer) culture. How would the entrepreneurial learning, as practiced in schools and universities, (increasingly ‘experiential’ and, at times, corporate-driven) differ from the one used in European youth work? The following part argues that the difference may lie in youth work encouraging critical reflection; focusing on social justice and thoroughly interrogating the notion of power.

**Back to values. Or why not?**

Variations in entrepreneurship have been correlated with societal cultures. According to the, now classic, research of Hofstede & Minkov (2010), there are five national dimensions of culture that intersect the work and organizational cultures’, namely: 1. power distance (the way power relations are perceived: inherent or questionable); 2. individualism vs. collectivism (the degree by which people define themselves apart from their group memberships); 3. masculinity vs. femininity (the emphasis on personal achievement, competitiveness and materialism vs. quality of life, caring for the weak, cooperation, environmental awareness); 4. weak vs. strong uncertainty avoidance (how anxious people are about the unknown: in cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance, people prefer explicit rules, tend to work for the same employer, unlike in cultures with weak uncertainty avoidance); 5. long vs. short term orientation (the importance attached to the future versus the past and present: persistence/perseverance, thrift, and shame vs. immediate stability, respect for tradition).

It is difficult to relate entrepreneurship development with a certain cultural profile, as different forms of entrepreneurship emerge under different cultural conditions. For instance, it is certain that high power distance is unfavorable to a climate that promotes change and innovation, but it is problematic whether a weak uncertainty avoidance (and thus, propensity for risk) is invariably favorable to entrepreneurship. For instance, according to Hofstede, for German culture, it is precisely its high avoidance of risk that led to its great development in the automobile industry. The current critique of risk avoidance, might, thus, be misleading.

Importantly, Hofstede’s cultural dimensions provide a context for revisiting the forms of entrepreneurship thus far (eg. the focus on competition and material achievement as opposed to cooperation and care, or the dangers involved in a short term orientation). During the economic downturn, it became evident that profit maximizing entrepreneurship (a characteristic of the masculine dimension of culture) and short term orientation involved high social risks. ‘Placing profitability above all other considerations’ creates an economy that ‘exacerbates poverty, disease, pollution, corruption, crime and inequality’ (Yunus, 2007: 5 cf. Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013: 211; Yi, 2013). Research at the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development argued that neoliberal policies tended to subordinate the social to the economic (Yi, 2013). For instance, according to Yi (2013), the increase in economic growth represented as GDP, is an indicator of economic activity and success (for some), but
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“The problems cannot be solved with the same mindset that created them” said Einstein. It is now becoming evident that we need a “radical departure” from the subordination of the social to the economic (Yi, 2013). We need alternative means of looking at performance in ways that account for social impact; alternative views on capital that include common ownership and respect for the environment (Yi, 2013; Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013). Young people need to develop a new, fresh understanding of entrepreneurship in ways that challenge the mainstream business approaches and integrate concerns for social and environmental issues. According to Yi (2013), educational systems after the Second World War were built on a relative aversion to manual labour. The more recent tendency for speculation at the expense of production of capital can be read against this background. The emerging entrepreneurial education needs to account for this shift.

As argued in Yi (2013) and Ridley-Duff & Bull (2013: 205), we need a culture of cooperation and interdependence, different from competition, a ‘network mindset’ and social impact, instead of dependence on ‘visionary’ individuals. Besides this, the changing notion of creativity and innovation may involve overcoming a rather romantic notion of an individual pursuit, and involve teamwork, openness to others’ views and a strategic exchange of ideas. At the more personal level, (social) entrepreneurs need to leave themselves ‘open to change by adopting a reflexive attitude when others challenge their assumptions about the entrepreneurial process’ (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013: 207).

These are all ways of practice very much in line with youth work. For instance, they resonate with the youth work notion of ‘tolerance to ambiguity’ that values uncertainty, and in-determination in cultural encounters (Cunha & Gomes, 2012). Moreover, due to its practice of ‘de-centering the power of the dominant culture’ (Cunha & Gomes, 2012), youth work is able to address some of the uncomfortable questions in entrepreneurship: ‘Who is setting the (business) agenda? How much attention is paid to member, public and beneficiary interests? How much voice is given to founders and investors?’ (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013: 243) For the time being, schools and other forums rarely touch upon such issues.

When the relationship between young people and society (including economy) is neglected, ‘the void is often filled with more technical interpretations of “social interventions” and a simplistic tendency to “integrate individuals under the prevailing societal conditions”’ (Coussé et al., 2010: 129). Moreover, as argued by Yi (2013), ‘without providing adequate education and training to equip people with knowledge and skills to deal with policy issues, the empowerment and participation may end up with a service to the powerful and the rich’. In this respect, youth workers are better positioned to help young people make sense of the current turbulent times in a way that incorporates awareness of the structural forces at play.

Not only do we need a new type of social policy, new entrepreneurship and business culture. We also need a new kind of citizenship that holds entrepreneurs accountable. Youth work can incorporate ethical perspectives regarding other economic actors as well. Producers and customers are often missing from the current discussions about entrepreneurial learning. So are the concerns related to environment and ethically-made products. This means dealing with the ethical tensions involved in commercialism, among others. As argued in earlier debates on the role of youth work:

‘It is no part of our aim to achieve a comfortable integration of the youth and adult populations, nor to attempt to socialise the young so that they are reconciled with the status-quo, and capitulate to its values. The aim should be to establish a dialogue between the young and the rest of society; a dialectical and not necessarily amicable process… there can no longer be an underlying consensus about all the issues which face our society’ (Davies, 1999; cf. Coussé et al., 2010: 126)

Bearing this in mind, some of the issues to be incorporated in youth work activities include: 1. a critical examination of profit-maximizing entrepreneurship, based on human rights principles (see Kirchschläger’s chapter, pp.238); 2. awareness at the structural regimes of oppression (gender, race, class, colonial history, North-South unequal developments) and the way they intersect economic development; 3. practices of community mobilizing and social entrepreneurship; 4. positive attitudes and values towards social justice and the disposition to act to create peaceful social change (Bryony & Momodou, 2011). In the long run, as argued in Burrowes-Cromwell’s chapter (pp.254), youth work may eventually inform more sustainable enterprise to emerge and thrive.

ALL THINGS CONSIDERED...

Against such a troubling background, what are the options for youth work? The current discourse on entrepreneurial learning needs to be positioned in the present economic, political and social context, but also with regard to the historical developments in youth work. It recalls the debates on youth work and employment during the 80s and is likely to inspire a much needed reflection on the mission and role of youth work. Without being overly prescriptive, this section can, at best, draft some tentative and personal thoughts, hopefully able to contribute to this intricate debate.

Paraphrasing the Fairbairn-Milson Report from the 70s, one could argue that we cannot answer the question ‘What kind of [entrepreneurial learning] do we want?’ until we have answered the more fundamental question ‘What kind of society do we want?’. There seems to be increasing agreement that we need a business culture and social policies that incorporate the ‘largely abandoned issues such as attitude and behavioural changes in favour of tolerance, respect for diversity, non-violence, solidarity, and trust’ (Yi, 2013). Could/should youth work contribute to this?
Given its critical role in shaping the minds of the potential creators of economic and social values, entrepreneurial education should not be the monopoly of some. It may well be that youth work can go on without engaging in entrepreneurial learning. However, youth workers may agree that entrepreneurial learning needs the values and principles of youth work. There is no conflict of values when youth workers encourage young people to search for greater social meaning if deciding to open an individual or collective business. This would respond to the call for youth work to 'retain core values in ways that are relevant to changing social circumstances' (Cooper, 2012: 98).

We witness the current processes of stimulating young people to engage in economic development and agree there is much that entrepreneurship can learn from the achievements of youth work (see also Burrowes-Cromwell's chapter, pp.254). As suggested by some practitioners, there may be great resistance from the young people socialised into profit-maximizing business models, to the idea of social entrepreneurship, for instance. Entrepreneurial learning needs to be shaped by a fresh understanding of the social and youth work may contribute to this. Youth workers need to advocate the rehabilitation of the social value in relation to the economic, or, as argued by Yi in another context, to 'mainstream the social' (Yi, 2013).

Moreover, current entrepreneurial learning (and policy making) tends to reduce entrepreneurship to a single economic model: individual, small-business creation. But there is also, a collective nature of entrepreneurship that values democratic ownership and control of business. (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). 2012 was the UN International Year of Cooperatives, one of the most resilient economic models during economic crisis (ILO, 2009). According to Ridley-Duff & Bull (2013), Europe has a ‘democratic and cooperative heritage’ in entrepreneurship, which is different from the ‘business-like emphasis’ of Anglo-American approaches (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013: 65). Entrepreneurial learning needs to position itself in relation to this European notion of social enterprise, which values solidarity and democracy (bottom-up governance, capacity to respond to social issues) (Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013: 60). See, for instance the emerging concept of citizen entrepreneur, where values and attitudes promoted in youth work (trust, civic spirit, cooperation, respect for human dignity) are reflected.

Nevertheless, making young people and youth workers (solely) responsible for socially mindful entrepreneurship is far from realistic. Achieving ethical entrepreneurship is primarily a matter for the economy, political, and legal institutions (Baumol, 1990; Harbi & Anderson, 2009). There are many stakeholders that claim a legitimate interest in entrepreneurial learning: from governments and European policy institutions, the business sector, local communities, young people, activists, researchers, corporate-sponsored neoliberal organisations, professional societies, and training-providers (Matlay, 2009; Sukarieh & Tannock, 2011). Working with and in between so many irreconcilable interests requires youth workers to be critical and self-reflective practitioners.

Bearing in mind the above dilemmas, it becomes understandable that youth workers should not be asked to encourage young people to become entrepreneurs. They are not qualified to teach them how to make a business plan, to assess the feasibility of business opportunities, or whether (certain) young people have what it takes to be entrepreneurs. There are too many ingredients in a successful entrepreneurship beyond the control of youth workers (and young people, alike). But if young people make an informed choice about starting a business (individually or collectively), youth work can enrich their understanding of the social, in order to enable more responsible economic behaviors. Moreover, as recently argued, youth workers also need to articulate the purpose and value of their work to politicians and the public; in doing so, they need to explain the assumptions about society, young people, values, and mechanisms for personal and social change (Cooper, 2012: 97).

The discourse on youth entrepreneurship unleashed a wave of overconfidence, bringing with it high expectations from the field of youth work. The community of practitioners needs to treat it with realism and engage in a cogent debate on what is and what is not within the capacity of youth work. Youth workers need to remain reflective and critical of the language they use and maintain the questioning, critical orientation that shaped their professional culture. They need to challenge the dominant managerial rhetoric embedded in what MacDonald & Coffield (1991) named ‘“hurrah” words like “creativity”, “initiative” and “leadership”’. According to Weber (nd), entrepreneurial education ‘exists in order to enlighten individuals about the economic situation they live in, to increase their chances, to help them arrange their lives in a self-determined and responsible way’. Accordingly, enthusiasm may be a rare product of an educational process, but it surely is not supposed to be its goal’ (Weber, nd). As seen above, promoting the rhetoric on ‘entrepreneurial spirit’, despite being appealing, contains numerous risks.

Unless it is careful about what is being done in the name of good, the chances are that in the long term, youth work will be caught up in what Ley’s (2001) called ‘market-driven politics’. The ultimate consequence of this process would be reshaping the evaluation of youth work, not in terms of values promoted, but in terms of economic outputs or some ‘entrepreneurial dimensions’. Assumed uncritically, the call for entrepreneurship is likely to add a novel ‘pillar’ to youth work and thus to add to the ‘compartmentalisation’, questioned by Cossée (2010) in another context. It will distinguish between youth work that is ‘entrepreneurially oriented’ and youth work that is not. Most probably, a new tier of trainers and youth workers may find a professional niche and, in the process, the business sector may gain a greater say in youth work. This ‘worst case scenario’ has already taken place in some parts of formal education in The US and Europe, with all its consequences: promotion of the corporate ideology which de-emphasizes the caring ethos and prioritizes the individual interest, the pressure for schools/universities to move towards partnerships with the business sector at the expense of other social projects, a low capacity for monitoring the quality of what is being transmitted when educators are not involved (Smyth, 1999; Molnar, 2006, 2013; Sukarieh & Tannock, 2009).
Youth work needs to educate young people about the advantages and drawbacks of entrepreneurship in order for them to make informed decisions. It can inform them about the competing expectations of various stakeholders. Supporting young people in a process that ends with them deciding they are not suited for an entrepreneurial career is as valuable as confirming their entrepreneurial tendencies (von Graevenitz et al., 2010; MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). But one should be reserved about a ‘you can do it’ approach that pushes young people to take economic risks that may increase their initial vulnerability. The discourse on youth entrepreneurship is both powerful and appealing to young people. Youth workers need to raise awareness when entrepreneurship is not an informed choice, but arises, rather, out of necessity and is likely to cause more harm than good.

In the final analysis, small business creation is only one possible way of addressing the problem of youth unemployment. Other ways include assisting striving enterprises, supporting them to employ young people, encouraging young people’s participation in alternative business models such as cooperatives, mutual associations, or ensuring their voices are heard in trade unions, etc. (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991). On the other hand, such alternative economic models have remained less theorized and may not be free from their own dilemmas and tensions (MacDonald & Coffield, 1991; Dempsey & Sanders, 2010). Ultimately, the Call for youth entrepreneurial learning and the competencies that have emerged have been criticized for having an essentialist and reductionist view on culture. Yet, there is a large agreement that there is some value in the five dimensions, which are very resilient to change. The author also warned against the dangers of applying them to the individual level.

Teaching how to make a business plan is a requirement in many activities with young people. Research, however, indicates prudence in using it, even for those who do want to start businesses (Bridge et al., 2010). Ridley-Duff & Bull (2011) argue that writing a business plan is a requirement of crediting banks more than an intrinsic need of an entrepreneur.


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UN (2013) Contribution of cooperatives and youth cooperatives to youth employment and entrepre neurship, An analytical report.


Framing the context – theories, concepts and dilemmas

Co-operatives were established with the objective of improving the economic conditions of those who have less opportunity to improve their lives. During its 150 years of activity, the co-operative movement has become increasingly important. The International Co-operative Alliance (ICA) is an independent, non-governmental organisation established in 1895 to unite, represent and serve co-operatives worldwide, and also to be a guardian of the co-operative identity, values and principles, which are the basis of all co-operatives. Its members come from all sectors of the economy (agriculture, banking, consumer, fisheries, health, housing and insurance), from one hundred countries, representing one billion individuals worldwide; one hundred million people work for a co-operative locally. The acknowledged worldwide importance of co-operatives and their contribution to social and economic development can be summarised in the words of UN Secretary General Ban Ki Moon during the UN International Year of Co-operatives: ‘Co-operatives are a reminder to the international community that it is possible to pursue both economic viability and social responsibility’.

Today, we can see that entrepreneurship is constantly evolving. New economic challenges force us to deal with new technologies and a new global framework and, at the same time, with relevant local issues such as unemployment, environmental emergencies, economic crises, abandonment of rural areas and the related values and traditions.

ROBERTA TROVARELLI

Roberta Trovarelli has worked in Legacoop Emilia Romagna since 2009. She is in charge of Co-operative Promotion and International Projects and Relations. At the moment, together with the territorial structures of Legacoop, Generazioni (the network of young co-operatives) and various public and private stakeholders, are committed to developing measures to actively promote the co-operative movement and the creation of start-up co-operatives.
New generations face a challenge and they are at the heart of the solution. They have the skills to understand the changes and they show a renewed awareness and attention to values like honesty, sustainability, respect, and the right to work. These are the priorities which emerged from a survey that Legacoop – one of the main organisations representing co-operatives in Italy – has commissioned for young people under thirty (Swg, 2012). That is why Legacoop believes that young people are closer to the values of co-operation and are the solution for a more sustainable and ethical future.

**WHAT IS A CO-OPERATIVE? PRINCIPLES AND MODES OF ACTION**

According to the International Co-operative Alliance (ICA), a co-operative is an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common, economic, social, and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly-owned and democratically controlled enterprise. So, the role of people in a co-operative organisation is central and is the reason for the existence and creation of the co-operative. Importantly, ‘co-operatives are based on the values of self-help, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, equity and solidarity. In the tradition of their founders, co-operative members believe in the ethical values of honesty, openness, social responsibility and caring for others’ (ICA, 1995).

This leads to the idea that people are at the centre of this kind of economic organisation. Each co-operative is created by a group of people who choose and define the way in which the enterprise is going to be run. All co-operatives across the world are based on seven principles, which guide the way the values are put into practice.

1. Voluntary and Open membership
2. Democratic member control
3. Member economic participation
4. Autonomy and Independence
5. Education, Training and Information
6. Co-operation among co-operatives
7. Concern for community

The spirit of a co-operative lies in the reasons for its establishment, namely to respond to common needs, with democratic management.

The above principles mean that specific behaviour is required of co-operative owners, in line with the following ideas:

- Voluntary and open membership: a co-operative is open to all persons able to use their services and willing to accept the responsibilities. So, it is a collective project which includes the capacity of all the members and allows the members to develop their own capabilities and their entrepreneurial spirit.
- Democratic member control: one member-one vote means that members control the organisation, they are part of the decision-making process and set out policies. A co-operative ‘chief’ does not exist and each co-operative chooses its governing representatives.
- Member economic participation: the members are equally involved in terms of capital investment and decisions, strengthening the democratic aspect. Part of the equity is dedicated to the co-operative itself and its development.
- Autonomy and Independence: each co-operative is autonomous and its self-help organisation is controlled by the members. A co-operative can receive external resources (enterprise, public organisation, etc.) but retain its co-operative autonomy and the members continue to make decisions in a democratic way.
- Education, Training and Information: co-operatives invest in training and allow their members to develop their own capabilities for co-operative development and improvement.
- Co-operation among co-operatives: each co-operative must reinforce the co-operative movement through local, national and international structures.
- Concern for community: a co-operative is run with respect for the environment and local sustainable development. Inter-generational spirit leads co-operatives to act with respect for the environment and future generations. Co-operatives are part of the local community and they engage in socially responsible behaviour.

A co-operative’s sustainability is built on three pillars and requires the balancing of social, economic, and environmental components. All of these values make a co-operative a special type of business, with strong links to its territory, to the local community and the protection of employment. But the co-operative is also an enterprise that has to succeed on the market, compete with other players, and respond to new challenges in a more efficient way and with respect for people’s needs.

What sets co-operatives apart from other types of enterprises is the way in which they achieve their goals. A co-operative focuses mainly on people and not on profit. Unlike private companies aiming to maximise profits for their shareholders (often by decreasing the income of producers), the ultimate goal of a co-operative is to satisfy the needs of its members, whether they are workers, consumers or users. So the co-operative is an enterprise which first and foremost creates value within the society it operates in. Co-operatives have been classed as three main types. The first is a ‘worker-owned co-operative’. This means that the co-operative is created by workers, who provide co-operative work (hence the resulting key figure of the ‘working member’). These co-operatives are widespread in the industrial, construction and design and service (catering, transport, cleaning) sectors. The second is ‘the consumer-owned co-operative’: this co-operative is created by individuals who take advantage of the co-operatives’ goods and/or services in a more favourable way compared
The history of co-operatives in Italy began back in 1854. It was only 10 years after the first co-operative experience, set up in England by the ‘Rochdale Equitable Pioneers’ Society’. At present, the Italian Constitution (1948) recognises the social function of co-operatives operating with a non-profit and mutual aid approach (art. 45). The legal system promotes and favours the co-operative as a type of association using the most suitable means and, with suitable controls, ensures its nature and objectives. A recent reform (Legislative Decree n°6/2003) also awards some tax breaks to co-operatives with ‘prevalence of mutual aid’. These advantages apply to co-operatives which do more than 50% of their business with members of the co-operative.

The co-operative movement in Italy now consists of 80,000 co-operatives, 1,382,000 jobs. The three main organisations representing Italian co-operatives officially joined together to establish the Italian Co-operative Alliance. This new organisation represents 43,000 companies, over 12 million members, and a turnover of €127 billion, 7% of GDP. There are more than 1.1 million employees (6% of the Italian population) 45.5% of them women (compared with 38% in firms which are not co-operatives) and co-operatives represent 11.5% of enterprises employing more than 1,000 people. The decision to become part of the same Alliance shows that ideology is no longer dominant. Even at representative association level, ‘together is better’.

The co-operative movement is permanently in search of new challenges. Considering that a co-operative is created to satisfy common needs, and the way in which the co-operative has a long term vision, it can be a tool used in response to the increasing need for socially and economically sustainable development; development featuring greater fairness and social cohesion, providing opportunities for generations of youngsters. Innovation can be brought about by co-operatives and some proposals have already been put forward.

For example, in some small towns in the Italian countryside, which tend to be depopulated, residents have created a community co-operative, which searched for solutions to keep locals engaged and stop them from moving away. The solutions were found in developing local tourism and offering fundamental services for the community, such as social – welfare services, services in the public interest, and shops, but also work in agricultural, forestry, artisan and renewable energy sectors.

Another relevant experience is Cooperare con Libera Terra, an agency which promotes co-operatives that work on confiscated assets. Created in 2006, the agency is backed by some of the biggest Italian co-operatives and Legacoop, and provides an instrument for the development of co-operatives which manage confiscated goods legally taken from the Mafia (agricultural fields, houses, firms), according to a national law. Libera Terra is the label with which the organic products of Libera co-operatives are marketed. For the members of these enterprises, being together means working against illegal systems for a fairer, more responsible economy.

### Legacoop: Background information

Legacoop Emilia Romagna is the main organisation representing co-operatives in Emilia Romagna and uniting co-operatives and their economic subsidiaries in various sectors. This Italian region is home to the country’s highest rate of co-operation. Legacoop Emilia Romagna brings together 1,500 enterprises, representing more than 2.5 million members, 156,000 employees and €30 billion of production value. Legacoop Emilia Romagna covers the entire region and all the economic sectors (industrial, agricultural and service sectors) responsible for organising co-operative – based solutions to meet the needs of their members (producers, workers, consumers, inhabitants, users, retailers), with a carefully structured network of local and sector-based Legacoop units which work in a co-ordinated fashion.

Legacoop Emilia Romagna represents co-operatives when dealing with the authorities, other business organisations and workers’ trade unions. It promotes start-up co-operatives, and their establishment and development towards innovation and internationalisation. One of the missions of Legacoop Emilia Romagna is to promote the co-operative movement. For that purpose, it has recently launched a dedicated website, (farecooperativa.it) through which it proposes a path for approaching co-operation for all those people potentially interested in obtaining more information, and also for all individuals who are ready to take direct action.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN ITALY

The co-operative movement is permanently in search of new challenges. Considering that a co-operative is created to satisfy common needs, and the way in which the co-operative has a long term vision, it can be a tool used in to the market. The main examples are large-scale distribution chains in co-operative form, although these co-operatives are also widespread in other sectors (telephony, electricity distribution). The third is ‘the producer-owned co-operative: this co-operative is created by individuals who provide products to be processed and sold or services to be provided for work taken on by the co-operative from private and public purchasers. There are many examples of this type of co-operative in the agri-food sector, such as cheese factories. Members of these co-operatives are milk-producing farmers. The co-operative collects the raw material and converts it into cheese, also handling the marketing and distribution of the finished product.
Farecoopertaiva is particularly focused on young people looking to start-up an enterprise, and who are convinced or are evaluating the idea of setting up their business as a co-operative. These may include university researchers with a new, brilliant idea to put onto the market, or even new graduates who have decided to jointly face the world of employment by forming new co-operatives of knowledge (where working members have increased levels of education and expertise in the world of science or advanced services).

One of the values of the co-operative movement is its inter-generationality. Legacoop Emilia Romagna promotes three different projects to work on this issue. The first is Rete Regionale Bellacoop, a specific programme for young people, allowing students from 15 to 18 years old to work on co-operative subjects through the creation of a virtual co-operative in order to develop their entrepreneurial spirit. This project is supported by a local Legacoop and managed by Legacoop Emilia Romagna. The second is Generazioni, an open and democratic network, that keeps attention focused on generational turnover, promoting insight and projects. Managers, workers and members of Legacoop Emilia-Romagna co-operatives who are younger than 40, can be part of it and participate in the activities or attend some seminars or training. Generazioni is a network where young co-operators meet to face current and future challenges. The third project is Seniorcoop, an association of retired co-operative managers who volunteer to support the promotion and the creation of co-operative start-ups. In this way, Legacoop Emilia Romagna supports the start-ups and the initial period of consolidation of the new co-ops and takes care not to lose the know-how acquired through the experience of a lifetime.

The spirit of the above three projects is to involve people, and to make them part of a collective movement, throughout their lives. It is important to pay particular attention to young students who are likely to develop the co-operative movement in the near future. They are part of the first stage of the co-operative chain and it is crucial, from the start, to involve youngsters and make them aware of the potential of co-operatives to respond to the current challenges.

**Bellacoopia: A project for presenting co-operative economic models to young people**

**The context**

Emilia-Romagna, has been ‘the land of co-operation’ since the end of the 19th century and its economic and entrepreneurial fertility are proof that this type of social economy is truly entitled to continue providing business opportunities in this region. Emilia-Romagna is one of Europe’s top regions in terms of its number of co-operatives and it certainly has far more co-operatives than any other region in Italy. Statistics indicate that just under one out of every two inhabitants is a member of at least one co-operative. The following part will present a project aiming to raise awareness of co-operative values in secondary schools students in the Emilia-Romagna region.

The idea of working with schools and in particular with young people preparing to enter the world of work comes from the historic, cultural and economic roots of the Emilia Romagna region. Co-operative enterprises are inter-generational and never truly ‘owned’ by the members working in them; instead they belong to the community where they were created, expanded and perhaps where they prospered. It is therefore important for young people to get to know what co-operatives are, so they can discover the social importance and economic value for the region they operate in. This is why Legacoop Emilia Romagna promotes a project that accompanies students and teachers on a journey to discover a different way of participating in the economy, where the focus of the enterprise is on people and their needs. Amongst other things, it includes awareness of safety, welfare, education, and solidarity in the workplace.

The training project is applied mainly at a territorial level, through specific activities in schools, aiming to encourage youngsters’ entrepreneurial skills and a knowledge of the area’s co-operative background. It supports young students in creating virtual co-operatives, to allow them to experience what running a business means and applying the principle of learning by doing. Young people learn by team work to value their own ideas and to apply a democratic approach in decision making. The project represents a fruitful exchange between formal learning and working experiences.

By and in 2008, the activities developed on the ground became a regional initiative under the name ‘Bellacoopia Regional Network’. The aim of the project is to link and emphasise all local initiatives of education in co-operative values, and is mainly targeted at high school students. It is a strategic action that in more than ten years has involved 50 schools in 8 provinces, 723 classes, 14,500 students and 833 submitted projects.

The Bellacoopia Regional Network is financed through public and private national, regional and local funds: co-operatives, a regional fund to promote and develop mutualistic co-operation in Emilia-Romagna, local chambers of commerce, local banks and foundations, the Italian Documentation Centre on Co-operatives and Social Economy. The interest of all these different types of bodies in the project shows that Bellacoopia is considered useful and of added value to young students.
In practice, each class or group of students develops its own business idea, taking care of all the entrepreneurial aspects through the creation of a simplified business plan. They are supported by their teachers, by tutors provided by Legacoop, and experts from the co-operative world. The most innovative business ideas are finally selected to participate in the last stage of the project. The students, approximately 250 each year, who have put together the best project ideas, are invited to the final regional event to attend the awards. This is an opportunity for prompting reflection on the co-operative movement, and for summing up the main ideas they learned throughout the year.

In this way the Bellacoopia project ends with a celebratory event entirely conceived and designed for and with the participants. In 2013, Legacoop Emilia Romagna will propose a laboratory focused on the concept of inclusion. The youngsters taking part in the final – on 5 November 2013 – will work with animators, communication experts and social enterprises, to put together a survey that will remain open for the 2013/14 school year. This survey will cover the subject of inclusion in the world of work, in one’s own town, in school, and will end with the publication of a ‘younger’s sustainability manifesto’ which can be used for dialogue with public and private stakeholders in order to find out the opinion of young people about their future and the areas where they live.

The next part will present the different stages involved in its implementation.

The Call is launched in high schools in September, by local Legacoop associations. Each school can apply for classes of students in the 3rd or 4th year, by indicating the number of classes, motivations and expected results of the participation. Some selection criteria might be applied (for example to give priority to new schools) but the general approach is to include all applicants.

In a second stage (Didactics and methodology), each class is assigned a tutor, who comes from the co-operative system. This person has the task of assisting the teachers who welcome, within their programme of activities, training on the co-operative model. The tutor presents the co-operative business model, principle and values to the students using an interactive approach (co-operative games), to stimulate business ideas. They are also coached to receive a business plan training and the training programme for meeting with experts and experienced co-operators, as well as visiting the headquarters of some co-operatives in the area.

The third stage puts students in a real situation in which they have to create a co-operative themselves, so they are asked to identify a business idea, to decide on the sector and type of cooperative, to perform market analysis, to focus on the innovative aspects of the idea, to develop a business plan, and to identify and highlight co-operative values in the structure of their co-operative.

The fourth stage involves the selection process and local awards. In April, all the classes submit their projects to the local Legacoop association. A local pool of experts from Legacoop and co-operatives assess and select the best project according to the following criteria: understanding of co-operative values; creativity and innovation; entirety of the project; social responsibility; sustainability and feasibility. In May each local Legacoop organises an event to recognise the three best projects. All the groups who submitted a project give a presentation of their ideas during the event.

In the fifth stage, the three best projects in each local contest go on to the regional contest ‘Bellacoopia Regional Network’. A regional committee of external experts and Legacoop’s officers is in charge of the evaluation and selection, in line with the evaluation grid described above.

In the Autumn, Legacoop Emilia Romagna organises the regional celebration described earlier. The co-operative movement uses this initiative to address the world of education, to promote its values of mutuality and solidarity amongst young people by giving them the opportunity to learn about their region by working hard but also enjoying themselves.
Further developments

Bellacoopia Junior: In some areas the Bellacoopia project is also used in primary schools. In some provinces experimental work has been carried out to also involve students in primary education. Rather than being based on competition, such experiences focused on explaining co-operative values through games and interactive workshops, as well as providing kids with a concrete idea of what a co-operative is. In some cases the class carried out research on the history of a co-operative from their city, going to visit it and learning how it was established and developed. Other experiences went even deeper, with the class that set up a co-operative school growers’ association for flowers and vegetables, for example.

Bellacoopia international: is a successful experiment from several years ago. Due to economic difficulties, it has not been repeated. The aim of this action was to make students understand that the co-operative movement extends around the world and applies the same principles and values everywhere. The law is different from one country to the next but there is a universalism of values shared by a billion members worldwide. Young people are the most promising carriers of ethical messages.

To work together on common values, with young people from different countries and with different social and economic backgrounds, was an exciting experience for the tutors, teachers and promoters. We furthermore assessed that it was important to create future links and exchanges of good practice by bringing together young people from an international background.

From 2008 to 2009, Legacoop Emilia Romagna organised a double exchange between Italian and Argentinian students during their summer holidays (August for Italians and January/February for the Argentinians) to develop inter-culturality and see the differences and similarities between the co-operative movements in the two countries.

The topics covered during these two exchange periods were: insights into co-operative sectors such as industry, services and social co-operation that do not yet exist in Argentina; a two-week experience in Sunchales, the capital of Argentine Co-operativism, in close contact with a youth movement totally devoted to social responsibility and with interesting experiments to create student co-operatives within high schools. Those co-operatives supply services to students and the school system, and organise activities which are socially useful for the area in which they are based.

These kinds of exchanges create the opportunity to strengthen the international co-operative movement and give young students the chance to have a special experience which can make them grow up in a very positive way and develop their entrepreneurial spirit.

Bellacoopia Europe: another interesting experience was managed by Legacoop Forli Cesena, the ‘Bellacoopia Europe’ project. It was created as a Youth Initiative, Action 1.2 of the ‘Youth in Action’ Programme in 2009. The main goal was ‘to raise young people’s awareness about co-operation and its values, encouraging their creativity and entrepreneurship as well as their capacity to work as part of an international team’.

The first Bellacoopia Europe involved 16 youngsters from Italy, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom, for 6 months. It had 3 different phases: in the first one, ‘the youngsters met in Forli, where, through workshops, visits, meetings with experts of the co-operative world and roundtables, the group agreed on a common idea of European co-operative enterprise’ to develop. In the second phase, each national group worked in its own country to develop the business plan of the SCE, so that, at the end of this phase, 4 business plans were conceived. Four business plans for four enterprises which would operate in each partner country. In the last part of the project the participants met up again in Forli to approve the business plans and to present their work to local and regional authorities during two public events.

How the project was received by participants

Business seen by students

The students who work on this project are between 15 and 18 years old; they are aware of what a business is but they are too young to really understand all the implications of creating an enterprise. We believe that making them the protagonists of this project triggers a process of training that will enrich them with perspectives and visions for their future, even if they do not intend to study economics and become entrepreneurs.

First of all, they learn to discuss and justify their ideas and, democratically, choose the best one. Working in teams, they collaborate on a business plan, elect the corporate bodies, create a logo for their co-operative, identify aspects of mutuality, and enhance sustainability issues; all of these actions create positive dynamics that remain with the class, hopefully even outside the school context.

The tutor’s role in this process is very important, as is empowering the teachers. Legacoop’s objective is to pass on to young people the co-operative experiences, tradition and values. The Bellacoopia project is the tool that allows us to do so. For students, knowing how to create a co-operative and how it is managed is part of a process of awareness that encourages the future development of entrepreneurship. Each student, after being part of a project, acquires new skills, abilities and is more capable of understanding the economic world and its challenges. It can also be the first step in a life project. Videos and interviews show faces which are concentrated, smiling when working at the computer,
sometimes disoriented when working with numbers, proud when they explain their project to the audience, intimidated when they have to interview the president of a real co-operative.

**The importance of values – solidarity and sustainability**

The students show that they care about inclusion and solidarity. They understand the importance of teamwork and helping each other. This element is what interests the organisers most. The teamwork skills are important, whether they choose to become co-operators, or they choose another path in their lives.

The environment always features heavily in their projects, as well as the issue of territorial development. The importance of the enterprise’s social responsibility is always highlighted in their projects and students, i.e.: future workers, teach us that the environment is not just a marketing choice but a way of considering society and people. The competition puts them in the position to be as imaginative as possible, and some projects have innovative ideas in terms of technology and social innovation.

**Bellacoopia in the future**

One of the roles of the Legacoop Emilia-Romagna association is to promote the co-operative movement and values in the region and at international level. Links have existed for years between co-operatives and the representative association. Reinforcing those links, working at school level is an important challenge. Bellacoopia could be a good way to make it possible. Furthermore, the experience of exchanging know-how with foreign partners was a real success and can create new links that could be developed with co-operatives in the future.

The Bellacoopia project allows students to imagine a virtual co-operative; but not an unrealistic one. The project is excellent training for them, as they can learn by experience, really getting involved in the project. Giving them the opportunity to have a real working experience in a co-operative is a project that Legacoop Emilia-Romagna could develop. Indeed, after a year of immersion in the co-operative world, in contact with co-operators, young students seem to take advantage of and improve their knowledge by working in a co-operative, for example, during the summer. The idea is to assign internships to students in co-operatives similar to those which were planned during the Bellacoopia project.

The Bellacoopia junior project could be developed by making primary school students the authors of a book in which they could develop stories about co-operative values, or research the co-operative tradition in their territory. This initiative could enhance the path to regional social and economic development through the stories and testimonials collected from students. It would also allow an in-depth look at aspects of the world of work that seem just as crucial now as they were in the past (immigration, work for women, economic crisis).

Finally, as it is not possible to have students create a real co-operative, it could be an interesting experience for them to manage a co-operative project, setting up a school co-operative association. The association would have the same function as a co-operative and it would be a first approach to the working world. Some experiences have already been implemented by students: e.g. an association which organises the sale of school books at the end or the beginning of the year.
NOTES

Today, the ICA represents 260 member organisations, 96 countries and 1 billion members; The ICA Asia-Pacific (ICA A-P), based in Delhi, founded by Shri Jawaharlal Nehru in 1960 represents 26 countries. In Europe, the ICA represents 171 organisations, 267,000 co-operatives and 163 million members and in America, there are 88 member organisations from 22 countries.

Prevalence of mutual aid means co-operatives which primarily do business with and for the benefit of their members.

REFERENCES


FURTHER INFORMATION, RESOURCES & TOOLS

ERASMUS FOR YOUNG ENTREPRENEURS: THE EUROPEAN ENTREPRENEUR EXCHANGE PROGRAMME

Raluca Diroescu

WHAT’S IN YOUTHPASS FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING?

Kristiina Pernits

A TOOL FOR THE SELF-EVALUATION OF INTERNATIONAL YOUTH ENCOUNTERS

Wolfgang Ilg
Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs is an exchange programme, financed by the European Commission. It operates in the countries participating in the Competitiveness and Innovation Framework Programme (CIP), with the help of local contact points, competent in business support (e.g. Chambers of Commerce, start-up centres, incubators, etc.). Their activities are coordinated at European level by the Support Office for the Programme. This financial scheme comes under the Small Business Act for Europe.

Erasmus for young entrepreneurs is aimed at helping new or aspiring entrepreneurs to acquire relevant skills for managing a small or medium-sized enterprise by spending time – from 1 to 6 months – in a company in another participating country. The stay is partly financed by the European Commission.

The programme contributes to improving their know-how and fosters cross-border transfers of knowledge and experience between entrepreneurs. The exchange of experience takes place during a stay with an experienced entrepreneur, enabling the new entrepreneur to acquire the skills needed to run a small firm. The host...
It is a win-win collaboration whereby both participants (the new entrepreneur and the experienced one) can also discover new international markets or business partners and different ways of doing business. In the longer-term, the participants benefit from wide networking opportunities, and, possibly, decide to continue their collaboration, as long-term business partners (e.g. joint ventures, sub-contracting activities etc).

A person can participate in the programme as a new entrepreneur if he/she is seriously planning to start a business, based on a viable business plan, or has started his/her own business within the last 3 years. His/her (future) company or activity can be in any sector and there is no age limit.

An eligible host entrepreneur must be the owner-manager of a small or medium enterprise or a person directly involved in entrepreneurship at SME board level. Moreover he/she should have run a company for more than 3 years and be willing to share knowledge and experience with a new entrepreneur and act as a coach/mentor.

The financial support offered to new entrepreneurs contributes to travel and subsistence costs during the visit. The grant will be paid by the local contact point chosen by the new entrepreneur. The new entrepreneur and his/her local contact point sign an agreement which determines the funding granted during his/her stay, and how it will be paid in practice (e.g. partial payment at the beginning of the stay, monthly payment, etc). The financial support is calculated monthly and reflects the overall living costs of the country of stay.

An example of a supported project:

New entrepreneur: Flavien Nowack
France – Age: 20 – Start-up
www.champagne-nowack.com

"For me the EYE programme was a very good opportunity, formative from any point of view, as much in exchange of knowledge as in terms of human relations. I have also quite improved in English, a real advantage for me. It is certain that our relations will not stop with the end of my EYE stay."

Host entrepreneur: László Hernyák
Hungary – Age: 53 – 17 years experience
www.hernyak.hu

"Our collaboration has been fruitful and enriching for both Flavien and our family. The plans for further cooperation between both are more than promising and challenging. His integration skills are very good. He adjusted very soon and became in a very short time a member of the team and family."

Period of exchange: 10/2010 until 12/2010
Duration of exchange: 2 months

Flavien Nowack is a passionate young winemaker who is going to take over his 10-hectare family vineyard in Champagne and would like to add a white wine called ‘Blanc de noirs’ to their Champagne range. László Hernyák is a fervently experienced winemaker and winemaker. He set up his own family enterprise in 1993. His love for the job led to the founding of a local wine route organization and a local body for origin control (Etyek Codex). His participation in the EYE programme was a unique opportunity to not only benefit from the competences and skills directly transferred by an experienced winemaker, but also to enjoy a professional mobility experience abroad and, in so doing, gain the adaptability required by the job in the current difficult economic climate. For László the EYE programme gave him the opportunity to share his passion and exchange practices as well as develop a ground for further cooperation.

Flavien took an active role in harvesting, both in the vineyard and the cellar, as well as in various other tasks, such as pruning. He also got involved in activities linked to wine tourism and gastronomy, which was a new experience for him. He accompanied his Host during promotions of Hungarian winemaking and participated in exceptional tasting events.

Flavien improved both in practice and theory as well as in tasting, promoting, and sharing working methods and techniques with both his host and his host’s son – Tamas Hernyák, previously EYE New Entrepreneur in France.
WHAT'S IN YOUTHPASS FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING?

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Youthpass is an instrument in the EU youth programme to recognise the learning of the participants in the projects supported by the programme. It is a reflection process to help them become better aware of learning, it is a certificate that confirms their participation and documents the learning outcomes, and it is also a strategy for enhancing the recognition of youth work and of the non-formal and informal learning taking place in such projects. To describe the learning outcomes in the certificate, the framework of the eight European key competences for lifelong learning is offered.\(^9\)

The recently published Youthpass Impact Study\(^{10}\) showed that Youthpass is greatly appreciated for the fact that it supports better awareness of what a person has learned when participating in a European youth project. As such, it also supports awareness of the diverse contexts of learning in general, and helps people to better understand what they would like to learn and how they might do it, and to take responsibility for their learning.


\(^{10}\) For an overview of where the key competences come from and what they are, see: europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/lifelong_learning/c11090_en.htm
But how does this relate to entrepreneurial learning?

It goes without saying that what you are better aware of, you can use better in your daily activities. There might not actually be a big difference in the learning outcomes from a project between the participants that do reflect on them and those that don’t; but, it is more likely that the young people that have gone through the reflection process and documented the outcomes, are better capable of presenting and applying the new competences they have gained. The impact study revealed that using Youthpass has contributed to raising young people’s self-confidence, an important basis for the can-do-attitude needed for an individual’s future path, whether as an employed or self-employed person.

Youthpass is also a place to specifically document one’s entrepreneurial skills. One of the eight European key competences that can be used in Youthpass is called ‘sense of initiative and entrepreneurship’. As such, it provides a specific place in the certificate to highlight the experiences that relate to, for example, turning a project idea into action, finding creative and innovative solutions to different situations in a project, organising support and cooperation, as well as the resources needed and available for the project, etc.

Last but perhaps not least, Youthpass might well be one of the documents needed when setting up your business, in a situation where the relevant competences and experiences need to be highlighted. Why not give it a try!

‘I can’t say it’s a ‘Youthpass success story’ but Youthpass was one part of the success… One of my local participants involved in a youth exchange last year, was for the first time in a self-confidence process after a long period of educational and personal difficulties. Youthpass used as a tool, especially with him during and after the project allowed us (him and me) to highlight abilities, competencies. Those elements gave to him a positive self-vision useful for his future. Then, in the following months, he obtained a first qualification and a part time work as youth worker.’ (youth worker, Youthpass Impact)

A tool for the self-evaluation of international youth encounters

Much is being assumed about the effects of international youth exchanges. One has the feeling that participants gain a lot in terms of social and personal competences, also acquiring a basic sense of entrepreneurship. Nevertheless too often such assumptions rely on individual perceptions of the leaders without a reliable empirical basis. Sophisticated scientific studies need a huge amount of time and money and are thus restricted to rare occasions. This situation was the starting point for an evaluation project aimed at providing an easy-to-use tool for the self-evaluation of international encounters. The evaluation system is available for free and can be used by all interested persons.

The evaluation tool

The tool is a free, tailor-made evaluation process for a simple and, at the same time, scientifically proven evaluation of international youth exchanges. All processes are based on standardised questionnaires which can be adapted and independently evaluated by the organisation itself.

Wolfgang Ilg

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During each youth exchange programme, the questionnaires can be filled in by up to three target groups:

1. the programme organisers (at the beginning of the programme, to define the objectives, approx. 20 minutes)
2. the young people involved (on the last but one day, approx. 20 minutes)
3. in addition, the group leader has to fill in a short questionnaire to collect data on the general conditions (after the end of the programme, approx. 5 minutes) For a basic evaluation, it is sufficient to only use the participant questionnaire.

The questionnaires cover a wide range of almost all the topics relevant to international youth exchanges, such as satisfaction with basic conditions (food, accommodation, rules). They also allow young people the opportunity to give feedback on issues like the sense of community within the group, and the perception of behavioural or attitudinal changes caused by the exchange experience. As the questionnaires are kept short for practical reasons, none of the topics can be dealt with in depth. The questionnaires can be filled in by up to three target groups:  

- Participants should be able to co-design the exchange program.
- We participants had the chance to design the programme for the exchange together.
- The participants should have the opportunity to discover new sides and talents in themselves.
- I discovered new sides and talents in myself.
- The participants should be encouraged to think about social and political issues.
- During this exchange, I thought a lot about social and political issues.
- Participants should be able to discover new interests and hobbies.
- I discovered new interests and hobbies during this exchange.
- Participants should learn and practice the other language(s).
- I have improved my foreign language knowledge.
- Some participants should be stimulated to think about being a staff member for such an exchange programme themselves.
- Sometime in the future, I would like to be a staff member in an exchange programme.

The evaluation process is based on the principle of ‘joint self-evaluation’. The organisations carry out the questioning independently and can send in their data voluntarily and anonymously to the scientific management team. The whole process is free of charge and can be used by everyone.

Over 35,000 questionnaires have been evaluated with this process since 2005. It is a win-win situation: the local organisations receive a detailed feedback – the social scientists gather an important collection of data allowing them to have a close look at international youth exchanges from a scientific point of view.

The development of the evaluation system was started by the Franco-German Youth Office (FGYO) and the German-Polish Youth Office (GPYO). The crucial step towards internationalisation was made in 2013, when the ‘Easy English’ questionnaire was developed with the help of IJAB, the International Youth Service of the Federal Republic of Germany.

The free software GrafStat, with its convenient input mask, allows the acquisition of the responses given in around 30 questionnaires per hour. Without further work, one can receive detailed result graphics, average values and other statistical parameters. Previous knowledge of statistics is not required.

Now, questionnaires are made available that can be used for nearly all international youth exchange programmes. The questionnaire in ‘Easy English’ is kept simple in terms of language, so that young people from about the age of 16 with an average knowledge of school English can answer the questions.

**ILLUSTRATIVE RESULTS**

The evaluation produces results from all participants on a quantitative basis. This provides helpful facts on the perception of international exchanges and is meaningful for interpreting their effects. The graph (below) displays some of the statements from the participants (17 years old on average). Many more results can be gained by using the evaluation tool for individual exchange programmes.

![Graph of statements from participants in international youth exchanges (17 years old on average).](image-url)
GENERAL PRINCIPLES FOR THE EVALUATION PROCESS

- The goal is to make the self-evaluation of programmes for every organiser as easy and convenient as possible.
- The evaluation tool shall be exclusively used for quality development and not as a ‘surveillance instrument’.
- All persons working with the tool commit themselves to treat the data provided to them as confidential. Anonymity has to be guaranteed at all levels.
- The data delivered by the individual organisations shall be continuously collected and combined.
- The data shall be examined and evaluated in an open and self-critical manner.
- Assessment and interpretation shall be carried out in cooperation with all parties concerned.
- Further development of the tool is desired, however only on the basis of firm scientific standards as they have been set by the current project.
- All persons using the evaluation tool ensure transparent implementation.

The results have been printed in several publications, most recently in Ilg/Dubiski (2011).

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What does learning look like in a social voluntary organization for young people and how are exchanges and negotiations of social value related to the processes of social learning and entrepreneurial ability? This chapter includes the use of an ethnographic approach to look into this question, and reflection on the pedagogical implications. The research is based on a five month intensive anthropological field study in a British affiliate of the American charity, City Year in London. There, primarily 62 volunteers between the ages of 18-25 were observed in order to gain an insight into their social exchange activities and learning processes. Out of the 62 volunteers, a team of 10 were followed in their daily activities as mentors and role models for public primary school children and community servers, dedicating one year of full time volunteering to their city, London. The method is a mix of multi-sited ethnography (Marcus, 1995) and economic anthropology. The chapter approaches the concepts of social value and learning in the field of social entrepreneurship from an anthropological and social learning perspective. It introduces and observes community learning in practice (Lave, 2011; Lave & Wenger 1991) seen as reciprocity forms in micro-exchange, observing mainly non-agonistic giving, receiving and reciprocation within the organization (Godelier, 1996; Mauss, 1954; Sahlins, 2004).
The chapter argues that the volunteers’ capacity to navigate between the various modes of exchange in this cross-sectorial field is a condition in need of careful handling and, at the same time, part of the development of entrepreneurial skills. An entrepreneurial ability is developed through the combination of gaining experience by representing ethical values, consciously contributing to the organizational marketability and sustainability, whilst also bearing in mind their individual value on the job market in the future. As a consequence, learning as such reflects the organizational setting between sectors. The traditional paradox between the organization’s social and profitable side is not mirrored by the volunteers however: the volunteers individually shift more flexibly between, and even manage to take advantage of, the various and diverse value systems which the organization is poised in-between. When observing learning in practice in a charity, the distinction between formal and non-formal learning dissolves as non-formal learning settings are strategically facilitated as part of the organization’s didactic methods. Learning in the organization is seen as a consequence of social interaction forms which strengthen the individual’s participatory skills and ability to act out solidarity in a context of multiple stakeholders and cultural cross-values represented as an intercontinental humanitarian mentor society, the financial market, and a group of peers interacting with their local community.

THE EMPIRICAL FIELD: CITY YEAR LONDON

“There are some bad things that we’ve managed to import from America: surprisingly slow sports cars, Windows spell check; and there are some fantastic things that we’ve imported from America: from rock ‘n roll to Krispy Kreme Doughnuts. But there’s one fantastic and very, very valuable thing that I don’t think we have had yet to acquire in this country in sufficient quantity, and that is the American culture of philanthropy and giving – and we need to get it over here! [...] I believe we’re creating a new culture of volunteering here in this city, and about time too. And I’m proud to say that City Year, you guys are playing a pioneering role. Thank you very much!” (City Year London, 2010)

City Year was established in Boston, USA in 1988. The idea originally came from two university students in the late 80s and Joseph Campbell’s books ‘Myths to live by’ (1972) and ‘The Power of the Myth’ (1988). To give an idea of the learning philosophy behind this, the books represent a Jungian approach to ‘the hero’ as a symbol of development through personal mythmaking, storytelling, and symbolic interaction in the passage between adolescence and adulthood (Jung, 1991; Campbell, 1972). Socially, City Year is based on the vision of a racially and socially unprejudiced meeting place, which would constitute an accessible opportunity for young people to contribute positively to community change through participation in voluntary community service. City Year gained funding from the AmeriCorps program, urging everybody to serve their community in the US, starting under former President Clinton and later supported by President Obama. As a charity, City Year London is registered with the objectives of ‘advancement of education for young people’ and ‘poverty relief’. The main London office is a clean, professional looking place with grey, red, black, and a touch of yellow in a matching interior arrangement. When you arrive you are also greeted by their symbolism and ethics, represented by a symbolic explanation of their logo and a Gandhi-quote: ‘Be the change you wish to see in the world’. The volunteers are offered the opportunity to do so through: ‘[...] serving schools in deprived communities, acting as tutors, mentors and role models. We tackle two of the biggest welfare issues in the UK: educational under-attainment and youth unemployment’. (City Year: give a year change the world, 2010). The focus is thus both on educating London school children and improving the opportunities of employment for the young volunteers later on. City Year is an example of how some of the consequences of the current financial crisis have resulted in an increasing tendency to outsource some public welfare service tasks through the communities’ social voluntary activities. All around Europe this has given rise to severe cuts in public spending; and the American tradition of community service and young people investing their time and energy in their local communities continues to gain focus in Europe. Where in America the effort in voluntary community service was rewarded by inclusion through activity and a strong general sense of community and nation, the current European version seems to add the focus on ensuring better individual opportunities in the working community (Frumkin, Jastrzab 2010, Revsbech 2012). There are 27 City Year sites around the World and the red jackets can be seen in 25 City Years in the US, one in Johannesburg, South Africa (since 2005), one in London, UK (since 2010), and an affiliation in Birmingham, UK currently starting up (2013).

Importing a City Year program from America to London was mainly initiated in 2010 by the Mayor’s Fund of London, a founding partner of the program along with the Private Equity Foundation. The UK version of City Year in London called for some alterations and adjustments, but not to an extensive degree. The volunteers are called ‘corps members’, from the idea of a group of people, fighting together for the same cause. (City Year London staff, volunteer instruction August 2011). The corps members volunteer in schools alongside the teachers, acting as role models in class and in the playground, Monday through Thursday every week from August to July. Furthermore, City Year facilitates ‘Community Service Days’ where schools are painted and their gardens tended by volunteers, both from City Year and the public, who are also invited to take part in these voluntary activities. Fridays are ‘Leadership Training Days’ where the entire group of volunteers gathers at the main office in Islington to take part in sessions led by the staff and invited members of the board, sponsors, and collaborative partners. When in group the volunteers are very eye-catching in their red bomber jackets or sweat shirts (also known as ‘the reds’), white t-shirts, beige boots and khaki trousers. The uniform is iconic and crucial to City Year, and is worn with pride but also calls for some personal adaptation.
by the volunteers. Being an active part of City Year means an inevitable opening up to its ways and values, expressed in culturally distinguished characteristics linking an underlying universalistic philosophy with their societal aim, practical function and collaborations. The philosophy is represented by leading humanitarian figures like Mahatma Gandhi and Martin Luther King. These strong narratives amplify the both myth-like stories and personal anecdotes which constitute the organization and its individual practicing idealists.

**METHODOLOGY**

Between August and December 2011 I closely followed the newly established corps. My five month City Year London experience as an ethnographer was thoroughly enriching and intense, following the volunteers up to 80 hours one week. The research question with which I entered the field was this:

*What does learning look like in City Year London; and how are exchanges and negotiations of social value related to the processes of social learning? What are the pedagogical implications of these processes?*

‘Approaching these questions from an ethnographic point of view comes across the fact that observing action needs presence, observation, and listening through qualitative field work. The anthropological view contributes to social learning theory with its sense of location and social research, and through the close-up, on-the-ground observation of people and institutions in real time and space [...]’ (Lave, 2011). The volunteers and I had our start-up in City Year simultaneously, and within the first week the volunteers themselves started asking me about my research, encouraging me to contact them for interviews. Most of them had come straight from university themselves, and shared my academic interest in social research projects. Everyone linked to City Year came forward as involved and committed participants, taking their moral task seriously. The high level of commitment set the standard high in terms of my punctuality and continuity as a field worker. People dressed smartly for the interviews with me, thus inciting me to dress differently than I probably would have done in a Danish voluntary organization. City Year is run as a professional business with a social aim, leaving an impression of ambiguity, but also clearly a potential survivor as an innovative business, social or not, which has not shown its humanitarian and moral face in this manner in order to manage in market competition. Furthermore, social responsibility, community, and voluntary engagement are all ways that can be strategically used for stepping up to this demand, expressing solidarity for the surrounding environment, target groups, supporters, and customers. It is part of common branding, creates good will, and is taught and played as networking and dating strategies to win sympathy.

Through the pre-studies to this project, in Denmark and the UK, I came across community centers and voluntary organizations that conclusively preferred to discursively construct socially or financially challenged participants as ‘learners’ rather than ‘vulnerable’. The choice was made to improve participant motivation, as well as for funding and branding reasons. People did not, but probably needed to, see themselves as categorically lacking the ability to change. ‘Learning’ normalizes and signals personal flexibility and it induces hope in the individual of a different state of life and mind in the future. ‘Learning’ as part of an image of a better future is sometimes convenient and helpful and sometimes causes unintended confusion between expectations which differ from present reality; this confusion potentially jeopardizes the processes of actual self-recognition and self-worth needed for social participation in social exchange (Mauss 1954). The concept of learning thus takes many forms and its future-speculative forms are confused with the ongoing social activity which can be ethnographically observed10. As a consequence of the theoretical social learning perspective, asking questions about learning in organizations, in which social interactivity and collaboration is at heart, seems a popular pleonasm. Traditionally, learning is defined by psychology in terms with them and observed the volunteers pledge their time and commitment while zipping up their uniform jacket for the first time, as well as graduate as civil service role models by the end of their city year. And I have watched them in schools, doing their best to cope with the combination of organizational expectations, their much-coveted personalities, and the everyday practical conditions.

**‘LEARNING’ IN A SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURIAL SETTING**

During the field research it became clear how City Year London performs as an organization which is widely legitimized in a market economic logic (Polanyi, 1968). This is seen through the effort to document and produce an assertion that some kind of learning goes on. Years of searching for learning in voluntary and institutionalized settings shows that ‘learning’ organizations in the market economy describe learning as something which is added, offered or sold to the community and is what keeps them financially afloat. Anything seems marketable and the documentation burden surrounding how a business benefits social society works as a social guarantee for e.g. ‘corporate social responsibility’. Whether direct or indirect, ‘learning’ is a common way of proving and articulating that any activity contributes to social life and the people who invest themselves in it (Revsbech, 2012; Illeris, 2000). There is hardly a sustainable business, social or not, which has not shown its humanitarian and moral face in this manner in order to manage in market competition. Furthermore, social responsibility, community, and voluntary engagement are all ways that can be strategically used for stepping up to this demand, expressing solidarity for the surrounding environment, target groups, supporters, and customers. It is part of common branding, creates good will, and is taught and played as networking and dating strategies to win sympathy.

Through the pre-studies to this project, in Denmark and the UK, I came across community centers and voluntary organizations that conclusively preferred to discursively construct socially or financially challenged participants as ‘learners’ rather than ‘vulnerable’. The choice was made to improve participant motivation, as well as for funding and branding reasons. People did not, but probably needed to, see themselves as categorically lacking the ability to change. ‘Learning’ normalizes and signals personal flexibility and it induces hope in the individual of a different state of life and mind in the future. ‘Learning’ as part of an image of a better future is sometimes convenient and helpful and sometimes causes unintended confusion between expectations which differ from present reality; this confusion potentially jeopardizes the processes of actual self-recognition and self-worth needed for social participation in social exchange (Mauss 1954). The concept of learning thus takes many forms and its future-speculative forms are confused with the ongoing social activity which can be ethnographically observed10. As a consequence of the theoretical social learning perspective, asking questions about learning in organizations, in which social interactivity and collaboration is at heart, seems a popular pleonasm. Traditionally, learning is defined by psychology in terms

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of transfer and cognition (Illeris, 2000). Describing learning processes in voluntary organizations can indulge in yet another attempt to capture the presumed cognitive outcome of learning to develop a guide to facilitate learning in terms of earning (Lave, 2011). This chapter incites a distinction between learning as a concept of visualization and ideal on the one hand, and the social activities which can be observed to frame learning processes on the other. The distinction between formal and non-formal learning is not dealt with here, because facilitating non-formal learning space is seen as something which is didactically focused on in this setting. As a consequence, non-formalized social learning activities are included in general teaching methods, consciously facilitating a wider space for action as a supplement to confrontational teaching. Moving learning from its cognitive origin and into ethnography and observations seems particularly attractive when it comes to social entrepreneurship, where social action defines a great part of the participants’ cultural identity (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

**Learning in City Year London**

Learning in City Year London thus proved to be a plural concept of at least three aspects which intertwine and co-exist: the commonly understood cognitive term, observed to be useful investments in market documentation and as discursively empowering individuals; the philosophical idealism and universalistic concept regarding learning as personal mythmaking, introduced by Campbell, J.: ‘What actually goes on’ – a spontaneous layer where social learning interactivity can be followed by presence.

The co-existent learning aspects challenge each other fundamentally and constitute a cross-concept and thus theoretically a paradox in social behavioral strategies and reciprocity forms (Polanyi, 1968; Sahlins, 2004). The layers intertwine in spite of being antagonistic to a great extent. Particularly the fusion of the two organizational layers, for example, effect the everyday life and learning processes of the volunteers, e.g. in public appearances, where the volunteers represent a business driven charity. The oxymoron ‘business-driven charity’ constitutes a unique type of brand in which the business and the charity aims do not eliminate each other and are accepted as reality; they simply need to co-exist. The individual volunteers’ market orientation is expressed through the common object to improve their chances in the job market. As a supplement to the organizational ethics and the demand for competitiveness in the job market, the volunteers cultivate amongst themselves a strong social layer of generalized kinship behavior where observable activities and changes in spontaneous behavior are seen (Sahlins, 2004). The everyday reciprocal culture of the volunteers seems to counterweigh the strong organizational agendas, much as comedy and satire have been seen to function as a social release in cultures from ancient Greece to contemporary Denmark. The various social exchange patterns, or economies, presented in the three bubbles, each hold a moral set of cultural values which indicate the perception of relational proximity between the participants (Sahlins, 2004). These studies show that people are engaged in various cultures of sociality and exchange simultaneously, and are more or less naturally able to shift between the different modes of exchange. City Year London expresses their awareness of this ability in their volunteer recruitment strategy where a sense of ‘nous’ is an important factor. The volunteers recognize the same ability in practice as ‘code switching’, a sense of propriety while still carrying the courage to express and contribute with authenticity and individual whims. In navigating in this code switching, networking, as another example, is observed to be challenging for the volunteers to learn.

In an exchange perspective, the networking strategy is an occasional social market strategy (Hart, 2012) and in practice was observed to clash with spontaneous and humorous ways of building trust. In this arranged sociability everybody knows but nobody talks about the fact that people socialize mainly in the interest of making financial use of the relationship. The hidden but not hidden agenda inspires distrust and calls for balanced reciprocity in a general reciprocal setting (Sahlins, 2004): the socializing behavior is casual and long term, but the reason for interacting is mainly impersonal and professional (Parry & Bloch, 1989). This is a clash between the generalized reciprocity behavior in the spontaneous layer, and balanced reciprocity in the business-organizational layer. It is an example of how trust is financially utilized, provoking an atmosphere of insecurity, anxiety, and skepticism among the volunteers. The same sense of general kinship in an anxiety provoking setting, causing the volunteers...
to flock, is what, in known settings and relaxed exchange interactions, emerges as humor and creativity. By the end of the year when networking had become more known to the volunteers as a way of interacting, the initial insecurity and distrust was seen to be gradually replaced by disinterest, possibly because external networking relations had become unnecessary as most of the volunteers knew where they were headed career-wise.

**SOCIAL LEARNING AND CODE SWITCHING**

To sum up, the pre-studies showed how various ideas of learning affected the field as a learning arena in terms of what the volunteers were expected to learn. Parallel to this were the actual observed social activities of the volunteers, which mirrored generalized reciprocity behavior, building long term relationships and trust, also including the dimension of sharing food, impulses of humor, opinion and letting each other know how they felt, and expressing emotions. This dimension unveiled what really went on and what was learned away from the organizational image. In continuation of the previous figure and various concepts of learning, what is particularly interesting in the observations is how the volunteers were seen to navigate and switch codes between authentic and expected behavior: the spontaneous personalities and socially navigating in a generalized reciprocity culture; the business-organizational networker; the universalistic ‘hero’ going through an important and personal year of passage into adulthood through personal mythmaking.

The following empirical examples demonstrate how the three aspects appeared. The first is an excerpt from the field diary of how I observed a group of volunteers’ first day at school with the kids. It illustrates the gap between the two organizational layers and the spontaneous layer as it appeared to me:

‘I arrive at 8:00AM at School [C]. Teamleader [TL]’s team (3 until now) has arrived. They sit around and chat with some children having breakfast. I think they are sitting with a teacher’s assistant [TA], there are four adults and two children. Breakfast is served from a corner in this room, which is like a minor assembly hall or gym, close to the entrance. A lady seeks me out and hands me a visitor’s ID which facilitates my presence. Now five corps members [CM] are here. A volunteer [C6], who has an Indian background, has started playing with three of the children. They have pulled out a box with toys which they examine and talk about one after one. A female corps member turns up. A male corps member talks to the TA. TL and the female corps member talk to four children who are still eating breakfast. The male corps member, the TA and the children have gone; another corps member joins TL’C chat group. A female volunteer has joined the play group of children and is currently a bit observing. The children look at the corps members a lot. They show them their new school bags. They chat and laugh. The boys want to talk to C6 who is checking his smart phone. The children are between six and eight I think.’

The general atmosphere was a mix of insecurity and excitement. At one level the volunteers were clearly aware of their aim for being there, and at another level, it had not completely been defined when it came to the micro-social level and the miscellaneous interactions with the children with whom they were joined in this setting. Clearly the volunteers were ready, wearing their fresh red uniforms, and they were well aware of their aim: to mentor, ‘to make a difference’, to help the children; but, as pointed to above, what this actually means in practice is another story. One common idea of how role modeling works obviously involves social interaction and exchanges of either useful knowledge or practical help in a concrete situation and activity, this being very close to the idea behind community service described by Frumkin & Jastrzab. (Frumkin & Jastrzab, 2010)

Looking at the excerpt above, the three aspects can be observed as follows: The first sentence to catch my attention was ‘TL’s team (3 until now) has arrived’. It was interesting because the situation surrounding the parenthesis regards the behavior of the team as a unit and describing the behavior according to the set of both symbolic and business-organizational values. Knowing there were 8-10 people or ‘heroes’ on one team, ‘ready to serve’, I wondered why only three had arrived on this first day of school. The level of behavior of people arriving late represents the spontaneous aspect; it is the person being late because of traffic, or because they slept in. This aspect is not part of the universalistic, the business, the do-gooder’s agenda, nor of the networkers, but it is still there. Every ideal person in these layers of cultural values is always on time, or better still, early and organised.
The situation moved on by showing the business-organizational behavior. The team leader and the volunteers sat around and chat to the children: they were there for them, they were not making a huge difference at that moment, but they were there for the children and that counts and makes a difference in the long run. Even the lady who passed me the visitor’s ID had this type of behavior: polite, conversational, and informative. C6 takes it to the next level at an early stage when he starts playing with the children, even before the breakfast session was over. The play session continued to be relationship building and negotiating. Setting up a play-situation with the children created the possibility of a different kind of sharing but also of both rivalry and solidarity maintenance. This is emphasized by the hesitant behavior of the female volunteer who, with an observational approach, joined the play group a moment later. At this point a corps member came in late – no cape and not sending the best of signals from a networking perspective. This was simply a person who was late. Exchanges and conversations increased. The volunteers had shown interest and the interest was returned by the children: they looked at the volunteers more, they talked more, they shared more, they showed them their new school bags and I started to see and hear laughter. C6 checked his smart phone. He started to relax, no one was fighting over the play session he set up, and no one seemed to need his heroic assistance at that moment, so he checked his smart phone, even though neither the networker nor the hero would do that. This was a pause where he could be himself and stop giving what was expected; he did what he felt like doing. This shows how giving and various forms of reciprocity are acted out according to, and to signal the closeness of a relationship. At the same time it shows how, parallel to that, there is a more spontaneous reacting type of reciprocity behavior which emerges as being more authentic, due to its indication of emotional commitment to the situation. This authenticity builds trust because it seems real. The trust is mirrored in the relationship with all the collaborators and, like the spirit of the gift. It circulates and strengthens the solidarity among those involved (Mauss, 1954).

RECIPIENCY AND LEARNING

Being subjected to several sets of social values and reciprocity behavior puts the volunteer in a situation where he or she is at constant code switching within. As soon as one role ceases, another takes over. If the volunteer is not reciprocating as the hero, he or she is a networker or something else. What is interesting though, as pointed to above, is to observe the pauses between the intervals of representation, such as when C6 checks his smart phone. This was interesting, not least because it was in these gaps that humor occurred and became an indicator of spontaneity, provided that it was not perceived as fake laughter. One of the experiences that supported this assumption was when I had lunch with the volunteers away from the staff one day:

‘Having lunch with CM’s in “Mocchans”. I usually have lunch in the kitchen, “The Lighthouse” but moved downstairs because I realized most of the CM’s have their lunch there. There’s not much room in the kitchen. In “Mocchans” there’s a conversation between maybe six or eight of the CM’s regarding the fact that the volunteer (A3) has been told to speak at the “opening day” next week. He reveals how he finds it a bit corny that he has been given a manuscript which dictates what he’s expected to say down to the last word, including humoristic one-liners between his co-speaker and himself. We laugh and another CM challenges him to add a particular way of saying one of the words, to make the rest of the group know that he is referring to his opinion about the manuscript being too detailed and invading. He says he might do that, and practices how he will do it if he dares. There’s a lot of laughs about this. We all agree that if he does it, we cannot look at each other or we will all break out and laugh in the middle of the very formal session to come. He has been chosen to give this speech and he didn’t want to say no.’ (Field diary entry)

When opening day arrived and A3 gave his speech, he stuck to the script, and no one laughed. I later asked him what happened to the detail in the speech he said he would make for the team, and he told me he was much too nervous in the first place, so he chose to stick to the script and concentrate on opening his mouth without rambling. This is an example of how the difference between the co-existing sets of values become explicit in the group, and how revealing personal emotions and opinion causes a sharing and daring community and familiarity away from authority. The form of reciprocity also changes from representing organizational values, whether symbolic or businesslike, to carrying the traits of humor and hidden rebellion through honesty; disclosing the relational awkwardness of a scripted situation where two friends give a presentation and casually throw one liners back and forth. Methodologically this was a positive experience in my attempt to create rapport with the volunteers.

LEARNING THROUGH EXCHANGING STORIES

The stories exchanged at the different levels of reciprocity let us know the type of learning that goes on, and whether it is more or less superficial and personal (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Sahlin, 2004). The interviews were somewhat characterized by techniques of representation, possibly because of the formal set up with a quiet room, a recorder, my notes; whereas the observations, particularly between the corps members when only around each other, were characterized by this certain type of ‘me’-life, recognized through emotional expressions, use of humor and occasionally tears. There was always a ‘me’ behind all the representations and it was that ‘me’ which caught my attention as a significant factor in the overall social exchange culture, and which I primarily sought to engage with; I wanted their real opinion. When creating rapport with the spontaneous personalities during interviews or random conversations, I would get stories about how a person grew up and had been used to this or that element of social interaction which was recognized in the organization as a key motivator.
I would also sometimes get confessions or frustrations concerning every day practical collaborative circumstances, or emotions affecting the volunteer’s wellbeing in his or her personal life. The opportunity for personal mythmaking in practice occasionally comforted the volunteers individually and gave them practical guidance as to how to act as a proper City Year corps member. The code switching could also be seen when they moved between the motivations and towards the meaningfulness of the various layers and roles: if one day the work did not seem meaningful in one way, it would in one of the other accessible versions. The degree of moral support from the community, local politicians, schools, parents, children, and each other also made re-staging their personal participation, by moving between the layers of meaning as part of their personal direction in life, incredibly engaging and empowering.

CONCLUSION

The spontaneous life between representing the organizational layers most often skipped the personal stories directly, but nonetheless characterized ‘that special City Year energy’: a sort of vividness which would cause the effect of bystanders or participants feeling re-energized. Besides the representational stories that were learned by heart and exchanged, there was this spontaneous reciprocity, not in the form of stories, but in the form of life and movements around each other. The volunteers used this way of interacting to share emotions and opinions which would create expressions of resonance and recognition from others, causing similar responses and ultimately an atmosphere of authentic presence. When the organizational expectations regarding behavior had moved a bit too far away from what would appear to be socially credible behavior, it would often be accompanied by laughter, humoristic remarks, and thereafter returning to the present social life of sharing and harmonizing expectations and collaborative contributions. Even when the part of authenticity was attempted, replicated and systematized through a manuscript directing how to act, what to say when and how, the ‘me’-interactions made fun of the obvious falsity, immediately discharging it while enforcing the group’s general reciprocity culture.

As a continuation of this, the chapter shows how the spontaneous life of City Year London’s volunteers lies behind the individual motivation and sense of meaningfulness, and how it is the relational glue between individual and organizational life. Humor is socially including and crucial to the trust building and team work throughout the daily work load. The way humor was regarded pointed to the conclusion that it had a particularly important function in testing the consensus between peers, unveiling, and warning against untrustworthy social behavior, and at the same time expressing mutual disagreements and otherness compared to the organizational role definition of the volunteer. It was seen as a personal breathing space, social confession space, and if listened to, it contained creative suggestions for where the organization could probably change. Still, as the individual’s own right, it was spontaneous and could not be predicted or ordered. This dimension builds trust which causes the volunteers to engage emotionally. Emotions are rarely controllable but the shared stories of the peers being ‘only human’ as well as witnessing each other’s good and bad days, created room for and even encouraged each volunteer to engage emotionally and according to the organizational aim.

The awareness that there are various understandings of learning at play in a cross sector like the voluntary sector is a pointer to these organizations that the concept of learning must also be understood accordingly. Clarifying the social preconditions and value orientations behind the various discourses of learning provides readers with awareness and an elaboration of these settings as learning arenas. Awareness is useful to organizers as well as ‘learners’, participants or volunteers, in order to accept and understand how code switching between the various value layers can be observed, taken into account, and how multiple learning processes take place on the conditions of external expectations as well as internal group dynamics. This knowledge about learning as social exchange processes calls for organizers to accept the spontaneous and emotional side to social exchange, which is obviously a strong presence in this charity’s voluntary work in practice, as an example. Whilst being an innovative drive force, spontaneous life is also something which it is attempted to harvest and control, but by nature diverts from the idea of measurable learning outcome and calculation – social as well as financial. This means that social voluntary organizations must be accepted and valued as highly complex learning arenas and, as the volunteers do, so must the organizers learn to navigate in this emotionally enhanced complexity and make the best of the space for spontaneity, which is also a much-needed pipeline of the same creativity and commitment which characterizes these organizations as unique organizations, as learning arenas and public servants.
This distinction between the speculative and the practical is in line with the economic anthropological discussion between formalists and substantivists, introduced by K. Polanyi (1968).


The European economic crisis, which started in 2008, has seen unemployment rates among young people rising, transforming it from a worrying trend to the challenge of the decade. As Eurostat figures showed in April 2013, some 5.6 million young persons under 25 years old and eligible for work in the European Union (EU) were unemployed, which is an average of 23.5% compared to 15.8% in late 2008. In Southern Europe youth unemployment levels are reaching an historic height, particularly in Greece (62.5%), Spain (56.4%), Portugal (42.5%) and Italy (40.5%). Among the 27 EU Member States, Germany and Austria are the only countries where the level of youth unemployment is kept below 10%.

Youth unemployment brought growing frustration and alienation amongst young people, amplified by the lack of clarity about the future and an increasing mistrust in public institutions at both national and EU level. The trend has recently spread to well-qualified young people who cannot find employment after graduation, whereas those from disadvantaged backgrounds entered a dead-end street long before this. To deal with the effects of unemployment on young people, youth work is facing the challenge: how to counteract their loss of faith and strengthen young people’s participation in shaping their own lives; and how to give a voice to the especially disadvantaged.
As a response to this, in 2001-2011, the Youth Empowerment Partnership Programme developed an approach and methodology to find ways to empower young people at risk of social exclusion in communities across Europe offering few or no opportunities. The approach, called the ‘YEPP Concept of Change’ brought together foundations, municipalities, youth workers and young people to address complex social challenges related to youth and to promote civic participation in disadvantaged communities across Europe. The Youth Empowerment Partnership Programme tackled youth-related issues with young people – not for them.

Since 2012, the YEPP International Resource Centre (YEPP IRC) has been supporting the implementation of the ‘YEPP Concept of Change’ in 17 YEPP Local Sites which are located in areas of social disadvantage in Bosnia & Herzegovina, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Poland and Slovakia. YEPP IRC has been working with other partner communities to create synergies and partnerships for change, and seeks to expand the ‘YEPP’ approach and methodology beyond Europe. YEPP IRC provides training and coaching for local communities implementing or willing to implement the ‘YEPP Concept of Change’, coordinates platforms for international exchange and learning, and evaluates the overall fulfillment of ‘YEPP’ goals in the YEPP Community Network, namely, youth and community empowerment; partnership; learning; and advocacy of sustainable change.

YEPP IRC is located in the Institute for Community Education (ICE) of the International Academy for Innovative Pedagogy, Psychology and Economy (INA) gGmbH at the Freie Universität Berlin. INA provides the legal framework for YEPP IRC, employs staff members and hosts the YEPP IRC office. ICE provides professional support.

The ‘YEPP Concept of Change’ foresees that local stakeholders from the public, private and independent sectors, including young people, organize themselves as a group and conduct a situation analysis to identify the needs in their community. These needs are then addressed through the activities of the Operational Plan, which define the key issues and goals for change. The participatory monitoring and evaluation method is used in the ‘Cycle of Change’ to learn from the results and refine the planning for the next cycle (s. below). Such a recurring sequence of cycles provides a system for observing and bringing about sustainable change. This work relies on the principles of local partnerships, equal opportunities and participatory strategic planning, and gives young people the decision making power to decide on issues which concern them.

Historically, youth unemployment has been an issue for the communities implementing the ‘YEPP’ approach and methodology. Being traditionally exposed to higher risks of social exclusion and economic disadvantage, most communities identified youth unemployment as a challenge and perceived the need to take action through activities in the Operational Plan. As a result, some initiatives were developed and implemented locally by the multi-stakeholder groups, made up of youth workers, young people, politicians and other residents. Peer advice desks, business incubators, training in presentation and communication skills, and closer cooperation with public institutions, such as youth offices and job centres, were targeted responses to the problems that young people and their communities were facing.

The bottom-up approach of the ‘YEPP Concept of Change’ to identifying the problems and working out common solutions created better entries into the labour market for young people, while strengthening their self-esteem, improving their social competences and promoting their civic engagement and active citizenship. The freedom to decide on priorities and learn from the results through participatory monitoring and evaluation has been part of the empowerment process for young people. The results from the implementation of the ‘YEPP’ approach and methodology reinforce the importance of non-formal learning and highlight the need for sustainable support structures for young people at local and transnational level.
Below are quotes from young people active in the YEPP Local Sites about what they learnt through ‘YEPP’:

‘Hello, my name is Bea. I’m 24 and I live in Antwerp-North. I was born in Rwanda and speak Swahili, French, Dutch and English. I joined YEPP through the Community Fund because I wanted to work with young people, something I feel I’m good at. For me, it’s all based on mutual respect: young people respect me because I live in the neighbourhood and they can approach me easily, unlike professional social workers. I encourage them to set up their own projects and be creative! I would like to learn management skills to be able to set up my own business. I like the idea of being my own boss. I feel at home here because of the diversity, although we need more personal contacts to overcome prejudice between generations and migrant groups.’

(Beatrice Goos, Antwerp-North, Belgium, YEPP Local Site 2001-2011)

‘Hello, my name is Simone and I’m 21. I play various musical instruments, which brought me to YEPP via the Migrante festival (project of the YEPP Local Support Group Albenga). Over the years, my role in the festival grew from musician to planning and coordination. This is a rare opportunity for young people here in Italy, where we usually only execute plans designed by adults. Together with working on leaflets for YEPP activities, the festival has given a great boost to my confidence in my capacities to add value to my community and find a rewarding career.’

(Simone Imperatrice, Albenga, Italy, YEPP Local Site since 2007)

‘My name is Michael Malone. I’m 25 and I was born in Dublin. I got involved in YEPP in 2004 as part of a youth project looking for international contacts. I’ve had the chance to attend YEPP workshops and events in Italy, Belgium, Finland and Poland. Today, I’m coordinator for the North East Inner City Youth Bank while studying Youth and Community Work at Maynooth University. Our neighbourhood has a large population of young people with high levels of teenage pregnancy, unemployment, early school leaving, and drug and alcohol abuse, and a bad reputation with society and the police. But there’s also a strong community spirit, like street parties during the recent snow. I feel I belong in the neighbourhood as a lot of people would know me through my voluntary work. With YEPP, I’ve made friends in different countries and become more aware of racism. This has made me more open to foreign nationals in our own communities. I’d like to see more schemes for young people who are unemployed to develop life skills instead of just getting the dole and more peer leadership training so that young people can give back to the community.’

(Michael Malone, Dublin Inner City, Ireland, YEPP Local Site since 2003)

Developing the needs-based competences and skills of young people through local and transnational empowerment work has become even more important during the economic crisis. Youth unemployment was identified as an overarching challenge by the YEPP Local Teams at a YEPP Community Conference in 2011. In view of an unstable situation in the labour market, entrepreneurship education was considered by YEPP IRC as part of the response to the current crisis. YEPP IRC believes in self-initiative and entrepreneurship as a means to combatting the negative effects of youth unemployment. YEPP IRC regards entrepreneurship as a way of thinking and acting in accordance with beliefs and values; taking self-initiative and fostering creativity in order to discover an individual’s potential in developing, running and owning a business or social enterprise. The overall aim of entrepreneurship education is to develop sustainable solutions to reduce unemployment and poverty in communities across the world.

The YEPP IRC approach to entrepreneurship is in line with the definition of a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship as presented by the European Parliament and the Council13: ‘an individual’s ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives’. In 2012, YEPP IRC initiated the entrepreneurship education programme for young people and youth coaches living in disadvantaged communities in Bosnia & Herzegovina, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Finland, Poland and Slovakia. The objectives of the programme are to foster youth initiatives and entrepreneurial spirit in disadvantaged communities, and to facilitate exchange, collaboration and learning between European youth and youth coaches through transnational meetings and joint projects.

To achieve this, YEPP IRC organizes capacity-building workshops and regularly informs the members of the YEPP Community Network about emerging entrepreneurial projects and other news in the field. Recently YEPP IRC has partnered up with the Berlin-based Entrepreneurship Foundation to make the online entrepreneurship training programme available to young people from disadvantaged communities and further build their entrepreneurial skills and capacities.

One example of a capacity-building event is the international workshop ‘Working solutions for young people: Skills and jobs to empower youth and communities in Europe’ organised by YEPP IRC in October 2012 in Berlin, Germany. It was financially supported by the Youth in Action National Agency in Germany. Young people and youth coaches from all YEPP Local Sites in Europe participated in the workshop. The discussions highlighted such issues as the concept of ‘Entrepreneurship’ and its different forms; developing an entrepreneurial idea that works; marketing and communicating an idea; financial planning and funding; key principles of successful entrepreneurship; promoting entrepreneurship by means of new media, and tools of support of youth entrepreneurship in YEPP Local Sites. The working methods included expert sessions; small group work; practical tasks for young people to foster their entrepreneurial spirit and creativity; a session with youth coaches; video making exercises on the promotion of ideas, and site visits to entrepreneurial projects in Berlin14.
The workshop received highly positive feedback: the vast majority of participants stated that it was a successful and inspirational event. Most participants confirmed that they increased their knowledge of entrepreneurship and working solutions, e.g. different forms and models of entrepreneurship, including social entrepreneurship, serial entrepreneurship, a business approach to social work, idea promotion and innovative fundraising methods. They also admitted that the workshop helped them to develop their entrepreneurial ideas and to strengthen their pro-active attitude, as well as to acquire new skills and competences, e.g. in communication, negotiation, working individually and in teams. An online video competition was set up by YEPP IRC in mid-2013 as a follow-up to the workshop in order to present the best local entrepreneurship ideas to the public in an engaging and convincing way.

As a result of the workshop, some youth projects and community-rooted initiatives managed to bring about some positive changes in local communities: street art for beautifying the look and image of the Roma settlements in the village of Kecerovce in Slovakia; an internet platform for the promotion of Loano, a small coastal town in Italy as an attractive holiday resort; and a catering service by young people from Tuzla in Bosnia & Herzegovina in order to help their schools to circumvent the higher prices of local service providers.

YEPP IRC regards entrepreneurship as a means to uncovering one’s own potential and a mind-set to establishing any social or commercial activity, either individually or in a group, e.g. in partnerships or cooperatives. The broad meaning of entrepreneurship as ‘the avenue for personal and community growth’ (Pantea, 2013) connects it with the approaches dominant in youth work which focus on raising skills which are useful in all aspects of work and daily life, such as creativity, initiative, flexibility, etc. Whereas this approach opposes a narrow definition of entrepreneurship as a business concept, it opens up more forms of entrepreneurship possible for young people: a personal project, a social project or a business project. Everyone can choose a form they are ready for.

Below are some thoughts on entrepreneurship from participants of the YEPP IRC workshop ‘Working solutions for young people: Skills and jobs to empower youth and communities in Europe’:

‘If you have an idea you have to work hard to make it real.’ (Andrea Pruitti Ciarello, Youth Delegate, Italy)

‘Entrepreneurship is not just a way of making money, but a way of taking an idea and realizing it. It is the process, a way to live and not being afraid of trying new things.’
(_Ida Haapamäki, Youth Coach, Finland)

‘Entrepreneur for me is being an explorer, not afraid to fail.’
(Thomas Arkins, Youth Delegate, Ireland)

‘Entrepreneurship is turning your idea into an action. First, actually start doing something. Second, do it in steps. Take small steps before you increase the speed. Third, do it simply and take care about what you are doing. You make a difference not only to your life but to other people’s lives. And remember: an entrepreneur does not fit into the box.’
(Madi Sharma, Madi Group, European Economic & Social Committee, UK)

‘To me entrepreneurship is passion. You have to have the discipline, you have to have power, creativity, and so on. But passion is a starting point. Your idea must fit with your personality. And it must fit with the market.’ (Prof. Dr. Günter Faltin, Entrepreneurship Foundation, Germany)

Whereas it is important to work on strengthening the entrepreneurial skills of young people, it is also necessary to cultivate the awareness of youth coaches not to push young people into entrepreneurial projects if they are not ready for it. Promoting a ‘can do’ attitude may be a good scenario for empowerment work, but may also do some harm. As stated above, training young people in life skills and competences which will build their confidence and prepare them for the labour market can be a more appropriate entry point. Developing their entrepreneurial spirit and a sense of initiative, creativity and innovation, as offered by YEPP IRC’s entrepreneurship education programme, would be in demand by a free market, regardless of whether young people work for themselves or for someone else. Here, the support of youth coaches and other experts in the field is an important key to the success of youth initiatives. The support should, however, be combined with local and national policies, structural funds and appropriate legislation, which brings us back to the values of cross-sectoral partnership and advocacy work promoted by YEPP.

Challenges which youth workers in the YEPP Local Sites are confronted with in their support of young people’s entrepreneurial initiatives are, first of all, a lack of clear understanding of what entrepreneurship really means. Many young people believe that entrepreneurship is a way of setting up a business and associate with it a lot of risks which they are reluctant to take. The reasons for this are personal (not enough knowledge and experience, sometimes reinforced by a lack of self-confidence), political (hindering conditions in the institutional environment, e.g. legislation on taking out a loan or bankruptcy procedures for start-ups), economic (difficulty of setting up a business in a depressed economic area or a country undergoing recession), and cultural risk aversion is a more common feature in Europe than in other countries of the world like the United States, Japan or China.

Another challenge for combining youth work and entrepreneurship is that entrepreneurial activity is seen to be in competition with social engagement. Civic projects cannot always substitute for decent employment and some young people see their social engagement as a transitional step towards finding a proper job after acquiring some necessary skills in the non-formal learning environment. In the interviews with young people active in their YEPP Local
Sites, some said that they enjoyed working as volunteers and would like to continue in the social field but did not know how to make a living from it. A possible solution for turning social engagement into a job is provided in the form of social entrepreneurship, which is ‘the creation of social impact by developing and implementing a sustainable business model which draws on innovative solutions that benefit the disadvantaged and, ultimately, society at large...’ 17.

Social entrepreneurship can take the form of a social enterprise, an entrepreneurial structure which foresees profit making, but unlike a business structure, is not profit maximizing. It spends the profit on statutory purposes. Whatever the means, youth work, with its focus on social values, solidarity, good governance and participation, is an important bridge to the entrepreneurial world, and to raising the awareness of ethical entrepreneurship and its social impact among young entrepreneurs.

The experience has shown that local youth work benefits greatly from transnational exchange and learning for the local stakeholders and young people, and that ideas developed and discussed together have a long-lasting power and effect. At local level, youth coaches support young people in the implementation of their entrepreneurial initiatives. In the YEPP Local Support Group, youth coaches often take the leading position of YEPP Local Coordinator or YEPP Evaluation Facilitator and drive the wheel of community organizing activities. They act as mentors for young people, help them prepare for the entrepreneurial workshops and maintain contact with them afterwards to make sure that they receive support while implementing their entrepreneurial projects ideas. At transnational level, YEPP IRC facilitates the exchange of experience and peer learning for youth coaches and young people and disseminates best practice models and projects in the YEPP Community Network. Transnational events build the capacities of local stakeholders around the topics of planning and organisation, media work, advocacy and fundraising, and serve as a motivation for local youth work. YEPP IRC runs training courses specifically for coaches on how to optimize the tools of support for young people interested in starting up an entrepreneurial activity.

The multi-level approach of YEPP recommends itself as a good practice for ensuring the sustainability of local actions with a transnational capacity-building component. It fosters the empowerment of young people in disadvantaged communities and is a cradle for developing entrepreneurship skills and competences on a sustainable basis. YEPP IRC will continue the entrepreneurship education with a series of further training and capacity-building activities. They will be designed to help young people gain the skills and confidence necessary to create sustainable business and social enterprise models that connect local needs and resources, generate income and benefit the wider communities in which they operate, and will contribute to entrepreneurial learning for the young people supported through youth work.

For further information, please visit our website: www.yepp-community.org

NOTES


12 Eurostat. Euro area unemployment rate at 12.2% EU27 at 11.0% 82/2013 – 31 May 2013 epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ ITY_PUBLIC/1-31052013-82-EN/1-31052013-82-EN.PDF


14 The workshop report is available at www.yepp-community.org/images/Workshop%20Working%20Solutions_Evaluation%20Results.pdf

15 Pantea, Maria-Carmen. 2014. Handle with care. Youth work and entrepreneurial learning.


In Poland we observe a great need to support with professional training young people who are active beyond the formal education system, who take initiative, have an entrepreneurial spirit and are engaged in the civic life of their community.

In countries with a communist history, like Poland, the level of active participation of young people in civic life and their willingness to take the initiative are still low; that is why it is important to help those young people who are more active than average teenagers. These people take the role of leaders and encourage teenagers to take the initiative, undertaking activities beyond the formal education system and learning through practical experience. The difficult situation for young people in the labour market demands that they be more active and take initiatives.

Moreover, the formal education system does not encourage and prepare young people to think out of the box, to take risks and try out their ideas in action, to work in a team and learn how to carry out projects. This gap is partly filled by the area of non-formal education used and promoted mainly by non-governmental organisations and cultural institutions which are active in the field of youth work.

CASE STUDY

YOUTH ACADEMY OF LOCAL LEADERS

MAGDALENA PASZKOWSKA

is a coordinator of Youth Academy of Local Leaders in the Polish National Agency of the Youth in Action Programme where she has been working since 2009. She is a Psychologist, engaged in youth work since 2002, experienced in working in the health sector and non-profit organisations in Poland, especially with young people with fewer opportunities. Exploring the topic of entrepreneurial education, in 2012 she was involved in preparing a publication entitled ‘Pocket inspirator for entrepreneurship’ published by the Polish National Agency for young people.
THE YOUTH ACADEMY OF LOCAL LEADERS

A cycle of three four-day training sessions, taking place every two months and aimed at increasing young people’s participation in the civic life of their community, supporting their ability to turn ideas into action and increasing their effectiveness in carrying out youth projects. The main idea is to stimulate young people’s spirit of initiative and entrepreneurship so that they have the ability to proactively influence the reality and environment they live in, rather than wait for others to organize and adjust the circumstances for them. The Academy is an intense active-learning experience which includes a number of methods of non-formal education to fully engage participants and provide them with practical experience. The training has been organised by the Polish National Agency of the ‘Youth in Action’ Programme since 2008 (five editions).

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GROUP BEING ADDRESSED

The training is designed for young people aged 16-24 who have already carried out their first local activities or projects and are willing to engage in such activities in the future. They need to be active within a group and not act as individuals. The idea is to support mainly young people with fewer opportunities because of economic or geographic obstacles (living in the countryside or small towns where education opportunities are limited). However, the factor which is most beneficial to participants is avoiding homogeneity and providing variety amongst them (such as where they live – city or rural areas, the level of experience, type of activity, gender, age). The group consists of a maximum of 24 people who are obliged to take part in all three parts of the training.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TRAINING

The Academy consists of three training modules. The same group of participants takes part in each training.

The first module entitled ‘Me as a youth leader’ mainly focuses on the integration of participants, exploring their own leadership and entrepreneurial potential, reflection on the functioning of their groups and improving communication skills. During this training, participants look for better ways of using their own and their group’s potential. They experience what effective communication is and how it affects the success of undertaken initiatives. The acquisition of communication skills is an intense active-learning experience which includes a number of methods of non-formal education to fully engage participants and provide them with practical experience. The training has been organised by the Polish National Agency of the ‘Youth in Action’ Programme since 2008 (five editions).

The second module ‘Me and my local community’ gives the participants a chance to learn how to analyse the environment they live in and examine available resources and existing needs, as well as to identify opportunities they can respond to through their activities. This module shows that it is essential to examine the current situation before organising activities, and underlines the importance of building partnerships and networks of cooperation with different actors (e.g. local authorities, businesses, non-profit organisations, the education and cultural institution sector). During this training, the participants carry out research on local needs and resources (educational, cultural, economic), visiting local institutions, schools, organisations and companies, and try to find out how the citizens of the small town where the training takes place perceive their living environment. The results of this work are presented to representatives of the local municipality, cultural institutions, youth council and non-governmental organisations during the official meeting at the end of the training module. The strong point of this training is definitely organising activities in real circumstances, not only in a training room.

The third module entitled ‘Me in action’ concentrates on putting skills acquired during the training into action and organising an event or activity which responds to the local needs highlighted during the second training. For participants this is a challenge demanding them to decide what kind of activity they want to carry out, to plan the activity, share tasks, solve arising problems and finally organise the event. The phase of planning the activity begins on the Moodle platform during the 2-month break between the second and third training modules and is initiated and moderated by trainers. The process of organising the event is finalised during the first and second days of the ‘Me in action’ training. During the third day of training, participants organise the event, and on the last day they evaluate the whole process. This module of the Academy gives the participants a great opportunity to try and cooperate with local institutions in order to, for example, get permission to organise an event or rent music equipment from local cultural centres.

In the meantime, between these three training sessions (about 2-month breaks) participants are required to complete various tasks in order to implement acquired skills and try them out in their specific context of activity (for example, a task to carry out research into the local resources and needs in the participants’ living environment, or to share the knowledge and skills gained during the training with the members of their groups, organising mini-workshops). In order to enable contacts between trainers and participants, the team uses the online Moodle platform.
An external evaluation was carried out during the first edition of the training. Evaluators observed the training and contacted participants after the Academy. In later editions the evaluation was conducted by the trainers during and after the training. The results show that participation in the Academy increased participants’ understanding of the group processes. Participants reported that they acted in a more planned and thought-out way and were more willing to examine whether there is a need for such activities. According to their reports, the training also helped them to change patterns of cooperation and increased the engagement of the group members instead of overloading themselves as leaders with too many tasks. Moreover, participants declared that they were ‘braver’ when making decisions and more willing to engage in new, challenging activities. In a few cases (about 10 participants) graduates of the training set up a non-governmental organisation. Participation in the Academy gave them the opportunity to build a network of contacts and enabled peer education and further cooperation to take place. About 38% of participants in the Academy, during or after the training courses, decided to organise projects within the framework of the ‘Youth in Action’ Programme (National Youth Initiative, Youth Exchange, seminars concerning youth work). The Polish National Agency has received information that two participants set up an enterprise following the completion of the course, however the Agency has not conducted any research among all the participants about such results of the training.

LESSONS LEARNED AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The success of the training was based on precisely defining the target group, which in this case is a group of young active people who need support for further development, and who have already carried out their first activities and projects. The application form consists of 12 questions concerning, for example: the group the person is active in, a description of local/social activities carried out, challenges in the activities and cooperation with others, how the group the person belongs to will benefit from the knowledge and experience gained during the training. The applicants in the last edition were also asked to prepare a short movie (2-3 minutes) presenting their groups and explaining why the person concerned is the one who should take part in the Academy. Preparing this movie was not obligatory, but we observe that the majority of the participants who were most engaged in the process of the Academy sent a link to a movie in their application form. After the assessment phase of the applications, one of the trainers also carried out phone or Skype interviews to find out more about the motivation of the applicants.

The strong point of the training is definitely the engagement of the three trainers. Two of them are actively engaged in preparing and carrying out the Academy, and between trainings. This is a very useful solution and great help to trainers during such intensive work as conducting training, and following and monitoring the process of the group. As a result of the contact with participants between the trainings, the percentage of drop-outs is very low (maximum 2 people per group).
This chapter explores the role of developing Self-regulated learning (SRL) as a prerequisite for the support of entrepreneurship skills for young people. SRL is a broad concept and includes: metacognitive knowledge (knowledge that the individual has with respect to himself/herself, the demands of the task, the strategies that should be used to deal with it), motivational beliefs (beliefs related to the competence and control to influence the results) and management of cognitive and metacognitive processes. In a classic definition, SRL is the ability to individually control one’s own cognitive, meta-cognitive and behavioural learning processes, and maintain an appropriate justification and effective management of one’s own emotions (Zimmerman, 2008). Metacognitive competence is also connected to the concept of strategy (Reid & Lienemann, 2006), which appropriately combined, leads to forms such as goal setting (the selection and the scheduling of a goal) and auto-tracking (e.g., a reflection about one’s own learning path, awareness of objectives, analysis of the causes of success or failure).

It addresses the following reflections: what skills are needed to help the current young generation manage the complexity of work? Can metacognitive skills contribute to improving the development of entrepreneurial skills? Based on the example of a ‘Youth in Action’ project in Italy, this chapter argues that in non-formal contexts, entrepreneurial skills can be developed through narrative approaches such as the autobiographical method, and with the support of...
Entrepreneurship is described by EU Skills Panorama (2012: 2) ‘as an attribute developing the entrepreneurial skills necessary for new business creation. It is important to explore whether it can be made useful in achieving the stated objectives. In particular, the concept of self-efficacy is structured on the basis of three dimensions, namely:

1. the number of tasks that the subject is expected to manage in difficult situations (width);
2. the resistance to criticism or absence of positive results (strength);
3. expectations of efficacy in other contexts (generality).

According to Bandura, people with the same intelligence and specific abilities, but with a higher sense of self-efficacy, are more motivated to achieve goals. Whilst the value of SRL has been demonstrated for academic learning (Pintrich, 2000), it is important to explore whether it can be made useful in developing the entrepreneurial skills necessary for new business creation. Entrepreneurship is described by EU Skills Panorama (2012: 2) ‘as an attribute that goes further than required for business activity, to include an “active and reactive spirit” and a “mind-set that supports everyone in day-to-day life at home and in society”, and provides a foundation for entrepreneurs establishing a social or commercial activity’.

One could argue that having the ability to self-regulate one’s own learning, to focus on metacognitive processes and to take action perspectives towards the environment is a useful prerequisite for developing one’s entrepreneurial idea. A specific competence related to SRL is human agency. It indicates the ability of people to act as active agents, or to actively transform the environment. According to Bandura (2006) ‘To be an agent is to influence intentionally one’s functioning and life circumstances. In this view, personal influence is part of the causal structure. People are self-organizing, proactive, self-regulating and self-reflecting. They are not simply onlookers of their behavior. They are contributors to their life circumstances, not just products of them’ (Bandura, 2006: 164). According to him, there are four core properties of human agency:

1. intentionality, which includes action plans and the strategies for realizing them;
2. forethought to set goals and anticipate the likely outcomes of prospective actions to guide and motivate efforts;
3. self-reactiveness as an ability to construct appropriate courses of action and motivate and regulate their execution;
4. self-reflectiveness: the capacity to evaluate their personal efficacy.

However, the reflexive dimension is only marginally or not at all represented in formal institutions and could find a fertile ground in non-formal learning. Moreover, as argued in Zimmerman (2008), in an era of constant distractions in the form of portable phones, CD players, computers, and televisions for even young children, it is hardly surprising to discover that many students have not learned to self-regulate their academic studying very well. Thus, SRL can be understood as a ‘cross competence’ that helps the individual in the management of his/her own learning (Graham, Harris, Reid, 1992), where the individual reacts and interacts with the environment, in a mutual adaptation. For the individual, the entrepreneurial choice becomes an opportunity to experiment with new identity positions, leading to a better understanding of self and projecting towards one’s own future. For the community, it would mean triggering the creative involvement of other young people and greater chances for sustainable growth.

Narrative Autobiography as a Tool for Developing Self-Regulated Learning

How to effectively promote SRL through non-formal learning? Can youth work help young people to develop the necessary skills for reflecting, controlling and assessing their own learning? Ultimately, can such skills be used in developing self-employment projects?
The autobiographical narrative has always been present in human history: human beings have always felt the need to reflect on their own experience and understand its meaning. Currently, the autobiographical story has reached another level of development, due to a deeper theoretical and practical elaboration. For Bruner (1995), the autobiography becomes the main key to understanding and organizing the self: to tell a story means to put the self in a narrative dimension, where the psychological world becomes a possible world. The following section focuses our attention on the Narrative Autobiography, a method that seems to provide a fertile ground for developing SRL competencies and offers the possibility of broad reflection about the self.

In Italy, the Narrative Autobiography [NA] was developed for formal and non-formal learning contexts by Demetrio (1996), founder of the ‘Libera Università dell’Autobiografia’". It involves writing about the self in order to clarify and understand problems, and to remember moments of one’s own life and reshape them. The main understanding behind the concept is that personal experience binds the individual to the context and history of his/her own community; making the lived experience explicit in written form, allows young people to engage in a reflective process. In the perspective outlined, the Narrative Autobiography is considered an educational method, able to bring tangible results in terms of recovery, change and new strategic planning.

The usefulness and importance of this method in educational practices are due to the enhancement of the individual. It is important to note that NA is not a clinical method of psychology but a pedagogical methodology, without medical or other intervention. Central to NA is the subjective point of view, with particular attention to how the individual builds the image of him/herself and of the others: cognitive and emotional processes that tell readers much more than the narrator exposes. According to Demetrio (2003), the effects of the application of narrative practices in education/training are:

1. etero-esteem: the narrator feels recognized and confirmed by the availability of a glance, encouraging words, from the time dedicated by readers to reading the autobiographical story;
2. increase in self-esteem: the narrator is helped to regain his/her subjectivity through the rediscovery of his/her own life story, the pleasure of feeling entitled to recover the dignity of the use of the first person;
3. eso-esteem: at the end of the process, the narrator, alone or with a facilitator, can clarify and enrich what was said through other channels of communication (graphic, visual, photographic).

In practice, Narrative Autobiography consists in a writing activity (with the use of different inputs and prompts) about life experiences, feelings, situations or other consistently deep personal moments. Each session of Narrative Autobiography reflects on a generative theme, which is expanded during the session. The generative themes are central aspects of life, around which are gathered personal memories. It is important to apply great caution when choosing and dealing with issues, not to create discomfort or embarrassment. Following a brief presentation of the theme from the facilitator, the writing is done by the participants in the activity. The method is usually conducted individually or in a group: in ‘face to face’ situations, where open and deeper interview is used. In group situations, it requires oral sharing of documents produced collectively, discussion of autobiographical themes that emerged, oral self-presentation as a group, collective use of materials and projective methods with evocative discussions. By listening to the stories of their peers, a participant can gain a deeper understanding of ‘the other’ and at the same time, reflect and become more aware of his/her own experiences. The experience of reflecting on autobiographical moments is doubly rewarding if translated into an intercultural learning setting, where the autobiography can be surprising, as it may involve different life experiences: different ages for entering educational institutions, religious rites, social and historical events seen through a personal lens. This process is similar but different to the methodology of ‘storytelling’: storytelling is the conveying of events in words, and images, often by improvisation or embellishment; in Narrative Autobiography the story is a ‘real’ personal life history. The tools used to perform the Narrative Autobiography are multiple: personal journals, creative text, documents and testimonies of one’s own personal history, such as family photos, letters, objects, projections of home movies, etc. The facilitator must have active listening skills in order to establish deep trust with the narrators. The trainer (youth worker) must be patient and respect timing, taking into account the importance of pauses and avoiding the making of judgements. The facilitator and the group agree to respect the ground rules related to confidentiality, respect of privacy and do not to share personal information with others outside the activity. Working with others though, implies previous training: the youth worker must have knowledge of interview techniques and facilitation of dialogue. No special pre-requisites are needed from the young people involved in Narrative Autobiography, besides writing, listening and the will to share emotions and personal experiences with an open mind attitude.

As a pedagogical tool, the method works in a chronological dimension which, during the first stage, involves the reconstruction of key breakthroughs and existential trajectories. The variety of start points is endless: take a cue from other autobiographies or texts. It is also possible to use sensorial start points (colours, smells and tastes), art and drama (descriptions of roads, housing and places). The writing is free, respecting the style of each individual. The facilitator invites the parties to respect the ‘principle of condensation’, narrating episodes in a clear and simple manner.

During the next stage, the young person engages in a reconstruction of experiences in the space of growth and experience through the evocation of faces, people and significant actors. Each person is free to participate or not, and may decide not to recount experiences which are particularly emotionally strong.
Projects supporting entrepreneurial learning – experiences from organizations

The facilitator is careful not to embarrass or touch upon the personal aspects that a young person does not want to share. Some examples of the writing path with ideas for starting points include:

1. identity: e.g. self-portrait, history of the name, the family, the figure of reference;
2. sensations: e.g. the first time I tasted, touched;
3. important figures: e.g. he/she taught me to;
4. remember: e.g. the first time that.

The paths of writing can be varied and adapted to the age of the participants, and the context and scope of the project. It is a journey back in the memory, founded on the ‘construction of meaning’ (Bruner, 1995). The writing activity encourages narrators to engage in a process of revision, which is necessary when transforming their thoughts into writing. The effort of transcription increases young peoples’ ability to analyse their thoughts and develop awareness of their relationship with their social environment. At a later stage, through reading to others, it is possible to further deepen the content of the text and gain new insights.

ONLINE LEARNING AS AN ENVIRONMENT FOR DEVELOPING SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

Many online learning environments are increasingly designed to support Narrative Autobiography. The virtual world is recognized as a privileged way for organizing knowledge and helping develop cognitive abilities and the metacognitive process. For example, the web-forum is a space of asynchronous communication in which participants can share knowledge (in the form of written messages) and build new ones through the implicit commitment to read the opinions of others. It was argued that SRL is a fundamental process in particular when related to hypermedia environments. Azevedo (2007) introduced the metaphor of ‘learning environments’ as a tool of ‘meta-reflection’ designed to support ‘the apprentice’. In general, self-regulating behaviour in learning environments involves: generating appropriate learning objectives and building an action plan for a learning session; implementing effective learning strategies; increasing self-understanding and monitoring the appropriateness of the content for the learning session.

The learning contexts of youth work could adapt these theoretical frameworks and methodological advancements by using online learning environments. It is easier to choose a widespread and intuitive learning environment such as Moodle or collaborative software designed to facilitate the construction of knowledge such as Synergeia. These online tools make forms of reflective learning possible in ways also able to ‘incubate’ entrepreneurial skills: the subject, with the use and practice of SRL in this online environment, can learn to plan his/her objectives, designing and monitoring strategies, and assess the achievement of his/her purpose. These general skills are useful and transferable in an attitude of initiative towards entrepreneurship.

The software Synergeia, in particular, is a platform that contains communication environments both synchronous (chat) and asynchronous (forums), drawing tools for the construction of concept maps (Map Tool), a calendar to share deadlines and appointments, and other spaces for the individual organization of shared material. The common area is represented by folders that can contain documents, external links and discussion spaces. The spaces of asynchronous communication, forums, are called ‘construction areas of knowledge’: in them one can trace graphically the sequence of conversational exchanges between the various participants. Before it can be posted, each message is classified by means of content descriptors, called ‘thinking types’, which represent the contents of the entire message to be posted (e.g., Problem Statement for the presentation of a problem, Working Theory for illustration of the theoretical point of view, Reflection on the Process). Both Synergeia and Moodle share as a central element the use of the web-forum, a space of asynchronous communication in which participants can share their experiences, in the form of written messages, and build new ones through the implicit commitment to read the opinions or knowledge of others and to subject them to deep analysis. The first feature of the forum is the asynchronous nature of communication and the importance of the textual dimension, which makes it the favourite tool for storytelling and writing.

The promotion of SRL skills with technology allows young people to be up-to-date with the needs of a rapidly evolving society, where the ability to act and intervene creatively in reality is becoming dominant. According to Montalvo & Torres (2004), each person with internalising SRL is better able to achieve the desired result: having developed skills in planning, monitoring and self-evaluation, she/he is able to assess the achievement of the objective and plan corrective action. In this way, developing aspects of SRL in non-formal settings means meeting the needs of a complex society.

CASE STUDY
STATUS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING IN ITALY

Youth unemployment rates in Europe were 7.5% (26,588 million men and women in the EU-27) in April 2013 (Eurostat, 2013). In Italy the percentage of youth unemployment rates were particularly high (35.3%). Because of the current crisis, it is increasingly difficult to create a proper activity that can ensure the production and exchange of goods and services. This has started a downward spiral, affecting young people in particular, who are increasingly excluded from the labour market. The common perspective of entrepreneurship in Italy is of the ‘family company’: often a small and medium family-owned business, transferred from generation to generation.
The current legislation encourages the creation of new businesses and companies by young people aged between 18 and 35. It prioritises/particularly encourages persons residing in certain geographical areas that, at European level, are classified as ‘depressed’, primarily located in the South of Italy. Overall there are regulatory and tax incentives that support youth entrepreneurship but the information is not conveyed and implemented effectively. Also, there are two main weak areas: one is the difficult relationship between businesses and banks (by lenders increasingly being required to partially cover the costs of investment capital, detractors for new businesses and interest rates are not facilitators). The failure to receive the necessary credit leads to a climate of distrust and scepticism about the services offered by banks. The second deterrent is the weak connection between schools and local enterprises. Consequently, young people tend to lose confidence in the realistic possibilities of them developing a business. A ‘Youth in Action’ project aimed to address this last concern.

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

The next part will present the application of the Narrative Autobiographical method within a Youth in Action project called ‘KubEU’ (where K is knowledge, UB for cube and EU for Europe), carried out by an informal group of young people. The project started in August 2012 and was completed in June 2013. The goal was to foster young people’s sense of belonging to the community, to stimulate self-reflection, meta-cognition, and self-observation.

Population and problem

The project was set up in Apulia, a small town in Southern Italy. The informal group was called ‘Activity for’ and composed of four young women (one student, one unemployed person, one young person looking for her first job and one from the academic field with postgraduate education in Psychology) and one young man engaged in an occupation not related to his university education. All were under 30 years old. This group was brought together by a common interest to discuss the issue of unemployment and to make a contribution to the youth of the local community. The group designed the project and its members promoted the involvement of the community. Following several discussions with about 30 young women and men (18-30 years) from high school and university, it emerged that many were experiencing a difficult transition to employment after finishing formal education. The transition from education to work was often experienced with resignation and apathy.

Aims

The purpose of the project was to enable young people still in education (high school and university) to develop a higher level of control over the transition to the world of work by promoting entrepreneurship. The aim was to explore the possibilities for growth in the local communities and to enable young people to navigate through the local economic situation, perceived as unfriendly. The project aimed to discuss and propose an active discussion about the way in which young people experience their personal and professional transition in the community. The underlying idea was that young people need to articulate their concerns about their choices and perception of the local environment and to build networks of solidarity.

Intervention

The project had a total involvement of around 40 young people, who participated in the various activities according to their own interests. Not everyone participated with the same level of involvement throughout the activity and some were more enthusiastic and consistent than others. Gradually, this number increased due to social networks, which lead to a wider dissemination of the project. The project was divided into five phases:

1. Socialisation and preparation

This phase concerned the first presentation of the project, and collection of the expectations and needs of young people. In addition, the informal group drafted a skills map of all the team useful for the management of the project.

2. The Narrative Autobiographical Laboratory

This laboratory was put forward to convey the theme of the work through discussion and collaborative practice with a group of young people. A Narrative Autobiographical Laboratory was set up in order for young people to reflect on their working experiences through Narrative Autobiography, and comprised 10 young local people (seven girls and three boys from 18 to 30 years). They applied spontaneously through web sites or in person, after the local group included several press releases in the local media press.

The Laboratory was led by one facilitator trained in the method of Narrative Autobiography and has been organised in three meetings (of three hours each) in a public structure for cultural associations. The setting was very quiet, with different rooms to carry out the activity. This facilitator assisted young people in making sense of and interpreting their working life experiences (for
example, recalling employment, work situations, relationships with colleagues or bosses, focusing on professional identity). Centred on the working experience, it allowed a narrative reconstruction of the episodes of their working life, often emotionally charged and certainly not neutral. Through this reconstruction young people rearranged the events with personal significance and interpreted their meaning. This laboratory generated an active and enthusiastic participation from young people interested in confronting and learning more about themselves.

In the first meeting, young people discussed personal and professional identity. For example, the facilitator invited people to write about and then read and discuss ‘The first time that I feel free’. In the second activity, the verbal clues to start the writing process were extracted from a box containing random words (first holidays with friends, important experience in school, etc.).

The second meeting was about past working experiences. For example, during an activity the facilitator asked participants to draft a ‘Spiral of memory’: on white paper, each participant drew his/her spiral and filled it with moments and important points that could then be freely explained to the group. In the second part, a role-play about working life was organized.

The third meeting went deeper into the previous emotional feelings about work and developed projections about the future (for example writing about ‘My big dream’). In general, the laboratory was a climax of reflections and emotions.

Then, youth workers suggested holding a meeting about social networks and online environments. In this way the participants, with the use of multimedia techniques and methodologies close to their language, were encouraged to reflect on the themes of work, gathering information on business structure and resources. In particular, the project proposed the use of online platforms like LinkedIn to build a personal online curriculum and share ideas about projects and start-ups.

3. Comparison and mentoring: Talk with the community

This phase of the project aimed to share information and involved the community in active discussions about the topic of work. Open meetings with local people (e.g. local firm owners; heads of business) were organised. Young people from the group were invited to gather video or written interviews: in this way, they shared their working experiences, thus enabling unemployed young people to discover new work fields, and new examples of professional paths. In this phase, the informal group worked to organize ideas and opinion in an e-book, written collaboratively using Google drive tools.

4. Distribution of the project outcomes and dissemination of results through the project.

The young people developed a website which includes ideas, materials, threads which emerged and the development of the project. In the end, a final exhibition showed photos and videos produced during the project and the laboratories. It was the occasion for the official presentation of e-books to the public, private authorities and institutions.

5. Outcomes, limitations and implications for practice

The assessment was prepared for the entire duration of the project, with particular focus on the final phase of the project. There were no external assessments since the project proposals were prepared in an informal dimension and at local level.

The young people that carried out the project learned to ask questions about the labor market, to search for answers with regard to their own personal situation, but also to discover that many others are struggling with the same dilemmas. The space for dialogue and discussion with others helped them to discover their personal potential. This is an extract from a girl who attended the Narrative Autobiographical Laboratory:

‘The course was a different experience from the usual, useful to us young people, a way to grow professionally and personally. Thanks to the laboratory on the autobiographical method we discovered ability that maybe even we knew we had, to understand how to behave at an interview or in different situations, gain more self-worth, and why not make us stronger in the face situations that maybe not first we had the courage to face’ (M.C.).

The main outcome of the project was an e-book entitled ‘The white book of orientation’27, edited by the informal group ‘Activity For’, where reported experiences and different points of view are expressed by young people.

The project has not always seen a big involvement from the local population, however. This is because of the weak local culture of open debate with a facilitator. More common are traditional lectures with speakers. There was no link with formal institutions. In our opinion, opening spaces of dialogue between schools, non-formal learning, and the work place enables the building of new meanings, as well as new forms of language, symbolic systems and perspectives. It would also have been a way to raise awareness in the local press, in order to draw more attention to the point of view of young people. In general, for future projects, the team decided to focus greater attention on the students’ imagination and creativity. Achieving an attitude of greater agency allows the student to feel that he/she is protagonist of his/her own professional and personal path.
This project enabled its initiators to believe that SRL and Narrative Autobiographical, applied to the issue of work, have the capacity to assist young people to discover more about their own potential and strengths, and to increase their capacity to plan, organize and project their professional lives. Practitioners may find it useful to consider in Narrative Autobiographical activities with young people, to share experiences and learn about each other’s. Especially in an intercultural context, the Narrative Autobiographical can make sharing richer and culturally stimulating: sharing is caring. Ultimately, the chapter opens up several questions for reflection: When is silence an indicator of genuine noninvolvement, resistance, lack of confidence, apathy or powerful internal struggles? What are the implications for youth work activities? Can emotions obstruct or facilitate the sharing of experiences? How much space should be given to emotions? Are all practitioners capable of handling particularly emotional moments?

REFERENCES


This chapter explains how the World Association of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts (WAGGGS) plays a unique role in increasing the entrepreneurial learning of girls and young women by contributing towards their capacity to take initiative, be creative, identify problems and act. It is argued that WAGGGS empowers girls and young women to develop as leaders, to gain self-confidence, to build, to understand and take action on issues which are important to them and their communities.

WAGGGS is the largest voluntary organization dedicated to girls and young women in the world, supporting (in total) over 10 million individual girls and young women across 145 countries to realise their fullest potential as responsible citizens. WAGGGS focuses on leadership development delivered through its innovative global education community action and advocacy programme. The first Girl Guide association was founded in the United Kingdom over 100 years ago, and WAGGGS was established (in 1928) to enable Girl Guides and Girl Scouts to share their ideas and experiences as a movement. WAGGGS is based in London and is active worldwide.

Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting works through three distinct programmatic areas: education and awareness, community action, and advocacy. Programmes are delivered through non-formal education, volunteering, and leadership development. WAGGGS supports Member Organizations to deliver activities...
In 2012, WAGGGS conducted several online surveys for current Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, adult leaders, alumnae and Member Organizations [MOS] in order to assess the impact of Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting on the lives of girls and young women around the world. In total, nearly 1,500 girls and alumnae, and 56 MOS across 74 countries completed the surveys which combined quantitative and qualitative measures. The survey results were also complemented by the 2012 Performance Assessment [a process that WAGGGS MOS take part in every three years, self-assessing their organizational development and the quality of the programmes they offer] which was completed by 130 MOS, (84% of MOS belonging to WAGGGS). The results shown in this chapter demonstrate the impact of the girl guiding/girl scouting methodology on entrepreneurial learning.

**WAGGGS: PRINCIPLES AND VALUES IN ACTION**

WAGGGS’ Mission is to enable girls and young women to develop their fullest potential as responsible citizens of the world. Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting provide opportunities for members to experience, learn and develop life and leadership skills through a range of programmes and activities. They are open to all girls and young women whatever their religion, ethnic group or background.

WAGGGS’ Educational Programme is delivered through non-formal educational activities provided by trained volunteers. It involves youth active participation and the engagement in a leadership path. These elements enable girls and young women to develop self-confidence, self-esteem, values, appreciation of others, leadership skills and international understanding (Fig. 1.).

The educational programmes aim to strengthen the whole individual by developing the intellectual, spiritual, physical, emotional, social and moral aspects of their personality. Girl Guiding/Girl Scouting works through a system of progressive self-development for each individual, who decides in which way they want to learn and develop, and at what pace. It is therefore necessary to ensure that each Girl Guide/Girl Scout is aware of her own level of development, and is encouraged to progress, and the role of the leader is crucial in supporting her to see the way forward and reflect on past progress made, according to her level of development.

Hence, the Girl Guide/Girl Scout method comprises a number of different elements. To start with, the principle of learning by doing should be mentioned. Girls choose their route and proceed with their chosen activities at their own pace, exercising self-motivation and freedom of choice. Furthermore, they have the possibility to take part in a range of activities or challenges, and are encouraged to contribute to and achieve an individual or group task. In this way, teamwork through the patrol system (a small group of six to eight people working together on different tasks) encourages friendships, self-expression, and the development of joint and individual responsibility.

In addition, service in the community and a relationship with nature improve the contact with the outdoors, encouraging self-sufficiency, determination and an appreciation of the environment, and consequently affecting the lives of others and the world around them.

The educational programme is implemented through the active co-operation between young people and adults, where adults work side by side with the young members in a system of cooperation and support, and where members can learn more about the world around them and develop tolerance and respect for others, often through an international experience.

The development of leadership expands throughout the movement and provides WAGGGS members with the knowledge and skills to assume leadership positions at different levels of the association. It is based on the principles of continuous learning, shared and distributed leadership, collaborative working models, providing a supportive environment, and a critical approach to the status quo. The leadership WAGGGS members learn, share and experience is explained and understood in the context of the diverse experiences in which Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting operates and exists. As they learn and practice leadership, the organization encourages sensitivity to people’s contextual environment.
For example, since 1932, the WAGGGS Juliette Low Seminars [JLS] have offered an opportunity for young women to develop international leadership, friendship and understanding. The Juliette Low Seminars look at leadership from a holistic view of women as leaders and how this can grow and change at different stages of their lives. It explores the challenges, questions and opportunities this may present for young women and they can become more balanced, resilient and inspiring leaders. The Seminars promote new themes such as making empowering choices in their work and personal lives, and promoting entrepreneurial initiatives.

Over 80% of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts who responded to the survey say that Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting has helped them ‘a lot’ to feel more confident in taking the lead. About 94% of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts say they feel like they can play a part in addressing issues important to them.

Analysis of the global experience of children and young people over many years, shows that the absence of their perspectives in policy-making at all levels has consistently militated against their best interests. WAGGGS and Member Organizations work to address this by advocating for greater youth participation at the community, national and international level. WAGGGS not only advocates for girls and young women everywhere, it empowers them to advocate for themselves.

Thus, each year since 2008 WAGGGS has focused on a specific MDG, providing activities and information, opportunities to participate in related global events and seminars and advocate at global level on these issues. The Global Action Theme ‘together we can change our world’ is the framework for WAGGGS’ work from 2008 to 2015 on the achievement of the MDGs. Under this motto, WAGGGS aims to influence decision-makers, to raise awareness and mobilize WAGGGS members to organize community action projects that contribute to achieving the MDGs.

As an intercultural, inter-generational organization committed to a robust inclusion and diversity policy WAGGGS is well positioned to raise awareness on issues affecting girls and young women, to provide a platform for discussion, debate and decision-making about these issues and conduct public advocacy campaigns to influence decision-makers. One example of WAGGGS advocacy in action is its Stop the Violence campaign which aims to end violence against girls through a non-formal education programme to educate young people to stand up for their rights and the rights of others. Through WAGGGS, young women have the opportunity to meet with their peers around the world and participate in exciting international projects. Girls can apply to be delegates at UN conferences such as the Commission on the Status of Women and conferences on climate change (UNFCCC), follow up projects on preventing HIV and AIDS and on the other Millennium Development Goals. Several girls and young women took the lead in these processes, after being trained under the ‘WAGGGS Leadership Development Programme’ [WLDP]. WAGGGS has for many years until now had a young representative in the Advisory Council on Youth of the Council of Europe and a Gender Equality Rapporteur on youth issue in the same institution.

Furthermore, the ‘WAGGGS e-learning initiative’ has been developed at WAGGGS as a response to a motion passed at the 34th World Conference to make the Leadership Development Programme more accessible to girls and young women around the world. A key challenge has been to align learning in a virtual environment with the key WAGGGS values of non-formal education in a supportive cross-cultural environment. The project is being developed by WAGGGS and the University of Reading as part of a Knowledge Transfer Partnership [KTP].

THE WAGGGS SURVEY ON KEY ELEMENTS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING

Research methodology and limitations

In 2012 WAGGGS conducted three online surveys for current Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, adult leaders, alumnae and Member Organizations. The topics addressed were the impact of non-formal education, youth participation, volunteering, and leadership development on Girl Guides and Girl Scouts. In total, nearly 1,500 girls and alumnae and 56 MOs across 74 countries completed the surveys, which were promoted through the WAGGGS website and by WAGGGS Member Organizations. It is difficult to say if all the Member Organizations invited all their young women to reply, because the survey was distributed through official and informal networks. The surveys combined quantitative and qualitative measures and, where appropriate, were augmented added to existing WAGGGS data as well as national and international indicators. The survey results were also complemented by the 2012 Performance Assessment survey, which was completed by 130 MOs, constituting 84% of MOs.

This is the first time that WAGGGS has attempted to understand the impact of its programmes in this way. The research was online and represented the opinions of the Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, aged 12 or above, who responded. The number of respondents was quite small in relation to WAGGGS’ overall membership, but it provided a first indication of the impact of Girl Guiding/ Girl Scouting across the world. The survey was based on self-reported/personal opinions; there was no triangulation. It may also be that young women participating in WAGGGS already had the skills, confidence, etc. from the outset. Thus, no causal inferences can be made, as the survey does not provide information on the succession of skills: for instance, it is possible for young women entering WAGGGS to have already volunteered for other organisations, and to have joined WAGGGS as a consequence.
WAGGGS and Member Organizations consistently share their learning with others and have published an average of about 25 new Research publications in the last 12 months, demonstrating their contribution to best practice on key issues; they have also continued to form new partnerships in order to build the capacity of their association and deliver programmes more effectively to more young people.

**RESULTS**

Non-formal education

There were three questions in the survey, aimed at understanding what the added value of participating in non-formal education is for young women. WAGGGS also tried to understand if its methodology was improving young women's skills in public speaking, teamwork, taking the lead, solving complex situations, and so forth.

How would you rate your knowledge of global issues compared to your peers outside of Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting?

The graphic refers to the amount of years spent in the organization. We can observe that 81% of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts that responded to the survey say that their knowledge of global issues comes from a large or moderate extent from Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting. The longer they have spent in Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, the more likely it is that they consider their knowledge of global issues better than their peers do.

Has being involved in Girl Guiding or Girl Scouting helped you in the following ways?

| Work in a team | 2 | 10% | 88% |
| Feel more confident taking the lead | 3 | 15% | 81% |
| Overcoming difficult situations | 3 | 18% | 76% |
| Overcoming difficult situations | 2 | 6% | 25% | 67% |
| Speak out in public | 1 | 9% | 29% | 60% |

% of Girls Guides and Girl Scouts who thinks their knowledge of global issues is much or a little better than their peers

Fig. 2.
WAGGGS’ educational programme and lifelong learning

For young women to be influential citizens, it is important that they continue to invest time in developing their skills and knowledge on global issues. Since completing their activities as a Girl Guide or Girl Scout nearly 56% of alumnae say they have continued to develop their skills and knowledge. In comparison, a European Union study found that on average only 10% of women undertake lifelong learning within the EU and 22% in the UK.31

Fig. 4.

In the last three years, how many organizations (e.g. Businesses, UNAgencies and International/NGOs) have you formed partnerships with?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Number</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asia Pacific</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western hemisphere</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
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<td>Africa</td>
<td>2</td>
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</table>

Organisation Staff opinions on the overall quality of WAGGGS’ Educational programme is that over three-quarters of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts rated the quality of WAGGGS training and materials as excellent or above average. Organisation staff report high involvement in partnerships when reading comments provided in the survey. The number of formal partnerships doubled compared to the previous triennium 2007-2010. Some examples are the newly established (corporate) partnerships with Alcoa Foundation, Dove, or the White Ribbon Movement. Such partnerships are meant to complement local support by providing a more global influence.

Youth participation, volunteering and leadership

93% of the Girl Guides and Girl Scouts who responded to the survey believe that young people have an important role to play in raising awareness of and supporting global issues. Over 80% of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts say that Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting has helped them ‘a lot’ to work in a team and feel more confident about taking the lead. More than 9 out of 10 girls and young women have taken action on global issues that they care about. Several actions were undertaken in the Africa and Asia Pacific Region. This involved: projects providing training and literacy and business skills to help young women into employment in South Africa; an education programme to prevent anaemia in Uganda, Rwanda and Swaziland; a project called Sing for Change in the UK, which raised money through concerts and sponsored singing events to take 8,681 people out of water poverty in Nepal.

Fig. 5.

More than half of all girls who have completed activities as part of the Global Action Theme and WAGGGS Stop the Violence campaign state they have met with decision-makers and feel overwhelmingly that their opinions were heard. Added to this, more than 63% of girls have made their voices heard by participating in a community initiative.

Girl Guides and Girl Scouts are able to participate in activities organized by WAGGGS where such issues as the achievement of the MDGs or preventing violence against women are being discussed. In the last 12 months, those attending such events developed action plans in 44% of these activities, where 20% of these action plans directly address the MDGs and 14% address violence against girls.
**For each event that your MO attended, did WAGGGS/ MO representative or a young woman…**

- **Speak formally**: 47%
- **Meet with decision makers**: 46%
- **Develop an action plan**: 44%
- **Form new partnerships**: 41%
- **Influence text of formal declaration**: 34%

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**Fig. 6.**

Nearly six in ten girls who have been involved in Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting state that they have subsequently inspired other girls and women in their community to take action on global issues, reflecting the broad multiplier effect of the Movement. 41% and 31% of girls respectively have started up their own community initiative after completing the Global Action Theme and Stop the Violence curriculums.

**Since joining the Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, have you…?**

- **Spoken to friends and family on global issues that you’ve learnt through girl guiding and girl scouting?**
  - Yes: 15%
  - No: 85%

- **Asked friends and family to take action on global issues that you care about?**
  - Yes: 28%
  - No: 72%

- **Been successful in getting friends or family members to take action on global issues that you care about?**
  - Yes: 42%
  - No: 58%

- **Started up a community initiative to help address a global issue that you care about?**
  - Yes: 64%
  - No: 36%

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**Fig. 7.**

Evaluating the activities related to the Global Action Theme and Stop the Violence curriculums, two areas were fundamental for WAGGGS: starting a community initiative in order to improve the situation in one’s local community, and participating actively in a community initiative organized by others with the scope of influencing and inspiring others to do the same. It can also be argued that while a young woman actively participates in this sense, her confidence and competencies are strengthened. Once this happens, she is ready to take more and more leadership positions inside and outside her organization. In addition, 68% of alumnae mentor other girls and young women, both within and outside the Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, whilst 43% of alumnae and 89% of MOs have also successfully advocated for young women to be represented in other organizations.

Over two out of three girls and young women involved in Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting also volunteer outside the movement. When the responses are disaggregated by country, it becomes clear that Girl Guides and Girl Scouts have a much higher rate of volunteering compared to national averages.

**Are you involved in any voluntary work outside of Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting?**

- **Mexico**: 78% Yes, 26% No
- **Canada**: 73% Yes, 34% No
- **USA**: 57% Yes, 44% No
- **UK**: 52% Yes, 30% No
- **Argentina**: 38% Yes, 18% No
- **Australia**: 36% Yes, 39% No

**Fig. 8.**

Furthermore, over 61% of Girl Guides and Girl Scouts also spend an average of 15 hours per month volunteering for organizations outside the Movement.
Nine out of ten young women involved in the girl scouts (49%) consider themselves leaders. Besides this, more than 70% of alumnae agree that Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting has largely developed their knowledge and skills of good leadership and provided an environment in which to practice these skills. Girls, alumnae and volunteer leaders overwhelmingly say that the greatest benefits of Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting are the opportunities for them to take responsibility and lead.

Do you feel like you can play a part in addressing issues that are important to you?

|  | 94% | 6% |

Do you think that your opinions will be heard by decision makers?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
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<tr>
<td>77%</td>
<td>23%</td>
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CONCLUSIONS

Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting provide opportunities for members to experience, learn and develop leadership skills and several competencies through a variety of programmes and activities. Key competences in the shape of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to each context are fundamental for each individual in a knowledge-based society. They provide benefit for the young women themselves, and for society as a whole. The data presented above indicate that guiding and Girl Scouting plays a particularly strong role in building girls’ confidence, teamwork and leadership skills.

Volunteers in Girl Guiding/Girl Scouting bring a fresh, different point of view on several issues; stimulating creative thinking using active earning that at the same time builds knowledge and skills. Not only does Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting encourage girls to contribute to their communities, it provides supported opportunities for adults to get involved in developing female leaders and in contributing to the wider community (Seven out of ten volunteer leaders say that Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting is an excellent experience).

All these skills are the foundation of entrepreneurial learning in WAGGGS; the exposure to non-formal education and the development of a lifelong learning path enrich the entrepreneurial attitude, and stimulate girls and young women to envisage creative solutions with regard to personal and professional life. Moreover, it helps girls and young women to put in place ideas that will not only contribute to economic growth, but lead to sustainable living.
WAGGGS World Bureau (2012)  
2012 Evaluation Report Summary  

EYV 2011 Alliance (2011) EYV  
2011 Alliance Policy Agenda for Volunteering in Europe  


UK Charities Aid Foundation (2011) World Giving Index  

WAGGGS taking action on gender (2012) A Toolkit to support Young People's Participation and Empowerment  

Volunteering in the European Union Educational, Audiovisual & Culture Executive Agency (EAC-EA) Directorate General Education and Culture (DG EAC)  

Final Report submitted by GHK 17th February 2010 Cecile Mathou.
Over a billion people in the world are members of cooperatives, a type of enterprise that at a global level produces more than 100 million jobs, 20 percent more than multinationals, according to International Co-operative Alliance (ICA) statistics. These significant figures are often not given full consideration within the global economic discourse, perhaps because of the local nature of many cooperatives, broken up into a myriad of different experiences, divided by cultural barriers and geographic distances.

‘The statistics tell part of the story. Now it’s time to tell the rest.’ With this slogan, Euricse, in collaboration with the ICA, launched the online Stories.coop initiative, a virtual international ’diary’ in which the story of a different cooperative – written, filmed or photographed – are told every day. Euricse is a European research institute that studies cooperative and social enterprises. ICA is an independent, non-governmental organisation which unites, represents and serves co-operatives through lobbying and special projects worldwide. Stories.coop is the key independent multimedia campaign launched by the two organisations for the UN International Year of Cooperatives 2012. Stories.coop will play a key part in taking the message – enunciated by UN Secretary-General...
Ban Ki-Moon – that ‘co-operative enterprises are a reminder to the international community that it is possible to pursue economic sustainability and social responsibility’ to the general population.

Stories.coop is a digital campaign designed to demonstrate to the general population that the co-operative model is pervasive and that it works. It is the first co-operative stories database worldwide, a key form of communication and the main vehicle for the promotion of the co-operative model with the general public. It is a dynamic and interactive website where co-operative stories are published daily. Stories.coop has two partners: Euricse and ICA.

Stories.coop is an independent multimedia campaign that aims to produce professionally-told stories by award-winning writers, as well as film-makers and photographers, to demonstrate the many facets of the co-operative sector through the independent telling of individual stories about co-operatives. Stories.coop also functions as an open project – it publishes self-told stories about co-operatives, in film, in words and in images on its web portal. The database can be utilized for training or research purposes. It is freely available in an open-access format, complementing the over 400 stories of cooperatives currently available on Stories.coop.

Stories.coop is open for any co-operative to contribute its story and is the only global, online home for co-operatives and their stories. In 2012, one new story was highlighted everyday as part of the effort to promote co-operatives, raise awareness of their contribution and promote the formation and growth of co-operatives. Last year it collected 440 stories from 80 counties and the website had 89,000 users and 315,000 hits. These are stories about collective enterprises that play a crucial role both in a number of traditional sectors (e.g. banking, agriculture, housing, retail) and in the production of general-interest services (e.g. social; health; work integration; educational). They register outstanding results that often outperform for-profit and public enterprises.

The data base shows the diverse nature of the cooperative sector around the world and highlights the cooperative principles and plurality of cooperative forms of enterprise. Thanks to the storytelling, we brought to the attention of a wide audience, including institutional decision-makers and the public at large, a variety of experiences in diverse countries, economic sectors and social realities. By navigating the stories, coop database, it is possible to have an in-depth virtual tour of the impact and importance of the cooperative movement.

Stories.coop is still collecting new stories and cooperative experiences. The campaign wants to demonstrate to the world the benefits of the cooperative way of doing business, through stories of cooperation. Your stories will paint a picture of the enormous diversity within the cooperative experience. Please play your part in this campaign. Share your story!

Further information available at: www.stories.coop

Jobtown is a European Network of Local Partnerships for the Advancement of Youth Employment and Opportunity. It is based on a partnership between 10 European municipalities and one German university concerned about the impact of the economic crisis on the lives of young people (absent or precarious employment). The Network involves local economic and social stakeholders in the planning of new strategies, with the aim of increasing job opportunities and improving existing services addressing young people.

The rationale behind JobTown is that the problem of youth unemployment does not only concern young people. It has general social, economic and political causes and repercussions and therefore needs to be treated as a structural problem. The network is about finding what local administrations can most usefully do in order to support youth employment and opportunity creation.

Given the multiplicity and interaction of the causal factors of youth unemployment and underemployment, there is a need for integrated solutions. As such, the approach must be systemic, with interconnected actors involved in developing, learning and adapting...
their methodologies and interventions, in an on-going joined up process. This project seeks to address structural youth unemployment and poor employment, by establishing Local Partnerships for the advancement of Youth Employment and Opportunities, driven by city administrations. The aim is to advance youth employment and develop and maintain a competitive and sustainable local economy and social model. JobTown engages with 5 main sub-themes:

• Developing effective models of cooperation – for involving and mobilising youth, local businesses, training and education providers, and relevant public bodies, services and administrations.

• Improving career and vocational guidance, apprenticeships, traineeships, entrepreneurial education and generic skills acquisition for young people with fewer opportunities and with fewer skills

• Assisting university graduates with making successful transitions into the world of work.

• Labour market needs analysis: Matching employment and demand by improving analysis and forecast of labour market evolution and needs with respect to skills and most required professional profiles (labour market analysis).

• Entrepreneurship – Support for business creation and development, self-employment, acquisition of entrepreneurial skills, and improving the business environment.

• Social economy and resource management: Innovation and how to do more for less.

There are 11 Local Support Groups, one in each of the municipalities included in the Network. They have the role of developing permanent local partnerships for the advancement of youth employment. Thus, each Local Support Group will pursue a coordinated approach to youth employment and local development. This is achieved by creating one stable point of access for partnership development with employers, youth organisations and services, labour organisations, public institutions and different departments of the local and regional administrations, schools and training providers and other relevant stakeholders and expertise (as per the characteristics and dynamics of each locality).

Each partner develops and implements a cooperation process suitably adapted to their local dynamics, in which they determine: what legal structure the model will take; the approach they consider most suitable; the methodology of work (e.g. who does what, when, what modes of communication they will adapt, etc).

Each Local Support Group will also establish their calendar of work and decision-making mechanism and will produce a work plan in which they will organise, according to the project objectives, the main tasks they will perform at local and transnational level.

Each Local Support Group will design a local action plan outlining the strategy they will pursue to address the different sub-themes of the project in their local areas. This plan will be co-produced with the members of the Local Support Group, and in particular, with the Managing Authorities of the European Structural Funds.
The ‘Entrechok’ Programme

managed by the ‘Bureau International Jeunesse’ (International Youth Office), French-Speaking Community of Belgium

FABIEN MANGIN

Fabien Mangin is a programme coordinator at the ‘Bureau International Jeunesse’ Brussels Belgium. He has many years’ experience in managing youth programmes and setting up bilateral and multilateral cooperation projects.

The ‘Bureau International Jeunesse’ (BIJ) is a public body, part of the Wallonia-Brussels Federation, Belgium. Its main role is to manage different international and national programmes based on non-formal learning, and is aimed at young people living in Wallonia and Brussels that want to engage in learning mobility experiences. The BIJ is also the ‘Youth in Action’ National Agency of the French Speaking Community in Belgium.

At the BIJ, we consider that every young person involved in an international project has an entrepreneurial spirit, yet this is not always acknowledged. Young people involved in non-formal learning activities develop a wide range of competencies that can be regarded as entrepreneurial: creativity, the ability to carry out a project and to manage a budget, autonomy, responsibility, etc.

Moreover, the theme of entrepreneurial spirit has been adopted by the BIJ for many years already. The BIJ has particularly encouraged the development of of Student Entrepreneur Clubs ‘Clubs Etudiants Entrepreneurs – CEE’ in Wallonia and Brussels, facilitating meetings with similar clubs from Quebec, Canada.

www.lebij.be
Meetings between experts in promoting an entrepreneurial spirit among young people from Quebec Canada, the ‘Economic Stimulus Agency’ (ASE – Agence de la stimulation économique) from Wallonia Belgium and the ‘Agency for enterprises’ (ABE – Agence bruxelloise pour l’entreprise) from Brussels have been organised since 2007.

In 2009, the BIJ, in collaboration with the ABE, ASE and the French initiative ‘Envie d’agir’ organised a seminar with participants from the Wallonia-Brussels Federation (FBW), Quebec Canada, France and the Canton of Jura (Switzerland). This event brought together professionals from the youth sector and experts in promoting an entrepreneurial spirit.

One of the objectives of the seminar was to prove that entrepreneurial spirit was not exclusively connected to the economic world. Bridges were built between the participants with different backgrounds and several tools and methods were pooled.

Following this event, consultations with the different partners were undertaken in Wallonia and Brussels, most notably with the Export and Foreign Investment Agency from Wallonia (AWEX – Agence wallone à l’exportation et aux investissements étrangers) and its ‘Explort’ programme.

Besides fostering the sharing of knowledge and facilitating the networking of different actors engaged in promoting an entrepreneurial spirit among young people, the BIJ also wished to develop a specific tool to support entrepreneurial projects, namely the ‘Entrechok’ programme.

The rationale behind this programme is to support projects that cannot be supported by other existing financial schemes for different reasons such as status, accessibility, project specificity, etc.

Launched in July 2012, ‘Entrechok’ aims to offer young people, aged between 20 and 35 from Wallonia and Brussels, the chance to either do a study visit or participate in a training course or an exhibition in another country, with the purpose of helping them to better define and improve their initial entrepreneurial project, be it social, economic, cultural, environmental or a community project. Social economy, sustainable development and innovative projects are given priority.

The applicants are requested to present the state of progress of their entrepreneurial project, to explain why they chose the specific country or event they want to go to, to present the programme of their study visit, to explain the possible development of their entrepreneurial project thanks to the study visit/training course/exhibition, as well as to present the potential contacts with project management support structures.

After more than half a year since its launch, we have supported more than 30 people with an average age of 25. The ‘Entrechok’ programme covers travel expenses up to €1,000 per person.

A few examples of supported projects:

A young designer went to Morocco for a study visit aiming to familiarise himself with the different leather craftsmanship techniques used in Casablanca. He worked with specific quality tools, met different local craftsmen and got involved in the activities carried out in the workshop.

Three young agricultural engineers from Wallonia did a study visit to Haiti with the aim of establishing a commercialisation network for Haitian cocoa cream on the Belgian market. They went there to gather information about the product, meet local producers and set up a fair trade professional network.

A young anthropologist, passionate about aromatherapy, went to Peru for a study visit. Her aim was to organise ecotourism visits in the region focused on essential oils and including meetings with local producers.

The amount of interest in the programme, the diversity of supported projects and the high level of satisfaction expressed by all the ‘Entrechok’ beneficiaries prove that the ‘Entrechok’ programme is indeed useful as it supports specific projects, gives confidence to the project holders and supports an ongoing or future activity.

The BIJ wishes to put forward programmes that respond to the needs and expectations of young people, complementing other international financial schemes, such as the European ‘Youth in action’ programme.

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ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING THROUGH FORMAL EDUCATION & MOBILITY PROJECTS
ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING through formal Education & mobility projects

ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING AS CONVERSATION BETWEEN BUSINESS & HIGHER EDUCATION
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BOOSTING INNOVATIVE THINKING AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP THROUGH LEARNING MOBILITY
Søren Kristensen
Entrepreneurial Learning as Conversation between Business & Higher Education

In the higher education modernisation agenda the University-Business Cooperation and Knowledge Triangle (European Commission, 2011) emerge as key concepts within the development of the Europe 2020 strategy. The need to promote dialogue between business organisations and universities is clearly identified as a key driver towards the attainment of a so-called ‘knowledge society’. This paper presents a reflection on how higher education institutions may offer new partnerships with the profit and non-profit business sector by promoting an effective knowledge triangle between education, research and innovation.

The policy argument about the opportunity to promote a university-business dialogue embraces the issue of entrepreneurial learning as an attribute that goes further than required for business activity, to include an ‘active and reactive spirit’ (Council of the European Union, 2001) and a mind-set that supports everyone in day-to-day life at home and in society, and provides a foundation for entrepreneurs establishing a social or commercial activity (Eurydice, 2012). The importance of entrepreneurial learning in higher education actions has been further emphasised in the eight key competences for lifelong learning.

According to the European Commission, the educational system has a responsibility to ensure that these key competences are integrated into the strategies of each Member State to guarantee social cohesion and active citizenship. Higher
Entrepreneurial learning through formal Education & mobility projects

In this chapter, the concept of entrepreneurial learning is deeply linked to the concept of experiential learning. According to Politis (2005), experience provides entrepreneurs with the possibility to improve their ability to discover and to exploit entrepreneurial opportunities and to learn how to overcome traditional obstacles when organizing and managing new ventures. Entrepreneurship is often a way to ‘re-combine’ known things in a different and new way. As noted by scholars such as DuGay & Salaman (1992: 622), there can scarcely be structures (schools, hospitals, social services departments, universities or colleges) that have not been somehow permeated by the language of enterprise.

According to Schón (1983), specialised professional knowledge involves elements of complexity, uncertainty, instability, and a conflict of values. Professionals from different fields of work present similarities among their practices, especially in relation to the ability through which they deal with uncertain, unstable and unique situations. In addition, even if experience is the primary source of entrepreneurial learning, it is necessary to acknowledge the experiential process, where experience is transformed into entrepreneurial knowledge. This lifelong learning process is slow and incremental and it progresses throughout people’s professional lives, throughout continuous reflection and a combination of formal, non-formal and informal learning, and through sharing experiences with colleagues, peers and mentors. Higher educational policy is called upon to promote entrepreneurial activities, such as formal training, courses and seminars, as well as to stimulate creativity, critical thinking, and reflection among young people, with the aim of motivating them to discover, combine, and think of new ideas throughout their academic and professional lives.

In the Italian context, there are many small and medium enterprises with a sound level of innovation and links with the local territories (Marini, 2012), although much remains to be done in order to encourage small entrepreneurs to go beyond an ‘attitude of individualism’ (OECD) and explore further collaboration with other stakeholders. Indeed, as argued elsewhere, ‘the events that explain why entrepreneurship becomes effective are probably not in themselves economic events. The causes are likely to lie in changes in values, perception, and attitude, changes perhaps in demographics, in institutions …perhaps in education as well.’ (Drucker 1993, 13)

What kind of higher education interventions do provide effective support for young people, enabling them to develop professional and entrepreneurial competences and to improve their ability to access the labour market? (Betcherman et al., 2007) A tentative answer can be formulated by looking at the existing literature. Thus, according to OECD, (2010) strategic issues in university entrepreneurship support are both generating motivation and entrepreneurship. As argued in Hofer et al. (2010) the current extent of entrepreneurial education is not fully reflected in university policy and institutional set-up. According to Hofer, this is evident in the absence of strategic anchoring, as entrepreneurial education is strongly dependent upon the individual commitment of a few faculty members and non-faculty staff, and not yet fully reflected in curriculum development or the university budget.

Furthermore, entrepreneurial education seems to have a weak academic status and legitimacy. It is predominantly viewed by the university leadership as a third mission and is not seen as a field of research or an academic subject, limiting the resources allocated to it (Hofer et al., 2010). Ultimately, the author argues that there seems to be a co-ordination deficit, as a range of services, departments and structures are delivering their own entrepreneurial education activities. Yet, each unit has its own understanding of what entrepreneurial education means and requires, and acts accordingly (Hofer et al., 2010). According to UNESCO and ILO (2006) the lack of rigorous evidence regarding training presents a relevant obstacle to understanding how to structure effective entrepreneurship training programmes. As outlined in Man et al. (2002), entrepreneurship depends on individual skills and competences, but also on economic opportunities and networks of support.

In 1998, Deakins & Freel argued that ‘the entrepreneur is forced to alter behaviour through experiential learning’. But how do individuals learn to act entrepreneurially? According to Rae & Carswell ‘the subjective experience of entrepreneurs, as recounted in their own words through their life stories, has a fundamental role in enabling us to explore their learning processes’ (Rae & Carswell, 2001:151). Through this medium, the discursive framing of entrepreneurial thinking and acting becomes apparent (Watson & Harris, 1999). This research has the potential to make contributions towards understand- ing the entrepreneurial process, towards theory and towards the design of learning experiences.

There is a growing body of research indicating that the learning that takes place within an entrepreneurial context is mainly experiential (Minniti & Bygrave, 2001; Reuber & Fischer, 1993; Sarasvathy, 2001; Sullivan, 2000) and is therefore enhanced by the reflective process (Schön, 1983; Mezirow, 1991), a process that involves both an individual and a collective (Wenger, 1998) dimension. What entrepreneurs learn from past experiences has an influence on entrepreneurial learning and then on their following performances.
The theories of experiential learning help us to understand how, in the entrepreneurship field, the analysis of the experiences, through reflection and integration, becomes new knowledge that can be used for new entrepreneurial ideas (Kolb, 1984; Mezirow 1991).

Which key elements turn experience into a learning experience? (Reggini, 2010)
First of all, there is the reality element: an activist perspective suggests that through the contact with and interactive experience of events, people, environment and objects, we generate a learning process, e.g. ‘reality’ is the main ingredient for the creation of learning. Further elements are continuity and processuality: experience doesn’t match up with a single isolated event, it is generated by the non-linear connection of multiple events, which are not linearly and consecutively interrelated. Each person designs her/his own learning plan and personal and professional development by connecting events and contexts and by attributing to them different degrees of consistency. The simultaneous management of projects, even under risk conditions, the ability to avoid making the same mistakes again, and the capacity to learn to detect and to understand context signals are important features that contribute to effective entrepreneurial skills.

We can also identify problem-solving elements: ‘gaining experience’ means examining reality and the self in relation to reality. Freire (2007) stresses the difference between ‘staying in the world’ – e.g. being in a context without managing the relevant processes – and ‘staying with the world’ – e.g. being in a position to identify problematic issues, opportunities, to generate questions, and to look for answers. For people who work with the management of start-up projects, it becomes relevant to increase effectiveness in opportunity recognition, and effectiveness in coping with the liabilities of newness (Politis, 2005). Learning through experience requires an ability to problematize reality and a critical elaboration of ‘reality’s material’ (Dewey, 1951).

A last element is complexity. The prior elements implied that experience involves both practical aspects as well as relational, cognitive and emotional ones. Only by the interaction of all these dimensions is the learning process properly generated.

Schön (1983) draws attention to knowledge in action, a feature of common practice knowledge which often occurs in a spontaneous way and which is partially unconscious. Through reflection, the professional can bring out and criticize tacit understandings that have been built around the repetitive experience of a specialized practice and eventually reinvent a new way of setting the problem. As a result, we should not consider the process of thinking and the process of acting as two separate realms: reflection in action occurs especially when the results do not coincide with the expectations. In fact this triggers a feed-back process implying the re-analysis of what has happened, starting an investigative process guided by reflective thinking. Most reflection taking place during action is triggered by a surprise experience. It forces entrepreneurs to correct any tendency to apply the same (or a similar) practice to different contexts, allowing room for re-inventing new ways to approach problems, especially within new working and new cultural and relational environments.

Within EU neoliberal trends and the competitive dynamics enhanced by the recent economic crisis, self-employment and entrepreneurship cannot be viewed only as a choice and an opportunity to develop viable economic ideas. Far from a deliberate choice, a relevant part of the workforce, and especially of young professionals, can now be pushed into self-employment in order to respond to cost-effective and competitive strategies. It is therefore important to distinguish such a condition from the pursuit of entrepreneurship as a way to realize intellectual and economic potential. According to Hofer et al. (2013) “students should be made aware of “entrepreneurship” and only when they are aware of it and its implications can a deliberate choice to pursue it be made [...] A business plan competition [...] is a good tool to create awareness and promote entrepreneurship’ (Hofer et al., 2013: 9-10).

A CASE STUDY: START CUP VENETO COMPETITION

This section will present a university competition (The Start Cup) for developing entrepreneurial learning among students and staff. The Start Cup (SCV)’s aim is to develop research and technological innovation in order to promote the development of the Veneto Region by supporting and rewarding the Region's creative human capital. The SCV initiative also aims to disseminate entrepreneurial culture, particularly targeting professional and academic sectors that are still unfamiliar with entrepreneurial approaches and entrepreneurial management techniques.

The authors, who were not directly involved in the competition, analysed data and reviewed documents concerning the competition by collecting information from the project’s web site, regular news and updates issued by the organising committee, and the competition’s statute and core rules. In addition, interviews were conducted with organisers and participants and the authors attended a selection of key competition, communication, and training events.

The Start Cup competition was initiated in Padova (Italy) in 2002 in a wealthy and dynamic Italian region, whose economic model is based on small (often family-based) enterprises and is known as the North-East model. The competition was initiated by the Vice-rector in-charge of the Technological Service at the University of Padova, with financial support from ‘Cassa di Risparmio di Padova e Rovigo Foundation’ (private bank sponsor). It was inspired by a similar project initiated by the University of Bologna two years earlier, drawing on a format designed by the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (the MIT $100K Entrepreneurship Competition). In Padova the project was managed by the University.
Initially the Scientific Committee decided to open the competition only to people affiliated to the university: students, graduates from all disciplines, academicians, professors. The rationale was to provide them with the opportunity to develop an idea and to find economic and training support to transform it into a viable entrepreneurial project. Later, taking into account the dynamic socio-economic context and the opportunity to develop a dialogue with the local economic district, the Start Cup management group extended the competition beyond the university. Eligibility was restricted to teams of at least three people, possibly reflecting different areas of knowledge and competences. Potential participants were encouraged to create networks. Even if they did not know each other at the beginning of the planning process, they were stimulated to collaborate and received specific training on how to prepare a business plan in order to develop their ideas.

The SCV Management chose the ‘business plan’ as the main tool to be used by the teams. It consists of a formal document describing the core business idea, the product/service, the market distribution and possible competitors, the strategic marketing and operational plan, the business model, human resources management and the financial-economic plan. It may also contain background information about how the organization or team attempts to reach those goals: it should be not only a formal statement, but also a first step in planning, part of a process that includes regular revision and review. Since businesses need a plan on how to run and optimize growth and development, the plan constitutes an important preliminary draft which outlines the route an organization intends to take in order to generate revenues.

The organizers offered further support for the winning teams such as StartCube and a business angel network. The first is a business incubator which provides the necessary infrastructure for new business creation or spin-offs: offices, meeting rooms, facilities with reasonable rents, advantageous conditions to reduce the costs of business start-ups. The business angel network is a meeting space for new entrepreneurs and private investors willing to invest in a start-up company with a high innovation potential. All these tools offer the possibility to develop the business idea, taking into consideration the projects’ feasibility in relation to structural and economic conditions, bureaucratic elements, specific features and expected results. The idea should fall within one of four potential business sectors: Life Science, ICT – Social Innovation, Agri-food – Clean-tech, Industry. In order to support participants in their networking and drafting activities, SCV organized during this phase (usually in March-May) seven events focusing on key issues such as: developing a business idea; practical tools to draft a business plan; assessing business potential, market analysis and marketing strategy; communicating a business idea.

In a second stage, all ideas were evaluated by a Scientific Committee. The committee was composed of two members from each of the three participating universities. They included professors as well as professionals from different business sectors (accounting, marketing, financing, etc.). Only twelve ideas/teams could access the second phase. During the two-month second phase, the teams were supported by business angels\(^{14}\), expert consultants that help participants to draft the economic and financial part of the plan. Teams received tailor-made support in order to adapt and develop their core idea in relation to feasibility elements, concrete opportunities, constraints, strengths and weaknesses, simulating a possible implementation of the business plan in a real world context. The last phase involves the evaluation of the business plans. The assessment was done first by external referees and then by the Scientific Committee. The top five business plans were allowed to enter the National competition for the best ideas and plans from all over Italy. They received a monetary award to initiate their entrepreneurial project and turn it into a reality. These innovative projects have the opportunity to grow and to implement the project ideas based at a private business incubator in the local economic district – with continued collaboration and support from the three universities.

The assessment was based on the following criteria: originality (40%), feasibility (40%) and attractiveness for the local market (20%). For each criterion, assessors awarded a mark, from ‘0’ to ‘8’ for originality and feasibility and from ‘0’ to ‘4’ for attractiveness. The final evaluation was the final sum (maximum ‘20’).

In 2013, there were 108 teams involving a total of 397 people in the competition. All of them had an academic background, business experience, or worked in nonprofit organizations. Participants were encouraged to share their experiences and integrate their skills in order to work together to face common challenges by developing research ideas in the business sector according to the social and economic context.

There are analogue competitions all over Italy and the winners of each of them access the final round of the Premio Nazionale Innovazione (National Innovation Award), the national award for the most innovative projects.

The competition involves three main steps between March and October. During the first part, participants are invited to draft a short document outlining a core business idea: it should briefly describe the type of (product or service) innovation: what the team would like to achieve, the target context(s), key innovation elements, specific features and expected results. The idea should fall within one of four potential business sectors: Life Science, ICT – Social Innovation, Agri-food – Clean-tech, Industry. In order to support participants in their networking and drafting activities, SCV organized during this phase (usually in March-May) seven events focusing on key issues such as: developing a business idea; practical tools to draft a business plan; assessing business potential, market analysis and marketing strategy; communicating a business idea.
As outlined in Table 1., there is an indicator for each evaluation step:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
<th>MINIMUM</th>
<th>MEDIUM</th>
<th>MAXIMUM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MARK</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Originality</td>
<td>Idea already existing on the market, copied by an external source.</td>
<td>Partly original idea, with some innovative additional elements added to an existing product/service.</td>
<td>Strongly innovative idea, apparently not existing in the market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARK</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feasibility</td>
<td>Not feasible idea, because of technical impediments or lack of competences within the team.</td>
<td>Almost feasible idea, in need of some changes or extra competences by the team.</td>
<td>Feasible idea both in terms of team’s competences and plan to address criticalities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARK</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness</td>
<td>Market is limited or too crowded and competitive and there is no possibility for the new enterprise to survive.</td>
<td>Market limited opportunities and type of competitors define the new enterprise as risky.</td>
<td>Attractive market and good opportunities for the new enterprise that has a potential to respond to existing needs.</td>
</tr>
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Table 1. Assessment criteria for business ideas

Entrepreneurial Learning through formal Education & Mobility Projects

In 2013 the 108 ideas focused specifically on ICT and social innovation (67%), Industry (13%), Agri-food and Clean-tech (13%), and Life Sciences (7%). The gender team leaders distribution was 79% for men and 21% for women. The previous studies of teams show that participants have a mainly economic (21%) and engineering background (14%) with a lower participation from young people who have been trained in other disciplines. As the SCV competition is open to all future entrepreneurs, there is a high percentage of people (22%) without a degree or previous university studies, but with significant previous experience and links with relevant local networks.

What is the job profile of the team leaders? In 2013 they were mainly students (frequently at the end of their university courses) (21%), followed by freelancers (10%) and entrepreneurs (10%). It is not surprising that as many as 19% were unemployed people, since the opportunity to start-up a new enterprise represents for young people a way to generate self-employment.

The SCV is open to all ages, although the most frequent age for team leaders ranges between 20 and 30 years old (63%), followed by 30-40 years old (19%), with more men (79%) than women (21%), confirming the trend of previous years. This means that in the Veneto Region the competition is very attractive for young people. This seems to be reasonable, because on one hand, the competition is well connected with the university and may be a bridge from university to the labor market and on the other hand, it provides a friendly, informal and flexible format. SCV is therefore supporting the community of young students or alumni already existing within the three universities, adding value to the idea of collaborative new business, creating networks that may combine different competences in order to identify and implement new ideas.

As an example, the following business ideas became start-ups (still alive) in previous competitions: development and production of new generation nanotechnology biosensors to combat doping; development and production of biomedical chips solutions, diagnostic kits; sound reproduction of phono grams from record photographs; biopsy forceps for endoscopic digestion, able to speed up medical tests. These are, indeed, high-tech enterprises, accessible to young people who are academically highly qualified and able to access the networks of support. They confirm the idea that in order for new enterprises to be successful, they need, besides personal capacity, strong external support.

Main Lessons Learned and Implications for Practice

Business angels were key actors within this process. They acted as mentors for the participating team, constructing the new enterprise with them. This process was meant to contribute to providing the team with a realistic picture of the business opportunities in relation to the contexts relevant to them. Following the analysis of the projects, it emerged that in conditions of economic growth, and even more so in this moment of social and economic crisis, financial support for business start-ups is very important, as is an entrepreneurial culture, including knowledge of fund raising, local legislation, and empirical tools for business management.

In the Veneto Region, there are also periodic calls for women’s entrepreneurial projects and for youth (18-35 years old) start-ups funded by the local Government with simplified bureaucratic procedures, and similar projects funded by private and sector associations (e.g. ‘Rebound’ and ‘Start me up’). In the future, the SCV Management intends to increase funding opportunities for new start-up projects and to develop relations and collaboration with other regional competitions. Every year the management group of the Start Cup Veneto reviews the SCV format. Changes have focused on making training of the participating teams more effective before and after they present their business idea. The 2013 edition offered several group training activities that were open to all interested people. In this way the SCV is trying to reach out to as many trainees as possible and to offer active learning methods, including team building, cocktails and informal meetings. The intention is to give participants the opportunity to share experiences, to integrate competences, to explore a
wide range of potential collaborations, to learn from people from different fields of expertise, to build networks, and to establish numerous contacts that can be useful in order to implement respective business ideas.

The three phase-structure of the competition encourages continuity (Reggio, 2010) of the entrepreneurial process. The business plan tool stimulates a problem-solving ability and, finally, the angels’ support promotes the comprehension of complexity and complex contexts. The social dimension is helped very much by the need to prepare the ideas and the projects in teams, as well as during the many informal and social events, which are all devoted to the development and generation of new learning (Boud, Cohen, Walzer, 1993).

The issue of reflexivity in action (Schön, 1983) is very much developed by the networking with university and academic research, as well as the need to prepare the ideas and the projects in teams, as well as during the many informal and social events, which are all devoted to the development and generation of new learning (Boud, Cohen, Walzer, 1993).

The number of applicants and the quality of submitted business plans and of developed projects suggest that this model of entrepreneurial learning provides a relevant opportunity in order to encourage young people’s involvement in team work and collaborative work with a relevant business stakeholder.

The participation and visibility of key university and business actors seems to grant the activity a status that stimulates young people to engage in a meaningful professional exercise. In terms of lessons learnt, the ability to involve a variety of relevant stakeholders and provide a regular long-term process for the entrepreneurial learning experience seem to be among the decisive factors encouraging young people to deal with the challenge of developing their own ideas in collaborative ways. In the end such social networking factors appear to be as relevant, or even more relevant, than the competitive framework of the exercise itself.

To conclude, one can argue that in Italy the applied aspects resulting from university teaching and research are known to be a university’s ‘third mission’. The SCV – as one of many initiatives included in this ‘third mission’ – has been an opportunity for the Universities of Padova, Venice, and Verona to develop this side of their work. Graduate and PhD students were provided with a specific framework to translate their studies and research results into applied solutions. In turn this encouraged them to develop more specific knowledge about the territory where they live, and where they might operate at a professional level, and to relate the (potential) applied side of their studies to socio-economic issues and to their idea for the future. For (ex)students it was a challenging and motivating way to identify and reflect upon key entrepreneurial culture elements. Participants coming from the business sector are usually already familiar with such elements and more focused on concrete ways of integrating different competences within a common scientific and business project.

From Hume to Martin Weitzman, innovation seems first of all ‘a way to re-combine’ known things. More than ever, entrepreneurial behaviour requires the ability to appreciate diversity and to make comparisons with peers and colleagues, as well as to combine different competences for a better solution. For all the participants, the SCV process seemed to elicit opportunities to develop adapted collaborative (Wenger 1998) and reflective (Schön 1983) competences. Indeed, as this initiative demonstrates, in order to make business sustainable it is crucial to spark a continuous renewal of the ways to think, imagine and share a wide range of ideas with others.
The ‘Business angels’ is a concept developed in the US Center for Venture Research and initially referred to influential individuals supporting financially a business idea and giving support by mentoring people in the development of their ideas.

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This chapter will particularly focus on the role of entrepreneurship education at post-secondary level as an integrated part of vocational education and training. It will outline the goals and objectives of entrepreneurship education and provide information on current approaches taken in VET. The author has over the past 10 years visited various community colleges, career academies and career technology centres in the United States and Canada and looked at entrepreneurship programmes there. Based on a broad synthesis of developments in entrepreneurship education in Vocational Education and Training (VET) some conclusions will be drawn about the capacity of these programs and to what extent they entail implications for non-formal learning. Overall, what is particularly critical in the education of entrepreneurs is the development of methodological and social competences, which is often less emphasized than the development of professional competence. Apprenticeships can serve as a means to facilitate such learning through the development of competences in various domains that are transversal.

Policy Background

Rising youth unemployment across Europe is extremely alarming and lots of consideration is given to alternative approaches to learning for oneself and for the labour market. Entrepreneurship education, as a particular pedagogical
Entrepreneurial learning through formal education & mobility projects

Entrepreneurial learning through formal education & mobility projects

Entrepreneurship and the learning of entrepreneurial skills were one of the main goals listed in the Lisbon Strategy of the European Union. The importance of entrepreneurial skills for the further development, innovation and growth of the economy has also been highlighted in various publications of the ILO (2003, 2006, 2009). Studies on the status of entrepreneurship education around the world, commissioned by the World Bank (Farstad, 2002), indicate that the topic is of great political interest around the world and, more specifically, among the European countries. The Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 18 December 2006 on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, identifies a ‘sense of initiative and entrepreneurship’ as one of eight key competencies to be instilled at all stages of education and training. It enables individuals ‘to develop attitudes and competences as a basis for creativity, initiative, responsibility and independence’ (Cedefop, 2004: 48).

According to the European Commission DG Enterprise and Industry (2009) the common objectives of entrepreneurship education in VET comprise exploiting opportunities; further developing an idea into a product or service; solving problems, networking, accepting the implications of one’s choices; understanding finances and how organisations operate in society. Although the development of entrepreneurs is not the main goal, in most initial VET trainings delivered across Europe, teachers recognize its importance. While entrepreneurship is less present in VET in higher education, however, a large variety of courses are delivered. In VET entrepreneurship education focuses mainly on the development of an ‘entrepreneurial mind-set’. Later in life the practical knowledge required to function as an entrepreneur is in demand and often provided by private enterprises and some public institutions specialized in further education.

INTEGRATING ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION IN VET

The integration of entrepreneurship education in VET programs has increased over the last decade in the European Union. In the United States and Canada many approaches to entrepreneurship education are embedded in VET related programmes from high school level to research universities. A difference between the understanding of entrepreneurship education between Europe and North America might lie in the approach that many European VET programmes traditionally focus on the preparation of their participants to become independent thinking and performing workers, able to plan, pursue and control their work tasks, instead of business men and women. The emphasis is more on community development instead of individual achievement as in the United States (finding also confirmed by research of Ridley-Duff & Bull, 2013).

Initial vocational education and training [IVET] and Continuing VET [CVET] therefore mostly intend to prepare employees instead of potential employers (Cedefop, 2004: 49). Nevertheless, the main idea is that entrepreneurship education serves the personal development of individuals and supports them in becoming independent critical thinkers who know how to use their resources to successfully manage careers and transitions in life. Therefore entrepreneurship education in VET has increasingly taken hold in Europe (BIBB, 2004).

In some countries, entrepreneurship training has been included in the vocational school curriculum and/or in the secondary school curriculum or a national framework (e.g. Austria, Bulgaria, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Spain, the UK) (Cedefop, 2004, 58). In some of them (such as in Estonia, Spain and Poland) participation is compulsory, but in most cases entrepreneurship is an optional subject or is compulsory only in some parts of the vocational education system and not in others (European Commission DG Enterprise and Industry, 2009). At least nine countries (Austria, Cyprus, Estonia, Hungary, Luxembourg, Poland, Romania, Spain and the UK) also report that between 90% and 100% of vocational education students participate in entrepreneurship programmes at some point of their vocational education path. In the Netherlands, more than 40 specific entrepreneurship courses in VET, mostly at higher levels, are available (Onstenk, 2003).

What characterizes an entrepreneur and what kind of skills and competences should be developed in VET programs? This has been a difficult and contested issue and has led to almost endless lists of competencies, skills and qualities. According to the ILO, entrepreneurship has to be viewed ‘in a wide social, cultural and economic context as being innovative at home, school, leisure and at work... Entrepreneurial qualities or behaviour include: creativity and curiosity, motivation by success, willingness to take risks, ability to cooperate, identification of opportunities and ability to be innovative and tolerate uncertainty’ (ILO, 2003: 1). Particularly critical in the education of entrepreneurs is the development of methodological and social competences, which is often less emphasized than the development of professional competence (Fachhochschule Esslingen, 2002). In addition, Van der Kuip (1998) lists characteristics and qualities, like the need for autonomy and independence, creativity and originality, taking initiative, coping with uncertainty, looking for possibilities, posing challenging objectives, self-confidence, internal locus of control and endurance. He further distinguishes between a variety of competences that are essential for entrepreneurs, among them the ability to recognize and analyse market opportunities, handle risk, content and market. Other essential competences that Gibb (1998) points to are the ability to communicate, identify mentally, persuade and discuss with various stakeholders or various interest groups in
order to understand their needs and expectations. An entrepreneur also needs a sense of social responsibility and community (Onstenk, 2003). Gielen et al. (2003) and put particular emphasis on networking. Asked about the most relevant qualities of entrepreneurs, VET teachers point to the ability to see chances and act upon them, which is in contrast to teachers’ opinions about entrepreneurship characteristics in general education where motivation, optimistic thinking and the ability to plan are emphasized (Onstenk, 2003).

Courses that mainly prepare for the work as an entrepreneur include the finding of ideas, validation of ideas, understanding market mechanisms and dynamics, customer needs, competitor behaviour, marketing, resource management, financial management, developing a business plan and presenting it. Common forms of entrepreneurship education include an enterprise approach taken across curricula in various subjects, entrepreneurship as a single subject, or school based enterprises. The latter provide students with insights into business processes of real companies. Often these enterprises comprise a departmental distribution of work, and students rotate between them in order to learn a large variety of tasks. Here students can acquire knowledge in various departments, such as personnel, administration, marketing, accounting or logistics.

An entrepreneurial attitude can be developed in all subjects in a VET program. It is less about the content in a curriculum and far more about a teaching method, where teachers enable students to take responsibility, be flexible and open minded. Students are encouraged to establish close work relationships with other students in order to enhance social learning. Active teaching and learning approaches, such as discussions, role plays, team work, drama, presentations and interviews with entrepreneurs are additional pedagogical tools. Järvi (2012) points out that ‘entrepreneurship can be seen as having many roles: as a context, a learning environment and a way of learning. The intention is to inspire awareness of and motivation towards entrepreneurship, to develop the skills and abilities required for business activities in order to identify opportunities with an entrepreneurial mindset.’ (Järvi, 2012: 127)

Of particular importance in VET programmes is the development of social capital, because it is essential to establish supportive work relationships and balance one’s private life. Characteristics of social capital include high levels of trust, robust personal networks, vibrant communities, shared understanding and equal participation in decision making. Further facets of social capital are social trust, interracial trust, diversity of friendships, political participation, political protest, civic leadership, associational involvement, informal socializing, giving and volunteering, faith-based engagement and equality of civic engagement. Some of these characteristics can be developed in VET programs as will be outlined later, but the boundary between extra-curricular activities and civic engagement after work are fluid. In any case, meaningful social relationships are at the core. The results of a study on social capital indicate that a sense of community is a much stronger predictor for personal happiness and the perceived quality of life in a geographical area than either income or educational level (Kent & Anderson, 2004: 203).

SUPPORTING ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING IN THE WORKPLACE

The large variety of skills and competences listed above seems to be a bit overwhelming and one wonders how all of them could be developed and further enhanced in a VET program. If entrepreneurship education only starts at this stage, it might be too late since a natural desire to learn through doing something and a birth approach to mistakes is best established and nurtured during childhood. Children usually have an innate desire to imagine, experiment, and learn – which, for some, gets lost over time. Therefore, VET teachers are required to co-construct this entrepreneurial attitude of trying out as a mode of creating a new understanding of oneself and one’s capacities. Entrepreneurship education should be about encouraging students to learn through spontaneous play and exploration. In this sense, entrepreneurial learning in VET can build the foundation for learning about oneself and for life more generally speaking.

Along these lines of a more foundational interpretation of entrepreneurial learning for life, learning from failure is an essential aspect. Understanding the role of emotions in the experience of failure, learning about failures and, consequently, reflection on alternative approaches and the persistence to try again are essential pillars of entrepreneurial thinking and acting. The emphasis in this learning process is on how students feel rather than what they think (Shepherd, 2004). Rheinberg, when studying entrepreneurship education, was particularly concerned with the two dimensions of ‘goal orientation’ and ‘attrition’. A clear goal orientation talks about potential development opportunities. Within these, the individual can learn to view the future as a chance for his/her own personality development. It is also a step by step process leading to constant innovation based on rising expectation levels after one achievement. Entrepreneurship education can support the individual in identifying change or further develop one’s own attribution patterns. The latter are understood as an individuals’ beliefs about why certain events occur.

If a VET program entails workplace learning where part of the training time is spent in an enterprise, the young adults gain insights into real working life and, in small companies, they are also often in contact with the entrepreneur him or herself. Community learning can best be facilitated while learning and working in real workplaces. Apprenticeship is an approach, mainly existing in the German speaking countries, that ideally combines school-based and workplace learning – the so-called ‘dual-education system’ – and in this way provides young adults with a relatively holistic experience of the real workplace. Here the essential skills and competences for entrepreneurship can be best developed. Moreover, community learning, problem based learning and learning from mistakes, as well as learning by doing can be facilitated, if
Entrepreneurial learning through formal education and mobility projects

In just the same way as an entrepreneur, an apprentice needs to take these domains into consideration when working on a product or providing a service. Only experts can judge to what extent an apprentice has found the most feasible and appropriate solution when taking these aspects into account (Rauner, 2011). For an entrepreneur the right balance could be decisive to success. If an apprenticeship is conducted taking these 8 domains into account it would support entrepreneurial learning through developing a critical engagement of the apprentice in workplace practices. In order to achieve this, modern forms of instruction are required, e.g. in learning fields (Bader & Sloane, 2000; Huisinga, Lisop & Speier, 2000) and learning islands (Dehnbostel et al., 2001; Herz & Herzer, 2000). Both approaches are supported by a variety of scholars and applied in many German VET schools.

Learning fields are a didactic approach to curricula design in VET. Since 1996 all newly organized apprenticeships have been shaped according to this approach. Learning fields are based on fields of activity and therefore comprise knowledge and skills from various subjects. The approach breaks with the traditional division of subjects and entails inter-disciplinarity, which requires that teachers from various subjects work together on more broadly defined work tasks. An apprenticeship is usually divided into 10 to 15 of these learning fields. The underlying idea is the model of holistic action (vollständige Handlung) which entails information, planning, deciding, controlling and assessing – a process that should be learned and can after time ideally be applied in a variety of work contexts. Comprehending and mastering these essential steps is also relevant for an entrepreneur.

A learning island is often situated at the workplace as a permeable enclave in which teams work together on particular work tasks, which could also be part of the regular work process. In a learning island apprentices are provided with more time and supervision. Guided learning accompanies the work process. The constellation should encourage the improvement of action competence and social competence.

From an entrepreneurial learning perspective, Rae (2004) argues that through immersion in practice, entrepreneurs develop a theory of 'what works', including intuitive and tacit knowledge described simply as know-how, know-what and know-who (2004: 196). Learning fields and learning islands promote this kind of cognitive development. The advantage is that it leaves room for experimentation, although embedded in the real workplace it is also a separated and protected work and learning space. John Dewey (1917, 1938) was one of the most famous advocates of experiential learning. He emphasized that learning needs to be a reflected experience leading to a hunger for more exploration and new knowledge. It is through learning, and here more specifically, the contextual learning experience that individuals construct meaning and create a new reality (Weick, 1995). Considering these aspects as foundations for entrepreneurial learning would also mean that there is already more entrepreneurship education taking place than we might consider when talking about the subject.

Examples of entrepreneurship education in VET

The forms of VET provision vary widely and cannot be taken into consideration when writing about the approaches to entrepreneurship education. There is no general overview available that would provide information about the scope of entrepreneurship education in VET. In many countries, schools are autonomous in deciding about the inclusion of entrepreneurship education. VET teachers are not necessarily qualified for it and therefore the intensity and quality of programs and educational measures differ widely. Most common is entrepreneurship education in the Anglophone countries such as the United States and Canada. Community colleges in the United States offer at least one course in entrepreneurship, a small percentage provides an associate degree in entrepreneurship, 19% offer a certificate in entrepreneurship, more than half of all colleges offer entrepreneurship as continuing education, 26% offer a programme in entrepreneurship and approximately a fifth host a small business development centre (Sickle, 2008).

Canadian statistics look quite similar. According to Industry Canada (2010) a survey conducted among community colleges in 2007–2008 showed that 80% of the participating institutions offered entrepreneurship extracurricular activities, such as seminars/workshops, business plan/venture capital competitions and mentoring/coaching. This indicates that the formal provision of entrepreneurship education also has a spill-over effect into informal – and most probably non-formal education as well. However, overall enrolment levels in Canada suggest that entrepreneurship is a specialized discipline. Amongst the institutions, 2.5% of students completed an entrepreneurship course and 2.1% participated in entrepreneurship extracurricular activities. In both countries
it is common that the hired VET teachers have been entrepreneurs before and have strong ties to the industry, which are then used in supporting the practical experience of students and their transition into the world of work. These teachers also have the advantage that, based on their wealth of experience, their instruction and supervision strongly relates to reality while at the same time they know exactly what kind of competencies need to be developed further in the students. The spectrum of activities is wide and ranges from integrated awareness-raising in various subjects of the core curriculum, practical experience in enterprises over some weeks, voluntary programs in business plan development and micro-enterprise start-ups.

Start-up enterprises are often found in vocational schools in the United States. Sometimes start-up capital is provided by a bank in the form of a loan and can be used to open small enterprises like a car repair shop, nursery, post office, travel agency, kiosk or small electrical repairs. The members of a group in such enterprises often take on different roles over time, so that every aspect of the business can be learned, e.g. producing, marketing, selling, accounting. The supportive role of junior firms has been researched. According to Hekman (2006) small school based enterprises support the general competence for starting one’s own company. Young adults are sensitized to the opportunities and obstacles one usually faces when founding an enterprise. They learn to evaluate the feasibility of their endeavours, while at the same time the wish to become an entrepreneur one day might increase. The competence development takes place by learning through project planning, learning from failure, e.g. learning that the original plan did not work out, learning through interaction and negotiation with others.

When it comes to new developments in entrepreneurship education in VET, two other trends can be identified: simulations of enterprises and student competitions/games. In addition, many schools bring their students into contact with real entrepreneurs (visits to enterprises, guest lectures, work with or for entrepreneurs) (Onstenk, 2003). In the Netherlands mini-enterprises are sometimes organized together with retired entrepreneurs, who appreciate supporting the learning of students and providing their valuable expertise.

For students who will start their own activity at some point after their studies, more specific skills will be necessary, such as: being able to draft a business plan; knowing the administrative procedures for starting a company; understanding the principles of accounting, commercial law and tax law; being conscious of business ethics and social responsibility; having a clear understanding of market mechanisms; being acquainted with selling techniques.

(European Commission DG Enterprise and Industry, 2009).

For further learning a large variety of courses exist across Europe. These are not comprehensively captured statistically. Many are offered by private providers, others are state funded to encourage adults, especially when facing unemployment, to become entrepreneurs. Going back to the idea of an entrepreneurial mind-set, it seems to be most relevant to centre the focus of attention on the contribution of VET programmes, including apprenticeships, to the building of entrepreneurial mind-sets. The information that can be found about entrepreneurship education in VET suggests that the understanding first of all circulates around the preparation of entrepreneurs, while various approaches taken to experimental learning are first of all supportive of developing an entrepreneurial mind-set. In addition, a large variety of structural conditions need to be in place to facilitate entrepreneurial learning, such as qualified teachers, employers providing suitable workplaces to learn and pedagogical material. In order to support entrepreneurship in society it is further necessary to provide financial support for start-ups, mentoring programs, and accommodate individuals who fail in order to help them back on their feet without stigmatising them.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND RESEARCH

The need to create employment and support innovation has lead political leaders to reinforce the role of entrepreneurship education not only in countries that have a traditionally high rate of adults becoming entrepreneurs in their life (e.g. USA), but also in countries where individuals are more risk averse and the majority prefers a dependent employment status (e.g. Germany or France). It is known that entrepreneurship education is a highly debated educational concept that has received increasing attention over the past 10 to 15 years. It has been recognized by policy makers as a need, educational institutions have responded with a variety of measures, and it remains to be seen if more adults will become entrepreneurial in job creation or their career transitions. The most burning need in VET seems to be the education of VET teachers about entrepreneurial mind-sets, pedagogical measures that support its development and the interlinking of entrepreneurship building and existing pedagogies that are already supporting it. The development of an entrepreneurial mind-set is very much related to trust, space, respect and room for creativity. In order to facilitate this learning process, freedom to choose what is learned and when is essential as much as team working, planning and self-organization.

The general potential of VET practices for transfer into non-formal education relates to the demand for creating employment. In particular, young adults who are mainly affected by unemployment are challenged to find job opportunities for themselves in becoming an entrepreneur. The chance for a transfer of entrepreneurial activities opens up when VET schools engage in local communities and offer services there. For example, the car repair shops, hair dresser shops, mail service centers, travel agencies or nurseries at some community colleges in the United States were open to the local community (Barabasch & Rauner, 2011). In this way the students gained early interaction with customers and visibility for local employers. It provided them with the chance of a real workplace experience while the education accompanying their practical learning
supported the critical reflection upon these experiences and the development of an innovative mind-set. The interaction with customers and the involvement in real work also supports identity development and a sense of integration into society. Young adults become aware of the situation of the people living around them, develop an understanding of economic developments and economic behaviour, develop a sense of social responsibility and acquire life skills. Through the interaction with local communities and VET schools, new initiatives might start in which the entrepreneurial mind-set of students and former students plays out. VET teachers who have been entrepreneurs before entering the profession, or have an entrepreneurial mind-set can best serve in an institutional culture that is supportive of entrepreneurship education. They can help bring young adults in contact with entrepreneurs and help them more generally to discover opportunities and tap into the potential of their students.

Based on the consideration above, there are a variety of research questions in relation to entrepreneurship education and VET that could be tackled in the future, e.g.:

- What is the relationship between VET schools and their surrounding local communities?
- How do local communities support the development of entrepreneurial skills among young adults?
- How do VET schools build upon the expertise and early development in entrepreneurship derived in compulsory school?
- How are the curricula that support the development of entrepreneurial mind-sets designed?

In order to tackle these research questions, qualitative research methods as well as case studies would bring a wealth of information. These would help to reconsider current curricular approaches, sometimes potentially too focused on entrepreneurs and less on entrepreneurial thinking. A more intense cooperation between VET schools and local communities would support transfer and exchange between the community and the school or enterprise and are beneficial for both of them.

REFERENCES


ILO (2006) Stimulating youth entrepreneurship: Barriers and incentives to enterprise start-ups by young people, Geneva: I.O.


This chapter discusses examples of learning experiences with respect to entrepreneurship among Portuguese graduates, using evidence taken from recent research conducted at the University of Minho in northern Portugal. Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning are discussed in relatively broad terms: as transversal skills, attitudes and behaviours associated with creativity, innovation and risk-taking; attributes that are applicable to various areas of personal and professional life (COM, 2003, 2012). As such, this can be regarded as entrepreneurial learning in its social and cultural manifestation, rather than identifying business opportunities or business creation. Although the importance of entrepreneurship education has long been recognised, this conceptualisation is relatively new and under-developed in many national contexts, including Portugal, in contrast to other countries such as Belgium, Finland and Sweden. In what follows, we argue that entrepreneurship values can be encouraged via formal, informal and non-formal learning experiences, and this can be of importance with respect to enhancing chances in the labour market, particularly at a time of economic crisis.

This discussion is organised into two main sections. The first part deals with the current situation vis a vis Portuguese young people and the challenge for youth work within the context of Europe at a time of economic crisis. Also included is a brief assessment of the impact of the Lisbon Strategy (2000-2010) and the recent Europe 2020 development, with a particular focus on entrepreneurial
learning, and an emphasis on the importance of informal and non-formal learning using the paradigm of lifelong learning as advocated by UNESCO (2003). The second part focuses on a case study in entrepreneurial learning involving students, taken from different scientific deliverables from the project ‘The Potential of Entrepreneurship at the University of Minho’ (2010-2012) and the on-going PhD project ‘Entrepreneurship Qualified: Higher Education Policy and (Re)configuration of the Career Paths of Graduates’ (2010-2013). The case study is intended to highlight the importance of support networks, mentoring and knowledge transfer as developed by various stakeholders at the University of Minho, all of which can help improve our understanding of the extent to which young people can enjoy support at various stages of an actual entrepreneurship experience. The conclusion presents a summary of the main findings, highlighting the privileged relationship between non-formal and informal entrepreneurial learning and some of the implications of entrepreneurial learning for education, research and public policy.

PORTUGUESE YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE CONTEXT OF CONTEMPORARY EUROPE

The austerity policies enacted by successive Portuguese governments since the onset of economic crisis in 2008 have led to savage cuts in public expenditure. This in turn has contributed not only to reductions in welfare provision but also falling consumer spending and rising unemployment. The impact of austerity on young people has been disproportionately high, particularly in terms of unemployment (see Cairns, 2013; Cairns & Growiec forthcoming; Cairns et al. forthcoming). Official statistics show that the greatest increase in unemployment since the Troika (International Monetary Fund, European Central Bank and European Commission) bailout in 2011 has been among the 15-24 year old age group, and within this cohort, the greatest increases in unemployment have been among recent graduates: from 23% in the first quarter of 2011 to 45% in the first quarter of 2013 (INE, 2013). That university educated Portuguese young people should be so affected provides strong justification for focusing on the student population in this chapter, as well as bringing to light the somewhat uncomfortable fact that a university education may be becoming a liability rather than an asset in securing labour market entry in contemporary Portugal.

Economic marginalisation, and generational social inequality, is nothing new for young people in recent modern European societies; in fact youth scholars have long typified young people as existing in a near permanent state of crisis (see, for example, Cavalli & Galland, 1995; Furlong & Cartmel, 1997; Machado Pais, 2003). But the sheer scale of youth unemployment in Portugal today and a potentially huge under-utilisation of educational capital should be of serious political concern. This leads us to ask what alternative means of initiating careers might be open to these young people, with entrepreneurship as one possibility.

Conceptualising Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is an area in which there has been significant recent progress in terms of integration into mainstream political discourse in Portugal, albeit development which is now challenged by a context of changing market dynamics. Parente et al. (2012) contrast the Portuguese situation with the international context, underlining the fragility of the national welfare system and the attendant risk of Portuguese young people failing to fully realise their entrepreneurial potential. These authors also stress that Portugal lacks access to philanthropic sources of capital and other non-profit organisations in contrast to countries such as the United States; this is something that increases the need to develop different means of fostering youth entrepreneurialism, which may include initiatives within a potential ‘third sector’ (also called social economy) involving the state, religious organisations and other welfare entities: this is referred to by Parente et al. (2012: 119) as ‘social entrepreneurship’ (see Santos, 1993; Ferreira, 1996; Franco et al., 2005).

With regard to the impact of the Lisbon Strategy (2000-2010), and the recent Europe 2020 development initiative, the European Commission has committed itself to promoting entrepreneurship as a major driver of innovation and competitiveness for the European Union. In Portugal entrepreneurship also constitutes a key component of public policy, consistent with current European policy goals. Recognition of this aim has also been imbedded into education systems, particularly at tertiary level, with many universities now making explicit attempts to encourage entrepreneurship, both in curricula and via less formal means, some of which will be discussed in the proceeding sections of this chapter.

Entrepreneurial learning and non-formal transition into the labour market

To fully appreciate the profound and complex changes taking place in the Portuguese labour market, we need to take a holistic approach to education on entrepreneurship. This means looking at new dynamics of globalisation and recognising the importance of entrepreneurial initiative for work and life in general. At higher education level this can entail universities following new collaborative strategies involving a broad range of stakeholders. It is also assumed that the pedagogical practices will encourage the development of the attitudes and behaviour associated with life-skills: flexibility, problem-solving, autonomy, responsibility, proactivity and dealing with uncertainty, which can work as a kind of ‘preparation for the future’. This perspective also stresses a new educational paradigm aimed at enhancing learning opportunities, taking into account new uses of knowledge in ‘organisations of all types and in all spheres of life’ (Gibb, 2005), and focused on the complementarity between formal, non-formal and informal learning.
Learning theory recognises that learning is influenced by socio-cultural and contextual aspects, and connects different areas of an individual’s life. It is assumed, therefore, that the knowledge and skills entrepreneurs need are created and transformed by participating in social practices. This is a dynamic process in which education is not a decontextualised practice (Bourdieu, 1997) since participation is at the heart of learning, knowledge and the identity of entrepreneurs (Cope & Down, 2010). Focusing on the academic context, Gibb (2002) also notes that entrepreneurial learning can occur outside an institutional framework via student involvement in ‘communities of practice’, suggesting that non-formal learning acquired through previous work experience, participation in social networks and mentoring schemes can have positive implications for the development of entrepreneurship among students.

The recognition of the importance of non-formal learning can be related in certain cases of good practices or projects to fostering entrepreneurial initiative among European students, e.g. Education Unlimited! and Youth and Unemployment; projects that have taken place in various countries, organised by the student organisation AEGEE (European Students’ Forum). Other corporate-sponsored programmes include the Young Enterprise Project and the Junior Achievement Young Enterprise programme, as implemented in several European universities. These initiatives have contributed towards the visibility and favourable impact of non-formal learning as a strategy in the transition into the labour market for young graduates.

**EXAMPLES OF GRADUATE YOUTH ENTREPRENEURSHIP: A PORTUGUESE CASE STUDY**

The remainder of this chapter concentrates on a case study, with a view to illustrating some of the most important aspects of non-formal learning. The specific purpose here is to explain and understand the importance of involvement in entrepreneurial learning as developed by different stakeholders. Specifically, we have sought to: identify the main stakeholders and outline their missions and strategies for fostering entrepreneurial learning; characterise entrepreneurial experiences as undertaken by young people, particularly in terms of the skills mobilised, obstacles and success factors; survey the definitions and examples of entrepreneurship and reflect on its impact.

The present study is based on the results from sixteen semi-structured interviews conducted with young people from different socio-demographic and educational profiles, all of whom were in a phase of professional transition and searching for a job. In terms of methodological approach, the selection of young people for interview was made from two surveys designed to assess the entrepreneurial potential of graduates, and which had been applied to earlier research. While the study can be considered as having a ‘youth’ focus, a few individuals aged over 29 years old, beyond what might normally be considered ‘young’, were included due to the richness of their contributions.

In terms of labour market status, the interviewees themselves were nearing completion of their courses, unemployed and seeking employment or, in most cases, had already found a job, with fieldwork conducted in 2010 and 2011. To ensure theoretical and empirical relevance, we purposely selected individuals from a diverse range of higher education contexts in relation to scientific fields and study cycles (undergraduate, masters and doctoral levels), thus representing a heterogeneous range of entrepreneurial learning pathways in an academic context. In addition to these criteria, we included cases with different profiles in terms of gender, socio-economic or employment status to obtain a systemic view of the problem under consideration (see table 1.). The interviews were all conducted in person, with an average duration of ninety minutes. All the participants were fully informed as to the objectives of the study and gave their consent for the interview to be recorded and for dissemination of the data.

Privacy and confidentiality of personal information were also guaranteed.

### Table 1.

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Key: (n.c.) – degree not completed


**Socio-demographic, educational and professional backgrounds of respondents**

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With regard to the treatment of information collected, the first reading of the data followed a thematic approach, which involved the identification of common themes emerging from the interviews. It should be noted, however, that the analysis of results placed greater emphasis on the contributions, positions and perspectives of the respondents from two analytical dimensions: meanings and representations about entrepreneurship; activities and entrepreneurship in academia.

Each of these vectors target a different level in our analysis, taking into account the discourses, meanings and representations produced around the theme of entrepreneurship. This also illustrates the various dimensions of subjective experience and social experience in a non-formal learning academic context.

Stakeholders, missions and support strategies

It is now widely recognised that institutions of higher education can provide, in their internal environment, entrepreneurial learning opportunities for students incorporating the involvement of various stakeholders, including students, academics, researchers, technical staff and other scholars. The idea of entrepreneurship education is relatively new in Portugal and only started to be widespread in 2006. Where higher education is concerned, the promotion of entrepreneurship is strongly related to innovation, technology transfer and business creation. There is however a lack of consensus in the academic community about the integration of entrepreneurship into course curricula. Nevertheless, Portuguese universities have, particularly in recent years, diversified their strategies to promote entrepreneurship, with these issues being addressed in most cases by government or academic units, depending on their respective administrative bodies and internal budget.

In the case of the University of Minho (UM), the promotion of entrepreneurship, for the purpose of carrying-out duties (Article n°2, Statutes of UM) and skills in this area, is entrusted to the Vice-Rector. Direct stimulus of entrepreneurship by UM is embodied in new structures and an academic interface, in close cooperation with other public and private organisations, e.g. the businesses sector, local small firms and entrepreneurs and their associations, local communities and associated non-government organisations, which support entrepreneurship education via their own agendas. In practice, this has meant increased extracurricular activities and support that, through a non-formal approach, seeks to engage students via a series of outreach initiatives, e.g. events and ideas competitions, and training courses and programmes in the area of entrepreneurship, as well as support for the creation of businesses (mentoring, counselling, etc.). This diverse range of activities has made visible the growing importance of various stakeholders in the expansion of entrepreneurial learning opportunities within academia, especially the role of the Office of Liftoff-Entrepreneur, TecMinho and Spinpark/AvePark.

Entrepreneurial experiences of young graduates

Following a brief note regarding our sample of graduates and entrepreneurship activities developed at UM, we will present empirical evidence from the interviews on the impact of the participation in non-formal or extracurricular activities. Given space limitations, we focus on highlighting recurrent experiences within the respondents’ discourse, as well as other potentials, obstacles and critical factors in entrepreneurial education at tertiary level.

Forms and contexts of entrepreneurial learning

An initial analysis of our interviews enabled us to identify various forms of entrepreneurial learning as undertaken by respondents. This was mostly through work experience or internships, participation in student mobility programmes, volunteering and associational activity. This analysis revealed what these graduates had learnt in practice; the skills and competencies relevant to their personal and professional development: ‘confidence’, ‘autonomy’, ‘responsibility’, ‘decision-making’, ‘interpersonal skills’ and ‘the ability to react to professional adversities’, among others. In most cases, the acquisition of these skills was closely connected to stronger links to the labour market and, in essence, the opportunity to ‘learn to work’, ‘make contacts’ or ‘to build a CV’. The following testimonies illustrate some of these learning experiences in the workplace and internships.

‘I worked in a restaurant and in several shops […] did quality audits […] working in several areas led me to gain self-confidence, and when I finish the course I know now how difficult the world of work will be. I also gained maturity, both in terms of money and responsibility.’ (Joana, 22, Public Administration, Unemployed)

‘[…] I had several vacation jobs and did part-time jobs and an internship […] these experiences were important because it was through them that I got other opportunities, on a recommendation, directly or indirectly […] I was able to find people who taught me how things were done in practice.’ (Maria, 36, Marketing, Self-Employed)

‘[…] I was at a consulting firm to do a market study. That helped me a lot to get in touch with people […] I learned a lot during that placement. I basically learned how to work and see how organisations work.’ (Teresa, 23, Social Economy, Unemployed)

We can observe here an emphasis on non-formal and extracurricular activities, as well as experiences that lead to professional development via the acquisition of soft skills; this is something that is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Marques, 2007; Marques Moreira, 2011a and 2011b).
Looking at other areas, there were also graduates who talked about their participation in mobility programmes and volunteering.

‘[Erasmus] was the best experience of my life [...] I had to deal with a totally different culture. Undoubtedly, I grew-up a lot during this period. I had to make decisions and I became much more responsible [...] I looked at this exchange as a very good opportunity, as Rio de Janeiro is in need of engineers.’ (Sara, 23, Civil Engineering, Intern)

In the above quotations, it is possible to observe the complexity of the process of learning and development in terms of knowledge and skills, indicating a transformation of dispositions and attitudes among these young people, towards life and work in particular. This is visible in certain ideas, such as ‘growing up’, ‘gaining maturity’ and acquiring an ‘ability to solve problems’.

Critical factors in the educational processes

Fostering entrepreneurship at UM has gained new momentum thanks to the role of TecMinho and Liftoff (Office of the Entrepreneur). Here are some of the testimonies that shed light on the performance of these two entities.

‘The university plays an active role, through having created the office of entrepreneurship. Since then, entrepreneurship has begun to attract more attention [...] Some of the students have gained more courage to develop the ideas they had but would otherwise been afraid to present [...] students have felt more supported.’ (Joana, 22, Public Administration, Unemployed)

In addition to these two organisations, some departments and schools have their own educational provision in the area of entrepreneurship and organise activities in this area, with the goal of creating an environment conducive to the development of entrepreneurship among students. In this regard, the testimony of João shows how activities undertaken by the department he studied in had a positive impact on learning.

‘[The university] has some very good programmes [...] I applied for a project in entrepreneurship, a business idea in TecMinho. It was very useful and important because we had information sessions and they taught us how to do a SWOT analysis. I am civil engineering and knew nothing about that.’ (Sara, 23, Civil Engineering, Intern)

In other cases, however, it is clear that some courses do not present the same opportunities for training in entrepreneurship as others. In most of these situations, respondents criticised their courses as being too theoretical and lacking an aspect of entrepreneurship, recognising that this aspect is localised within a restricted core of courses. Miguel and Catarina confirm this with regard to their economics and management courses.

‘It is something completely unknown in a course at my level [...] there are many things organised by the university, but more for courses like economics and management [...] To speak of entrepreneurship is for economics and management.’ (Miguel, 27, Biophysics, Research Fellow)

In some cases, it appears that the educational provision for entrepreneurship courses/departments is restricted to too narrow a view of entrepreneurship-oriented start-ups, intended primarily for students in scientific fields such as economics, management and some engineering courses. However, it should be noted that the activities undertaken by Liftoff and TecMinho have introduced a new approach into the entrepreneurial learning process, focused more on practical activities that contribute to the development of attitudes and behaviour associated with innovation, creativity and communication which, in theory, could be applied to various fields of professional life.

Definitions and examples of entrepreneurship

In this section, we focus on how our respondents’ described entrepreneurship and projects and motivations relating to the exercise of independent professional activity. These definitions allow us to capture the various meanings and examples of what it is to be an entrepreneur, as well as providing a wealth of descriptive information about what young people actually mean when they talk about entrepreneurship.
Definitions of entrepreneurship

It is apparent that what is meant by entrepreneurship among graduates is not always shared. This ambiguity in relation to the concept of entrepreneurship means that a large number of the respondents have difficulty in assigning meaning to the concept: for some it is a term that is ‘fashionable’ in political discourse, while for others it signifies being pro-active and creative at a more individual level. But for most interviewees, it clearly entails the project of setting-up a business. These three testimonies illustrate this confusion.

‘Unfortunately it is used to connote entrepreneurship as a fad.’ (Maria, 36, Marketing, Self-employed)

‘[…] I donno, its entrepreneurship, I relate it a lot with being pro-active and that everyone has to have it. […] I believe that an entrepreneur has to have ideas and be creative.’ (Paulo, 27, Economics, Self-employed)

‘[Entrepreneurship] is not for everyone […]. Not all courses relate to the development of products. For example, a Law School will not develop a product, will it?’ (John, 28, Computer Engineering, Businessman)

Given the evident plurality of meaning, it is clear that there is a need for conceptual clarification between entrepreneurial initiative and entrepreneurship and, likewise, between entrepreneurial education (learning) and entrepreneurship education.

Entrepreneurs’ projects

In the current context, in Portugal as in many other countries, self-employment and business creation are seen as viable career options, particularly for people with a university education. Through analysing the testimonies of our respondents about their professional projects, there emerges a more flexible attitude towards work. This is expressed in the accounts of these young people: their professional motivations. It is important to point out that some of these expressions could be signaling a natural incorporation of language and meanings promoted by educational and employment policies.

‘[…] It was not for lack of opportunities […] I know that almost 100% of people in my course already have jobs […] one of my friends worked at a company and an opportunity arose and he invited me in; I accepted the challenge.’ (João, 28, Computer Engineering, Businessman)

‘[…] I do not want to finish my course and then have to confine myself to the options that course gives me; I have other options. Please […] I have something in mind, where the money I’m getting is mine and I am not counting on others.’ (Joana, 22, Public Administration, Unemployed)

‘[…] I do not want to be accommodated, I always want to have new challenges, new experiences, to learn a lot […] learn more, or know that it is necessary to take risks.’ (Paulo, 30, Sociology, Fixed-term contract worker)

Regardless of the employment situation, these quotes show that the attitudes and dispositions of these young graduates are moving towards greater autonomy in work, where versatility and flexibility of knowledge and skills are seen as the strategies to achieve and maintain a profile of employability that is innovative and appropriate to the demands of the current job market. Bringing such strategies to light may be based on a relatively small number of analysed cases, but we can still see that the acquisition and development of entrepreneurial skills can have a positive impact on employability, acquired through participation in a range of activities at formal, non-formal and extracurricular levels.

Despite the presence of these definitions and representations, it is crucial to realise that this perception of opportunity/options for professional autonomy relates to a context of economic and financial crisis, characterised by intensified risk and heightened precarious working conditions, not to mention constrained professional mobility. In turn, the fact that it is difficult to follow the entire ‘life cycle’ of the interviewees means that knowledge about the long-term impact of these practices is lacking. For example, we do not know if: ‘biographical choices’ are intentionally seeded by structures of market opportunities (e.g. support programs, support policies, risk financing and specialised training); they result from constraints related to the need to enter the labour market as an alternative to unemployment; if they work as intermittent moratoriums between employment and unemployment, and inactivity and training. This means that
it is necessary to include in this analysis recognition of the constraining factors inherent in a context of crisis in terms of employment regulation, an exponential increase in unemployment and the limits/shortcomings of public policies.

CONCLUSION

This empirical evidence provides examples of how entrepreneurial learning is perceived by young graduates in Portugal. Despite the relative novelty of entrepreneurial learning in this context, we have seen how the young people interviewed illustrate what can be acquired from formal, non-formal and informal learning processes, as well as illustrating some shortcomings, such as limited scope in terms of the field of study. Taken together, this Portuguese case study also shows the importance of interface institutions that use a university as a platform of support, particularly in the promotion of non-formal learning initiatives through extra-curricular activities. While we do need to bear in mind the limitations of our evidence, as case studies which are not intended to be representative but rather illustrative of the present state of play in this area, we can at least confirm that various forms of learning matter in respect to entrepreneurship. However, these apparent ‘successes’ need to be tempered by the realisation that the deteriorating economic situation in Portugal brings with it the risk that much of this work will be undermined by a lack of opportunities and declining working conditions.

The challenge for youth work in Portugal as regards managing youth unemployment better, particularly the potential unemployment of a large number of highly qualified young people, is considerable, given both the imperilled state of transitions to the labour market and the relative lack of youth work infrastructure from which to launch effective interventions. A further consequence of the austerity measures has been cuts in public service infrastructure, including support for young people; one notable example has been the incorporation of the Portuguese Youth Institute into the Institute of Sport, as well as numerical cuts in welfare and education.

Given that the youth work sector in Portugal has been traditionally under-developed in contrast to other European Union member states, this makes responding to the needs of Portuguese young people all the more difficult. However, the incipient success of entrepreneurial learning can be a fundamental pillar for concrete structural actions (programmes, incentives, training, etc.) that may help realise the objectives of encouraging entrepreneurship through measures that help highly qualified young people, as well as those with precarious access to the labour market.

NOTES

35 The 2010 project was focused on the theme of entrepreneurial potential, developed at CICS/UM under the scientific coordination of Ana Paula Marques (CICS/UM), and financed by the Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology (FCT) (ref. SFRH/BD/60807/2009) as part of the POP H – QREN – Typology 4.1 – Advanced training, in conjunction with the European Social Fund and National Funds of MEC. The 2011 project is an ongoing PhD project, funded by FCT (SFRH/BD/60807/2009), on entrepreneurship education in higher education, developed by Rita Moreira (CICS/UM).

36 LIFTOFF – Office of the Entrepreneur is a project carried out by students via the UM Students’ Union, focused on training and awareness in entrepreneurship. This includes training courses and workshops on entrepreneurship, business creation and employment. Liffott also promotes awareness sessions with entrepreneurs, seminars and conferences, and is responsible for the organisation’s annual Entrepreneurship Week.

REFERENCES


Creativity and innovation – and not least the transformation of these into values in the shape of entrepreneurship – are frequently hailed as crucial competences for Europe if we want to maintain our position in the global economy. Yet despite the increasing importance attributed to these factors, they are still to a large extent terra incognita from a pedagogical perspective: we recognise it for what it is when we see it, but the process leading to a new idea or a new product and from there to employment and revenue is still not fully understood. And even though many endeavours are undertaken to promote innovative thinking and entrepreneurship, we are still to a large extent groping in the dark when it comes to making concrete, pedagogical efforts to stimulate their development in young people. Is it possible to ‘teach’ innovation and entrepreneurship as part of the education and training system? This is hard to imagine when thinking in terms of traditional class-room lecturing, but might it then be possible to create alternative learning environments where such competences can be acquired?

This article looks at the development of innovative thinking and entrepreneurship in connection with transnational mobility in the shape of long-term placements abroad. It is based on a longitudinal study of Danish chefs who had incorporated such a stay abroad in their apprenticeship. The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of this at micro-level on their subsequent career trajectory and also to extrapolate this to macro-level on developments in the
INNOVATION AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN DANISH GASTRONOMY

Over an astonishingly brief period – the past 15 years – Denmark’s rating in the gastronomic charts has simply skyrocketed. From a position on the absolute fringe of modern cuisine, Danish chefs are now hailed as famous innovators on the cutting edge of the field. Danish restaurants have received a shower of Michelin stars, and one of them has even been voted best restaurant in the world for three years running. The concept of ‘New Nordic Cuisine’ has become a household byword in gastronomic circles worldwide; Danish chefs have repeatedly emerged victorious from international competitions, and new Danish restaurants have long waiting lists, despite stiff prices, creating employment and generating revenue. The chefs behind this are relatively young, having been trained in the 90s and early 2000s. Looking at the phenomenon through pedagogical lenses, the question is whether anything new was introduced in the VET-system during this period that can explain this development.

The early 90s saw one innovation in the Danish VET-system which, for at least two reasons, (see below) appears pertinent in this context: namely the introduction of a transnational mobility scheme – the PIU-scheme – which allowed young apprentices in initial vocational training [IVET] to take part or all of their mandatory work placements abroad. There is nothing new in work placements per se; they have always been an integral feature of the apprenticeship-based VET-system in Denmark, but until 1992 these placements could only be undertaken in a national context. The decision to allow VET-students to go abroad for placements had (initially, at least) little to do with pedagogical thinking, but was seen as a way of compensating for a lack of training placements in Denmark. The placement agreements are concluded for an extended period of time (many are away for a year or more), and students go out individually, and not in groups. Students in the hotel and restaurant trades were quick to seize this new opportunity, but it was not necessarily those that had experienced problems in finding apprenticeships at home that went abroad with the PIU-scheme. For most, it was a search for adventure or excellence that prompted the decision to go abroad. And actually, the majority of the young chefs at the vanguard of ‘New Nordic Cuisine’ have spent extended periods of their practical training in restaurants abroad, most of them being away for 6 months or more. Moreover, a closer study of ‘New Nordic Cuisine’ reveals that (despite its focus on Nordic and home-grown ingredients) it contains very strong influences of culinary trends from abroad – from the French ‘terroir’ principle, the Spanish ‘molecular gastronomy’, the Italian ‘slow food-movement’ and others. It therefore seems natural to enquire whether anything new was introduced in the VET-system during this period that can explain this development.

In order to test this hypothesis, the Danish Ministry of Education financed a research project, where 320 former apprentice chefs, who had been abroad on placements in the period from 1995 to 2007, were sent a questionnaire and asked about their experiences during their time abroad, their subsequent career trajectories, and the connection between the two. Given the long time span covered by the survey, a response rate of nearly 40% was satisfactory, especially since the responses covered the whole time span in a surprisingly even manner. Of the respondents, a sample of 12 was selected for in-depth interviews. Placement organisers were also interviewed. The main research questions were: Is there a connection between long-term work placements abroad and the development of innovative thinking and entrepreneurship? If yes, what is needed in terms of pedagogical interventions before, during and after the placement abroad to allow this learning potential to unfold itself?

SO, IS THERE A CONNECTION?

It is normal in such research surveys to operate with a control group to be able to compare and contrast between those who were subjected to a specific pedagogical intervention and others who weren’t. This we decided not to do in this project, for the reason already hinted at above: it became clear that most of those who went abroad were, in fact, not in any way disadvantaged, but were resourceful and enterprising individuals, who would undoubtedly have stood out from the average student population even without going abroad. A comparison would thus not have served as ‘evidence’ in support of the hypothesis, but merely confirmed the obvious. The central issue was of an ipsative nature, related to the participants themselves – what direction did their life take as a result of the experience abroad, and would they have behaved and performed as they did if it hadn’t been for the experience?

Of all the former participants who responded to the questionnaire, 8% replied that they now ran their own enterprise and generated their main income from it. This is a strikingly double the percentage of enterprise-owners in the total Danish population. Yet the ‘hospitality industry’ is one where there are many small and medium-sized enterprises and a strong tradition for setting up one’s own business, so it is to be expected that a larger share run their own enterprises in this field. On the other hand, it appeared from the qualitative interviews that many of the respondents have what has been called ‘new careers’, where they have weaved in and out of different positions and occupations – as employees, business-owners, and students in higher education – in the course of their career trajectory so far. The questionnaire only asked about the present occupation, so instances of entrepreneurship-behaviour would undoubtedly have been more numerous if these had been included and counted. However, ‘entrepreneurship’
The participants value the importance of the stay abroad for their personal development very highly. In particular, when asked to rate the increase in competences necessary for entrepreneurship (independence and self-reliance, the willingness to take risks, the ability to handle new situations and surroundings, etc.) the stay is rated as having exercised a decisive influence. On a scale from ‘1’ to ‘10’, where ‘10’ represent a maximum impact, over a third of the respondents gave a ‘10’ as their estimate of the importance of the stay in developing these, and generally under 15% of the responses were situated between ‘1’ and ‘5’. These competences were undoubtedly already present before the participants went abroad, since the decision to uproot and go live in a completely foreign environment, away from one’s family and friends for an extended period of time, is not one that is taken easily. But the conclusion is that an overwhelming majority of the respondents stated that they had been strengthened very considerably as a result of their mobility experience.

The picture is the same when the focus is shifted to innovation. Over 60% of the participants state that they have used the inspiration from their stay abroad to introduce innovative developments within the culinary field or at their workplace. What this innovation actually consists of, was explored more in depth in the qualitative interviews. As can be expected, some of it relates to the imitative introduction of new recipes, methods and ingredients that they had picked up from their colleagues abroad. However, what made the strongest impact were the very different attitudes to food and cooking which they experienced and the reflective application of these to a new context. Those participants that went out early on in particular report the impression made by the uncompromising attitude to cooking and the quality of the raw materials used that they encountered in the top restaurants where they did their placements. Only the freshest and best ingredients are used, and former participants talk about their astonishment when they e.g. discovered that restaurants have their own gardens to ensure that vegetables and fruits are as fresh as possible when put on the table. One of the interviewed participants states: ‘I learned that good cooking can be insultingly simple if only the ingredients are fresh and of the best quality’. Also the almost hysterical focus on every little detail in the preparation of food is a revelation to many, as is the strong reactions of head chefs and waiters if the work is not perceived as living up to their standards of quality. This was at the time considered very ‘un-Danish’, but a later participant drily notes of such an episode in the kitchen of a restaurant abroad that ‘this could just as well have happened in a Copenhagen restaurant’. This focus on the quality and freshness of the ingredients and the fastidious attention to detail are integral features of ‘New Nordic Cuisine’. It lies outside the scope of this article to go into more detail about the nature and provenance of ‘New Nordic Cuisine’ and the relationship with these placements abroad, but the research report \(^\text{57}\) concludes that there are very convincing arguments that the outcomes of these placements abroad have at least been strongly conducive to this development. It follows from this that such instances of ‘learning mobility’ hold a rich potential for developing and strengthening an individual’s capacities for innovative thinking and entrepreneurship – so yes, there is a connection.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

It is – as with any pedagogical activity – not possible to issue a guarantee for the outcome. Some derive great benefit from the experience, whereas it leaves few traces on others. Certain conditions and interventions, however, stand out in the survey and interviews as conducive to a positive learning process.

For one thing, the word ‘positive’ in this context should not be interpreted as the equivalent of ‘pleasant’ or ‘agreeable’. It appears very forcefully from both survey and interview that the stay abroad was no pleasure cruise. Feelings of loneliness and isolation, of not being understood and appreciated, and clashes with colleagues due to differences in attitudes and values were an integral part of the experience. Over 50% thus describe their placement experience as ‘hard’ or even ‘very hard’. It is the rule rather than the exception that the participants speak of having been millimetres away from throwing the towel into the ring and giving it all up at some stage during their stay (usually within the first 4–6 weeks of the placement). Some did, but the majority soldiered on and came out in the end having learnt valuable lessons about coping with challenges. In fact, the hardships endured seem to lie at the very heart of the learning experience and be a condition for developing entrepreneurial skills like e.g. self-reliance and the ability to cope with insecurity and risk.

Another, equally important learning condition is the exposure to diversity. One vocational teacher mentioned as a distinguishing, common feature of those who had been abroad that they had become more ‘argumentative’ as a result of their stay abroad – always ready to challenge established notions and wisdom, looking for other ways of seeing and doing things. This very clearly hangs together with their experience of cultural diversity in their field, having seen new and unusual ingredients or methods of preparation, and having been exposed to different perceptions as to what ‘proper’ food and cooking is, and not least different attitudes to how important good food is in the grand scheme of things. Again, this experience of diversity is often accompanied, at least initially, by conflicts and feelings of frustration, as different sets of values and attitudes clash in what can sometimes be a very hectic and stressful environment.

Pedagogically, this has the logical implication that it is wrong to wrap the participants up in cotton-wool and try and shield them from all adversity, even though this may instinctively seem the right thing to do. Indeed, the ‘zone of proximal development’ seems to lie in the grey area bordering on what we could somewhat facetiously call the ‘point of return’; i.e. the point where the
Learning mobility plays a role in both formal and non-formal learning activities. In the youth field, learning mobility often concerns groups of young people in youth encounters of short-term duration, and comparing this to long-term enterprise placements in a vocational training context would be like comparing apples to pears and hold little practical value. However, other transnational activities in the field of youth display enough similarities to make such an exercise both interesting and worthwhile. In particular, long-term voluntary stays abroad – like e.g. in the European Voluntary Scheme (EVS) – are in many respects directly comparable to the experiences of the Danish chefs. So what are the main perspectives that the conclusions of this study permit us to draw concerning other, similar types of learning mobility?

The first – and arguably the most important – is of an awareness-raising nature: that such activities can indeed be a very strong tool for the development of innovative thinking and entrepreneurship. Outcomes of youth mobility outside a formal education and training context are often evaluated in terms of concepts like ‘intercultural understanding’ and ‘personal development’, and studies (especially longitudinal studies) and evaluations that focus on other aspects are not common. What this study shows is that these stays can strengthen the development of entrepreneurial competences in participants, and that if sufficiently big numbers are involved, it may have quite a dramatic impact within a sector (whatever that is). Psychologically, the participants were therefore well prepared for the experience, and knew that problems and hardships were part and parcel of it. During the stay, the participants were encouraged to keep in contact with the guidance counsellors and to use them to discuss problems or just as ‘a shoulder to cry on’. The organisers also in many instances visited the participants whilst they were in their placements. After the stay, participants were offered debriefing sessions to help them make sense of their experiences through both a personal and a career perspective.

Participants who were older, had been abroad for extended periods of time previously, or who came with previous work experience from the field, generally stood better chances of ‘survival’, but the main factor was undoubtedly the motivation of individual participants. Participants came with different motivations (e.g. looking for adventure, or having a special affinity with the host country), but those who had a clear learning agenda generally fared better than others. Pedagogical preparation – i.e. discussing and agreeing learning objectives with the participant in a personal, long-term perspective (and not just doing what was necessary to have the stay recognised as part of their training course) – therefore seems an important part of the preparation process. Linguistic preparation, on the other hand, did not seem to play a decisive role in the long-term stays. Many had received language training beforehand and benefited from it, but several of the interviewed participants had arrived in the host country without having any knowledge of the language, and still managed to have a profitable placement.

PERSPECTIVES ON OTHER TYPES OF LEARNING MOBILITY

A very direct way of doing this was in the allocation of placements. In principle, the students themselves were responsible for finding their placements, but over the years the organisers (which in this case were the participants’ vocational schools) had built up a database of enterprises abroad where previous students had stayed, and where conditions were consequently known. This made it possible to reduce the possibility of premature return by matching the capacity of the participants with the demands of the placements, and enterprises which had previous experience with trainees from abroad were generally better at coping with the problems that arose. Prior to departure, each participant had individual talks with guidance counsellors, in which it was underlined that the stay would be no bed of roses, and that crises were likely to occur during the stay abroad due to cultural clashes combined with feelings of loneliness and isolation. The participants knew what they were letting themselves in for, and the most unrealistic expectations had been shot down. Psychologically, the participants were therefore well prepared for the experience, and knew that problems and hardships were part and parcel of it. During the stay, the participants were encouraged to keep in contact with the guidance counsellors and to use them to discuss problems or just as ‘a shoulder to cry on’. The organisers also in many instances visited the participants whilst they were in their placements. After the stay, participants were offered debriefing sessions to help them make sense of their experiences through both a personal and a career perspective.
represents a special challenge in this respect, as crisis – far from being a thing to be prevented and avoided – is actually a condition for learning; the platform on which the learning process is enacted. Preparing the participants for such eventualities, helping them cope with them during the stay and make sense of them afterwards is absolutely essential if this learning potential is to be realised.

The full report can be downloaded unfortunately, only in Danish.

In 2009 a study by the Institute for Volunteering Research (IVR) explored the role of Volunteer Centres in supporting the link between volunteering and employability (IVR, 2009). It followed a 2007 IVR study into volunteering and social policy which pointed towards a perceived link between volunteering and employability (Ockenden et al., 2007). The evidence for the Gateway to Work study came from a review of UK literature, a telephone survey of 220 Volunteer Centres and eight in-depth good practice case studies of Volunteer Centres. The case studies looked specifically at the activities of the Volunteer Centres which aimed to help volunteers find work. The volunteers they sought to help had been identified by statutory employment agencies as having particular difficulties in finding employment for a wide range of reasons, from having a criminal record to lacking confidence after a long career break.

The study found growing evidence that volunteering can improve employability through building confidence, developing ‘soft’ skills such as team work and communication, advancing ‘hard’ skills such as language, IT and management, and demonstrating job readiness to potential employers. For example, over 80% of the full-time volunteers involved with the
National Trust move on to employment or further training\(^\text{20}\), while 45% of BTCV’s ‘Key Volunteers’ found jobs in the environmental sector in 2004\(^\text{21}\). Similarly, the National Survey of Volunteering and Charitable Giving found that in 2007 just under a quarter of volunteers (24\%) reported that an important personal benefit of their volunteering was that it gave them a chance to improve their employment prospects (Low et al., 2007). A separate survey found that of those individuals looking for work, 88\% of respondents said that they believed that their volunteering would help them get a job, while 41\% of those in employment said that their volunteering had helped them get their current job (Hirst, 2000).

However, the study also found that volunteering is not necessarily a direct route into employment. It found that it could frequently be difficult, if not impossible, to say that someone had gained employment as a direct result of their volunteering.

Volunteers interviewed for the study thought that the most important impacts on their employability were: increased confidence, communication skills and team work, learning to be sensitive and non-judgemental, increased discipline and organisational skills, and practical skills such as IT, media and language. Other positive effects included waking up in the morning and doing something productive, and confidence in formal situations such as interviews and applications. The removal of a sense of isolation that many volunteers had previously experienced was a very important benefit of volunteering, especially for single mothers and those suffering from mental health issues. Crucially, many of the volunteers thought that the development of these skills was facilitated by the supportive and people-centred ethos of voluntary organisations. They also felt that the flexibility of a volunteering role meant that they could develop gradually – especially important for those who are isolated and/or have low confidence.

It is impossible from the evidence in the Gateway to Work study to draw any meaningful conclusions about the relationship between youth volunteering and entrepreneurial skills. However, the Gateway to Work study suggests that volunteers at any stage of life can gain confidence and relevant skills from volunteering. This in turn can support them in their endeavour to find employment. Therefore, the hypothesis that young entrepreneurially minded individuals could similarly gain valuable soft and hard skills from volunteering could clearly be explored. If such an endeavour was at any one stage to be supported systematically, one of the conclusions of the Gateway to Work study might be helpful. The Gateway to Work study found that on-going and comprehensive support which is focused on the individual is likely to lead to the most positive outcomes for volunteers with difficulties finding work. It would be of great interest to see if this also applied to the entrepreneurially minded volunteers, or, if one could suggest, that they may benefit from taking on a much more active role in defining their volunteering opportunities.

Further information available at: www.volunteering.org.uk


\(^\text{21}\) www2.btcv.org.uk/display/volunteerofficers accessed March 2009

REFERENCES


Europe needs more entrepreneurs, skilled workers as well as successful businesses. Most importantly, Europe needs citizens with an entrepreneurial mindset. Entrepreneurship education is about providing students with skills and attitudes that support them in working life and in society. This is why education for entrepreneurship should be promoted at all levels of education.

Me & My City is a unique concept in entrepreneurship education in Europe. It is a hands-on learning environment on society, working life and entrepreneurship which offers 6th grade children (12-13 years of age) information and positive experiences of enterprises and different professions.

The Me & My City learning environment is a miniature town built with movable wall elements. The Me & My City study module includes training for teachers and teaching materials based on the curriculum. The teaching materials for 10 lessons teach the pupils basic information about enterprises, the economy and society. The study module is free of charge to participating schools.

**TOMI ALAKOSKI**

works as an Executive Director of the Me & My City. He is in charge of the project’s national operations, asset management, concept management and administration. Tomi has a background as a primary schoolteacher and he has worked with several projects concerning entrepreneurship in education.

Executive Director Tomi Alakoski.

**TIINA-MAIJA TOIVOLA**

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Project Manager Tiina-Maija Toivola.

Me & My City activities are coordinated and carried out by the Economic Information Office (TAT). TAT is a non-profit organisation located in Helsinki, Finland.
Me & My City learning environment contains business premises for at least 15 companies and public services. For one day, the visiting pupils work in a profession, earn a salary and act as consumers and members of their own society. Me & My City is visited by 70 pupils at a time. They visit Me & My City on a reserved date.

The operation of the Me & My City learning environments is made possible by national, regional and local partners. Each regional Me & My City reflects the features of local business life. The pupils’ professions in each Me & My City represent the real jobs and operations of the enterprises in the area.

Me & My City is funded by the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture, local authorities, enterprises and various foundations. At the moment, Me & My City has over 130 national, regional and local partners, and it always cooperates closely with local business life. The pupils’ professions in each Me & My City represent the real jobs and operations of the enterprises in the area.

Me & My City is a way to demonstrate social corporate responsibility: granting in contact with their potential future employees in a positive and supportive setting is an important starting point for the partnership. Additionally, Me & My City cooperates with local universities and vocational colleges. The activities of 6th graders in the learning environment are supervised daily by about 10 students. So far, over 1,000 students have worked as instructors in Me & My City.

Me & My City fosters entrepreneurial skills and attitudes among pupils and offers them positive experiences of working life. Pupils feel they have learnt about how enterprises operate as well as co-operation skills within their Me & My City enterprises. The Me & My City teacher training and study module has changed attitudes towards entrepreneurship education.

The Me & My City concept is all about cooperation: it brings together pupils, teachers, companies, universities and public authorities. Its mission is to help pupils become more firmly attached to society by offering them information and positive experiences of working life and entrepreneurship. The study module is modifiable and can therefore be adapted to different regions and societies.

Me & My City enhances the practical content of basic education so that entrepreneurship and enterprise education will have a more prominent and permanent foothold in the sphere of basic education.

So far, 24,000 sixth graders and 1,000 teachers have visited Me & My City learning environments around Finland. The first Me & My City began operating in 2010 and the learning environment has been recreated in eight towns since then. Starting from autumn 2013, there are already six MyCities touring Finland and they will be visiting 11 towns during one school year. During the 2013-2014 school year, more than half of Finland’s 6th graders, will visit Me & My City learning environments around the country.

Further information available at:
www.yrityskyla.fi
www.mycity.fi

‘Kopfverleih’ ‘Lend-a-Head’

A case study that shows how social entrepreneurship can be effectively supported by corporate volunteering.

‘Kopfverleih’ is a novel tool within the framework of Corporate Social Responsibility – CSR that enables the support of social entrepreneurs by means of a special type of corporate volunteering.

The ‘Kopfverleih’ concept was developed in a qualitative research and development project (2010/2011) between the ‘Laboratory for Organisational Development’ of the University of Duisburg-Essen and a leading German energy group. It is based on the approaches of Open Innovation (Chesbrough 2003), World Café (Brown/Isaacs 2005) and Social Rapid Prototyping (Lemken et al. 2010). Open Innovation stands for the continuous involvement of future users, people responsible for the volunteering and social entrepreneurs. In (Social) Rapid Prototyping, the practical experimentation with fledgling conceptual prototypes yields key empirical data.

The ‘Kopfverleih’ concept was developed in a qualitative research and development project (2010/2011) between the ‘Laboratory for Organisational Development’ of the University of Duisburg-Essen and a leading German energy group. It is based on the approaches of Open Innovation (Chesbrough 2003), World Café (Brown/Isaacs 2005) and Social Rapid Prototyping (Lemken et al. 2010). Open Innovation stands for the continuous involvement of future users, people responsible for the volunteering and social entrepreneurs. In (Social) Rapid Prototyping, the practical experimentation with fledgling conceptual prototypes yields key empirical data.

The ‘Kopfverleih’ consists of two ‘mentoring marketplaces’, which are separated by a four-week test phase. In each session, around 30
employees from a company meet three social entrepreneurs who want to become more independent from donations and public funding. For 2x2 hours, the employees take on the role of voluntary advisors to the social projects and support them with their technical and practical know-how, critical feedback, networking contacts and — simply — some personal ‘good advice’. The Kopfverleih marketplaces will be held during working hours. Therefore the employees will be released from work.

The tool enables social entrepreneur initiatives to thus develop first business models. Furthermore, they can publicize their plans in a corporate environment and find new supporters through personal contacts. The ‘mentors’ have the opportunity to contribute their knowledge and personal experience within a temporary, creative, multi-disciplinary setting during their working hours; their personal advice is sought. Furthermore, they can exchange ideas with colleagues and engage in meaningful contact with local social initiatives.

The exchange between participants from many different business areas provides the basis for innovative and sustainable solutions. This multi-disciplinary approach, and the fact that people of different age groups contribute their perspectives and experiences, are key success factors in the ‘Kopfverleih’ process.

THE MENTORING PROCESS

The ‘mentoring marketplace’ is based on the concept of the World Cafe, but also uses brainstorming and creativity techniques. Each initiative has its own stall where the participants (‘mentors’) can contact them, and where the actual consultation and concept development take place. The participants can move to another stall and topic at any time. Thus, new groups (mentoring clusters) are formed continuously, resulting in a wealth of new ideas. The entire mentoring process is accompanied by facilitators and the results are provided to all participants. After the four-week test period, during which the most promising ideas from the first mentoring marketplace are being put to the test, the second mentoring marketplace focuses on the actual implementation of those ideas. Here, possible personal contacts are arranged, resources are planned and the first steps are determined.

What makes the ‘Kopfverleih’ concept special?

• The mentoring process enables the development of social business models.
• As the supported projects are local social entrepreneurial concepts, the participants’ commitment has a lasting effect and the results and successes are clearly visible.
• In addition to multidisciplinary, open, and personal feedback on their work, the social entrepreneurs get new ideas and personal contacts with new local supporters.
• The fair-minded, open format allows each ‘mentor’ to participate only where they actually can and want to contribute something. This increases the participants’ satisfaction and reinforces the identification with the topics.
• The time limit of 2x2 hours appeals even to people who have not volunteered as yet due to time constraints or because they do not want to commit long-term (like e.g. volunteering in a sports club).
• The combination of social commitment and using one’s personal know-how and experience is an interesting alternative to classic volunteering work or one-off charity events.

AN EXAMPLE OF PRACTICE

‘Immersatt’ is a registered association in Duisburg, which supports disadvantaged children with a combination of nutrition, education and care. ‘Immersatt’ uses the well-known principle of ‘food Banks’, which collect excess food from supermarkets. During the Kopfverleih process, Immersatt was able to develop several social entrepreneurial approaches, allowing it to become more independent from fluctuating donations. Among other things, the organization developed, in cooperation with an industrial bakery, its own ‘Immersatt bread’, with an integral part of the proceeds accruing to the organization. Immersatt also developed the idea of ‘Immersatt shops’, in which unwanted excess food is processed into ‘homemade products’ (e.g., jellies) in the in-house kitchen and sold.

The compact setting is one of the key success factors of the ‘Kopfverleih’, yet at the same time it also contributes to its limitation, particularly as social start-ups often require long-term consulting, which is not guaranteed within the ‘Kopfverleih’ format. Managers, for example, like to participate in this format but can rarely be gained for long-term mentoring. Other challenges are the formulation of pertinent mentoring needs, but also the fluctuation of participants from the first to the second session. This, however, can be compensated for by the targeted invitation of suitable experts from the company. This project was not carried out for research purposes, but designed to create an opportunity for the employees to do voluntary work during working time. Therefore, no assessments have been made so far.


By trying out different roles and different materials, different environments and different playmates one gains insight into oneself and one’s own abilities. By broadening experiences more possible alternative answers become available to the questions: ‘Who am I?’ and ‘Who do I want to be?’ These are important questions no matter what stage of life. 38

WHAT IS ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING ALL ABOUT?

There is no one uniform definition of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning, but there have been many attempts to describe what they are all about since the late 1980s, when the need for them first began to be raised at different forums. This need was a response to societal changes resulting from globalisation and new technologies which have called for a new mindset and new competencies.

The traditional educational systems in most European countries were designed to respond to the requirements of the industrialisation era in the 18th century. Their driving principles – as listed by the Global Education Reform Movement [GERM]39 for example – are: standardisation of education; a focus on core subjects; the search for low-risk ways to achieve learning goals; the use of corporate management models; and test-based accountability policies. On the other hand, the present highly competitive and complex globalised world relies on our ability to adapt to fast economic, social and cultural changes, as well as on creativity which gives rise to innovation. So education, which aims to prepare us for this new context we live and work in, needs to emphasise diversity, a holistic view of the world around us and human life. It needs to make learning processes creative and individualised, and establish participatory and
Entrepreneurial learning happens means initiating the shift that is needed in education. It means calling for a change of educational paradigms and establishing new ways of learning and teaching in general, because entrepreneurial skills cannot be cultivated by means of traditional GERM approaches as described above.

So what is entrepreneurial learning all about? There is general agreement among stakeholders that it is more than setting up a business, although this may be its final outcome. In a broader sense, it is about stimulating entrepreneurship – a set of knowledge, skills and attitudes – which helps everyone, not only potential business owners, at every stage of life to cope better with modern challenges, while maintaining a meaningful life. Entrepreneurial learning is learning for life.

According to the European Commission’s definition of key competences for lifelong learning, entrepreneurship refers to an individual ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation and risk taking as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives. This supports everyone in day-to-day life at home and in society, makes employees more aware of their work and better able size opportunities, and provides a foundation for entrepreneurs establishing a social or commercial activity. In the paper ‘Rethinking education’ the European Commission defined developing transversal skills, particularly entrepreneurial skills, as one of the strategic priorities in education and training.

The World Economic Forum paper ‘Educating the Next Wave of Entrepreneurs’ lists three components of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial learning: personal development, business development and entrepreneurial skill development – including social skills, networking, creative problem solving, opportunity seeking, interviewing, presentations, group leadership, community cooperation, dealing with bureaucracy, and local culture norms. Entrepreneurship is a way of thinking and acting, and embraces ‘all forms of education and training both formal and non-formal, including work-based learning, which contribute to entrepreneurial spirit and activity with or without a commercial objective’. According to the authors of the ‘Reading material for school personnel on Entrepreneurial learning’ ‘Entrepreneurship in schools is all about attitudes or mindset and it is not a specific method or a specific methodology. […] It is not about everybody becoming self-employed and running daring projects but rather it is about practising to have an entrepreneurial mindset, in order to create a good life for oneself and be able to participate in facing the various challenges which today’s global society throws at us. […] A basic prerequisite for this attitude to life is the will to experiment, to dare to risk failing on making a “mistake”. School has traditionally been based on the premise there is only one right answer, at the back of the book. This constitutes an obstacle to creativity and initiative, since it implies that the risk of making a “mistake”, the margin of error, is rather large and most people feel that the whole thing becomes uncomfortable’.

ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING VS NON-FORMAL LEARNING AND YOUTH WORK

The non-formal learning philosophy – with its key word ‘empowering’ – is particularly close to that of entrepreneurial learning in view of its holistic approach. Non-formal learning is defined as learning by doing, learning through personal experience outside school. It is learner-centred and individualised, adjusted to and focused on the learner’s talents and strengths, not weaknesses. This triggers positive attitudes and subsequently a strong motivation among students involved in activities, which is a precondition for a successful learning process.

Learning is conducted by the learners themselves and implies the active involvement of all participants in a process relying on attractive, creative and stimulating methods such as workshops, interviews, simulations or role play. Active participation raises participants’ responsibility for the design and implementation of learning, and also its results, by creating a sense of ownership and a belief that everybody can influence decision making.

Participants, together with their tutor, evaluate what they have learnt and how – what ‘mistakes’ they have made and how they could have been avoided. Such self-evaluation is better suited to the dynamics of experiential learning which involves learning through one’s ‘mistakes’. It forms an integral part of learning by making the learner conscious of their strong and weak points, as well as possibilities for improvement. Self-evaluation is also more motivating for learners than the traditional quantitative knowledge-based scoring carried out by teachers because it encourages learners’ self-reflection and makes them equal partners in the learning process. It prepares learners for taking responsibility, not only for concrete tasks to be carried out, but also for life in general.

Those involved in non-formal activities also learn from each other; such peer learning is particularly enriching when people have different cultural or social backgrounds. They can compare their different contexts and experience diversity, thus learn that there is no one solution or way of thinking.

Learning by doing, by carrying out concrete practical tasks, strengthens problem-solving skills and brings the learning process closer to a real-life situation, making it meaningful. Learning in this way means experimenting with different methods to find out the best possible solution; it triggers a creative process which stimulates mental and manual abilities.
The non-formal learning process is supported by youth workers who play the role of coaches, mentors or facilitators, creating the best conditions for learning as well as providing support and encouragement; they do not offer ready-made solutions but instead help learners to find solutions themselves. This role is much more demanding and creative than when teachers act as ‘oracles’ in one-way communication and control the results. This way of ‘learning-teaching’ only works when it is based on mutual trust and partnership, and needs educators with excellent pedagogical qualifications.

‘Youth in Action’ for Entrepreneurial Learning

Putting personal experience at the heart of the learning process helps to develop skills and to learn for life. This is the main premise of thousands of projects funded under ‘Youth in Action’45 (2007-13),46 the current EU funding programme supporting the non-formal learning sector. A broad range of key competencies for lifelong learning47 is stimulated through the projects. According to a 2011 survey48 carried out by the European Commission, a large number of ‘Youth in Action’ participants – young people aged 15-28 (or in some cases 13-30) – confirmed gaining competencies that are increasingly valued in society or in the mother tongue, social and civic competencies, a sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, cultural awareness and expression, learning to learn, and mathematical and digital competencies. The programme provides participants with a self-evaluation tool called Youthpass.49 This certificate is based on the key competences framework and should also contribute to the recognition of learning outcomes in the youth field in Europe.

The programme offers a wide variety of activities such as exchanges, national and transnational initiatives, democracy projects and volunteering. In addition, ‘Youth in Action’ supports youth workers and youth organisations in capacity building and networking, as well as European cooperation in the youth policy field. The vast majority of projects is of a transnational nature and requires participants to spend a period abroad – in the EU and 140 countries outside it – lasting anything from a minimum of six days on youth exchanges to 12 months on European Voluntary Service projects. Young people benefit a lot from peer learning and learning gained in a different cultural context. Since the programme has a strong focus on disadvantaged groups of young people, its participants are usually characterised by strong social diversity. A period spent abroad is considered a strong life-changing experience. In the new cultural or social environment offered by the projects, young people discover their own potential and abilities and learn to exercise new levels of independence and decision-making. This experience empowers them – it boosts their personal development and widens their horizons. This helps them to make choices about their future personal and professional life and take responsibility for it. One such example is a European Voluntary Service project.

Understanding global realities from the other side of the Atlantic

A 30-year old Italian volunteer spent a year in 2009-10 working in an Argentinean non-governmental organisation (NGO) focused on environmental protection and the sustainable use of marine resources. She developed networks with related organisations and supported educational activities with young people using non-formal learning methods.

The volunteer took part in meetings in schools to raise awareness of biodiversity, marine ecosystems, fisheries and marine pollution. She also ran workshops and events where young people could learn about the environment through practical experience, such as simulating the marine food chain and the impact of human activities on the ecosystem balance, or recognising different fish species. These included outdoor activities that built connections between young people and the environment, taught them how to observe natural phenomena and subsequently collect and compare data, and offered guidance on appropriate behaviour. In addition, she participated in a sustainable development campaign using multimedia tools, leaflets and games. She was also involved in developing an educational network among schools in Mar del Plata and Buenos Aires and in creating teaching material.

The volunteer improved her Spanish-speaking skills and learnt about local customs and traditions, as well as about Argentina and its culture.

Learning from cultural difference and peer learning can also be considered a successful inclusion instrument as illustrated by the ‘Rückenwind’ strategy, involving nine European countries. Young people facing particular obstacles in their lives spend a period of time on a European Voluntary Service or a youth exchange project abroad, which is strongly anchored in a local community and supported by qualified youth workers. This type of experience increases the self-confidence and self-awareness of young participants and helps them to start believing in their own value and abilities as well as taking responsibility for their lives. As a result they get back on track and find their way back into education or work, or other meaningful projects.
Rebuilding a century-old fishing boat in a Cornish fishing village provided a new sense of achievement and confidence for three young men from Austria who had difficult employment histories and a disadvantaged background. They spent up to one year in 2011 living in the community in Cawsand, Cornwall, with support from a youth worker and local people, including a traditional fisherman and boat-builder. As well as learning technical skills in woodworking, and improving their command of English, they also acquired a sense of teamwork by working together in an environment that at first they didn’t know.

The project was run by the ‘Rückenwind’ strategy, which specialises in strengthening the competences of young people with difficulties in the job market. It works with young people who have been unemployed for lengthy periods, or who have educational or health difficulties. Rückenwind projects are always strongly anchored in the local community, with a local project coordinator as an intermediary to social ties. Rückenwind projects are always strongly anchored in the local community, with a local project coordinator as an intermediary to social ties. Rückenwind projects are always strongly anchored in the local community, with a local project coordinator as an intermediary to social ties.

Another interesting initiative is a project from Sweden, a long-term educational effort aimed at disadvantaged young people which also includes a period spent abroad on a European Voluntary Service project or youth exchange. It consists of many stages, and involves mentoring and counselling until the young people are successfully integrated into the labour market and society.

Open Your Mind – Get on track

Fourteen young people from the UK and Sweden, all suffering from social exclusion, and many of them with experience of homelessness, acquired an understanding of how two European countries work with young people. This widened their horizons, and increased their aspirations, confidence and skills.

Prior to the exchange, they had all been involved in planning and research on youth services and the job market, and their interests had influenced the programme. During a week in Helsingborg they took part in team building exercises, workshops to raise their self-esteem and cultural activities. The activities were adapted to suit the youngsters’ own personalities and backgrounds, to ensure that they felt comfortable with the tasks they were set, and able to succeed. The activities repeatedly presented them with questions – and answers – about how the EU works, national and European contexts of employment, what the EU can do for young people, and how they could play a part in society in general as active citizens. A seminar on coping with unemployment gave the participants the chance to raise questions, to compare experiences in different countries and to develop ideas for future cooperation.

To help them to understand how representative democracy works, they had the chance to take part in a debate on these issues in the city hall’s debating chamber, where they engaged actively and were able to express their opinions by pressing voting buttons. They emerged with a greater sense of involvement in the society they belong to, and a new awareness that career opportunities exist that are attractive and attainable.

The project ran for two weeks in mid-2011 and was hosted by Navigatorcentrum, in Helsingborg in Sweden, a municipal organisation which specialises in helping school dropouts with trainee programmes, support for special needs, and study and vocational guidance. The coaches remained in contact with the youth exchange participants after the project finished, helping them on the road to education or work.

A Youth Exchange project funded by the ‘Youth in Action’ national agency in Sweden. Project carried out by Navigatorcentrum, Helsingborg in Sweden.

Youth initiatives stimulate young people’s creativity and self-initiative in a particular way. These projects are very popular with young ‘Youth in Action’ participants, since even an informal group of young people can apply for a grant and take entire responsibility for project design and implementation. Youth initiatives also enable ideas and dreams to be realised. This kind of project inspires the imagination by providing the means and space for creating something together, organising the process and taking responsibility for results. Such projects often lead to follow-up activities in the form of self-employment or business start-ups.

Rocking around Europe

An informal group of young artists from Sweden and the UK relied exclusively on their own ideas and skills to create a short film that explores the typical adolescent search for direction in a way that resonates with young people across Europe. They worked together in writing the script, they acted in the film, they directed and edited it, and wrote the music for it themselves. And when it was completed, they promoted its distribution via screenings, school visits and festivals. Sharing experiences and responsibilities was central to the project. The climate was much more open than is customary in film-making, trying to hitch-hike back to Scotland, meets a young girl who is a Sámi – the indigenous
people of the Nordic region – and they overcome language barriers as they travel the highway together. Meanwhile, the band enlists the help of locals in their search, and learns a lot about Scandinavian culture.

The project gave the participants a new sense of teamwork – they cooperated at a distance in writing the script, then came together in Sweden for the shooting. It gave them real experience in film production, and several of them obtained jobs in media production as a result. It also provided them with the chance of learning about film production, and several of them obtained a job in media production as a result.

A Youth Initiative project funded by the 'Youth in Action' national agency in Sweden. Project carried out by the informal group Mumrik Film och Drama, Sweden.

There are many more national youth initiative projects funded under 'Youth in Action' than transnational ones, since participation usually starts at local level and the path from local to global is the most natural progression, enabling a gradual shift towards international activities.

Bringing school magazines into the internet age

A group of pupils at a secondary school in Luxembourg decided that their school magazine could be updated to take advantage of the internet age. Outside school hours, and through non-formal learning, they developed an app which not only carries the customary magazine articles, but also provides up-to-date information about the school – such as news about what's going on, which teachers are absent, or the day's menu in the school canteen. It also provides photographs of events organised by the school.

Their motto was 'no adults'. The entire project was created and managed by the young people themselves in their free time. They set up their own working groups on techniques, content and management. They developed the app, including the IT programming (they attended IT training courses during weekends and visited a TV studio in Cologne, Germany), designed the content, and planned and controlled the budget. They also wrote the application for a 'Youth in Action' grant themselves. To launch the app, they presented it in the school at a concert, and produced promotional T-shirts and flyers. They also promoted it outside the school: they developed a logo, wrote press releases and contacted local media. By late 2012 the app had been downloaded by 900 people.

They learnt to work consistently on a project, to organise themselves and to recover from any setbacks and disappointments by continuing to work on their concept. The project ran for seven months from the end of 2011. Ten young people were involved, aged 15 to 17. The app won a prize in July 2012, the annual Prix Aline Mayrisch, for special creativity and understanding different cultures. The film was subsequently screened, with the team present, allowing for a discussion of youth projects. The project took place over 12 months from July 2010, and involved eight participants from Sweden and nine from the UK, all in the 18-24 age range.

A Youth Initiative project funded by the 'Youth in Action' national agency in Sweden. Project carried out by the informal group Mumrik Film och Drama, Sweden.

'Youth in Action' projects can be incubators for future leaders active in political, social, cultural or economic fields and a vehicle for further career paths in these areas. Learning in real-life situations strengthens motivation; the concrete results achieved through the projects show young people that they can influence the reality and the environment they live in and make a difference through their own solutions and actions. Such projects can also be an antidote to young people's disengagement today and contribute to developing a new quality and a new form of citizenship at local, national and EU level.

The strong focus on social issues and disadvantaged groups in the programme encourages taking responsibility for others, with subsequent benefits for the local community or society at large. According to the 2011 user survey[20], 92% of 'Youth in Action' participants became committed to work against discrimination, intolerance, xenophobia and racism; 91% declared that disadvantaged people would have their support; and 84% considered that they learned how to achieve something in the interest of their communities or society.

A level playing field for inclusion

Twenty-nine young people from Belgium, the Czech Republic, Ireland and the Slovak Republic spent a week together in August, 2010 at the sports and leisure facility at Worriken in the German-speaking region of Belgium. Each national group included one or two mentally handicapped young people among the able-bodied. This exercise set out to establish that if an exchange programme is suitably adapted, a mixed group of young people can have a successful experience together.

The theme of the exchange was 'time travel' and in between the sporting activities, workshops were held where the young people had the opportunity to learn more about the different cultures present and about themselves. By using non-formal education methods, they were able to overcome the usual language barriers and problems faced by those with a mental disability. The latter were able to discover other strengths that they had and which they could make use of in the future.

Sport and outdoor activities in a safe environment were central to this exchange programme. After some initial problems the group got to know each other and, with skillful guidance by the youth leaders, soon developed a genuine sense of mutual respect and solidarity. By putting an emphasis on team spirit and avoiding activities that are strongly competitive or overly reliant on the use of language or other specific skills, all the young people, including those with a mental disability, were able to learn more about themselves and each other, and came away with higher self-esteem.

A Youth Exchange project funded by the 'Youth in Action' national agency in the German speaking community of Belgium. Project carried out by Jugendheim Kettenis, Belgium.
With these experiences behind them, some ‘Youth in Action’ participants subsequently decided to become involved in social enterprises dedicating their talents and energy to achieving social goals and sustainability. These are the change-makers active, critical and responsible citizens of Europe who make a difference at local and global levels.

Bouncing back from early school leaving to help others

Leaving school at 14 is not the best start to a career. A group of young men in Vienna – some of whom were early school leavers, some of whom had Iranian and Russian backgrounds, and some of whom were haunted by the world of work and did not know what profession to choose – created a video project to help other young people find their way from school to employment. They were fully aware of how big the challenge could be.

‘Whatchado’ – a network for occupational orientation, has been operating in Vienna since September 2011. The group designed and created an online platform featuring interviews with people working in occupations ranging from manual workers, television presenters, apprentices, accountants, craftsmen and musicians to the president of Austria.

To provide a framework for the project, the young men initially set up a non-profit association. They selected interview subjects, made contact with companies and public organisations, and requested interviews with employees. They then directed and shot the videos themselves, asking the interviewees about their daily working routines, what they liked and disliked and their education.

The team promoted the platform at career information days and fairs for young people. They also liaised with schools and young people as to the sort of information that they would like to see in interviews. An accompanying online questionnaire helps users to match job profiles with their personal interests, and a search engine directs them to interviews with people in relevant occupations. The project has proved a great success – both for young people exploring the world of work and for the young people running the project. The target of generating 300 interviews by 2013 was reached already in 2012. There are now plans to develop related apps, to offer the service in other languages and to make further links with private companies. It has also led to two of the founders of the initiative turning the association into a business start-up in early 2012 with investor backing – it offers online video-based profiling services for private business, and has three full-time and nine part-time employees. It won a ‘Social Impact Award’ from Vienna University’s Institute for Entrepreneurship, and was chosen as one of the 50 top start-ups in 2011.

The Youth Initiative project ran from September 2011 to May 2012 in Vienna. A Youth Initiative project funded by the ‘Youth in Action’ national agency in Austria. Project carried out by Whatchado – Netzwerk für Berufsorientierung, Austria.

Social entrepreneurship is an emerging model in youth work, which can lead to greater sustainability, social innovation and social impact in the youth field, as well as provide a platform for entrepreneurial learning for young people. Transforming NGOs into social enterprises is being discussed during international training courses funded by ‘Youth in Action’.

In general terms, the ‘Youth in Action’ programme is also a platform where youth workers and youth organisations from across Europe and beyond can share experience and learn from each other. It is an important capacity-building instrument, enabling them to develop their own competencies and explore new ways of experimental learning and teaching. A number of publications, guides and other resources have been developed during such training and networking activities. They complement resources produced by ‘Youth in Action’ support structures such as the network of national agencies, the SALTO (Support, Advanced Learning and Training Opportunities within the European youth programmes) resource centres as well as the European Commission.

This is particularly important, given the role of coaches, facilitators that youth workers play in the non-formal learning process, and its high professional requirements.

Non-formal education for young people in detention

In October 2010, 18 experienced youth workers from Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Turkey were invited to a one-week training course in Târgu Ocna, Romania on how best to combat discrimination of young people in detention. The group included psychologists, social workers, performing artists, students from the School for Correctional Officers in Romania and prison educators who worked with disadvantaged or delinquent young people. One of the trainers, a former detainee, had become a member of the Onestin association, the course organisers. He had previously taken part in educational projects at the rehabilitation centre and local schools in Târgu Ocna.

The course was held in the National School for Correctional Officers attached to the Târgu Ocna detention and rehabilitation centre. The venue enhanced the learning experience for the participants as they were also obliged to adhere to restrictions imposed by penitentiary regulations. An adult prisoner from the penitentiary and 20 young detainees from the rehabilitation centre took part in the course activities. The detainees included Roma youth and young people from dysfunctional and marginalised backgrounds who were prone to violent behaviour. Some of them had already spent considerable time in rehabilitation which made their social reintegration particularly problematic.

The course used various non-formal education methods involving the young detainees in simulations of cultural conflicts, debates and team sports. They were invited to voice their difficulties in reintegrating and the process revealed a perceived sense of injustice. A puppet theatre was used to animate the sessions. More formal presentations were also made, and the youth
workers pooled their experience to produce a guide to good practice in dealing with young people in prison.

Not only did the course provide the youth workers with a number of new non-formal education techniques but also gave them a more positive attitude towards detainees and enhanced their communication skills. The young detainees who had taken part in the course also benefited by developing a more positive outlook on the choices they would have when starting a new life after leaving prison.

The guide to good practice and the non-formal education tools developed during the course are now regularly used by prison educators in the rehabilitation centres in Romania, and have influenced the approach to young detainees in the other countries represented at the course. Three of the young detainees who took part in the course, who have since been released, have found good jobs or have continued with their studies.

Before the course finished, participants developed plans for additional projects under the ‘Youth in Action’ programme.

A training course funded by the ‘Youth in Action’ national agency in Romania. Project carried out by Asociatia de Tineret Onestin, Romania.

The pioneering EU youth projects have shaped the career prospects and enriched the lives of more than 2.5 million young people over the 25 years since the launch of EU youth programmes. They have also contributed to increasing the quality of youth work in Europe and developing alternative methods of experimental teaching, which have proved useful to young people in dealing with the challenges on the labour market and in their lives.

The insight gained from the EU youth projects and in the non-formal learning sector at large could, however, be more widely exploited, helping to achieve a shift in education towards more entrepreneurial learning and teaching. Schools, parents and civil society need to work together more closely to make the education of young people in Europe a joint responsibility.
Worldwide, human beings die due to the lack of resources caused by poverty. Climate-change (provoked by humanity) is increasing. In Europe the rate of young people without a professional perspective is sky-rocketing. These are only some examples of the challenges that the generation of today and tomorrow are facing. The participants in youth work-activities belong to this generation. Working with young people in a formal and non-formal context, and the perspective coming from the practice of educational programs with young people allows one to understand that young people are extraordinarily critical and creative, thinking out of the box, and committed if they believe in an idea. Simply put, one could put forward the analysis that there are major challenges on the one side, and potential talent and will on the other. Connecting the two sides could be an adequate task for social entrepreneurial learning as social entrepreneurship can contribute to making the world a better place.

Social entrepreneurial learning processes can take place in formal and non-formal contexts. From a policy perspective (see the EU Skills Panorama ‘Entrepreneurial Initiative Analytical Highlight’ of 2012 prepared by ICF GHK for the European Commission), ‘the creation of the broader set of entrepreneurship skills starts in the initial education system and teachers are important catalysts in the development of entrepreneurship attitudes and behaviors.’ The same can be said about youth-organizations and youth-workers as the open ambience of youth work can be even more fertile for social entrepreneurship.
The same policy document outlines the gaps which exist in entrepreneurship skills [4]. The current policy leaves no doubt that specific efforts need to be made in order to enable the growth of ‘entrepreneurial spirit’ and engagement. Educational processes can create the opportunities for participants to get the necessary competencies and skills. These educational processes can take place in a formal and non-formal context. Their success depends on structural supportive measures and institutionalized opportunities for young people to develop entrepreneurial spirit and engagement. Entrepreneurial spirit and engagement are building the fundament for social entrepreneurship, described above as the missing connection between challenges and young people. If educational processes in the formal and non-formal context focus on social entrepreneurial learning, the chances will increase that entrepreneurial reactions to the challenges of the world today and in the future are not only profitable but also of a greater social impact.

One could argue that every profitable enterprise is ‘social’ as it is creating jobs, is paying taxes. … On one hand this is true. On the other hand it seems to be too much of a reductionist understanding of ‘social’, because even an enterprise violating human rights, polluting the environment and therefore destroying the living conditions for generations, can at the same time create jobs, pay taxes [4]. … The social aspect of social entrepreneurship risks being diluted and overused. Human rights could help in establishing the framework in order to keep the focus, set the right priorities, and examine the aims of a social entrepreneurial endeavor. Education and specific educational approaches linked to social entrepreneurship and human rights – social entrepreneurial learning respectively human rights education – and their combination as part of youth work, can support a stronger social focus of social entrepreneurship.

Bearing this background in mind, this article addresses the following question: How could the risk of a reductionist understanding of ‘social’ in the area of social entrepreneurship be accommodated when a reductionist understanding of ‘social’ is, at the end of the day, even counter-productive to a social point of view? Could human rights support social entrepreneurship in that regard as a frame of reference? Can social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education enrich each other through their practices? And – if yes – how can both educational approaches support each other in reaching their own aims?

This article will try to respond to these questions by a reflection supported by practice, combining the two educational approaches and based on a theoretical fundament and practical know-how in that area. This reflection will be enriched by concrete practical preliminary experiences and ‘good practices’ which show that social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education enrich each other in the non-formal context, just as the main synergies between social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education exist and can be integrated in social entrepreneurial learning through youth work. These preliminary experiences and ‘good practices’ are characterized as ‘preliminary’ since rigorous research on the impact of this practice has still to be done.

Firstly, the relation between social entrepreneurship and human rights serving as a theoretical basis will be analyzed. Secondly, corresponding educational approaches, social entrepreneurial learning, and human rights education will be briefly introduced. Thirdly, the contribution of education and of specific educational approaches linked to social entrepreneurship and human rights – social entrepreneurial learning, respectively human rights education – and their combination will be discussed. Fourthly, the concrete link to the practice of youth work will be elaborated in the conclusion of this article.

**SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND HUMAN RIGHTS**

This part will provide a conceptual background for both social entrepreneurship and human rights, in order to base the argument on the links between the two.

**Social Entrepreneurship**

Social entrepreneurs – based on the understanding of Ashoka, the largest network of social entrepreneurs worldwide – are ‘individuals with innovative solutions to society’s most pressing social problems. They are ambitious and persistent, tackling major social issues and offering new ideas for wide-scale change. […] Social entrepreneurs find what is not working and solve the problem by changing the system, spreading the solution, and persuading entire societies to take new leaps. […] They are both visionaries and ultimate realists, concerned with the practical implementation of their vision above all else. Each social entrepreneur presents ideas that are user-friendly, understandable, ethical, and engage widespread support in order to maximize the number of local people that will stand up, seize their idea, and implement with it. In other words, every leading social entrepreneur is a mass recruiter of local change-makers – a role model proving that citizens who channel their passion into action can do almost anything’ (Ashoka Innovators for the Public, 2013).

Social entrepreneurship starts from the conviction that entrepreneurial activity can contribute to a better world. Furthermore, Filipe M. Santos outlines that the distinguishing characteristic of social entrepreneurship in comparison to commercial entrepreneurship ‘is a predominant focus on value creation as opposed to a predominant focus on value appropriation’ (Santos, 2010: 13).

Ashoka’s understanding of social entrepreneurship is obviously focused on the individual. This could be understood as the state having no obligation to become active in furthering social entrepreneurship. I would argue that the individual focus of social entrepreneurship does not lead automatically to this dismissal of responsibility for the state. Instead the opportunity for the individual to become a social entrepreneur and – even beforehand – through education in the formal and non-formal context (e.g. youth work) in order to acquaint social entrepreneurial competencies, must be created and supported by the state.
Besides that, the question of what ‘social’ means arises. Nowadays, if one looks closer at the use of the concept of social entrepreneurship, one may get the impression that social entrepreneurial engagement sometimes lacks focus or a concise priority setting, e.g. when a tool helping you to find a parking lot is seen as a social entrepreneurial endeavor. There is no reason to be against such a tool. Skepticism rises only if this activity is presented as social entrepreneurial because such a tendency to define any enterprises as social enterprises is watering down the concept of social entrepreneurship. Skepticism rises in the face of a reductionist understanding of ‘social’ in the area of social entrepreneurship – which at the end of the day is even counter-productive to a social point of view (see Santos, 2010: 1-55). Human rights could support social entrepreneurship in this regard by serving as a goal for social entrepreneurship, because human rights imply a minimal standard of living and protect the essential elements and areas of human existence which enable every human being to survive and live with human dignity.

In addition, human rights could serve as a frame of reference for maintaining focus, in establishing priorities, and in the constant examining of the aims of a social entrepreneurial endeavor. In youth work, the combination of social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education could create the opportunity for young people to not only develop the necessary competencies and skills, but also the attitude to the focus on social entrepreneurship.

Human Rights

But what are ‘human rights’? Human rights possess four dimensions: legal, political (see Kirchschlaeger, 2013a: 255-260), historical (Kirchschlaeger, 2013b: 12-22), and moral. In the following I will only briefly discuss the legal and moral dimension of human rights because they are directly relevant to the relationship with social entrepreneurship. Human rights as legal rights are the subjective rights of individuals in a legal system such that they can be implemented within the legal system. Human rights are ‘legal entitlements of individuals against the state or state-like entities guaranteed by international law for the purpose of protecting fundamental needs of the human person and his/her dignity in times of peace and war.’ (Kaelin, 2004: 17)

Reflection on the question ‘why’ every human being is entitled to human rights is one aspect of the moral dimension of human rights. Human rights need to be justified to every human being as he/she is not only a rights-holder, but also needs to respect the human rights of others. This leads to corresponding responsibilities. Therefore the reasons why every human being is a human rights-holder have to be discussed.

In a moral dimension, human rights are universal, egalitarian, individual, and categorical, and they make legitimate demands with corresponding positive and negative duties (cf. Kirchschlaeger, 2007: 55-63). They are ‘weak rights’ because they are not enforceable but appellative and the consequences of their violations are moral sanctions (like public shame) but not legal sanctions.

Furthermore, the moral dimension of human rights creates an awareness of the constant challenge of a legal and political reality which does not realize or respect human rights completely. This awareness points out the moral obligation and responsibility for oneself to enhance the implementation of the human rights of every individual in one’s sphere of influence. The theory leads to practice… Finally, the necessity of understanding human rights in their moral dimension, and not only in their legal, political and historical dimension, can be seen in the following five concrete situations in which human rights could not be claimed, or could not be claimed in a complete manner, if their moral dimension were not considered (cf. Kirchschlaeger, 2013b: 236-237): if someone lives in a state which does not respect human rights; if theoretical and practical obstacles are in the way of the implementation; if the political will does not go along with human rights; if certain currents in traditions, cultures, religions and world-views try to interpret human rights in a way which leads to the denial or to the restriction of a right or of some rights; if human rights were only understood in a horizontal way (between individual and state) and not also in a vertical way (between individuals).

The Interplay between Social Entrepreneurship and Human Rights

The interplay between social entrepreneurship and human rights could lead to a clearer focus on social entrepreneurship, as human rights protect a minimal standard enabling the survival and living with human dignity of every human being. They are not maximal claims. Instead they possess an indisputable key aspect which can enhance a clear setting of priorities for social entrepreneurship, based on the minimal standards which must first be respected. Therefore human rights as an ethical point of reference for social entrepreneurship can help in the process of agenda-setting, not only in establishing the right priorities, but also in adequately defining the sphere of social entrepreneurship.

Furthermore, human rights as an ethical point of reference for social entrepreneurship possess the advantage that it can be inherently linked with the legal dimension of human rights, which serves as a fundament for legal standards of compliance for social enterprises.

In addition, compared with other social or ethical principles, human rights embraces not only its moral dimension, but also its legal dimension: human rights are legally defined, know a legal framework and are executable. Human rights institutions like the UN Treaty Body System are elements of the
realization of the idea of human rights and can enhance the culture of human rights. They show that human rights are real, not an illusion. They give human rights a face… (see Kirchschlaeger, 2011: 24-31). Furthermore the direct link to the legal and political dimension of human rights shows that human rights as an ethical point of reference possess a high degree of practice-orientation and applicability.

A globalized community of entrepreneurs meets several traditions, cultures, religions, world-views and value-systems. This heterogeneity is protected by human rights (e.g. by the right to freedom of religion, the right to non-discrimination). At the same time, it gives this heterogeneity clear limits which need to be respected: human rights protect the essential elements and areas of human existence within traditions, cultures, religions, world-views and value-systems as well. Therefore human rights as an ethical point of reference can support entrepreneurship when acting in favor of human rights but meeting tradition-, culture-, religion-, world-view- and value-system-based challenges. Finally, human rights are a universal consensus which gives this ethical point of reference for social entrepreneurship more weight, since the latter does not depend on a particular tradition, culture, religion, world view or value-system.

**WHAT IS HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION?**

Only a minority of human beings so far enjoy the fulfillment of their human rights. Human rights are not yet realized for every human being. Moreover, together with different human rights mechanisms, human rights instruments, human rights institutions and human rights players, human rights education needs to contribute to the realization of human rights. On the occasion of an expert-seminar during the preparation-process of the UN Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training in Marrakech 2009 (see Kirchschlaeger & Kirchschlaeger, 2009: 26-36), Navanethem Pillay, UN-High Commissioner for Human Rights, outlined the expectations for human rights education: ‘Human Rights Education is essential for the prevention of human rights abuses, the promotion of non-discrimination, equality and sustainable development, and the enhancement of people’s participation in democratic decision making processes.’

Human rights education can be understood as learning about (knowledge), through (values, attitudes) and for (skills, action) human rights (see the UN-Declaration on Human Rights Education and Training 2011, Article 2/2). In addition, I suggest an understanding of human rights education which includes the ‘when’ (duration of the learning process), the ‘why’ and the ‘how’ in its definition. Regarding the ‘when’, recognize human rights education as a ‘lifelong-learning process’ which can never be concluded completely (see Kirchschlaeger & Kirchschlaeger, 2009: 26-36). This echoes the understanding of human rights whose realization is always an on-going task and whose character is very dynamic as new elements and spheres of human rights protection can be explored or developed. Human rights education is an aspect which accompanies the process of learning beyond the boundaries. It will play the role of a leitmotif for learning.

In terms of the ‘why’, I understand human rights education as ‘learning to human rights’, a philosophy-based learning process aimed at an understanding of the idea, the concept and, in foremost, a profound examination of the justification of human rights respecting the reflected autonomy of every individual as coherent to the idea of human rights, acknowledging cultural diversity, diversity of religions, diversity of traditions, diversity of world views, etc. and emphasizing the critical maturity of every individual supported by the helpful framework of critical questioning – human rights.

Regarding the ‘how’, ‘learning in human rights’ means that the methods, instruments, tools, context (which can be formal, non-formal and informal) and process of human rights education must be coherent with human rights as well, e.g. they must outstand in their participatory mode.

In this definition of human rights education as ‘lifelong and formal, non-formal, informal learning to, in, about, through and for human rights’, the single elements are interrelating and complementary. For example the ‘learning to’ is crucial for the ‘learning for’ human rights as human rights theory in general – corresponding to human rights practice – is a necessary fundament for human rights education and human rights practice.

Human rights education differs from other educational approaches and theories as it is law-based. The explicit and direct referral of human rights education to the legal dimension of human rights must be emphasized (see Kirchschlaeger, 2011: 24-31) because it is the strength of human rights education: It is a success story that these philosophical concepts are not ‘just’ theories and ideas but legal rights. Therefore human rights education can start with positive achievements and developments and, in this way, respects an important conceptual element of human rights education: to start with the positive, whilst maintaining a critical attitude to see what still needs to change.

Youth work offers the opportunity to accompany young people with the process of finding their way in the world on their own, framing a responsible and prosperous life and perceiving and shaping the world with other people. Human rights education in youth work is able to address these challenges from a human rights perspective.
SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURIAL LEARNING AND HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION

The relationship between social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education involves – based upon the link between social entrepreneurship and human rights but at the same time going beyond this – the following five key main synergies: utilizing the non-formal context, participation, transformation, empowerment, and action-orientation.

Utilizing the non-formal context

Social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education systematically utilize the non-formal context. Both approaches identify the specific characteristics of the non-formal context and benefit from them. In this way, both educational approaches can enrich each other with their know-how, methods and experience. Social entrepreneurial learning is based upon the participants’ inner understanding of their communities and local problems, as well as their self-determination to challenge the status-quo. Human rights education benefits in a non-formal-context from the advantage of being authentic and coherent to its own content. This way non-formal human rights education possesses an enormous potential for the communication and realization of human rights because the potential for the integration of a participative approach of learning is greater than within a formal learning context. Both – social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education – enjoy in the non-formal context the high motivation grade corresponding to the free choice of the program by the participants.

Participation

Autonomy for every human being (including the implicit corresponding responsibility for the autonomy of others, which, at the end of the day, leads to solidarity) can be seen as the driving force behind social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education. It is important to respect the autonomy of young people in the context of youth work, and when applied to social entrepreneurial learning and human rights educational processes because of the necessary coherence with the idea of human rights. Beyond that, respecting the autonomy of young people can lead to astonishing results.

Human rights education – based on article 12 of the UN-Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989, which from a human rights perspective, is relevant to young people since ‘children’ in the understanding of the Convention are aged 0-18 – grapples with participation and enables the acquisition of basic competencies (cf. Kirchschlaeger, 2011, Kirchschlaeger & Kirchschlaeger, 2010). These competencies refer to the question of how to correspond to the right of young peoples to express themselves ‘freely in all matters affecting the child’ in due consideration and ‘in accordance with the age and maturity of the child’. The consideration of young peoples’ free will and opinion must not be understood as a present, a concession, an ‘act of clemency’ or an expression of sympathy. Young people do have a legal claim to be heard. ‘I have a right to this. It is not just what I want, or need. It is my right. There is a responsibility to be met’ (United Nations, 2004: 21).

This requires that young people understand and realize that they have this right and other human rights, and that they therefore bear – simultaneously to their rights – corresponding responsibilities, because like all humans, young people, have to share these rights with other individuals. Because of their interest, young people are compelled to respect the rights of others and to contribute to the implementation of everybody’s human rights.

Thereby it can also be about a consequent thinking through to the end of the core principle of the UN-Convention on the Rights of the Child: the best interest of the child. One can feel dissatisfied by considering participation only within a model of representation, consultation or instructed, accompanied participation. Rather, this principle attempts to define participation as an autonomous self-decision-making process; co-decision-making without a ‘filter’, and without ‘consulting’ adults (e.g. teachers, youth representative, etc.). Who better than young people themselves knows what is in their best interests? In reference to the principle of this interest, it is necessary to ask if participation can only be understood as ‘allowing participation’, i.e. pre-announced, initiated and permitted participation in decision-making processes. Participation should – in relation to the best interests of the child – also mean enabling self-decision/co-decision. This requires a transfer of the responsibility for decision making to young, people depending on when, if, how and to what extent they agree to (respectively) co-decide on their own. This must also be the case concerning the informed choice of young people to engage or not in a social entrepreneurial activity.

For this transfer, the provision and configuration of the space and the context in which self-decision/co-decision making of children can happen, might prove challenging. This extension of the concept of participation on the basis of article 12 of the UN-Convention on the Rights of the Child exceeds Fritz Oser’s and Horst Biedermann’s conception of a ‘vollkommene Partizipation’ (complete participation) (Oser & Biedermann, 2007: 29). Furthermore, it is necessary to find forms of children’s participation that enable a ‘yes’ or a ‘no’ regarding self-decision/co-decision.

For both – the opportunities and occasions for self-respective co-decision on one side and young people’s affirmation or negation on the other – areas and forms have to be defined. This definition has to be made transparently public. Also here, a reinterpretation of the concept of participation in relation to article 12 of the UN-Convention on the Rights of the Child, leads to an extension of the horizon.
Human rights education means not only teaching and learning about human rights, but also for human rights: ‘its fundamental role is to empower individuals to defend their own rights and those of others.’ (De Mello Vieira, 2004: 3) Nancy Flowers, differentiating interestingly and helpfully the various attempts at defining human rights education by governmental bodies, NGOs and educationalists, points out the diverging definitions by these different author-groups. She sees a direct link between the role an actor plays within society and its understanding of human rights education, as e.g. governmental actors emphasize the harmonizing function of human rights education and neglect the critical potential of human rights education, contrary to definitions of human rights education by NGOs, which tend to be transformative (Flowers, 2004: 107-118). In order to maintain the coherence with its own content, human rights education must be transformative when changes need to be made in order to respect human rights, and must lead to a ‘human rights change’.

Fritzsche explains that the individual process of learning of human rights education has to be similar to the historical process of learning since the creation, declaration and acceptance of human rights, the struggle for their existence and for their justification (2004). Based on this thought, it can be claimed that the human rights educational process must, by necessity, contribute to the ‘human rights change’.

Social entrepreneurial learning processes lead to the development or improvement of competencies and skills in order to identify societal needs, address them and solve the problems by changing the system. Its realist character keeps social entrepreneurial learning down to earth and, at the same time, focused on social change. Its visionary nature provokes the notion that the status quo – in the case that the status quo must be criticized – will not satisfy the participants of a social entrepreneurial learning process. Instead the status quo will call on their governments and others to do the same. (Khan, 2006: 41)

The idea of ‘empowerment’ means the capability to determine one’s own present and future with self-confidence and awareness of one’s own rights, and to participate actively in the political decision process. Human rights build the basis of the idea of ‘empowerment’ as they state the rights necessary for the realization of dignity, freedom and autonomy. This aspect of ‘empowerment’ is emphasized by human rights education. Irene Khan underlines this point: ‘The best antidote to those who seek to erode human rights is our own voices. It’s not just the responsibility of governments to uphold human rights – it’s the concern of people everywhere. Human rights education empowers people to take up that responsibility and to call on their governments and others to do the same.’ (Khan, 2006: 41)

Taking the present and future in one’s own hands is exactly the action both educational approaches are striving for: Human rights education furthers the perception of options for actions for oneself and the willingness to act concretely and actively in favor of human rights (Ippoliti, 2006). Social entrepreneurial learning shares this practice-orientation. As human rights education, social entrepreneurial learning includes theoretical parts which, at the same time, intend to lead to application in coherence with the ideas and concepts of the educational process. Vision and reality, theory and practice, and the questions ‘What needs to be done?’ and ‘How can I contribute to it?’ are connected very closely in the pattern of social entrepreneurial learning. Social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education enrich each other through the exchange of the methods employed in getting from theory to practice.

Human rights education and social entrepreneurial learning both benefit from these main synergies: the social entrepreneurial learning process takes place in a frame of reference, enhancing the social focus of the engagement. In addition, having human rights as a frame of reference enhances the motivation of young social entrepreneurs as through it, they can understand themselves as part of this world-wide movement, building on the achievement of humanity. In human rights educational processes the synergies with social entrepreneurial learning strengthen the learning for-dimension, by putting the emphasis on this part of the educational process and spreading entrepreneurial spirit within this dimension of the human rights educational process.
Furthermore, the quality and coherence of the learning for-dimension is improved because social entrepreneurial learning ensures that the initiatives and projects started in the learning for-dimension lose their charity-flavor and take on more of an entrepreneurial character. This automatically leads to greater chances of sustainability for these endeavors. E.g. in the learning activities from the Handbook on Human Rights Education with Young People, ‘Compass’ of the Council of Europe, there is always an implicit dimension of learning for, enriched by social entrepreneurial learning. Finally both educational approaches enrich each other in the non-formal context as main synergies between social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education exist and can be integrated into social entrepreneurial learning through youth work.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR WORK PRACTICE, RESEARCH AND POLICY MAKING

The article reflects the main synergies between social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education in the non-formal context, with the conceptual fundament as their basis and preliminary practical experiences in that area as their background. As rigorous research on the impact of this practice has still to be done, they are characterized as ‘preliminary’. The conceptual fundament includes discussion of the relationship between social entrepreneurship and human rights, the understanding of human rights education, including its different dimensions—above all, the action-orientation of the dimension ‘learning for human rights’. The main synergies—utilizing the non-formal-context, participation, transformation, empowerment, and action-orientation—are identified and briefly explained. These synergies indicate the potential that the combination of social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education can develop.

For youth work practice, the article implies that the combination of social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education can be useful as it enhances the positive practical achievements of both educational approaches. The article also provides some tentative links between the two and invites youth workers and researchers to further develop methods and activities combining social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education. It therefore calls for critical participation in the implementation of this combination of social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education and a review of the practice.

There is a need for research into understanding what can be expected from the dynamics of transformation and empowerment, and how they take place. In addition, impact evaluation of the combination of social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education, including specific analysis of the single steps of the educational process would be needed. Particular attention could be put on the participants’ background characteristics and how these have an impact on the outcome of the educational process. This research should in its design and conduct remain grounded in rigor and realism. Only in this way can research contribute to the improvement of the educational programs.

The article gives an outlook on the potential of the combination of social entrepreneurial learning and human rights education and is an urgent invitation to further, with programmes, funds and other concrete measures, this focus for youth work. Ultimately, the article opens up several reflection questions: What does ‘social’ in ‘social entrepreneurship’ mean? Who defines it and in whose name? Why does it matter? How can youth work address the risk of profit-maximising enterprises overusing and abusing the concept of social entrepreneurship? How can youth work engage with the entrepreneurial activities that threaten the human rights of people?
The non-profit enterprise ‘Wasser für Wasser’ coordinates the sale of tap water in restaurants not for the profit of the restaurants but for the benefit of sustainable and entrepreneurial water-projects worldwide. ‘Wasser für Wasser’ has won already several awards, among others the Young Caritas Award and the IHRF-Award.


If one important focus of working with young people and training entrepreneurs is about developing competencies, then surely, ‘business competency’ should include guiding ethics and values that support the sustainability of the particular enterprise. This essay examines the contribution of youth work in helping young people to become self-employed and to encourage responsible business. With reference to the enterprise development and youth work scene across the UK, it highlights the supportive features of an evolving arena and raises the following questions: Are skills and knowledge all that are needed to support sustainable youth enterprise? Are there any benefits in providing space for business ethics and values education, within a fuller spectrum of support for young entrepreneurs? Essentially, the writer presents business ethics and values as tactical priorities for achieving sustainable business development – including entrepreneurs.

**Methodology and Approach**

The paper’s focus is not to join debate about economic policy motives, unilateral value systems or to minimize the plight of roughly 1 million unemployed young British citizens (less than 25 years)\(^7\). Rather, it argues that in seeking to maintain the productive partnership of youth work and responsible enterprise, reference to business ethics and values are important.
At the time of writing, the nature and status of available national services and programmes for youth entrepreneurship are still (literally) being mapped out across England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Youth participation, entrepreneurship and business incubation are very current topics in the UK and this has provided a vibrant context for the paper. The situation invites thorough discussion of the topics, beyond this essay and, it was a deliberate decision not to use a historical narrative approach during the research phase. It seemed more appropriate to take a descriptive stance at this stage. Overall, the landscape of support for enterprise development in the UK seems highly diverse and complex.

This paper relies on a literature review of current and evolving policies concerning; youth work, related programmes, ethical enterprise (including social entrepreneurship), financial education and national curriculum reform. Nevertheless, the interplay of youth work, enterprise development and ethics is deeply interesting and worthy of further research, beyond the limitations of this piece of writing.

The information gathering stage also included 20 semi-structured interviews with: young business leaders, public sector/ministry personnel from the Department for Business Innovation and Skills (BIS) and practitioners in the educational sector. Additionally, there was some interaction with civic society agencies such as the Personal Finance Education Group (PFEG), The Brightside Trust, The Prince’s Trust and the BayBI community-based project.

Finally, the paper also benefited from the author’s participation in fora which examined topics such as: ‘The Changing Role of Business in Society’ and ‘Social Entrepreneurship’. At these gatherings, the exchange of ideas with many young social entrepreneurs was very helpful.

Ain’t nobody got time for that...

This tacit response to the idea of linking ethics to business conduct and fair trade is not as acceptable as it was in times past. To some extent, ethical business is no longer sitting on the sidelines of what was considered rational, profitable enterprise. Rather, social enterprise and other responsible business are now in vogue. One can argue that these changes represent a clear shift in thinking about the importance of values and ethics in business – even about the purpose and functioning of enterprise itself.

With a national constituency of 4.8 million businesses, the UK’s private sector has growth potential. However, new areas for job creation and expanding employment options for young people must be sought out. As England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland commit to enterprise education, there is a good basis for investigating the vibrant business arena called ‘social entrepreneurship’. This sub-sector is cause-related and able to promote the well-being of both UK and international communities. Even so, there are several reasons why awareness building and mentoring around business ethics and values are critical for (young) entrepreneurs.

First, it may be that business ethics and values could help to mitigate risks beyond incubation and early stage business. Yet ultimately, ethical awareness can even be considered as necessary ‘social and functional capital’ for (young) entrepreneurs (Coté & Levine 2011).

Second, business ethics and values may represent the essential ‘adhesive’ needed for linking the pursuit of livelihood and wealth with the concepts of wellbeing and the common good. Notably, this perspective is consistent with the original Millennium Development Goals and the global Post-2015 Agenda. It is already being upheld by some global environmental causes and international conventions promoted by agencies such as the ILO, WHO and UNICEF.

Third, the business ethics arena could facilitate deliveries beyond the traditional ‘just business’ approach. It has potential for a more comprehensive framework for enterprise education and linking themes such as: ‘business as vocation’, social investment, brand reputation, youth participation, sustainable development, shared value, social justice and environmental stewardship. Collectively, these themes actually help to shed light on how to create business value itself and to identify social and economic gains that are sustainable. They give opportunity for youth work agencies and services to examine their own business values and, the extent to which these are actually embedded in programmes, upheld by staff and expressed in their daily delivery of business.

Fourth, within the UK’s ethnically diverse society, discussion on business ethics and values could trigger much needed cross-cultural exchange on traditional business practices. These could include the nuances of bartering; ‘haggling’, ‘hawkering’ and other tendencies that are common practice within the micro business and some SME arenas.

Fifth, the support for ethically-minded enterprise development resonates with young people’s expressed needs. According to the 2013 Dublin conference (‘Conclusions of the EU Youth Conference of the Irish Presidency’) on social inclusion of young people in the EU, young people are calling for ‘a coherent framework and holistic approach which links formal and informal agents to education’ and promotes ‘inclusive education’. This would include ‘career guidance job coaching and counselling’. It is fair to assume that this would also span non-formal youth programmes that support youth enterprise development.

Ultimately, learning about ethical entrepreneurship provides a context for meeting the expectations of more discerning consumers and an informed public. This could help to re-shape the notion of corporate social responsibility. Some now argue that; ‘[...] most companies remain stuck in a “social responsibility” mind-set in which societal issues are at the periphery, not the core’.
POLICIES ON YOUTH ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE UK: A KALEIDOSCOPE OF POSSIBILITIES...

When it comes to practical experience, nothing beats learning by doing. This hallmark of youth work in the UK is noted in the policy document 'Positive for Youth [...]’ where it underscores working with young people as a ‘distinctive practice’. While such non-formal learning does not necessarily mean unstructured activity, it certainly complements more formal education and daily living, as a part of a wider community. Working with young people is therefore ‘[…] invariably intertwined with community needs’63. It often has home-grown validity, and is rooted in localism. Just like entrepreneurship, youth initiatives could be fresh-faced, venture-focused, innovative and profitable in their methods and outcomes.

Another shared feature of youth work and enterprise development is the openness to hands on pragmatism and blending of hope with potential. Together, these help to make youth work an attractive companion to the notion of young people pursuing self-employment and in particular, social entrepreneurship – where socio-political and environmental causes are integral to the very business case.

According to a recent article in the Economist magazine, this pragmatism also appears to be consistent with some contemporary viewpoints of the UK’s ‘Generation Boris’:

‘[…] those 18 to 24 are also more likely than older people to consider social problems the responsibility of individuals rather than government […] they care about the environment, but are also keen on commerce: more supportive of the privatisation of utilities, more likely to reject government attempts to ban branding on cigarette packets and more likely to agree that Tesco […] “has only become so large by offering customers what they want” [...]’ (The Economist, June 2013)

Small wonder then that across the UK a myriad of community-based programmes, national public-private partnerships (PPP) and NGO linkages are emerging (and also merging) to work with young people and to promote enterprise development. Small wonder also that UK policy makers would embrace youth work as part of a larger national strategy to combat joblessness, by targeting support for business ‘start-ups’ and SMEs.

The economic imperatives behind this urgency to address youth unemployment, welfare reform and a plethora of other policy re- hauls in the UK are obvious. All across the four nations, non-formal programmes for skills training, mentoring, business planning and facilities for accessing start-up finance are helping young people at various stages of their enterprise vision. But is this keen ‘eco-system’ really all that is needed for the challenges of entrepreneurship and managing business risks, beyond incubation?

The diverse policy initiatives, programmes and services to support young entrepreneurs in the UK are not just a patchwork of activities. The momentum is fast moving – more akin to a kaleidoscope! Community experiments, alliances and projects are rising up at both the local and national levels. In commenting on this UK development, one blogger states ‘[…] the persistent frustration of unemployment has compelled this generation to think outside the box and take their future in their own hands. Entrepreneurship is now perhaps the most promising employer of today’s youth’64.

Despite such glowing possibilities, not every new business has the ‘gazelle’ encounter of success. It is important to acknowledge some propensity for early failures on the part of youth businesses. These may be attributed to lack of experience and a host of other issues. Yet, in several respects, the UK may still be described as having a positive enabling environment for supporting youth enterprise. This is largely represented by the following key factors.

First, there is a consultative process for national discussion and for crafting national youth policy. In the case of England, one key document presents the government’s aspiration for the well being and progress of young people. It is entitled; ‘Positive for Youth: A new approach to cross-government policy for young people aged 13-19’. Notably, this policy document has been updated since its initial release65.

In the UK there is also an apparent mandate for horizontal review (and even reform) within the educational and enterprise sectors. It is interesting that this process fully acknowledges the importance of partnership with the business and third sector. The UK’s Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS) is a significant convenor in this arena. BIS is expanding its enterprise education remit well beyond the traditional higher education and formal education sector. Working linkages are being made with youth service agencies such as Ambition UK and UK Youth. This concerted action should mean greater engagement with the non-formal education constituency and also more opportunity for knowledge exchange44.

Local initiative expressed through very creative programmes, services and ‘networks of networks, is a buttress for enterprise development across the four nations. So for example, in referring to environmental stewardship within the energy sector, a recent SEUK webpage article records; ‘[…] there are many co-operative energy providers in this country where neighbours are collaborating,
creating jobs and growing their social capital as well as economic power. In
energy, as in many sectors, citizens and communities are ahead of politicians
and taking action themselves, as entrepreneurs and investors.\textsuperscript{126}

In the UK, movement is taking place within organized citizenry and this col-
aboration involves both local and national alliances. It is encouraging public
discussion, active debate and visible campaigning. There is also support for
Local Enterprise Partnerships (LEPs) to strengthen relationships across the
mixed business sector and with schools – all towards addressing local business
needs. Thus, Social Enterprise UK is such an expression of vibrant community
investment and small business partnerships. Other associations involve: youth
social enterprises, universities, think tanks and cooperatives.

Nurturing youth-led business initiative is also a supportive feature in the UK.
This is particularly regarding causes such as: social justice, environmental
issues, support for disadvantaged groups, homelessness, community voluntary
service and job creation. When combined with enterprise development (and
what has already been described as the ‘youth work process’), this approach is
bringing hope and the promise of improved livelihoods to young people in com-
munities across the UK (Bateman, Blacke, Davies in Buckland, 2013).

One example of this is the Barnet Youth Business Incubator project (BayBI)
which caters to the 16-24 age groups. This service is youth-friendly in its
style and delivery. It offers business mentoring, counselling and other sup-
port to young people who are classified as ‘Not in Education, Employment or
Training’ (NEET).

In the mean time, access to information and supportive mentoring schemes using
IT technology is helping to shape many youth businesses. The UK Government
is leading the way with a new digital support system, offering online advice
and guidance programmes. There are other business support programmes such
as the British Library’s Business and IP Centre. Within the NGO sector, the
Brightside Trust provides online mentoring for entrepreneurs. Another type of
internet-aided service is the YES Network, described on its webpage as ‘[…] the
FIRST membership-based network for entrepreneurs under the age of 35’.

The UK also boasts diverse and highly customized national facilities for pro-
viding funding, finance and other support. For example, the Start-Up Loans
Company lends approximately £2,500 in support to young people (18-30 years)
for their new business ideas. This scheme also offers low interest rates. The
Young Report (which was released earlier this year in May), announced that
an additional £30 million boost is being directed towards more funding and
mentoring. Apart from Start-Up Loans, other available support noted in this
Report includes a Growth Vouchers programme and SME Growth Loans.

With respect to facilities, the provision of actual physical working space is
making a significant difference for young entrepreneurs who would be stranded
otherwise. ‘Co-working spaces’ and practices involving ‘hot desks’ are a part
of this new trend towards maximizing work space. In his Report, Lord Young
also identifies the Social Incubator Fund (compliments of the Cabinet Office) as
supporting provision of such physical space and acceleration facilities.

Attempts to review the enterprise development process are encouraging map-
ing and documentation at a national level. One example of this is the ‘Take
Charge’ mapping exercise which is presently being convened by the Personal
Finance Education Group (PFEG). This is an ambitious but very much needed
national project which aims to draft ‘[…] a map of financial education and
enterprise education initiatives’\textsuperscript{127}.

A general openness to new instructional design, learning methodologies and
models of working with young people is also providing support for business
training. For example, there seems to be a ‘blurring’ of the traditional demarca-
tion between youth work and formal education. Some universities and schools
are sponsoring imaginative enterprise development programmes that are being
delivered in a manner akin to the non-formal settings of youth-friendly work.
The Real Ideas Organization, Find Invest Grow (FIG) and UKTI are working
with schools in this style.

Lastly, the supportive ecosystem for youth enterprise development in the UK
includes a burgeoning incentive, grants and awards system. This is in place to
help boost the confidence and sense of accomplishment of young social entre-
preneurs. Incentives and other related support are available through various
government and NGO programmes. For example in the case of the latter con-
stituency, UnLtd listed at least 9 separate awards in their 2011/2012 Review\textsuperscript{128}.

\textbf{RECOMMENDATION: NOT JUST ABOUT SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE...}

Managing business and reputation in compliance with goals, risks and ethics
is important learning for young business people. However, the information
gleaned from these activities is really cognitive knowledge. This learning will
prove ineffective if it is not understood within the context of small-scale busi-
ness and suitably applied.

In contrast, business codes, ethics and related values are essentially about the
entrepreneur’s predisposition and mindset and it would be simplistic to locate
them solely within the ambit of skills and knowledge. Put succinctly, there is
more to enterprise development than skills training, knowledge transfer and
mentoring. There is need for a transforming paradigm which includes all these
features but also incorporates the ethical dimension. This should help to more
ably equip the young entrepreneur for the weight of daily decision making, the implications of risks, following through with choices and other long-term vagaries of sustainable business.

The following table is an early attempt to broach this subject. It is therefore introductory in its function and presentation of six tactical priority areas. These could contribute to crafting a business ethics and values education framework for young entrepreneurs. The 6 issue areas were originally identified by Featherby (2009). However, the outcome responses of the ethically aware entrepreneur were added and are still under further development by this writer. In the meantime, Featherby offers us sober encouragement about expressing values within the realm of business and finance.

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TACTICAL PRIORITY 1</th>
<th>BUSINESS ENDEAVOUR</th>
<th>TACTICAL PRIORITY 2</th>
<th>BUSINESS INTEGRITY</th>
<th>TACTICAL PRIORITY 3</th>
<th>BUSINESS RELATIONSHIPS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WHERE ENTREPRENEURSHIP AS LIVELIHOOD IS ONE ASPECT OF PURSUING LIFE PURPOSE. THERE IS KEEN CONCERN FOR PROSPERITY AND COMMUNITY INVESTMENT, INNOVATION AND SHARED VALUE.</td>
<td>BEING CAPABLE OF SELF MANAGEMENT AND DEMONSTRATING COMMITMENT TO SOUND BUSINESS PROCESSES, AT EVERY STAGE OF THE VALUE CHAIN AND SERVICE.</td>
<td>OPENNESS TO ENGAGING IN PARTNERSHIP WORK – VALUING FAIR COMPETITION, ALLEGIANCE, COOPERATION AND PURSUIT OF MUTUAL INTERESTS.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACTICAL PRIORITY 4</td>
<td>BUSINESS RESPONSIBILITY</td>
<td>TACTICAL PRIORITY 5</td>
<td>BUSINESS STEWARDSHIP</td>
<td>TACTICAL PRIORITY 6</td>
<td>BUSINESS SERVICE AND DELIVERY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEOSED FOR LONG TERM BUSINESS GAIN – TAKING CARE TO BE ACCOUNTABLE AND DECISIVE WITH PROBLEM-SOLVING.</td>
<td>EFFICIENT RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (INCLUDING HUMAN!), EFFECTIVELY PRODUCTIVE AND HAVING OVERSIGHT TO MEET RISKS CREATIVELY.</td>
<td>SOCIALLY, GLOBALLY AND ENVIRONMENTALLY AWARE. CLIENT-FACING AND COMMITTED TO DELIVERING BUSINESS VALUE.</td>
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</table>

The problem with values is that they offer no tidy prescription to heal our woes. They provide no neat, ordered system. Values seldom provide absolutes, often compete and usually need to be prioritised. Values do not tell us what to do. Instead, need to be prioritised. Values do not tell us what to do. Instead, they leave us with the responsibility of making choices between alternatives...But values do provide purpose, meaning and inspiration (Featherby, 2009:16).

It should be emphasised that in keeping with the agreement, production and service goals of any standard business contract, the six issue areas are extrinsic in focus. Whilst striving to keep enterprise-related values in focus, the table aims to complement the knowledge, understanding and skills method of current enterprise education. Ideally, it is meant to progress discussion on both youth work and enterprise development in the UK.

CONCLUSION

Youth work and entrepreneurship are both significant fields of praxis in the UK. Together, they could help facilitate the launching pad of the young person’s life and business goals. This does not mean that such enterprise will be always ‘micro’ or that young people are perpetually young! It does mean that young people are making an outstanding contribution to a new form of entrepreneurship that is socially and ethically minded. The formative stages of enterprise development are unique. These allow establishing of precedent regarding the thrust of the business idea, its feasibility and potential gains, its risks and, how business will be conducted. Of course, in the midst of all this, the personal development of the young entrepreneur is paramount.

Although some efforts at responsible corporate enterprise appear to be an external ‘jumpstart’ process (and not naturally indigenous to the business system), the dynamism of youth work is unhampered by this constraint. This is because non-formal learning complements social entrepreneurship (and other ethical enterprise) at the most nascent level. In short, youth work is truly a strategic conduit for supporting young people in business. This reality goes beyond any political agenda.

There is instrumental worth in promoting learning and exchange around business ethics and values, whatever the growth status of the particular enterprise. The growing consensus that these are actually ‘good for business’ is proving to be helpful. As a result, youth work is presenting a window of opportunity for revisiting business programmes, instructional design and pedagogy. It is unfortunate that in the UK, this arena still remains largely untapped as a dimension of entrepreneurship education.

If one important focus of working with young people and training entrepreneurs is about developing competencies, then surely, ‘business competency’ should include guiding ethics and values that support the sustainability of the particular enterprise. Thus, the union of youth work and youth enterprise would have possibilities for the present and the future. It could help young people to achieve what is good for business, whilst still upholding any aspirations for doing good...
There is little to be gained by ignoring the wider issue of cultural business practices because of concerns about pluralism and, fear of ascendancy of any single cultural value system. The engagement and new learning is necessary. Some may argue that this is already being acknowledged to some extent at the global corporate level.


It is ironic that this is readily observed in international development contexts as an anti-poverty strategy. Yet, apart from employment needs, young British entrepreneurs are also getting into business to contribute to local and global causes. Presently, an eclectic range of business cases and categories demonstrate interests in everything from community deprivations to environmental degradation and human rights. See the ‘Global Entrepreneurship Snapshot’, pp.5 for a wider update on the international status of entrepreneurship.

See Saira Meese-Tamuri’s FCO blog ‘Investing in the next Generation of Entrepreneurs and Innovators’, 22nd May 2013. Some comparison was also made with similar developments in Canada. blogs.fco.gov.uk/ nicolearbour/2013/05/22/ investing-in-the-next-generation-of-entrepreneurs-and-innovators/ and

See Lesley Buckland for an interesting review of this policy in ‘Positive for Youth: A Critique’ infed.org/mobi/ positive-for-youth-a-critique/ For some reference to current youth policy in Northern Ireland, see ‘Shaping the Future of the Youth Service’ published by the ‘Youth Service Sectoral Partnership Group, 2009.

Reference here to Action Points of the ‘HE&C FE Enterprise Expert Group (EEG), 3rd meeting: 22nd May, 2013. When drafting the Education Bill for Northern Ireland in November 2008, the then Minister for Education expressed similar sentiments that: ‘Education is about more than schooling... it is a public service that has the potential to shape and guide development and life chances of our young people; to build strong cohesive communities; and to drive and fuel our economy.’ For further reading, see ‘Shaping the Future of the Youth Service: a publication of the Youth Service Sectoral Partnership Group’, October, 2009

For more information, visit the ‘Take Charge’ webpage www.pfeg.org/projects-funding/ take-charge/ Notably, these included an award for young people 11-21 years who are creating entrepreneurial solutions to social issues. See the UnLtd. Annual Review 2011/2012, pp.9. UnLtd. is a foundation set up for supporting social entrepreneurs.

The author is deeply grateful to James Featherby for opportunity to expand the original 6 issue areas presented in the text. For more information see the in-depth list entitled ‘Business for the Common Good’ in ‘The White Swan Formula: Rebuilding business and finance for the common good’


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Publication
March 2014 by the SALTO-Youth Participation Resource Centre

Hosted by
Bureau International Jeunesse (BIJ)

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