Social, emotional and intercultural competencies for inclusive school environments across Europe

Relationships matter

Edited by
Ana Kozina

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Hand in Hand
Social and Emotional Skills for Tolerant and Non-discriminative Societies
(A Whole School Approach)

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank the active voices of the students, teachers, principals and school counsellors for their openness, active engagement, commitment and faith in us all learning together.

Content

Foreword

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The task of developing approaches to social and emotional education in schools and wider contexts, to include also intercultural/transcultural learning, is one that is gaining increasing attention in a European context. This is in no small part due to the new EU key competence for lifelong learning, proposed by the European Commission and adopted by the EU Council in 2018, the Personal, Social and Learning to Learn key competence. Social and emotional education must not be reduced to being an appendage to citizenship education or religious education (Cefai, Bartolo, Cavioni, & Downes, 2018). It is to be hoped that this new Personal, Social and Learning to Learn key competence will give further momentum to the development of this area that is still somewhat nascent in a European context. HAND in HAND is one such project leading the way in developing ground-up, contextually tailored resources for social and emotional education, for at least some European contexts.

While much of the international research in this area has been developed in US contexts, there are compelling reasons for expanding beyond these frames of reference in this area. This book locates itself as part of this expansion process. These compelling reasons for a wider cultural trajectory for social and emotional education interventions and research than US-dominated ones, require recognition that children and young people's voices need to be central to such resources and research, including marginalised and minority groups. Against the backdrop that the US is the sole country now internationally not to have ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, where Art. 12 emphasises the right of children to be consulted on matters affecting their welfare, the question arises not only as to how this is affecting social and emotional education in the US but also as to how social and emotional education approaches that embrace this central pulse of lived experience and voices of students can be further developed.

Another distinctive focus in a European context is the placing of early school leaving prevention as a central priority, as one of only two headline targets in education for the EU2020 strategy. This has led to an increased scrutiny of teachers' competences and supporting their professional development regarding, for example, their own conflict resolution skills and diversity awareness. This is part of a wider emotional-relational turn for early school leaving research internationally in the past decade (Downes, 2018) and offers a social inclusion rationale for the importance of social and emotional education. The HAND in HAND project focus on the relational competencies of teachers, as part of a social and emotional education approach and its contribution to school climate as a whole school approach, is thus to be greatly welcomed. As is aptly stated in the opening chapter, 'relational competence is not (only) about communication techniques, but is about the dialogue which is based on the sincere wish and competence of the adults to react openly and with sensitivity'.

The health promotion literature tends to draw a distinction between top-down prepackaged programmes and bottom-up contextually tailored approaches, inviting a concern with an overemphasis on programmes that literally seek to programme children and young people into specific desired behaviours, attitudes and even feelings. Social and emotional education must resist such personality packaging and the risks of cultural conformity that come with it. Again, HAND in HAND is to be commended for seeking to resist a simply prepackaged programme approach that is a feature of much of the current literature. A focus on systems and ecological validity would invite more discussion of how to go beyond one size fits all programmes in this area.

Additional tasks in developing not only a distinctively European social and emotional education approach but ultimately a contextually sensitive, yet sufficiently universal approach internationally for social and emotional education will require further steps beyond the scope of the HAND in HAND project, such as conceptual integration of existential meaning approaches into social and emotional education, as well as psychoanalytic and Jungian approaches that engage with unconscious emotion. Doing so will resist the one-sidedness of approaches that tend to promote extraversion over introversion, such as the OECD's (2015) social and emotional skills approach, as this ignores the key Jungian insights on the strengths of introversion that Jung (1921) explicitly sought to develop in his framework. A further key task is to develop formative assessment approaches rather than ones

of summative assessment that overreach the boundaries of State control and commentary on the development of the individual.

A major challenge with these tasks is to build a wider international research community and set of policies that is not Eurocentric and is culturally responsive. This is no easy matter. A common pathway here must be engagement with the lived experiences of different students in different cultures, for a holistic, differentiated, systemic approach to social and emotional education, embracing intercultural and transcultural learning. Rooted in the phenomenology of diverse students and cultural contexts, this can help ensure that the lived pulse of relevance, sensitivity and openness rather than prescription becomes the animating feature of social and emotional education in the future. However, the question of a common language or structure of experience for such a cross-culturally meaningful approach is a complex one (Downes, 2019). The recognition in HAND in HAND of the relevance of breath and breathing is part of a key step towards a wider international approach for this area, that is resonant for example, with many Eastern traditions of meditation.

Another task for the future as part of a differentiated vision is how to interrelate issues of trauma and complexity with social and emotional education approaches. A universal level is not enough for many students who have experienced adversity and trauma. The need for multidisciplinary teams in and around schools as supports for these students must not be overlooked through a simply universal curricular focus on social and emotional education.

Overall this HAND in HAND project and book offers vital elements of a future framework for social and emotional education. The authors are to be commended for their lucidity, sensitivity and ambition in scope, as well as frankness about how there is so much more needing to be developed in this whole area.

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Introduction

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When did it all start or why the focus on social, emotional and intercultural/ transcultural competencies?

As a researcher in the field of educational psychology, I first became intrigued by aggression and then by anxiety (as a possible source of aggression), and after investigating the common core of them both, in my PhD and later on in Post-doc, I came to the issues of prevention and intervention (mostly in the school setting). What led me to prevention and intervention were the questions that frequently emerged while presenting empirical findings on the many short- and long-term negative outcomes of aggression or anxiety in the school setting (especially those related to the rise in anxiety in the last few decades or difficulties finding successful prevention and intervention for aggression). These questions were accompanied by the feelings of helplessness often shared in different groups of teachers, educators, policymakers, parents… Similar thoughts and feelings arose while looking at news reporting on the negativity, discrimination and hostilities presented through the media and directed at refugees and migrants. The most pressing questions were: *What can we do? How can we support children and adolescents in their everyday life in schools and promote their overall positive development (not only cognitive)?*

While looking for an answer in evidence-based research: social and emotional learning came like a knight in shiny armour. It then seemed (and still does) like a much-needed solution, also in response to the call by the European Commission to support Policy Experimentation projects (Erasmus+ call: EACEA/34/2015; *Priority theme: Promoting fundamental values through education and training addressing diversity in the learning environment*) that would help promote inclusive schools and societies where intercultural/transcultural competencies play a vital and significant part. This European Commission call gave me, and the researchers, as well as practitioners and policy initiators who shared these very concerns an opportunity to investigate further. And so, the HAND in HAND project started.

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HAND in HAND: *Social and Emotional Skills for Tolerant and Non-discriminative Societies (A Whole School Approach)* is a European policy experimentation project that involves eight institutions that have each brought their own insights and experiences (from extensive experiences in teacher professional development through to policy-level involvement) across five countries [Educational Research Institute – project leader (ERI) and the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport (MESS), Slovenia; the Institute for Social Research Zagreb (ISRZ), Croatia; Mid Sweden University (MIUN), Sweden; the Technical University of Munich (TUM) and the Leibniz Institute for Research and Information in Education (DIPF), Germany; VIA University College, Denmark; and the Network of Education Policy Centres (NEPC), network]. The positive change we envisage seeing in our classrooms, schools and societies could, in our opinion, be triggered by fostering the social, emotional and intercultural/transcultural (SEI) competencies of students and school staff using a whole-school approach.

What is the monograph all about?

The three-year learning process started with a list of fundamental questions: What are SEI competencies? How do we promote them in schools? What outcomes do we expect on the individual, classroom and school level? How do we measure them and how do we evaluate the expected effects? How to assure high-quality implementation and transferability across contexts? How are these competencies established on a system level and which areas are deficient? The monograph in front of you addresses these questions, one by one, providing a holistic overview of SEI competencies that moves beyond the borders of our specific project.

More specifically, in the monograph, Kozina, Vidmar and Veldin, first tackle the question of definitions with an innovative cross-section of social and emotional competencies on one hand and intercultural/transcultural competencies on the other. The importance of relationships (as building stones for an inclusive classroom) and in reaching a whole-school approach are in focus. The opening chapter is followed by one by Štremfel who presents an in-depth analysis of the contexts in which the HAND in HAND is embedded (Slovenia, Croatia, Sweden) and the placement of SEI competencies in these contexts. The national context is further expanded to policy development at the EU level in the field of SEI learning in order to identify missing spots that can inform policy-level changes. We believe that "the motors of positive change" are the adaptable and contextualised HAND

in HAND interventions, namely, two interconnected programmes for students and school staff (teachers, principals and school counsellors), which are aligned with the HAND in HAND aims and, at the same time, sensitive to the needs of every individual invited to participate in the project and programmes. The programmes' development is described by Jugović, Puzić and Mornar (the programme for students) and by Jensen and Gøtzsche (the programme for school staff). Both programmes aim to strengthen the contact with oneself and others by enhancing empathy and compassion for oneself and others. The development process is supported in both chapters by a theoretical overview, example activities, and the core components. In order to provide informed guidelines for policy and practice with respect to the placement of SEI competencies in these two fields, we wished to not only promote such competencies in schools, but also strived to evaluate it using a multimethod approach (on EU and national levels). Therefore, great effort was made in developing the SEI assessment (both qualitative and quantitative), which we regard as a necessary prerequisite for any valid and reliable evaluation. The process of selecting and developing the assessment is described in a contribution by Roczen, Endale, Vieluf and Rožman, which is followed by two evaluation chapters that cover both summative and formative evaluation. Rožman, Roczen and Vieluf consider the summative (quantitative) outcomes of the evaluation, which are based on self-report data and reported mixed, short-term and context-dependent findings. Vieluf, Denk, Rožman and Roczen look at summative (qualitative) and formative evaluation and conclude by pointing to short-term positive effects (especially for the HAND in HAND programme for school staff) and the lack of long-term effects. Nielsen raises an important issue concerning how the programmes are implemented in practice. She discusses the subtle line between adaptation and fidelity, provocatively asking: "whether the whole idea, of universal school development programmes that are adaptable for all contexts, is simply an illusion". Implementation issues are also considered by Rasmusson, Oskarsson, Eliasson and Dahlström who describe the processes linked to providing quality assurance for the whole project and its main outcomes. In the conclusions, Štremfel, Vršnik Perše and Mlekuž provide recommendations based on both the evaluation findings and the contextual data on how to help develop the SEI competencies of students and school staff on the system level in the EU, across the HAND in HAND countries, and beyond.

What have we learned and where do we go from here?

Complexity, multiplicity, optimism, connectedness, learning, process, never-ending, open questions, sensitivity, together... are just some of the words that come to mind while reflecting on the last few years of diving deep into what SEI competencies can offer society. It was an incredible journey, personally and research-wise, principally because we ourselves had completed the HAND in HAND programmes, their various activities and processes that we subsequently offered the students, teachers, principals and school counsellors. While giving us a very personal experience of our own individual SEI development as well as the impact the SEI development had on our own group, it supported the development of a climate of trust and closeness. At this point, I see it as a stepping-stone in the direction that myself and us all – the HAND in HAND research group – are pursuing in promoting SEI development in schools and, more ambitiously, in transforming schools as a system in the process. This is the first step of many.

The take-home message of the HAND in HAND project is best captured by one teacher who after participating in the HAND in HAND programme stated:

> *» Personally, I noticed that I had started to open up and connect with others."*

Chapter 1:
Social, emotional and intercultural/transcultural learning in a European perspective:
Core concepts of the HAND in HAND project

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Abstract

This chapter briefly overviews the HAND in HAND project and its aims, along with definitions of the core concepts that take a distinct European perspective into account and were included while developing the programme for students and school staff. The programme's, as well as project's aim, was to increase social, emotional and intercultural/transcultural (SEI) competencies to foster a more inclusive learning environment and over a long time also in society. Building on previous theories, the final core concepts and definitions were agreed following extensive discussions, based on the expertise of the project team and a review of the literature. Core concepts of the HAND in HAND are thus self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, responsible decision-making and, for school staff, also relational competence. The importance of these competencies for ensuring an inclusive classroom climate and a whole-school approach is emphasised.

Keywords: core concepts, whole-school approach, inclusive classroom climate

1. The HAND in HAND project

The HAND in HAND project targeted the need detected in Europe and internationally to develop inclusive societies (schools and classrooms) that allow every student to feel accepted and be able to achieve their potential, particularly in response to increasing migration flows. HAND in HAND seeks to achieve this by fostering the social, emotional and intercultural (SEI) competencies of students and school staff – the whole-school approach. The whole school approach engages the entire school community (in our case, the students of a single class, their teachers, school counsellors, and the principal) as part of a cohesive, collective and collaborative effort.

Despite SEI competencies having documented positive impacts on individual- and school-level outcomes (e.g. Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; OECD, 2015; Taylor, Oberle Durlak, & Weissberg, 2017), substantial variations across countries and local jurisdictions are seen in the availability of policies and programmes aimed at boosting these competencies (OECD, 2015). At the same time, the SEI competencies of school staff also cannot be taken for granted and thus must be promoted at the systemic level (Downes & Cefai, 2016; Jones, Bouffard & Weissbourd, 2013; Schonert-Reichl, Hanson-Peterson, & Hymel, 2015) to create an inclusive environment and develop the competencies of students and school staff. The project aims to pilot a programme (not as a package but more as a flexible and contextualised intervention), to help develop these competencies and propose a system-level solution for upscaling at the national and European levels. Accordingly, the consortium has developed an open-access systemic policy tool: EU-based, universal SEI learning programmes (HAND in HAND programmes: a HAND in HAND programme for students and a separate HAND in HAND programme for school staff). In order to test whether the HAND in HAND programmes positively affect the SEI competencies of students and school staff (and an inclusive classroom climate), we assessed the effectiveness of these programmes in a field trial experiment in three EU countries: Slovenia, Croatia and Sweden. We used the same randomised control group experimental design in the three countries. The assessment (more in Roczen et al., this publication) was conducted at three points in time: pre- and post-programme implementation, and 6 months after the programme had been completed. As shown in Figure 1, following a prior measurement (HAND in HAND assessment) of the SEI competencies (of students and their school staff)

and classroom climate, a group of students and the school staff (the principal, counsellors, teachers, etc.) completed the HAND in HAND programmes in different conditions: (A) the control condition (without completing the HAND in HAND programmes); (B) completing only the programme for students (more in Jugović et al., this publication); (C) completing only the programme for school staff (more in Jensen and Gøtzsche, this publication); and (D) completing the programmes as part of a whole-school approach (namely, the programme for school staff and the programme for students). Twelve schools per country, with higher proportions of at-risk students (e.g. migrants, refugees, students with low social-economic status etc.), participated with their 8th - grade students (13 to 14 years old), some of their teachers and other school staff. The schools were randomly assigned in advance to one of the four conditions (three schools per condition per country).
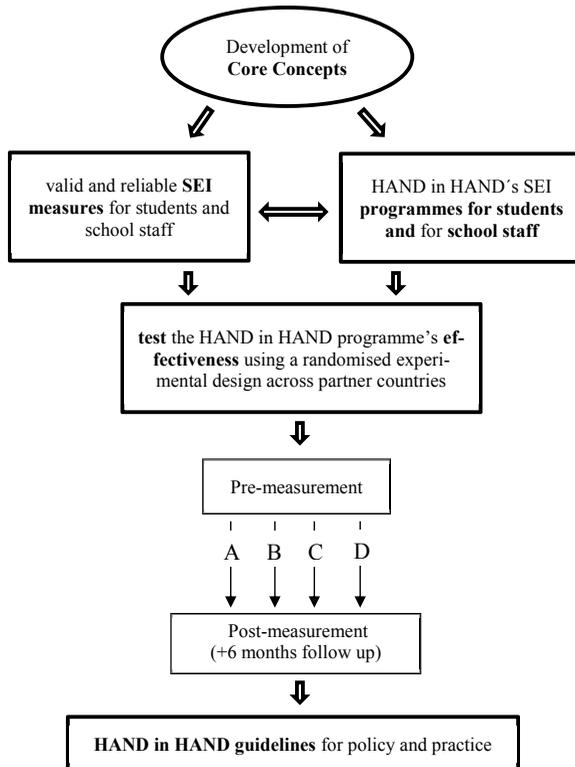

Figure 1: Project design of the HAND in HAND

2. Scientific background of the HAND in HAND project

In the text that follows, we briefly present the scientific background and underlying conceptualisation and assumptions behind the HAND in HAND programmes. Regarding the social and emotional competencies, the work of the USA-based Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2013) served as a foundation although bringing a more humanistic (relational) perspective, and for the intercultural/transcultural competencies the work of several authors acted as a scientific background (Bennett, 1986, 1993, 2004, 2014; Blell & Doff, 2014; Byram, 1997; Deardoff, 2006). This review of the literature reveals that no individual overall or leading theory can explain social and emotional learning (as well as intercultural/transcultural) but that one theory might be useful for different aspects of one particular programme, and that multiple theories might be valuable as the basis for the same programme. Building on previous theories, the final core concepts and definitions have been agreed following extensive discussions based on the expertise held by the project team and a literature review is performed. Academics and professionals from various backgrounds and five European countries participated in the discussions, adding validity to the conclusions and conceptualisations and giving it a distinct European perspective, even if that was sometimes difficult to agree on. We are aware the review and definitions provided below are not all-encompassing but believe they are optimal for the context of the project. It is also important to note scientific publications in this field have seen a spur in the recent couple of years with publications based on the HAND in HAND project complementing the state-of-art work, reviews and initiatives. For example, NESET report (Cefai, Bartolo, Cavioni, & Downes, 2018) advocates for a social and emotional education as a core curricular area in the EU, while HAND in HAND also emphasize intercultural competence, mindfulness (e.g. focus on body and breathing) and relational context. Taken together this work is part of a distinct European approach in the field.

2.1 The importance of relationships for human development and learning

The SEI learning programmes intended for students and school staff developed in the HAND in HAND project build on the importance of relationships for human development and learning, as described in many theories and studies (e.g. Bowlby's attachment theory, 1969; Vygotsky's zone of proximal development,

1978). This created the foundation for understanding teacher-student relationships and the expectations that teacher-student relationships have a great impact on the students. From a developmental perspective, people are social beings from birth and must be in contact with others from the very beginning. As Juul and Jensen (2002) note, we are living in line with an existential coherence between our need to cooperate with others and to take care of our own needs and personal integrity, including the fact our integrity is developing in interaction with others (Juul & Jensen, 2002; Schibbye, 2002). Therefore, taking the perspective of self and others, communicating clearly, listening actively and alternating between the two perspectives are crucial (Juul & Jensen, 2002). From an educational perspective, Shriver and Buffett (2015) say the true core of education is the relationship existing between the student and the teacher, while learning is a relationship and that the success of education depends on the quality of this relationship. The quality of relationships students form with their classmates (Buhs, Ladd, & Herald 2006) and teachers has often been linked to their academic, social and emotional outcomes (Blankemeyer, Flannery, & Vazsonyi, 2002; Crosnoe, Johnson, & Elder, 2004; Hattie, 2012) and the shared view of the quality of those relations – the classroom climate – are important aspects in the project. More specifically, we aim to turn this shared perception (teacher-student relations and student-student relations) in a more positive direction for all students.

High-quality student-teacher relationships, as well as student-student relations, are typically characterised by high levels of warmth, sensitivity, safety, trust and emotional connection (Pianta, 1999; Wentzel, 2009). Given the demonstrated importance of relationships in the HAND in HAND project, we propose that relationships inside the classroom and an inclusive classroom climate (an increase in the positive shared view held by all students in the classroom) can be supported by SEI learning, that is increasing the SEI competencies possessed by students and their school staff – as part of a whole-school approach.

2.2 Positive outcomes of SEI competencies

Based on the mentioned findings, it is reasonable to assume that SEI competencies are the building stones for inclusive and supporting classrooms and school climates (Bennet, 2004; see also Downes, Nairz-Wirth, & Rusinaitė, 2017 for structural indicators for inclusive systems). The classroom climate is the result of

teacher and student behaviours in their day-to-day interactions. Thus, when they are both changed after completing teacher and student programmes the classroom climate is also likely to improve. There is considerable evidence showing how building up SEI competencies not only promotes a positive classroom climate, but also other positive outcomes seen on a student and school staff level.

For instance, better SEI competencies on the student level lead to improved educational outcomes, superior mental health, increased prosocial behaviour, less antisocial behaviour, a positive self-image (Bierman, Nix, Greenberg, Blair, & Domitrovich, 2008; Ross & Tolan, 2017; Sklad et al., 2012; Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004). On the classroom level, students with better social and emotional competencies are more active in the classroom, express their opinions and points of view more clearly, and less likely to leave school early (Cefai et al., 2018; Ragozzino, Resnik, O'Brien, & Weissberg, 2003). On the intercultural and relationship level, they integrate, evaluate and accept other people's opinions, and have better relationships with their peers and school staff (Cook et al., 2008; Ragozzino et al., 2003; Elliot, Frey, & Davies, 2015, Mallecki & Elliot, 2002). These positive cognitive, social and emotional outcomes have been observed in studies that follow up on interventions made 6 months to 3 years beforehand and across various cultural and socio-economic contexts and school years, from early years through to high school (Cefai et al., 2018).

Further, the social and emotional competencies held by school staff are recognised as being vital not simply for the development of students' social and emotional competencies (Schonert-Reichl, Oberle et al., 2015), students' behavioural and academic outcomes (e.g. Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Valiente, Lemery-Chalfant, Swanson, & Reiser, 2008), student-teacher relationships (Becker, Gallagher, & Whitaker, 2017) and students' learning and development in general (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009), but also for school staff's own well-being (Castillo-Gualda, Herrero, Rodríguez-Carvajal, Brackett, & Fernández-Berrocal, 2019; Collie, 2017).

Evidence also exists with respect to intercultural/transcultural competencies. Teachers' beliefs are the focus of many educational studies (e.g. Gay, 2010) in which different surveys show that teachers' beliefs influence teachers' behaviour, treatment and expectations of students based on ethnicity or race, social class and gender differences (Baron, Tom, & Cooper, 1985; Brophy & Evertson, 1981).

These findings are especially important today because diversity and multiculturalism form part of our socio-cultural and educational environment.

2.3 Social, emotional and intercultural/transcultural competencies

SEI competencies are usually treated separately within various research traditions, although they considerably overlap (Nielsen et al., 2019). As noted, the HAND in HAND project started by building on the CASEL (2013) definitions of social and emotional competencies that were used in discussions on how these definitions are aligned with the HAND in HAND aims and how the European context (experiences associated with European research and practices) is considered. Effort has also been made to find where individual SEI competencies may overlap. Even though the social and emotional components are often included in the core of intercultural/transcultural competencies (e.g. Stier, 2003), there is only a small overlap in research. In HAND in HAND, we place a strong focus on the constructs important for both areas (e.g. openness, respect, relations) while also focusing on parts that are more specific to each (e.g. self-awareness in the social and emotional part and moving beyond the self–other binary in the intercultural part).

2.3.1 Social and emotional competencies

CASEL (2013) outlines five interrelated dimensions (clusters of competencies) of social, emotional competencies held by students that have also been applied to school staff (Schonert-Reichl, Hanson-Peterson et al., 2015): self-awareness; self-management; social awareness; relationship skills; and responsible decision-making. In addition to CASEL's dimensions and intercultural/transcultural competencies, another dimension was included for school staff. Given the strong relational orientation of the core HAND in HAND concepts and the programme, it was needed to include an additional SEI dimension for school staff – relational competence. This competence overlaps with several SEI dimensions and is much broader than CASEL's relationship skills; it also brings a humanistic orientation concentrating on the importance of the student-teacher relationship and what happens within that relationship (see below) and was thus conceptualised as a separate entity.

Following CASEL (2013), **self-awareness** is the ability to recognise one's emotions and thoughts and their influence on behaviour. This includes accurately

assessing one's strengths and limitations and possessing a well-grounded sense of confidence and optimism. In the updated framework (Weissberg, Durlak, Domitrovich & Gullotta, 2015), the ability to understand one's own personal goals and values, and having a positive mind-set is added. In HAND in HAND, we have reflected on self-awareness as the ability to recognise one's emotions, bodily sensations and thoughts and their influence on how we respond. This includes having a sober, accepting/recognising way of looking at oneself; and the will and continuing wish to work on establishing all of it. Self-awareness is reflected in being present in your body, thoughts and feelings in a non-judgmental manner, e.g. being mindful. In developing the HAND in HAND programme's activities, mindfulness-based techniques were used as a tool. It is understood that self-awareness is the starting point for all the other SEI competencies that can be achieved with the help of our innate competencies: body, breath, heart, creativity, consciousness (Bertelsen, 2010, in Jensen, 2017). Self-awareness is most commonly practised with either focused attention (e.g. on one's breathing, body sensations) or open monitoring (e.g. observing natural processes) (Galla, Kaiser-Greenland, & Black, 2016). In HAND in HAND's conceptualisations, we also see it as not so much a goal and an outcome as an ongoing process that continues to happen (not something that is achieved or completed and is then 'available for further use').

Self-management is the ability to regulate one's emotions, thoughts and behaviours effectively in different situations. This includes managing stress, controlling impulses, motivating oneself, and setting and working toward achieving personal and academic goals (CASEL, 2013). The updated CASEL framework (Weissberg et al., 2015) includes the ability to delay gratification and perseverance through challenges. In HAND in HAND, we understand self-management as the ability to regulate one's emotions, bodily sensations, and thoughts and their influence on how we react. As stated, one must first be self-aware and aware of the connection between how we are and how we feel, with how we react, before these very domains can be regulated (Galla, Hale, Shresha, Loo & Smalley, 2012; Greco, Baer, & Smith, 2011). And once again, we can rely on our innate competencies (Jensen, 2017) as an anchor (e.g. breath, body). Research shows that using one's breath as an anchor has, for instance, two effects on the regulation of emotions. On one hand, concentrating on one's breath helps activate the parasympathetic nervous system, thereby leading to lower stress. On the other hand, it helps lower

rumination by stopping cycles of rumination as a way of protecting against maladaptive emotion regulation (Galla et al., 2017; Teasdale, Segal, & Williams, 1995). Being able to notice one's emotions, without reacting, allows for improvements in regulating emotion (Bishop et al. 2004; Coffey, Hartman, & Fredrickson, 2010). Choices can be made about the best way to act, rather than impulsively reacting on the moment, and strategies used to restrain overwhelming emotions.

Social awareness is the ability to adopt the perspective of and empathise with others from diverse backgrounds and cultures, to understand social and ethical norms of behaviour, and to recognise family, school and community resources and supports (CASEL, 2013). The updated framework (Weissberg et al., 2015) also includes compassion. In HAND in HAND's conceptualisations, social awareness is the ability to take on the perspective of and to have empathy and compassion for others from diverse backgrounds and cultures, to understand, accept and recognise social and ethical norms of behaviour, to be aware of cultural synergies overcoming the self/other binary and making space for different points of view, also recognising the influence and importance of family, school and community. In the part "recognising the influence and importance of family, school and community", we wish to stress that this influence is not always supportive, although we still need to recognise the contextual factors. As such, it also holds strong intercultural/transcultural momentum by incorporating the perspective of others, not only to understand but also to accept and recognise it, along with the importance of making space for the differences between perspectives. Here again, one first needs to be aware of self and regulate one's impulses and emotions constructively to be able to also adopt the perspective and position of others (while simultaneously not losing one's own). Such an accepting, non-judgemental attitude, as practised in self-awareness using mindfulness techniques, is at the same time expected to be transferred across to social interactions.

Relationships skills are the ability to establish and maintain healthy and rewarding relationships with various individuals and groups. This includes communicating clearly, listening actively, cooperating, resisting inappropriate social pressure, negotiating conflict constructively, and seeking and offering help when needed (CASEL, 2013). The updated framework (Weissberg et al., 2015) also includes acting according to social norms. In HAND in HAND's conceptualisations, relationship skills are the ability to establish and maintain constructive relationships and the will to persist, even when it seems impossible to maintain

them. It is important to stress the will to persist because these skills are especially challenged and needed in difficult times. This includes the ability to accept personal and social responsibility and go into the relationship with personal presence, aware that in a constructive relationship, individual needs to establish synergy between taking care of their integrity and taking care of the group (Juul & Jensen, 2010). In this sense, the relationship skills are understood broader, more as relationship competencies. Nevertheless, we are keeping the naming of relationship skills aligned with CASEL (2013).

Responsible decision-making is the ability to make constructive and respectful choices about personal behaviour and social interactions based on a consideration of ethical standards, safety concerns, social norms, a realistic evaluation of the consequences of various actions, and the well-being of self and others (CASEL, 2013). In HAND in HAND, we add to that the importance of knowledge of social groups and their products and practices beyond self/other, and knowledge about asymmetrical and global cultural processes (e.g. unequal positions). Once again, we can see the intercultural/transcultural aspect being added. Studies show that during adolescence there is an increase in risky decision-making with peers having a great impact on decision-making (e.g. Gardner & Steinberg, 2005), shows the need to develop this dimension of social/emotional competencies.

2.3.2 Intercultural/transcultural competencies

As we have seen, intercultural/transcultural competencies and social, emotional competencies are related although thus far there has not been a specific intercultural/transcultural focus in social and emotional learning research (for a review, see Nielsen et al., 2019). Social, emotional competencies play a central role in various models of intercultural/transcultural competencies (e.g. Deardoff, 2006). Based on the literature review, we included models that are well-elaborated, internationally recognised, general, i.e. not limited to only one field, offer clearly defined concepts and/or outcomes, take a developmental perspective and have empirical support. Thus, HAND in HAND's conceptualisation of intercultural/transcultural competencies brings together the PISA model of global competence (OECD, 2018), Deardorff's model (Deardoff, 2006), Byram's model of intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997) as well as Bennett's developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (Bennett, 1986, 1993, 2004, 2014). In a broader sense, intercultural/transcultural competencies are defined as the

ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations, based on one's: intercultural knowledge (e.g. self-awareness, understanding and knowledge of intersectional differences); competencies (e.g. seeing from others' perspectives; listening, observing and interpreting; analysing, evaluating and relating; ability to interpret a document or event arising from various cultures; ability to acquire new knowledge concerning a culture and culture practices), and attitudes (respect – valuing other cultures, cultural diversity; openness – to intercultural learning and people from other cultures; withholding judgement; curiosity and discovery – tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty). In addition, we took into account Blell & Doff 's Model of Inter- and Transcultural Communicative Competence (I/TCC) (Blell & Doff, 2014). This model is built on traditional models of intercultural communication competence (Byram, 1997). In this model, intercultural and transcultural competencies also include moving beyond a self-other binary to an understanding of culture and cultural identity as being hybrid, dynamic and multifaceted.

2.4   Relational competence

Alongside SEI competencies in the HAND in HAND programme for school staff, relational competence was used as a core feature. Relational competence is promoted by the development of SEI competencies and at the same time is specific to professionals (e.g. teachers, counsellors, principals). It is defined as a professional's ability to 'see' the individual child on its own terms and attune their behaviour accordingly, without giving up leadership, as well as the ability to be authentic in the contact with the child. It is also crucial that professionals have the ability and will to take full responsibility for the quality of the relationship (Juul & Jensen, 2017). The relational competence held by teachers is regarded as the foundation for creating an inclusive environment in the classroom that enables the SEI competencies of both students and teachers to be developed (Jensen, Skibsted, & Christensen, 2015; Juul & Jensen, 2017). It is important to note that relational competence is not (only) about communication techniques, but about dialogue based on the sincere desire and competence of the adults to react openly and with sensitivity; it is "an ability to meet students with openness and respect, to show empathy and be able to take responsibility for one's own part of the relation" (Jensen et al., 2015). Since this is a relatively recent concept in the

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educational context, only a few studies can be found, which mostly consider conceptualisation and measurement issues (e.g. Vidmar & Kerman, 2016).

2.5 The whole-school approach

The whole-school approach is informed by Bronfenbrenner's theory of ecological systems (1996). The importance of the whole-school approach is emphasised by Jones et al. (2013, pp. 64–65): "Support for SEL skills must be embedded into the daily life of school for everyone – students, teachers, staff, and administrators". The whole-school approach engages both students and the school staff in the building of an inclusive and supportive environment by directly influencing the quality of the relationship between students and teachers via the promotion of their SEI competencies. The importance of relationships is reflected in the concept of the classroom climate. Classroom climate refers to the shared perception held by students and teachers concerning the quality of the classroom learning environment (Adelman & Taylor, 2005; Fraser, 1989) and has three main components (Moos, 1979): (i) *Relationship:* the quality of personal relationships (between teachers and students, as well as between students) within the environment: the extent to which people are involved in the environment and support/help each other and treat each other with respect; (ii) *Personal development*: the extent to which an environment is in place that supports the personal growth and self-enhancement of each individual in this environment; (iii) *System maintenance and change*: the extent to which the environment is orderly, clear with respect to expectations, maintains control, and is responsive to change. According to offer-take-up models of teaching (Fend, 1998; Helmke, 2006), classroom climate is the outcome of the complex interplay of teacher behaviours (the learning offer) and student behaviours (their take-up of such offers) that are both influenced by individual characteristics of all actors, characteristics of the school's broader context, the neighbourhood, the school system, and by situational and interactional factors.

The whole-school approach as understood in HAND in HAND is based on the Prosocial Classroom model (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009) combined with offer-take-up models of teaching (Fend, 1998; Helmke, 2006) (Figure 2).
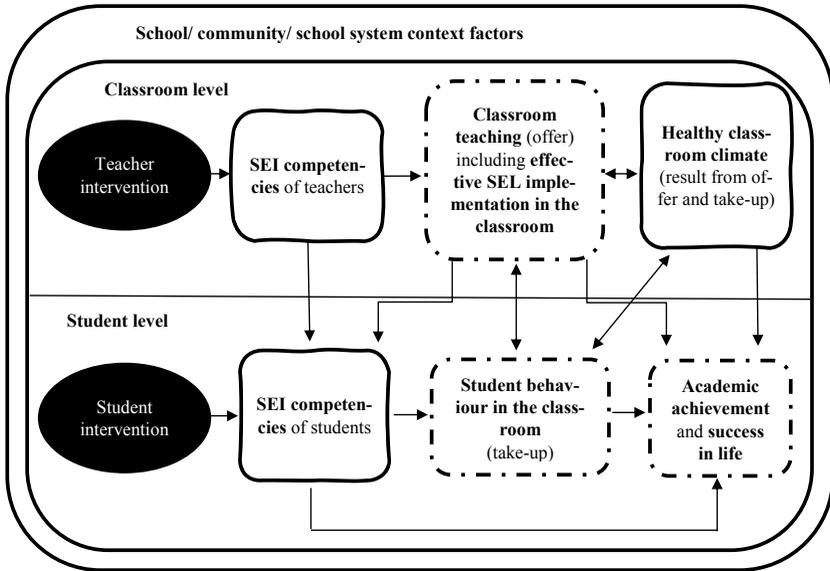
Figure 2: The whole-school approach used in the HAND in HAND

The Prosocial classroom model explains the link between teacher social, emotional competencies and outcomes at the classroom and student levels. Teachers' social and emotional competencies impact students in at least three ways: (1) teacher's competencies influence the quality of the teacher-student relationship, (2) the teacher serves as a role model of social, emotional competencies for students; and (3) the teacher's social, emotional competencies influence management of the classroom. Together, these factors co-create a healthy classroom climate that fosters students' social, emotional and learning achievement. The model also explains how teachers' social, emotional competencies are important for their well-being. A teacher with developed social, emotional competencies (e.g. one capable of high self-awareness and self-management) is able to manage their daily social/emotional challenges (e.g. inappropriate, abusive student behaviour, non-participation, troubled parents, etc.) that arise in their work, making teaching easier and the teacher feel more effective in their role. But the opposite can also happen; teachers' poor social, emotional competencies lead to poor student relationships and classroom management problems. This can produce a negative climate that prevents the achievement of educational and developmental goals. As a result, the teacher may experience a sense of inefficiency and emotional exhaustion,

in turn weakening their daily social and emotional capacities and further degrading classroom relationships and the quality of leadership, the climate, and the achievement of goals (creating a 'burnout cascade'). The models also show the context in which the teacher performs (class or subject level, leadership support, school safety, involvement in the local community, etc.) is also important.

3. Expected project outcomes

We expected the HAND in HAND school staff programme to have a positive effect on school staff's SEI competencies so as to enable them to improve the quality of their overall teaching– especially with regard to providing warmth, caring and individual support, their management of the classroom, and their ability to include opportunities for SEI learning in their everyday teaching practices. Similarly, the student programme was expected to positively impact students' SEI competencies, which are expected to have a positive influence on their interactive classroom behaviour (Cook et al., 2008; Elliot et al., 2015, Mallecki & Elliot, 2002; Ragozzino et al., 2003). Student competencies should also be influenced by the improved teacher SEI competencies given that previous studies show that teachers holding greater social, emotional competencies are also better at supporting the social and emotional learning of their students (Schonert-Reichl, Oberle et al., 2015). In addition, our project has a particular focus on the inclusiveness of the classroom environment. An inclusive environment means that all students report positive relationships, opportunities for personal development and the orderliness of the environment, they all feel equally respected, cared for and supported in their personal growth, including those from disadvantaged social groups (e.g. immigrants, including refugees).

Conclusion

Alongside determining the effects of the student and school staff programmes on SEI competencies and the classroom climate, HAND in HAND aims to develop European policy guidelines that support the upscaling of these topics and programmes in education at the system level. One key message of the HAND in HAND project is that *each child and young person should have an equal opportunity to access, participate and benefit from high quality and inclusive*

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educational environment and that all learners (both students and school staff) and their various needs should be placed at the centre of education. They should be leaders of their own learning, supported by appropriate policy actions and services coherently organised at the system level.

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Chapter 2:

The embeddedness of social, emotional and intercultural/ transcultural learning in European and national educational policies and practices

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Abstract

This chapter builds on the fact that HAND in HAND is an EU policy experimentation project, meaning it should correspond fully with current EU education policy agenda and with its outputs contribute actively to its further development. In this framework, the chapter reviews and discusses the embedding of social, emotional and intercultural/transcultural (SEI) learning in the European educational framework since 2000 and acknowledges the lack of explicit definitions and EU goals in this field. Taking into account the non-binding character of EU cooperation in the field of education and the structural and cultural differences in national educational contexts, the chapter also reveals the very different implicit embedment of SEI learning among the HAND in HAND policy experimentation countries (Croatia, Slovenia and Sweden) and other HAND in HAND partner countries (Germany, Denmark). The lack of a systematic approach to SEI learning that has been identified challenges the HAND in HAND project to actively contribute to its development. Different existing national policies and practices show the need when attempting to mainstream SEI learning for the particularities of both the EU and distinct national contexts to be carefully considered.

Key words: EU, member states, SEI policies, SEI practices, recommendations

1. Introduction

This chapter aims to place the HAND in HAND outcomes in a well-defined and consistent policy perspective and to explain their importance in pursuing sustainable systemic improvement and innovation in the respective context. As an EU policy experimentation project, HAND in HAND aims to identify good practice and lessons on 'what works' and 'what does not work' in the field of SEI learning in the EU. It seeks to provide improved knowledge and an evidence base for reforms with a potentially large systemic impact (European Commission, 2018a; 2018b). The in-depth insight into the existing EU and national SEI learning policies and practices presented in this chapter is the first step towards achieving these aims.

First, for HAND in HAND as an EU policy experimentation project it is crucial that it supports implementation of the EU policy agenda on Education and Training and is consistent with the broader policy agenda at the EU level (European Commission, 2018a). An overview is presented in the early part of the chapter, which also explains why and how SEI learning is important for meeting the EU's educational and other cross-sectoral strategic goals. The second part of the chapter introduces the main characteristics of the educational contexts of the participating countries, with a focus on their inclusive dimension. The third part of the chapter provides an in-depth insight into existing national policies on SEI learning in the HAND in HAND policy experimentation countries (Croatia, Slovenia, Sweden) and compares them with other EU countries (Denmark, Germany) participating in this project. Final remarks are then provided that summarise the key findings of the chapter and the implications they hold for the contextualisation of the HAND in HAND outcomes.

This chapter is qualitatively oriented and draws on theoretical and empirical evidence collected using the following **research methods**: (a) analysis of the relevant literature and secondary sources (a comprehensive review of existing educational policy research on SEI learning); (b) analysis of formal documents and legal sources at the EU level (European Council, Council of the EU, European Commission official documents, Communications and Reports in the field of educational policy); (c) review of existing statistical and contextual data about the participating educational contexts (e.g. Eurydice reports); and (d) examination of the data collected through policy questionnaires. These policy questionnaires

consisted of 20 open-ended questions with subquestions in three subsections: national and regional policies regarding SEI (8 questions); policy-research literature on policy initiatives regarding SEI learning and its impact (6 questions); evidence-based evaluations and their implementations in the field of school education (6 questions). National representatives (researchers or policymakers) from Croatia, Slovenia, Sweden, Denmark and Germany completed the questionnaire between 2017 and 2019 on the basis of a review of formal national/regional legislative and other policy documents (e.g. curricula), statistical information, formal national reports, formal reports of international networks and organisations, and policy-oriented research studies.

2. Existence of SEI learning in the EU context

The international research evidence (also presented in three HAND in HAND catalogues – Denk et al., 2017; Marušić et al., 2017; Nielsen et al., 2017) exposes the benefits of SEI learning in students' social, emotional and academic outcomes from different research perspectives, justifying the acceleration of SEI learning policy as a priority at the EU level. How it has actually been involved in the EU policy and institutional framework since 2000 is presented below.[1]

2.1 The EU Education and Training Framework (2000–2010)

According to Downes (2018a), the social and emotional dimension of education was relatively neglected in the European policy context until 2010.[2] None of main key strategic documents, including the Lisbon Strategy, Strategic Framework for Cooperation in Education (Education and Training 2010) (Council of the EU, 2002), clearly refers to SEI learning. In the European Framework of Key Competencies, SEI competencies are only partly included as social and civic competencies, defined as "the entire set of knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour that

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[1] The chapter took into consideration all European Council, Council of the EU, European Parliament and European Commission formal documents in the education field since 2000 that are available at EUR-lex. Findings are presented chronologically.

[2] It should be pointed out that even if SEI dimension was neglected in the field of education, it was at least implicitly involved in other policy fields. E.g. European Commission (2005) published a Green Paper 'Promoting the Mental Health of the Population'. Originated in the Green Paper in 2013 a Joint Action Mental Health and Well-being was launched, which among others focuses on promoting mental health in workplaces and schools and its integration in all policies.

enable a person to participate effectively and constructively in social and inter-personal life, and when necessary, to resolve conflict" (European Parliament and the Council of the EU, 2006).

A review of the main EU policy documents in the education field since 2000 reveals no explicit mention and definition of SEI competencies. They are implicitly included and considered in other related policy issues like well-being, personal development, mental health, bullying prevention, active citizenship and school climate. Cefai et al. (2018) explain that these concepts in particular lack an emphasis on the emotional dimension. None of them encompasses the entire dimension of SEI competencies as defined in the CASEL definition and intercultural learning models as adopted in the HAND in HAND project (see Kozina, Vidmar and Veldin, this publication).

Cubero and Perez (2013) found an explanation for that in Western rationalistic cultural orientation, which has prioritised intellectual and academic education, focused on individual (academic) achievements and neglected intersubjective and relational experiences and skills. Biesta (2009) asks a different question, namely, whether in an "era of measurement" social and emotional dimensions in education have been overlooked due to the difficulty of measuring them and have therefore been prevailed over by the cognitive dimension of education (achievement).

2.2 The EU Education and Training Framework (2010–2020)

SEI learning is clearly gaining attention in the new strategic framework for EU cooperation in the field of education (2010–2020). The Council of the EU (2009, p. 3) stressed that by 2020 the education and training systems in Europe should aspire to achieve the "personal, social, and professional fulfilment of all citizens" and "sustainable economic prosperity and employability, while at the same time promoting democratic values, social cohesion, active citizenship, and inter-cultural dialogue". Nevertheless, even these strategies neglect the importance of developing emotional competencies.

Particular attention to SEI learning is paid in endeavours to reduce school leaving in Europe. The Council of the EU (2011) recognises the importance of an emotionally supportive school environment to prevent and intervene in bullying as part of a broader strategy to prevent early school leaving. It seeks to create a

positive learning environment, reinforce pedagogical quality and innovation, enhance teaching staff competencies to deal with social and cultural diversity, and develop anti-violence and anti-bullying approaches. Thus, on this issue, any emphasis on SEI learning at the curricular level is subsumed within wider whole-school concerns (Cefai et al., 2018). The European Commission (2013) recognises: "those who face personal, social or emotional challenges often have too little contact with education staff or other adults to support them" and stresses the importance of ensuring emotional support for these students. SEI learning can be construed here as being one dimension of a series of emotional supports, including emotional counselling. It encourages teachers' relational styles "to adopt inclusive and student-focused methods, including conflict resolution skills to promote a positive classroom climate". Professional development for teachers' relational competencies is further emphasised and the importance of pupils' social and emotional development is explicitly recognised. Similarly, the European Commission (2015, p. 12) makes learners' well-being central to inclusive education; it acknowledges the need for classroom management strategies, diversity management strategies, relationship building, conflict resolution and bullying prevention, and "counselling, including emotional and psychological support, to address mental health issues (including distress, depression, post-traumatic disorders)".

External events (terrorist attacks in the EU) led to the acceptance of the Paris Declaration (Council of the EU, 2015), which seeks to strengthen "the key contribution which education makes to personal development, social inclusion and participation, by imparting the fundamental values and principles which constitute the foundation of our societies". Particular attention is devoted to intercultural learning, including either tolerance to the increasing number of migrant children arriving in the EU or fostering their socio-economic integration in the host countries and their personal development.

Another document that expressly deals with the SEI dimension of learning is the Commission Communication on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life (2017). It states its commitment to the importance of the emotional-relational dimensions of education, across the school system, and recognises the need for "a strong focus on improving learners' educational achievement and emotional, social and psychological well-being". It is notable for its explicit reference to social and emotional development issues at the curricular level, albeit only for early childhood and care (p. 29). It also notes that "quality assurance

mechanisms should consider school climate and learner well-being as well as learner competence development" (p. 11).

Within the framework of its vision for "21st century skills and competencies", the European Framework on Key Competencies has been updated. Personal, social and learning to learn competence is defined as "the ability to reflect upon oneself, effectively manage time and information, work with others in a constructive way, remain resilient and manage one's own learning and career". It includes the ability to cope with uncertainty and complexity, to learn to learn, to support one's physical and emotional well-being, to maintain physical and mental health, and to be able to lead a health-conscious, future-oriented life, empathise and manage conflict in an inclusive and supportive context (Council of the EU, 2018).

Explanations of the growing attention to SEI learning in the EU's educational strategic framework may be seen in the new social circumstances (e.g. migration) as well in the more strongly recognised role of SEI competencies in achieving a socially inclusive and economically well-developed EU as a whole. The European Commission (2017) thus states that SEI learning contributes to a socially cohesive society based on active citizenship, equity and social justice and as part of a meaningful and balanced (cognitive and social and emotional) education represents an important way forward. The benefits of SEI learning for economic development are seen in the increased employability of students and reduced need to provide mental health services, which constitute a heavy economic burden (Belfield et al., 2015).[3] Like education in general, SEI learning is defined not as an independent area but as prerequisite and instrument for higher political goals – the social and economic development of the EU.[4]

2.3 EU activities, projects and networks

In addition to the EU's official documents, several activities are important for developing and implementing SEI learning at the EU level as well. These include

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[3] The Finnish presidency (2019) further develops these arguments and, by recognising well-being as a prerequisite for economic growth and social and economic stability, proposes that the Council adopt Conclusions on the economy of well-being. It points out that well-being and economic policies are not exclusive and that the economy of well-being approach aims to ensure inclusion and equal opportunities for all.

[4] For details of the emotional-relational turn for early school leaving prevention, see Downes (2018b).

the activities of at least two consortiums (European Network for Social and Emotional Competence (2019)[5] and the Learning for Well-being Consortium in Europe (2019)[6]) continuously support social and emotional education initiatives in schools across Europe. The HAND in HAND catalogues (Denk et al., 2017; Marušić et al., 2017; Nielsen et al., 2017) as well as Cefai et al. (2018) identify several assessment tools, student and teacher trainings in the field of SEI in the EU context. The Teacher Academy (2019)[7] currently offers several courses for developing SEI skills, available to teachers and educational staff from the whole EU. It may be concluded that various activities exist in the EU, but there is as yet no coherent systemic approach to the promotion of SEI learning.

2.4 Other international frameworks

It is also worthwhile mentioning that EU countries are also members of other international organisations, which can at least indirectly influence their national education policy agenda in the field of SEI learning. Already in 1996, the UNESCO Delors Report presented four pillars of a holistic vision of education. The third pillar "Learning to live together" relates to developing and understanding other people and an appreciation of interdependence, learning to manage conflicts in a spirit of respect for the values of pluralism, mutual understanding and peace. The fourth pillar "Learning to be" relates to being able to act with autonomy, judgement, personal and social responsibility.

SEI learning also forms part of the OECD agenda, particularly that linked to the PISA study. The OECD (2003) has stated that SEI learning is a positive way of increasing the sense of belonging and engagement of students towards school and learning. Further, the OECD (2010) exposed the role of social and emotional skills, together with healthy lifestyles and participatory practices and norms in

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[5] The European Network for Social and Emotional Competence (ENSEC) is a network of members from 50 countries which develop and promote evidence-based practice in social and emotional competencies and resilience among students across Europe. It conducts collaborative (research) projects, organises conferences, publishes different publications and develops collaborative European-wide academic programmes.

[6] The Learning for Well-being Foundation is non-profit organisation which advocates well-being in education and wider society. An important result of their work is the Policy Glossary on well-being and the policy perspective document »Learning for Well-being: A Policy Priority for Children and Youth in Europe: A Process for Change«.

[7] The Teacher Academy is the largest provider of teacher training courses in Europe.

reducing social inequalities. It also noted that "education empowers individuals by increasing their knowledge and their cognitive and emotional skills, as well improving attitudes towards lifestyles and active citizenship". Since 2015, in the framework of the PISA study, the OECD has been measuring "how well different education systems promote students' development and quality of life" (OECD, 2015). In its future vision of education and skills until 2030, the OECD (2018) notes that, in order to apply their knowledge in unknown and evolving circum-stances, students will need a broad range of skills, including cognitive and meta-cognitive skills, social and emotional skills (e.g. empathy, self-efficacy and col-laboration) and practical and physical skills. Recently, the OECD launched the Study on Social and Emotional Skills based on the Big Five model (Goldberg, 1981), which aims to identify and assess the conditions and practices that foster or hinder the development of the social and emotional skills of 10- and 15-year-old students. Among EU countries, currently only Finland and Portugal are taking part (OECD, 2019).

It is evident from the review that the SEI competencies of educational staff and students are gaining attention in the EU's policy framework and activities, as well in the wider international environment, yet systematic support for their develop-ment is still lacking. The following paragraphs show how these international trends are reflected in national education policies and practices.

3. National educational contexts and their inclusive dimension

In order to implement new policy measures (e.g. the HAND in HAND pro-gramme) in existing national contexts, it is crucial to first evaluate these contexts and their particular needs. In the paragraphs that follow, a short overview of the national educational contexts of the HAND in HAND participating countries is given, where their inclusive dimension is in focus.

Downes, Nairz-Wirth and Rusinaite (2017, p. 7) describe inclusive educational systems as those that concentrate on "supportive, quality learning environments, on welcoming and caring schools and classrooms, and on preventing discrimina-tion. They address the needs of students in a holistic way (their emotional, phys-ical, cognitive and social needs), and recognise their individual talents and voices". They focus on "the differentiated needs of marginalised and vulnerable

groups, including those at risk of early school leaving and alienation from society". Along with social and emotional education, children's voices, integrated bullying, early school leaving prevention supports and a positive school climate make up the five pillars of the inclusive systems approach (Downes, 2018b). From that perspective, the educational contexts of the HAND in HAND participating countries are described in the following paragraphs.

1. Croatia

According to the 2011 census, Croatia, the newest EU member state, has a population of 4,284,889, mostly Croats (90,42%). The largest ethnic minority is the Serbian minority (4.36%), with other minorities each contributing less than 1% of the population. Croatian is the native language of around 95% of the country's population. The share of migrants in the under-15 age group is below 3%.[8]

Education in Croatia is mainly provided by the public sector. Primary and secondary schools are mostly state-run. The level of early school leaving in Croatia is one of the lowest in the EU, even declining (5.2% in 2009, 3.3% in 2018). There is no significant gap in early school leaving with respect to native and foreign-born students.

Donlevy et al. (2019) explain that, like in several other EU countries, there is no systematic or centralised approach to providing well-being and anti-bullying policies in Croatia. Schools are autonomous in deciding on which kind of inclusiveness measures they will implement in this regard. The European Commission (2019, p. 41) notes that a big challenge for the Croatian education system is students' attitudes to school, pointing out that students are not very satisfied with the quality of their education, increasingly describe their education as hard and stressful (Gvozdanović et al., 2019 in European Commission, 2019, p. 41) and that a

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[8] Migrants as defined by Eurydice (2019, p. 11) as newly arrived/first generation, second generation or returning migrant children and young people. Their reasons for having migrated (e.g. economic or political) can vary, as can their legal status − they may be citizens, residents, asylum seekers, refugees, unaccompanied minors or irregular migrants. Their length of their stay in the host country may be short or long, and they may or may not have the right to participate in the host country's formal education system. Migrant children and young people from within and outside of the EU are taken into account.

large share of them does not like going to school at all (42.2% at age 11 and 60.9% at age 14) (Jokić et al., 2019 in European Commission, 2019, p. 41).

2. Slovenia

Slovenia has 2,084,301 inhabitants. According to the 2002 census, the main ethnic group in the country are Slovenian (83%), at least 13% of the population immigrated from other parts of former Yugoslavia. The proportion of migrants in the under-15 age group is 3.7%. Slovenian is the official language and the native language of 88% of the country's population, with 92% of the population using Slovenian at home.

Slovenia enjoys one of the EU's lowest levels of early school leaving (5.3% in 2009, 4.2% in 2018), but there is a relatively large gap between native (3.6%) and foreign-born (11.6%) students.

Although Slovenian students have generally achieved above-average results in international comparative assessment studies, national data reveal differences in achievement according to certain predictors, e.g. gender, socio-economic status, educational programme, immigrant background, language spoken at home, and motivation to learn, all of which pose challenges to the education system's equity and inclusiveness. According to Donlevy et al. (2019), to improve well-being at schools in Slovenia the addressing of peer violence is an important measure.

3. Sweden

In September 2018, the total population in Sweden was 10,207,086. The proportion of immigrants in Sweden since 2000 (11.3%) has been growing and in 2018 reached 18.5% of the population. The share of migrants in the under-15 age group is below 8.5%. In Sweden, there are several minority groups with languages other than Swedish as their mother tongue. All children who speak a language other than Swedish at home are offered mother-tongue tuition in compulsory school and upper secondary school.

The early school leaving level in Sweden has been rising slightly in the last decade (7.0% in 2009, 9.3% in 2018) and showed relatively big gaps between native (7.3%) and foreign-born (17.7%) students in 2018.

The European Commission (2019) notes that the growing segregation and inequality in schools, chiefly seen in the impact of socio-economic status of parents on students' achievement in national examinations and PISA, are serious concerns for the Swedish education system.[9] Eurydice (2019) reports that several measures were recently taken in this respect, including grants to strengthen equivalence and knowledge development within preschool class and compulsory schools. Regarding anti-bullying measures in schools, Donlevy et al. (2019) report that Sweden has appointed child and school student representatives tasked with providing information about discrimination legislation, helping schools prevent bullying, overseeing schools' efforts and representing students who have been bullied.

4. Denmark

In 2018, the number of inhabitants in Denmark was 5,781,190. Immigrants and their descendants comprise some 13% of the Danish population. Around 58% of migrants come from non-western countries. Migrants with a Turkish background account for the biggest migrant group. The proportion of migrants in the under-15 age group is 5.4%.

Denmark has recorded slight fall in the level of early school leaving in the last decade (11.3% in 2009, 10.2% in 2018), while the difference between native (9.9%) and foreign-born students (11.3%) is the smallest in the EU.

The European Commission (2019) states that the "Folkeskolen reform" of comprehensive primary education (underway since 2014) has not managed to improve student well-being or education outcomes as intended. Regarding school bullying, since 2017 primary and secondary schools have been obliged to have an antibullying strategy and action plans in concrete cases of bullying (Donlevy et al., 2019).

5. Germany

Germany has 82,79 million inhabitants. In 2016, 23% of the overall population had a migration background. Among students, the share is about 37% for under 10-year-olds, 34% for 10- to 15-year-olds and 30% for 15- to 20-year-olds. The share has grown in recent years and varies between regions. German is legally

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[9] The European Commission believes reasons for this lie in the 1990s' education reform when education was decentralised, while a school market and school choice were introduced.

stipulated as the official language of the administration and the judiciary, while it is the normal language of instruction in education, although there are no corresponding legislative provisions on the language of instruction.

The level of early school leaving has fallen slightly in the last decade (11.3% in 2009, 10.3% in 2018), while the difference between native (8.1%) and foreign-born students (24.1%) is one of the biggest in the EU.

The European Commission (2019) believes that improving the educational outcomes and skills levels of disadvantaged groups is among the biggest challenges facing Germany. Donlevy et al. (2019) show that measures to address these problems are included in the master programmes of initial teacher education, which incorporate modules about the relationship between social inequality and educational outcomes, as well as how teachers should approach diversity.

4. Mapping existing SEI learning policies and practices in national contexts

After the introduction to the key characteristics of the inclusive dimension of the national educational contexts participating in the HAND and HAND project in the previous section, a short overview is given of the existing practices of implementing SEI learning in the HAND in HAND policy experimentation countries (Croatia, Slovenia and Sweden) and other HAND in HAND partner countries (Denmark and Germany) in this section. The review is organised as follows: the definition and goals of SEI learning, measures at the system, school and classroom levels which support the implementation of SEI learning, a review of policy-research evidence and the availability of data for evidence-based policymaking.

4.1 Definitions and goals

Research findings reveal that SEI learning and competencies in national legislative and other official documents are understood as a more general umbrella concept of well-being (no particular definition of SEI is given). For example, in Sweden it is understood as well-being and development, in Denmark similarly as "multi-sided and well-rounded development", in Slovenia as optimal development of the individual irrespective of their background, in Croatia as part of

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mental health development and children's rights, while in Germany social and emotional learning is linked to multidimensional goals of schooling and intercultural learning is particularly linked to stereotypes. We may conclude that different understandings of SEI exist in national contexts, that there is a lack of a clear definition of SEI learning in national policy documents because it is part of broader educational concepts. This corresponds with the analysis of EU documents which lack clear definitions regarding implementing these concepts in education systems.

Further analysis reveals there are no explicit goals related to SEI learning stated in the legislative and other official documents of the HAND in HAND countries. These are understood as forming part of the general values of the education system (equal opportunities, accepting diversity, solidarity etc.). For example, in Croatia SEI learning goals are implicitly involved in the general goal to "educate pupils in accordance with the general cultural and civic values, human rights and children's rights, and enable them for living in a multicultural world, respect diversity and tolerance, and for active and responsible participation in the democratic development of society". In Sweden, they are related to respect for the value system of the country: "Education should convey and firmly establish respect for the human rights and basic democratic values on which Swedish society rests. The inviolability of human life, individual freedom and integrity, the equal value of all people, equality between women and men, and solidarity with weak and vulnerable are the values that the school should represent and impart". In Denmark, Germany and Slovenia, SEI learning is placed alongside the acquisition of cognitive skills. For example, in Denmark it is stated that "All students must develop emotionally, intellectually, physically, socially, ethnically and aesthetically" and that "confidence and wellbeing in elementary school should be strengthened, inter alia through respect for professional knowledge and practice". In Slovenia, it is stated that "Safe and encouraging learning environment should involve well-coordinated cognitive, emotional and social development of students". In Germany, with respect to multidimensional educational goals, it is stressed that "It is crucial that children and students in Germany do not only develop their cognitive skills but also their social, emotional, intercultural and further aptitudes".

4.2 System-level measures

None of the countries participating in the HAND in HAND project has a strategy for developing SEI learning. These definitions and educational goals are included in general legislative or sectoral strategies such as the Health Care Act and Anti-discrimination Act, Strategy on Mental Health and Strategy for the Rights of Children in Croatia, Strategy on the Integration of Migrant Children in Slovenia, and Federal states' documents about special education needs in Germany.

In addition to the implicit involvement of SEI learning in national policy documents, several policy measures in support of the implementation of SEI learning have been introduced in the participating countries.

A review of curricula in the participating countries reveals that SEI learning content is included in different subjects. In Croatia, it is part of health education and civic education. In Denmark, SEI aspects of learning are integrated into several subjects (including Danish, English, German, Christian studies, Social studies, Visual arts, Sport, Food literacy, Music, Health- and sexual teaching and family education). In 2014, as part of a school reform, the "Supporting teaching" learning activities were introduced, aimed at strengthening students learning readiness, social skills, versatile development, motivation and well-being. It is evident from the review that none of the participating countries has introduced a particular school subject to systematically support the development of SEI competencies. These results are in harmony with the Cefai et al. (2018) findings that SEI learning in most EU countries is not a distinct subject, but part of other subjects like citizenship, health and physical education, prevention of violence and bullying, moral/religious education, and art and crafts.

SEI learning constitutes part of initial teacher education in all of the participating countries, except Croatia. It forms part of continuous teacher education in Denmark and Slovenia. Several initiatives have been emerging in this field in the last few years. A more in-depth review reveals that teacher trainings mostly do not involve a comprehensive approach to SEI learning and are not provided to the same extent to teachers at different levels of the education system.

Various institutions have been established in the participating countries whose area of work at least indirectly touches on SEI aspects of learning. These include the National Institute for Mental Health in Croatia, the Agency for Youth and

Civil Society and Discrimination Ombudsman in Sweden, and The Resource Centre in Denmark.

4.3 School- and classroom-level measures

Measures promoting SEI learning at the school level represent a platform for the exchange of good practices (Slovenia, Croatia), specialist support (Croatia, Slovenia, Denmark), partnership with non-governmental organisations (Croatia, Slovenia, Germany), parental involvement (Croatia, Slovenia), self-evaluation (Croatia, Slovenia) and financial initiatives (Slovenia, Sweden).

According to the HAND in HAND policy questionnaire, classroom measures are quite rare in the HAND in HAND countries. They include support programmes for low achievement (Slovenia, Sweden) and individualised support programmes to combat discrimination and social exclusion (Slovenia). It should be noted that other classroom activities associated with SEI competencies can be implemented in practice, but are not evident in the official national reports.

4.4 Policy-research evidence

Despite the presence of several (system, school, classroom) initiatives on SEI learning, they are not systematically evaluated and researched and only some individual research studies can be found in the participating countries. Curriculum evaluations (2014) on health and civic education in Croatia revealed inadequate student outcomes in the intercultural dimensions. As factors that facilitate/hinder SEI learning, the research points to insufficient teacher competencies (Croatia), lack of a clear understanding of SEI by educators (Denmark), lack of pedagogical staff like social workers and psychologists, lack of time within the formal school schedule (Germany) and a segregated school system (Sweden).

Further, the results of the policy questionnaires show that SEI learning goals in the participating countries are not systematically measured (by either specific national indicators, systemic evaluation of policy initiatives or the evaluation of SEI school performance). Denmark is an exception, where students' well-being was measured in the Welfare study (2017) and students' SEI learning performance is implicitly evaluated through an assessment of mandatory competence goals. The

recognised lack of a systematic measurement of SEI skills and competencies in the participating countries is an obstacle to evidence-based education policies and practices in the field.

Conclusion

It is clear from the review that the SEI competencies held by educational staff and students are gaining attention in the EU's policy framework and activities, as well in the wider international environment, yet systematic support for their development is still lacking. The chapter also shows that EU countries (including Croatia, Slovenia, Sweden, Denmark and Germany, participants in the HAND in HAND project) have developed very different (not yet systematic) approaches (national definitions and goals, system-/school-/classroom-level measures) to developing SEI learning in their schools. These facts must be carefully considered while contextualising the implementation of the HAND in HAND programmes for students and school staff in different national contexts, evaluating their results and identifying implications for the further development of this important and emerging topic in European education.

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Chapter 3:
Development of the social, emotional and intercultural learning programme for students

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Abstract

The chapter aims to describe the development of a new school-based intervention programme for social, emotional and intercultural (SEI) learning for elementary school students. The programme (Marušić et al., 2018) was developed as part of the HAND in HAND project, which integrates two complementary approaches: one for social and emotional learning, and the other for intercultural learning. Following the recommendations of Brackett, Elbertson and Rivers (2015), the programme design is informed by a comprehensive theoretical background. The development of social and emotional competencies is founded on the CASEL model (2003), Schachter and Singer's theory of emotion (1962), normative models of decision theory (Reyna & Farley, 2006) as well as the concepts of I-messages (Gordon, 2003), empathy (Eisenberg, Eggum, & Di Giunta, 2010), mindfulness (Kabat-Zinn, 2003) and awareness (Perls, Hefferline, & Goodman, 1958). Activities to boost intercultural learning are rooted in a critically reflexive approach to intercultural competence and understanding (Auernheimer, 2003; Gorski, 2008; Leiprecht, 2001; Walton, Priest & Paradies, 2013). Programme implementation is founded on respect for students' boundaries and autonomy, while encouraging students to reflect, further supporting their SEI competencies. Providing students with SEI learning fosters their well-being as well as the respectful interpersonal and intergroup communication necessary for building an inclusive society.

Keywords: social and emotional competencies, intercultural competencies, intervention programme, elementary school students

1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to describe the development of a new school-based intervention programme for social, emotional and intercultural (SEI) learning for elementary school students. The programme was developed within the HAND in HAND project which integrates two different yet complementary approaches: one for the development of social and emotional competencies and the other for the development of intercultural competencies.

Social and emotional learning is the process of acquiring core competencies to recognise and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, appreciate the perspectives of others, establish and maintain positive relationships, make responsible decisions, and handle interpersonal situations constructively (Elias et al., 1997). The proximal goals of social and emotional learning programmes are to foster the development of five interrelated sets of cognitive, affective and behavioural competencies: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making (CASEL, 2003). Over time, the mastering of social and emotional learning competencies results in developmental progression that leads to a shift from being largely controlled by external factors to acting increasingly according to internalised beliefs and values, caring and concern for others, making good decisions, and taking responsibility for one's choices and behaviours (Bear & Watkins, 2006). Results of two meta-analyses (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011; Taylor, Oberle, Durlak, & Weissberg, 2017) show that students who participated in social and emotional learning programmes had better results than students in the control group in social/emotional skills, attitudes, social behaviours, indicators of well-being, and academic performance.

Although intercultural competence is closely related to social and emotional competencies, it cannot simply be reduced to the latter. The reason is that relationships between social and cultural groups are always context-dependent in a systemic and/or historical sense (Auernheimer, 2003). Apart from cultural differences expressed through dominant norms, values and ways of life, relationships between social and cultural groups are generally influenced by differences in power, social status and collective experience (Auernheimer, 2003; Leiprecht, 2001). As such, building relationships with 'the Other' in modern societies must take account of

specific knowledge about 'other' cultures[1] as well as deeply ingrained obstacles to intergroup communication like social inequality and discrimination.

The HAND in HAND student programme (Marušić et al., 2018) is organised in five modules, each lasting 90 minutes. The workshops include age-appropriate exercises for developing SEI competencies, as well as icebreakers, inner exercises and physical exercises intended for gear-shifting. Each module focuses on one of the core socio-emotional competencies according to CASEL (2003) and includes an exercise aimed at developing intercultural competence. The programme activities were piloted in schools in Croatia, Denmark, Slovenia and Sweden in order to refine the activities for the targeted age group (13–14 years old) and to ensure they are appropriate for the local contexts.

Alongside the content of the programme, i.e. its activities, its implementation is also crucial. The main aspects of the HAND in HAND programme implementation are: 1) respect for students' boundaries and their autonomy when it comes to deciding for themselves about the way they want to participate in the exercises, as well as 2) encouraging students to reflect on their experiences of participating in the activities, which improves awareness of one's thoughts and emotions in the present moment. This approach to implementing the programme further supports the students' SEI competencies.

The chapter is organised such that the social and emotional learning perspective is described first, followed by the intercultural perspective. Each of these two parts has the same structure. First, the theoretical frameworks underpinning the development of these competencies are provided. After that, the development of the activities for SEI learning is described, followed by examples of activities taken from the programme. The descriptions of each activity include the aim of the activity, its theoretical background, the content and expected outcomes.

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[1] Although we do not view culture in a structuralist manner, i.e. as static predetermined patterns of behaviour, we do take account of the structural aspect of culture as social praxis (Bourdieu, 1984).

2. Theoretical framework underpinning the development of social and emotional competencies

In their chapter on applying theory to social and emotional learning programme development, Brackett et al. (2015) state that the design of the social and emotional learning programme, and its implementation that leads to a specified set of outcomes, should be informed by a sound theoretical background. Although the goal of all social and emotional learning programmes is the same, namely, to promote the healthy development of children and adolescents so they can achieve their social, emotional and academic potential, the approaches used to reach that goal may vary. Brackett, Elbertson and Rivers (2015) grouped different theories that give the basis for the development and implementation of social and emotional learning programmes in the following categories: system theories, learning theories, theories of child development, theories of information processing, and theories of behavioural change.

This review of the literature reveals that no individual overall or leading theory can explain social and emotional learning, but that one theory might be useful for different aspects of one particular programme, and that multiple theories might be valuable as the basis for the same programme. The latter is the case with the programme we developed. In our programme, we applied different theoretical frameworks to different activities simply because the competencies and concepts the activity is focused on stem from quite dissimilar and very specific theoretical approaches.

3. Developing the activities for social and emotional learning

The process of designing activities to help develop social and emotional competencies started with the CASEL (2003) model and its definitions of the key five dimensions of social and emotional competencies: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making. Given that the programme aims to develop each of these dimensions, it was necessary to represent each dimension with at least one activity, as more thoroughly described in the paragraphs below. *Expressing emotions* and *Body scan* activities were chosen for the purpose of developing self-awareness and self-management. *Practising empathy* aims to develop empathy, an important aspect of social

awareness. The *Creating effective I-messages* activity is devoted to building up students' relationship skills, whereas the *Decision-making wheel* activity helps students master the responsible decision-making skill.

In the process of designing these activities, the theoretical frameworks that underpinned them provided information concerning the expected outcomes of each activity. The theoretical and conceptual approaches used in designing the social and emotional learning programme activities included Schachter and Singer's theory of emotion (1962), normative models of decision theory (Reyna & Farley, 2006), Gordon's I-messages for conflict resolution (Gordon, 2003) as well as the concepts of empathy (Eisenberg, Eggum, & Di Giunta, 2010), mindfulness (Kabat-Zinn, 2003) and awareness (Perls, Hefferline, & Goodman, 1958). These theories are described in greater detail as part of the introduction to each exercise.

4. Examples of activities for social and emotional learning

4.1 Expressing emotions

This exercise aims to develop self-awareness and self-management by identifying ways in which students recognise their emotions and by reflecting on their experiences by expressing emotions. Self-awareness, including the ability to accurately recognise emotions, is generally associated with positive psychological well-being (Sutton, 2016), whereas low emotional self-regulation is related to psychosocial and emotional dysfunctions (Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Gerbino, & Pastorelli, 2003), which impact well-being and relationships with others.

According to Schachter & Singer's theory of emotion (1962), an emotional state has two components: physiological arousal and cognition about the situation. Physiological arousal determines the intensity of an emotional state, while cognition determines which emotion will be experienced. In order to accurately recognise emotions, both physiological and cognitive elements have to be considered and integrated. In this exercise, students are first encouraged to identify both bodily sensations and thoughts they notice while experiencing certain emotions, such as happiness, anger or sadness. Becoming aware of certain bodily sensations and thoughts, including their association, is necessary to be able to acknowledge emotions and recognise them more efficiently in the future.

While experiencing emotions and adequately recognising them is an important part of emotional competencies, emotional states are also relevant for social competencies because emotions are often expressed in a social context. For this reason, the second part of the exercise includes a discussion on how emotions are expressed, which emotions are easier to express and which are expressed with more difficulty, what the consequences are of repressing emotions and what kind of influence expressing emotions can have on relationships with other people. Expressing emotions in adaptive rather than maladaptive ways is crucial for emotion regulation (Thompson, 1994), which is an important aspect of self-management. By analysing ways in which emotions are expressed and the consequences of those expressions, students learn to distinguish adaptive from maladaptive ways of expressing emotions and are encouraged to pinpoint triggers for maladaptive reactions, recognise them in the future and change them to support their well-being and relationships with their friends, family, teachers and peers.

4.2 Body scan

The aim of this exercise is to strengthen self-awareness by gaining awareness about the body, focusing on sensations in the body, and breathing. This exercise is based on mindfulness practices (Kabat-Zinn, 2003) and the concept of awareness (e.g. Perls, et al., 1958). Mindfulness concerns "a clear awareness of one's own inner and outer worlds, including thought, emotions, sensations, actions or surroundings as they exist in a given moment" (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007, p. 213). Mindful awareness is an unbiased present-centred awareness that is accompanied by the states of clarity and compassion (Kabat-Zinn, 2003; Maloney, Lawlor, Schonert-Reichl, & Whitehead, 2016). In addition, mindful awareness can be cultivated by practising moment-to-moment awareness of objects, body sensations and emotions, accepting them as they are, without judging or trying to change them (Maloney et al., 2016). In psychological literature, mindfulness is understood as a self-regulatory capacity, an acceptance skill, and a meta-cognitive skill (Brown, Ryan, & Creswell, 2007). Theories that explain mindfulness are reflexive self-consciousness theories and integrative awareness theories. According to the reflexive self-consciousness theories (Buss, 1980; Carver & Scheier, 1998), directing attention to one's cognitive, emotional and physical experiences is a prerequisite for healthy self-regulation. Integrative awareness theories include a wide range of orientations such as humanistic (Rogers, 1961), Gestalt (Perls et al.,

1958), cognitive-behavioural (Teasdale, 1999) and motivational (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For example, the Gestalt psychotherapy approach emphasises the importance of awareness of the present moment and the present experience of the person, and considers it essential for wholesome and authentic functioning (Perls et al., 1958).

The trainer leads the body scan exercise by guiding students and drawing attention to different parts of their body (legs, arms, head etc.), to the contact between their body and the ground (grounding), as well as to their breathing. It is stressed that there are no expectations concerning how a person should feel or breathe, and that the main point is to simply try to be aware of one's body and breathing. Relaxing music may be used during this exercise, but is not necessary.

Empirical research shows that mindfulness is associated with better affect regulation (including greater awareness, understanding, and acceptance of emotions) along with increased subjective well-being and lower emotional distress (Brown & Ryan, 2003; Carlson & Brown, 2005). In line with these findings, the main outcome of the body scan exercise is heightened self-awareness by focusing on the body and breathing in the present moment, without judging or evaluating the experience.

4.3 Practising empathy

This activity aims to develop students' empathy by experiencing empathy in interpersonal interaction. Empathy is defined as the ability to understand another person's feelings and situation from their perspective and often as the ability to resonate with others' emotional states (Eisenberg et al., 2010). The research shows that empathy motivates altruism (e.g., Batson, 1991; Eisenberg, 1986) and is positively related to prosocial behaviours (Eisenberg, Zhou, & Koller, 2001; Vaish, Carpenter, & Tomasello, 2009) and negatively to aggression (Miller & Eisenberg, 1988). Although empathy was sometimes described exclusively as an emotional reaction (Stotland, 1969) or solely as a cognitive process (Borke, 1971), more recent definitions used in social and developmental psychology consider empathy as encompassing both cognitive and affective reactions (Davis, 1994; Eisenberg & Sulik, 2012). One aspect of empathy is emotional empathy, i.e. experiencing the same or similar emotions as the other person in the interaction

(Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006). The other aspect of empathy is cognitive empathy and refers to the ability to understand other persons' emotions or perspectives (Eisenberg et al., 2010).

The focus of this activity is more on cognitive empathy than on emotional empathy. The activity is performed in pairs in which the "speaker" talks about the situation in which he/she felt worried, scared or sad, and the "listener's" role is to try to understand the situation, the emotions and especially what part of the situation caused the emotion. Thereafter, the listener gives feedback to the speaker, which is important because it provides the listener with more clarity about the situation and whether they understood it correctly, and can therefore help in strengthening this competence. They then switch roles so that both persons have the chance to experience empathy as well as being empathised with.

By participating in this activity, students' competencies of active listening and of understanding others' situations and points of view can improve. Moreover, they gain awareness of other persons' feelings, as well as their own feelings while listening to others. The primary outcome of this activity is to improve the students' empathy in interpersonal communication, especially the ability to understand the perspective of others.

4.4 Creating effective I-messages

This activity aims to practise effective communication by using I-messages in order to be able to express one's feelings and needs in a clear and peaceful manner. I-messages or I-statements are one of the social and emotional learning tools and may be used when a problem in communication or a conflict in a relationship arises. I-messages are originally associated with the psychologist Gordon (2003) who explained their benefits for peaceful communication and advocated their use in classrooms in teacher–student interactions. According to Gordon (2003, p. 140), I-messages can also be called "responsibility-taking messages" because the person who sends an I-message is accepting responsibility for their own inner condition and is open enough to share this insight about oneself with the other person. Gordon's I-messages consist of three parts:

1. A non-judgemental description of the other person's behaviour that hinders the fulfilment of my needs.
2. The concrete effect the specific behaviour of the other person has on me.
3. The feeling that concrete effect is causing in me.

I-messages were later modified (e.g. Canter, 2006) to include clear expectations of how the situation could be resolved. The use of I-messages is in line with Juul and Jensen's (2010) concept of *personal language* that refers to the language a person employs when communicating their immediate experience, including the emotions, body sensations, thoughts and needs of the person, to other people, especially when a problem or conflict in communication arises.

This exercise starts by explaining the I-message and its benefits for communication and conflict resolution. The I-messages used in this programme have three parts:

1. I feel... (insert a feeling word)
2. when... (say what caused the feeling, describe the situation)
3. I would like... (say what you would rather happen).

The central part of the exercise is when students practise the constructing of I-messages, first using handouts with examples of conflict situations, and later using their own real-life experiences. After that, students are invited to reflect on their experience of using this form of communication and on how they usually communicate and resolve conflicts.

By participating in this activity, students become encouraged to speak from their own experiences and to focus on their feelings or beliefs rather than attributing negative behaviours or intentions to the other person. Further, students may express their emotional needs in clearer and more peaceful manner. The main outcome of this activity is to support positive communication in relationships by using I-messages and to strengthen the sense of one's responsibility for oneself when relating to others.

4.5   Decision-making wheel

The focus of this activity is to teach students a decision-making strategy that will encourage them to consider various options and the consequences of those

options, as well as to resist peer pressure by taking their own values and feelings into account. The ability to make informed decisions and rational choices regarding social interactions, education, health and life in general, to base them on values and ethical standards and to evaluate and anticipate consequences is a vital prerequisite for one's own well-being as well as the well-being of others.

The optimal decision-making process is described within normative models of decision theory. In this approach, rational decision-making involves making choices that best serve the realisation of certain goals, regardless of what those goals might be (Reyna & Farley, 2006). These models of decision-making prescribe the following steps be taken in order to make decisions that foster well-being, given our beliefs and values included in the exercise *Decision-making wheel* (adapted from the Australian Blueprint for Career Development, Miles Morgan Australia, 2008):

1. Identifying possible options
2. Identifying possible consequences
3. Evaluating the desirability of the consequences in light of feelings and values
4. Searching for information
5. Reaching the decision
6. Decision assessment

During this activity, students are introduced to these steps and practise the process of decision-making in situations relevant to them, such as deciding which high school to enrol in. Through learning the process of decision-making, students are encouraged to apply it when faced with important decisions in their everyday lives.

5. Theoretical framework underpinning the development of intercultural competencies

From an educational standpoint, the development of students' intercultural competence is associated with the concept of intercultural education (Gundara, 2000). This association implies the aim of transforming singular notions of identity into multiple ones and, more specifically, of affirming the identities of deprivileged social and cultural groups (i.e. minority groups) while undermining young

people's ethnocentric attitudes. The anticipated result of intercultural competence, viewed this way, should be less xenophobia and discrimination (Katunarić, 1994) as well as the more general preparation of young people to live in culturally diverse societies (Luchtenberg, 2005). Such theoretical positioning draws on principles of social justice and diversity (Bell, 2016), which means that no group in society should be advantaged at the expense of others, and that all social groups deserve equal recognition and respect with regard to their historical experiences and cultural practices. As class, race/ethnicity, gender and sexuality represent the main axes of injustice in modern societies (Fraser, 1995), they assume a central position in developing intercultural competence in educational contexts.

Preparing students to live in diverse societies, i.e. by developing their intercultural competence and understanding, may be defined as "an on-going critically reflexive process" concerning the gradual development of knowledge, skills and attitudes that may be needed for interacting across social and cultural groups (Bell, 2016; Walton, Priest, & Paradies, 2013, p. 181) – a position that potentially combines a dynamic view on diversity with a critical perspective on dominant sociocultural hierarchies (Leiprecht, 2001; cf. Deardorff, 2006). This involves a shift from ethnocentrism towards ethnorelativism, i.e. a change in one's own beliefs and behaviours from "central to reality" to "just one organization among many viable possibilities" (Bennett, 2004). In so doing, the development of intercultural competence builds on more general social and emotional competencies (e.g. self-awareness, empathy, multiperspectivity) and directs them towards deeply ingrained obstacles (e.g. stereotypes, prejudice) to intergroup communication (Leiprecht, 2001). At the same time, referring to an "on-going critically reflexive process" implies that developing intercultural competence cannot be reduced to "learning about other cultures", which has become the dominant view on competence and interculturality (Auernheimer, 2003). It has been noted that culture cannot explain all relevant differences that impede intergroup communication. Rather than focusing exclusively on cultural awareness, one must take into account that intercultural dialogue rarely occurs among people with equal access to power and that an uncritical approach may essentialise dominated groups and make them even more vulnerable to prejudice and discrimination (Gorski, 2008, p. 522). In other words, instead of relying on a deterministic concept of culture, intercultural competence should be seen as context-dependent. Basically, this means that it is

impossible to discuss intercultural competence without referring to hierarchies of power (Moosmüller & Schönhuth, 2009).

One central point in the development of intercultural competence is that better understanding of 'other' people enhances understanding of one's own culture and identity. Put differently, critical intercultural understanding involves an on-going process of self-reflection in which the perception of oneself (one's identity) is constantly being (re)defined in relationships with 'others' (Gundara, 2000). Consequently, such ongoing process of self-reflection may open up the possibility for transcending mutually exclusive identity categories (self/other binaries) (Blell & Doff, 2014). As we have seen, these self-reflection processes must take account of cultural characteristics as well as power imbalances between groups since both give rise to different forms of collective identifications and identity categories (Fraser, 1995). Accordingly, identity categories always reflect different forms of social belonging and should not be reduced to one dominant identity like nationality and/or ethnicity.

That being said, it is obvious that the development of intercultural competence builds on a critical dimension which acknowledges how established social and mental structures (Bourdieu, 1984) shape our current behaviour. Through this critical dimension students become aware of the role played by culture in relation to differences in power, social status and collective experience (Auernheimer, 2003). Further, these intersections make room for explorations of specific socio-cultural experiences that are irreducible to a single identity (Adams & Zuniga, 2016).

The importance of the critical dimension of intercultural competence is supported by review studies on school-based approaches to developing students' intercultural understanding (Walton, Priest, & Paradies, 2013). This line of research (Zirkel, 2008) shows that long-term changes in attitudes and behaviours require students and teachers to explicitly address and discuss different positions on cultural diversity, including exploring students' attitudes to ethnicity, race and culture. To that end, students have to develop a critical framework to think about differences and critically reflect on their own cultural identity. Without such a framework, approaches to developing students' intercultural understanding tend to be less effective because students hold on to the attitudes of their own cultural groups (ethnocentrism) while dismissing alternative experiences (ethnorelativism).

6. Developing the activities for intercultural learning

The presented theoretical background was used as a guiding framework while developing the intercultural aspect of the programme with a focus on:

- the position of social justice
- enhancing the development of multiple identities
- addressing ethnocentrism
- transcending essentialised notions of culture/cultural determinism
- addressing power hierarchies.

These points were viewed as important issues for developing constructive communication across socio-cultural groups in modern societies and, as such, critical for building students' intercultural competence. Consequently, they were used as guiding principles while working on the intercultural dimension of the programme. In doing so, they served as the main criteria for choosing specific activities from other sources (CARE International, 2011; McConnochie, Hollinsworth and Pettman, 1998; NSW Department of Education and Communities, 2018; Shapiro, 2004), as well as for adapting, refining and aligning these activities with our core concepts.

7. Examples of activities for intercultural learning

7.1 The same side of the road

The aim of this activity (adapted from Shapiro, 2004) is to make students become aware of similarities and differences in their respective and others' identities and gives a basis for appreciating multiple identities. Identity can be seen as an ongoing process that includes our understanding of who we are and of who other people are and, reciprocally, other people's understanding of themselves and of us (Jenkins, 1996). It defines the perception oneself has of him/her in relation to members of significant social groups (e.g. family, peers, music, sports, religious community, regional and national community). As such, every identity is socially constructed and in itself negotiable, a product of agreement and disagreement.

The activity revolves around specific questions that relate to qualities with which students can identify (e.g. those who have a younger brother or sister; those who

play an instrument; those who were born outside of the country where they live, those who speak another language at home...). By answering these questions, students can see how they are being (re)grouped in various constellations and that they all share certain similarities and differences. As such, identity may be understood as a process of "being" and "becoming" that is always open to revision (Gundara, 2000; Jenkins, 1996). With different elements of their identity affirmed, students may notice that all of these are just similarities/differences among others and that one should not be simply reduced to one exclusive social or cultural identity (e.g. national or 'racial' identity).

By participating in this activity, students' thinking related to identity categories may evolve from a dualistic 'either/or' mode towards a more complex and relativistic mode (Adams, 2016) as they experience that their multiple belonging/choices/opinions/preferences are equally legitimate and valuable as others'. In this way, students may be encouraged to develop a critical view on reductionist interpretations of group membership at the societal (e.g. national/ethnic or religious identity) and/or individual level (e.g. belonging to peer group/s). Accordingly, the main outcome of the activity is to see identity as complex and inclusive, consisting of multiple elements and not just of one or two that dominate all the others (Hall, 1990). Thus, minority students, as well as those who belong to dominant social groups, may get an opportunity to conceptualize their identities beyond the self/other-binary which defines established socio-cultural hierarchies (Blell & Doff, 2014).

7.2 Walking with different social identities/positions in mind

This activity (adapted from McConnochie, Hollinsworth & Pettman, 1998; NSW Department of Education and Communities, 2018) aims to help students become aware of structural and societal barriers that affect social relationships, opportunities and future outcomes of people with particular denigrated identities or deprivileged social positions. In modern societies class, race/ethnicity, gender, sexuality and disability present central axes of injustice and oppression (Fraser, 1995; Bell, 2016). This means that individuals can be advantaged or disadvantaged in their life-chances (i.e. in sharing in the economic and cultural goods of a society) based on a particular identity or a combination of identities along these categories (Adams & Zuniga, 2016). The latter shows that different forms of oppression do

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not act independently of one another, but often intersect at different levels of identity/group membership.

The activity presents a symbolic 'race' that mirrors a person's life-chances depending on their social identity. It builds on various questions about what students with different social identities (e.g. a student from a low-income family; a Roma student; a student in a wheelchair...) can or cannot do (e.g. be able to go on every upcoming school trip; to take any extracurricular activity they prefer; to move around the school without fear of being verbally or physically assaulted...): if their answer to any of these questions is "yes" they move ahead, and "no" they lag behind. Those who are ahead are often unaware of the privileges accruing to dominant identities or social group memberships. They do not contemplate why this is the case "because these privileges have been normalized to be expected" (Adams & Zuniga, 2016, p. 110). At the same time, disadvantaged social groups often internalise their oppressed social position as deserved and in line with the natural order of things.

By participating in the activity, students should become aware that people with denigrated identities or deprivileged social positions have fewer chances in life and poorer outcomes than those holding more privileged identities and social positions. The activity points to structural inequities and highlights that the responsibility for the life chances and outcomes of deprivileged groups in society cannot be reduced to their individual characteristics. The chief outcome of the activity should be students' enhanced critical thinking on structural inequities through experiential meaning-making and cognitive dissonance relative to one's social position and identity. With established ways of thinking, the "effect of dissatisfaction" that is generated by cognitive dissonance can lead to more complex and critical meaning-making processes (Adams, 2016, p. 33) about the interplay of established power hierarchies with different forms of identity/group membership.

7.3 On stereotyping and labelling

The activity (adapted from CARE International, 2011; NSW Department of Education and Communities, 2018; Shapiro, 2004) aims to introduce students to the concept of stereotypes, i.e. beliefs that all members of a particular social group possess similar characteristics and behaviours, regardless of actual variations

among members of the concerned group (Hilton & Von Hippel, 1996). Given that stereotypes relate to the differentiation process by which the line is drawn between in-groups and out-groups (Jensen, 2011), "they 'essentialize' everyone in the social identity group based on partial information, misinformation, or missing information" (Adams & Zuniga, 2016, p. 99). In interactions with others, people may be labelled according to negative stereotypes, and may eventually identify and behave (e.g. through the 'self-fulfilling prophecy' mechanism) in ways that reflect how others label them (Hilton & Von Hippel, 1996). Negative stereotypes can be harmful to groups and individuals and may result in discriminatory acts.

The activity builds on role-play discussions on certain topics (e.g. a class going on a school trip; a class participating in a sports competition; the pros and cons of wearing school uniforms...). In so doing, the participants do not know the role they are playing (e.g. a refugee student from Syria, a Roma student, a student in a wheelchair...), although they know what the other discussants' roles are (the labels describing the participants' roles are placed on participants' foreheads so they cannot see them). During the role-play, participants discuss questions touching on topics specifically designed to elicit stereotyping and discriminatory behaviour (e.g. Who would you share your room with on a school trip?; Who from the class would like to play in a sports competition?; What should the school uniform look like?...). It is assumed that the role-play participants relate to each other according to the labels on their foreheads.

Through the role-play and later discussion, the participants may become aware of the overly generalised assumptions that pertain to certain social roles and identities. This provides the context for addressing the fact that stereotypes are reproduced through selective attention to behaviours that support stereotypes, as well as by rationalising or ignoring behaviours that contradict them (Adams & Zuniga, 2016). Such a pedagogical approach focuses on moving from ethnocentrism towards ethnorelativism (Bennett, 2004), which includes listening to the perspective of 'the Other' as well as reflecting upon one's own beliefs and values (Adams, 2016). In the process, this shift in perspective opens up space for discourses that respect and recognize minority students' voices. The main outcome of the activity should be critical understanding of the stereotypical thinking that underpins oppressive attitudes and behaviours towards marginalised or excluded social groups.

Conclusion

The context in which children are growing up is facing major changes, including: increased economic and social pressure on families, the high exposure of children to information and contacts through technology and media (often without adult supervision), as well as increasing social and cultural diversity. In order to support the children's and adolescents' development, their mental health and general well-being, as well as their relationships with peers and adults, it is important to provide them with social and emotional learning.

Having in mind the greater social and cultural diversity seen in contemporary societies, we consider that, in addition to the social and emotional competencies needed for any type of communication, it is important to develop intercultural competencies in order to improve communication between social and cultural groups. This programme is the first, to the best of our knowledge, to integrate social and emotional competencies with intercultural competencies, providing both a theoretical and practical contribution to SEI learning. The two elements, i.e. socio-emotional and intercultural, may be viewed as approaches to learning that are critically reflexive, and aim to help with young people's self-esteem and self-confidence, as well as individual and social responsibility.

For the programme to be successful and effective, it is important that the content and its implementation are well designed. In line with Brackett, Elbertson and Rivers' (2015) recommendations, the design of the HAND in HAND programme activities is informed by a comprehensive theoretical background, including different theories and concepts relevant for SEI competencies development. In addition, implementation of this programme is founded on respect for students' boundaries and autonomy, while marked by support for students' reflections on their experiences in the programme. We believe that only the synergy of well-chosen activities backed by theory on one side, and good implemental practices on the other, can enable the specified outcomes of this programme to be accomplished; namely, the development of students' SEI competencies.

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Chapter 4:
Development of the social, emotional and intercultural learning programme for school staff

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Abstract

This chapter describes the HAND in HAND programme for developing the social, emotional and intercultural (SEI) competencies of school staff. The chapter includes the background theory, describes how the theory is operationalised in exercises and put together in the manual, and a short overview of the core elements called the programme's active ingredients. The framework of the HAND in HAND school staff programme is made up of the newly developed definitions of the core concepts presented by Kozina, Vidmar and Veldin (this publication), Scandinavian work with and understanding of relational competence as well as a Scandinavian version of how to work with awareness. The overriding point made in the chapter is that, in order to create a learning environment that fosters students' well-being, learning and development, teachers must train to be aware of their own actions in the classroom and take responsibility for them.

Keywords: relational competence, innate competencies, SEI competencies

1. Introduction

Over the last decade, the importance of SEI competencies while working with students has been an issue (Durlak, Domitrovich, Weissberg & Gullotta, 2015; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). The need to work on developing the SEI competencies of school staff has received less attention in the research area (Klinge, 2017), despite being a focus of many in-service programmes, e.g. seminars on how to deal with challenging children, and cooperation/dialogue with parents. The HAND in HAND programme for school staff has a background in Danish in-service programmes, e.g. developing relational competence, working with colleagues' reflections, and mediation. Add to that the experiences of combining working on a personal, individual level with a community level while at the same time taking care of the curricula level. The core concepts for the programme are relational competence (Juul & Jensen, 2002) and SEI competencies (Durlak et al., 2015; Blell & Doff, 2014).

2. Development of the HAND in HAND programme for school staff

The aim is to strengthen school staff's ability to create relationships with the students, their colleagues and the parents who can support the learning and development environment in the classroom as well as in the school generally (Nielsen, 2016; Nordenbo, Søgaard Larsen, Tiftikci, Wendt, & Østergaard, 2008).

The HAND in HAND school staff programme has been developed together by the partners under the lead of the Danish team. In the last 20 years, the Danish team has accumulated experiences as well in-service as pre-service programmes (Gøtzsche, 2018; Jensen & van Beek, 2016).

The HAND in HAND programme for school staff consists of a programme for teachers and a separate programme for school leaders and counsellors (Jensen et al., 2018a; Jensen et al., 2018b). The programme for teachers has four modules: two modules lasting 2 days and another two modules each lasting 1 day. The programme for the school leaders and counsellors requires 2 single days.

Exercises that strengthen contact with oneself and others by enhancing empathy and compassion for oneself and others, e.g. dialogue exercises and exercises

building presence and awareness, make up the core of the training and active ingredients.

3. Core concepts addressed in the HAND in HAND programme for school staff

3.1 Relational Competence

Both empirical findings as well as psychological and pedagogical theory show that teachers' relational competencies are extremely important for students' possibilities of developing social/emotionally and cognitively (Bae, Wastaad & Schibbye, 1992; Cornelius-White, 2007; Juul & Jensen, 2002; Schwartz & Hart, 2013).

The systematic review of 70 studies (Nordenbo et al., 2008) regarding "Which manifest teacher competencies affect the academic performance of students?" shows that three competencies of teachers are crucial:

- didactic abilities/competence – knowledge of one's subject and subject-specific didactics;
- management-competence/classroom management – the ability to create clear structures, an overview, clear rules; and
- relational competence.

Nordenbo et al. (2008) puts it this way:

> *If we want to create a good learning environment it's important to teach teachers to create good relations: To show tolerance, respect, interest, empathy and compassion to each child and appeal to the children's understanding of a conflict instead of bullying them* (Quote translated from Danish. In: Svanholm, G., *Fagligt dygtige lærere er ikke altid de bedste,* Politiken, 8.5.2008).

In addition, Cornelius-White's (2007) review of 119 studies shows how important the quality of the teacher–student relationship is for academic performance and for emotional and behavioural aspects like satisfaction, participation and self-efficacy, with the work of Durlak et al. (2015) coming to similar conclusions. Relational competence has also been raised as being key to early school leaving

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prevention in research (for a review, see Vidmar, 2018) and EU policy reports (Cefai, Bartolo, Cavioni, & Downes, 2018; Downes, 2011; EC, 2013). It has also become part of professional development interventions (Sabol & Pianta, 2012) and initial teacher education training (Nielsen, 2017).

Having worked with learning theories, Illeris (2012) stresses that learning and cognitive processing is deeply associated with emotional responses. When we wish to understand how something is learned, we should always pay close attention to the actual situation and acknowledge that our ways of relating and communicating influence the students. Learning is emotionally preoccupied (Illeris, 2012).

The concept of relational competence was first used in Denmark in 1998 (Klinge, 2017). Later, professional language concerning relationships was developed in the Scandinavian countries (Bae, Waastad & Schibbye, 1992; Juul & Jensen, 2002). In Denmark, we defined it as:

> *The professional's ability to 'see' the individual child on its own terms and attune her behavior accordingly without giving up leadership, as well as the ability to be authentic in her contact with the child. And as the professional's ability and will to take the full responsibility for the quality of the relation* (Juul & Jensen, 2017, p. 149).

The relational competence concept is only used with respect to professionals. When defining relational competence as *not giving up leadership* and *the ability and will to take full responsibility for the quality of the relationship,* it relates to the asymmetrical relationship existing between teacher and students/parents, where due to their profession the teacher holds greater power as part of the established system and more experience and knowledge due to their education and position.

This fact leaves the teacher with overall responsibility for the classroom climate and for realising the SEI competencies in the classroom. It is very often seen that children and teenagers and sometimes parents are regarded as guilty when something goes wrong in the classroom. Instead of declaring one of the parties guilty, it might also be the teacher, making it much more fruitful to view the teacher as the professional and thereby as being responsible for the quality of the

relationships. It can be very hard to accept responsibility because the circumstances are often particularly challenging for teachers: It is important to acknowledge this. And still – if the teacher recognises their influence and responsibility, it also gives them the power to do something, to bring about change when they identify a need. In the teacher training, this aspect of responsibility for the quality of the relationship is given a critical emphasis in work on the relationship and the classroom atmosphere.

Every classroom relationship/situation has at least two dimensions: *what* are we doing together, and *how* are we doing it? The content the students must learn, and the atmosphere in which the teaching take place. When instructing on teacher relational competence, it is *how* which is most important. Klinge (2017) asks how the teacher can create a good learning environment – a good classroom climate – which we know is key to the learning possibilities of all children.

An important aspect is the personal authority held by the teacher. Compared with how it was a few generations ago, there is arguably, in least in some cultural contexts, no longer an authority connected to the role of being a teacher – to the profession (Varming, 1992). Today, every teacher must rely on their personal authority if they are to get through to the children (ibid.). Development and learning depend on the quality of the relationship, in turn demanding a teacher who can be present while also relying on their personal authority for authenticity (Juul & Jensen, 2002). The HAND in HAND programme aims to strengthen both of these aspects – not so as to return to the old authoritarian way of teaching, but to create a learning environment that builds on the present, empathic and compassionate relationship.

The CASEL model (2013) is useful for better understanding the definition of relational competence that is being used. The CASEL model has five dimensions: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision-making. Use of the CASEL model gives knowledge of how to enhance personal as well as community development to strengthen not only social/emotional competencies but also intercultural/transcultural ones.

Moreover, some concepts are given to elaborate on in order to understand what it means to be authentic and take responsibility for oneself and the other, as well as the relationship itself.

3.2 Self-awareness

As stated in the description of the core concepts of the HAND in HAND by Kozina et al. (this publication), self-awareness is the ability to recognise one's emotions, bodily sensations and thoughts, and the ways in which they influence how we react. This includes having a sober, accepting/recognising way of looking at oneself, and the will and ongoing desire to work on establishing all of it.

In former work (Juul & Jensen, 2002), self-awareness was defined with the help of the concept self-esteem. The development of self-esteem is connected to the basic human existential need of feeling valuable when in contact with other people (Sommer, 1996; Stern, 1995). 'Valuable' is not meant in the sense of doing something good or right, but in terms of being acknowledged/recognised with all the different emotions, bodily sensations and thoughts that every human being possesses. Self-esteem is developed in the dialectic relationship between self and other (Schibbye, 2002).

As part of their upbringing, many people have been pushed away from their self-esteem, e.g. when a child feels pain and cries and is told by a parent, "That's nothing, that's not worth crying over – stop it!" This makes the child move away from their self-esteem, leaving the child, who loves the parent and wishes to please them, doubting their own feelings. If during their upbringing a child is often talked away from their own emotions and bodily sensations, they will become detached from them because it is too painful to feel these often unpleasant emotions and bodily sensations without being recognised and having the chance to share the experience (Brodén 1991).

This also negatively influences self-awareness and makes the person unable to know which emotions and bodily sensations they have in a given situation and how to relate to them; when self-esteem is low, the individual might only feel chaotic inside when under pressure and be unable to differentiate e.g. anger, sadness, shame etc. (Sommer, 1997; Juul & Jensen, 2002).

A child or adult who is not allowed to feel or express anger often becomes detached from the emotion of anger. This means they do not recognise the emotion since they do not know about emotion as something that is an equal part of their own human emotions. This will affect their way of relating to the emotion later in life when they will be reacting to and thinking about that emotion as if it was still

forbidden and hence not an integral part of them. This makes it difficult for them to accept personal responsibility for the influences of their own behaviour (Hart, 2016).

Example: How to work on developing self-awareness in the HAND in HAND programme

Short exercises where the person is guided to sense and come in contact with their bodily sensations, e.g. by doing a body scan, or being guided in the observing of one's breath or the feelings that exist in the present moment. They might also consist of a dialogue situation where one person tells in detail about how they reacted in a given situation in their working life, and also describes their thoughts, feelings and senses on that occasion.

3.3 Self-management

As noted by Kozina et al (this publication), self-management in the HAND in HAND programme is the ability to regulate one's emotions, bodily sensations, thoughts and behaviour adequately in different situations. This includes managing stress, sensing and using impulses in a constructive way, motivating oneself, and setting and working toward achieving personal and academic goals.

In order to self-manage, one needs to be aware of oneself; to be consciously aware of your emotions, bodily sensations and thoughts so as to be able to regulate them (Hart, 2016; Schwartz & Hart, 2013). Being genuinely present is actually very demanding because it requires awareness of one's emotions, bodily sensations and thoughts simultaneously. Most people do not realise what is going on at the moment they are being hurt, are afraid, or feel powerless. They develop a survival strategy that prevents them from feeling and sensing themselves in these situations or, if they are feeling and sensing themselves, they prevent themselves from seriously considering what they feel and then react accordingly (Juul & Jensen, 2002).

The reason for this difficulty of being genuinely present is to be found in childhood where it assumedly was often not possible to process these painful feelings because the inner cognitive and emotional capacity was not developed enough to deal with the reactions to a situation. When combined with the absence of external

support from parents or professionals to acknowledge or recognise the child, a lack of self-awareness and self-esteem develops in the child that is coupled with poor self-management skills which then form their personality in adult life (Juul & Jensen, 2002; Schibbye, 2002). The way of working on this is to create situations where bodily sensations, emotions, thoughts and behaviour are brought to a conscious level such that the person can learn to accept and acknowledge them in order to constructively integrate them (Schibbye, 2002).

Example: How to work on the self-management in the HAND in HAND programme

A dialogue develops between the focus person and their dialogue partner where the dialogue partner must listen actively and give acknowledging feedback throughout the dialogue.

3.4 Social/Transcultural awareness

The ability to adopt the perspective of and have empathy and compassion for others coming from different backgrounds and the ability to evaluate flexibly based on multiple perspectives and perspective change, practices and products beyond the self/other (perspective consciousness); to be aware of cultural synergies and dissents/perspective consciousness and to understand, accept and recognise social and ethical norms of behaviour and allow room for different points of view while recognising the influence and important roles of the family, school and community.

Being able to take the perspective of and empathise with others from various backgrounds and cultures is a central part of the school staff programme. In the definition of relational competence, it is called the teacher's ability to 'see' the child/children, which also calls for the ability to change perspectives and engage with the other with empathy and compassion.

To enhance these qualities, the individual must not only be able to understand another person but also needs to have the will and ability to acknowledge the other person as they are, together with curiosity and interest in other people's ways of living. This explains why the importance of accepting and acknowledging other people is added and emphasised. And, just as importantly, while being open and

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flexible, not abandoning one's own social and ethics norms. It means making space for different points of view and being open to explore how it is possible to be, live, do and learn together with everyone's possibly completely different ways of looking at life and the world.

Especially when it comes to recognising the family, school and community, it can be really challenging to recognise the deficits/deficiencies and destructive parts of families, schools and communities and to find a constructive way of dealing with it; particularly when it is a fact that what one group regards as a deficit/deficiency is regarded by another group as resources. This is where people's empathy and compassion become truly challenged.

While developing SEI competencies for students and teachers and relational competencies for teachers it is important that the knowledge about different social and ethical norms is anchored in individuals, meaning that it is not only cognitively understood, but also embodied and embedded in the person.

This makes it relevant to specifically examine intercultural awareness and competence. Intercultural competencies are closely related to social/emotional competencies, that are often defined as part of being interculturally competent. Jensen (2013) sees intercultural competencies as having three aspects:

a) social/emotional competencies;
b) knowledge about cultures (one's own and others'); and
c) knowledge about discrimination and cultural conflicts.

Stier (2003) adds to this the great importance of general social/emotional competencies in his summary of the primary aspects of intercultural competence.

To obtain a more nuanced understanding of this topic, we wish to include both intercultural competencies and transcultural competencies in our work. Blell and Doff (2014, p. 82–83) offer six propositions for initiating such change:

1. *Dialogue is constitutive for both inter – and transcultural learning*
2. *Perspective awareness is a central competence to constantly negotiate between 'floating identities'*
3. *Transcultural learning demands searching for both common ground and difference*
4. *Transcultural learning includes discourses on power*

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5. *Transcultural learning has a great affiliation to Global Education*
6. *Transcultural learning demands the development of 'border literacies'.*

Training one's SEI competencies includes, among others, being aware of one's own reality, making it conscious, while also understanding that we are all different, for a moment to adopt the other person's perspective and to contain the differences. This requires the ability to inform and communicate along with the ability to sense the other person (Hildebrandt & Stubberup, 2012).

Example: How to work on social/transcultural awareness in the HAND in HAND programme

The teacher is guided how to be aware of their values – positive and negative – and how they influence the children's perspective in the classroom and the classroom climate. The reflections are later shared among smaller groups as they look for patterns that may enhance or prevent a non-prejudiced classroom climate.

3.5 Relationship skills

The ability to establish and keep constructive relationships and the will to carry on when it seems impossible to maintain a constructive relationship. This includes the ability to accept both personal and social responsibility, and to go into the relationship with personal presence while aware that a constructive relationship requires that the individuals involved establish synergy between taking care of their own integrity and that of the group/society.

The crucial part of this definition is "the will to carry on when it seems impossible to maintain a constructive relationship". Much more is at risk when everything has broken down and you must still find a way to stay in the relationship, be it in the classroom or in society.

Since human beings are social beings from birth, it is essential to be in contact with other human beings from the very beginning in order to develop (Stern, 1995; Stern, 2000). Throughout life, human beings must live with an existential coherence between the need to cooperate with one's surroundings and the need to take care of one's personal integrity, including the fact that personal integrity develops in a dialectical interaction with one's surroundings (Juul & Jensen, 2002; Schibbye, 2002).

An environment is needed that is able to enhance this kind of synergy between cooperation and integrity; a space that can contain both the individual and society. This calls for the development of two different kinds of responsibility, here called social and personal responsibility (Juul & Jensen, 2002).

Human beings must be able to take the perspective of self and other in order to communicate clearly and listen actively, and need to alternate between two perspectives while being, working and learning together. The ability to accept these two types of responsibility gives the basis for resisting inappropriate social pressure and for having a sense of what is inappropriate for the individual. It also gives the possibility to negotiate conflicts constructively and to know when to ask for help and when to offer it.

Personal responsibility is the starting point for developing social responsibility – one must be able to be in contact with oneself if one is to be able to be in contact with other people and obtain a sense of their needs and wishes. From that viewpoint, it makes it possible to work with the empathy, understanding and compassion that is needed to make a group function. The teachers are very crucial in this process because it is their way of assuming leadership, also in resolving classroom conflicts that can inspire and lead to the individuals' greater personal and social responsibility and thereby their relationship skills.

Example: How to work on relationship skills in the HAND in HAND programme

The teachers work in pairs and do different exercises practising, maintaining awareness of oneself and the other at the same time.

3.6 Responsible decision-making

Building on the foundation of knowledge about social groups and their products and practices beyond self/other, and knowledge about asymmetrical and disputed global cultural processes, responsible decision-making is the ability to make constructive and respectful choices about personal behaviour and social interactions based on a consideration of ethical standards, safety concerns, social norms, a realistic evaluation of the consequences of various actions, and the well-being of self and others.

Example: How to work on responsible decision-making in the HAND in HAND programme

Working on responsible decision-making demands good dialogue competencies and open mindedness with respect to ideas and values that are dissimilar to one's own. This entails working with the five dimensions that were described before: self-awareness, self-management, social/transcultural awareness, relationship skills and relational competence are the foundation of responsible decision-making. This is practised in the programme when the teachers work on concrete examples to find the most appropriate way of responding in a specific situation.

4. Ways in which the HAND in HAND school staff programme enhances these skills and competencies

These five dimensions can be categorised as inner awareness (self-awareness and self-management), outer awareness (social/transcultural awareness and relationship skills) and a combination of the two (responsible decision-making).

The primary understanding of the HAND in HAND programme is that you cannot meet other people more fully than you have actually met yourself. That means the training is basically about: you, me, and what is going on between us in the relationship.

The importance of staying in contact with oneself in order to establish good contact with others demands an ongoing interest and a routine of being aware of what is occurring with oneself. This is not something that can be established once and for all, but must be worked on throughout life. To nuance and expand on this understanding, another model and theory will be used. This theory is based on well-tried-out exercises that strengthen contact with oneself and personal authenticity in the relationship setting.

4.1   The Pentagon – the innate competencies

The Pentagon Model presented below (Figure 1) is a map of essential elements of the whole human being that can be explored and developed.
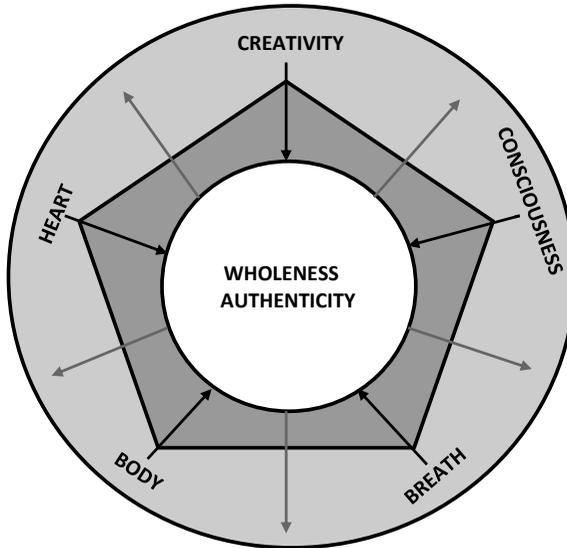

Figure 1: The Pentagon – the innate competencies

According to Bertelsen (2010, 2013), these capacities are innate, natural competencies and do not need to be learned. They need only be brought to awareness and remembered. This map shows five different domains of the innate competencies: body, breath, heart, consciousness and creativity.

Innate competencies are very simple and could even be so simple that in a strict definition of the concept of competence they might not even be seen as competencies, but as abilities:

The five competencies are as shown in the model above: body, breath heart, creativity and consciousness. Every human being has a body and is able to sense the physical sensations of their body. Breathing is vital. It is there in every moment of life, keeping living beings alive. Everybody can breathe and sense their breathing. Children are born with the capacity to feel love and attach themselves to other people; feelings that are connected to the heart. This includes the capacity for

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empathy and compassion. If new-borns did not possess these capacities, they would not survive. Creativity is to be understood as the very fact that our entire external and internal reality, bodily impulses, mental content and sensations can be experienced as uninterruptedly undergoing change and renewal. The last competence in this context is Consciousness. This refers to the ability to focus to ensure a more open awareness and the fact that human beings know about themselves while being awake.

These competencies are something all humans possess. They are not part of the personality because they exist before it develops. They are connected to the human being as such and not to the individuality of each person (Bertelsen, 2010, p. 73–89).

Being aware of innate competencies expands the experience of one's self in the sense that more parts of the human being are brought to awareness. It provides the possibility of anchoring one's awareness in that part of the human experience which is not affected by the patterns and limits of individual personality. Our awareness is mostly preoccupied with the area of personality that is often controlled by the impact of one's childhood and various idiosyncrasies. Bringing awareness inwards of one's innate competencies provides a momentary sense of unattachment from personality, a process that creates the freedom and space to view a given situation from another perspective (Jensen et al. 2016; Gøtzsche, 2018).

The arrows in the model show that when being aware of one's innate competencies will help in establishing contact with one's authenticity, that can then be used in contacts with other people. The last aspect is shown by the outwardly pointing arrows.

Being aware of one's innate competencies may be compared with how Kabat-Zinn defines the concept of mindfulness: "Mindfulness is the awareness that arises when we pay attention, on purpose, in the present moment, with curiosity and kindness to things as they are" (Kabat-Zinn, 1991). Innate competencies are domains that contain and offer the possibility to anchor awareness in the present moment. Being aware of one's bodily sensations or breath creates awareness of the moment and of the feelings and states of the heart can establish an environment of kindness towards oneself and others. The equality lies in the practice of

turning such awareness inwards to those parts of the human being not attached to the specific personality with the aim of being more present.

The Pentagon model is used in the HAND in HAND programme to operationalise the work on the previously described dimensions. It provides the framework for connecting inner and outer awareness. Being present and aware of oneself and simultaneously having awareness of all the impulses coming from one's surroundings is a key area of training in the programme.

4.2 Building Relational Competence and SEI competencies by turning one's awareness inwards

> *Research on the neurobiology of mindfulness in adults suggests that sustained mindfulness practice can enhance attentional and emotional self-regulation and promote flexibility, pointing toward significant potential benefits for both teachers and students. Early research results on three illustrative mindfulness-based teacher training initiatives suggest that personal training in mindfulness skills can increase teachers' sense of well-being and teaching self-efficacy, as well as their ability to manage classroom behavior and establish and maintain supportive relationships with students.* (Meiklejohn J., 2012, p. 3)

The HAND in HAND programme works on strengthening relational competence as well as SEI competencies by employing mindfulness practices to stabilise the contact with one's innate competencies. This means bringing the awareness inwards to let the innate competencies become anchors for the awareness.

In practice, the training could entail:

Awareness of one's body and one's breath: Sitting or lying down in silence while being aware of one's body and breath. Or moving with awareness of one's body in movement and of one's breath in order to enhance the contact with the body and the breathing. The body and breath are introduced as anchors that are always available if the teacher needs to become balanced and calm down in a stressful situation.

Awareness of creativity: Attention to one's body and breathing also helps with remaining present and focused and thus able to sense impulses when they occur, not only to control them, but to sense the energy in the impulses and use this energy in a creative way in both the relationship and for personal development.

Awareness of the heart: When well anchored in oneself through body and breathing exercises, the contact with the heart and heart feelings (kindness, empathy, compassion) will be in focus as a basis for strengthening social awareness and relationship skills. This competence is deeply associated with the fact that human beings are social individuals from birth (Stern, 1998; Broden, 1991). The child has the capacity to respond to the adults taking care of them, and actually cannot develop physically or psychically without being part of a relationship or community. This capacity needs to be supported throughout life to develop and remain a resource for the person and the community. Heart feelings allow us to recognise and acknowledge other people, with this recognition and acknowledgement enhancing both our mental and physical health. Yet it is not only about acknowledging other people, but about acknowledging oneself and having a sober and accepting view of oneself – which we earlier called healthy self-esteem (Juul & Jensen, 2002). These qualities form part of what can create a good learning environment and classroom climate (Durlak, 2015; Nordenbo et al., 2008).

Awareness of the consciousness: All through the programme work unfolds on the innate competencies of consciousness and creativity. This occurs via training on being aware and attentive, by training the ability to focus and defocus, and by training one's presence in order to be aware of the immense creativity contained in our body, thoughts and feelings.

4.3 Building relational competence and SEI competencies through activity and gearshift

Working with innate competencies is not only practised in silence. The HAND in HAND programme also uses physical exercises combined with awareness as a way of guiding awareness inwards while being in action. It also uses playful activities to raise the group's energy level and strengthening the feeling of being a group. This is accomplished through individual exercises, exercises in pairs, and whole-group exercises.

Gearshift is that which connects what is called inner and outer exercises in the programme; namely, shifting gear between high outgoing energy and exercises in silence. It entails a shift between raising and lowering one's level of arousal. Gearshift is a way of regulating the nervous system and also a training platform where the daily life of the teachers is mirrored in high arousal exercises and training that introduces pauses in high arousal states.

4.4 Building relational competence and SEI competencies through dialogue

Another tool the programme uses is dialogue. Dialogue involves at least two roles: the focus person and the dialogue partner.

Following a certain concept, the two explore a situation in order to discover new perspectives and unrealised competencies to deal with the situation in a more constructive manner (Jensen et al., 2018).

The focus person shares a situation taken from their professional life as teachers where they felt under pressure in their work. In this dialogue, the focus person has the possibility to elaborate on this example and mainly express herself through the dialogue.

The dialogue partner helps the focus person unpack the situation and bring awareness into the situation by asking questions and helping to strengthen the teacher's self-awareness regarding this experience. The dialogue partner listens with interest, empathy and compassion and with a sensitivity, responsivity and willingness to dive into the dialogue.

The focus is on understanding and recognising both the student/students in the situation and the teacher. This means the empathy and compassion must run in both directions: toward the student/students, and toward the teacher.

By giving feedback, the dialogue partner shows empathy to both the teacher and the student/students, and creates room for the teacher's feelings and emotions by acknowledging the teacher and taking the feelings and emotions expressed in the situation seriously. The acknowledgement, empathy and compassion shown by the dialogue partner often helps the teacher in some kind of parallel process to

acknowledge and meet not only herself but also the student with the same qualities.

Acknowledgment through dialogue is only possible if trained in the use of personal language (Juul & Jensen, 2002). Personal language includes finding appropriate words for the individual to express what is going on in the person. This means going into details about what is happening in one's body, emotions and thoughts when under pressure or in challenging situations. It is exactly the process of expressing oneself that can enhance the ability to stay in contact with oneself and the other. Finding words that cover as much as possible how the person experiences and feels in the situation can strengthen SEI competencies and the ability to make changes in a difficult situation.

The use of personal language and working with a focus on the professional is in opposition to what frequently happens when a challenge or conflict arises between people: in such situations, both parties tend to talk about what the other party to the conflict or in the relationship has done, instead of talking about and taking responsibility for their own contribution.

Personal language differs from academic language and analysing, in which most of us are trained. Academic language goes in the direction of analysing, e.g. a conflict. This analysis seldom leads to a solution because the analysis often contains an aspect of defining the other. Most people move towards resistance when defined or analysed by others, rendering it difficult to negotiate constructively (Bae et al., 1992).

Example: How to work with dialogues in the HAND in HAND programme

The programme sees school staff practising both positions. This gives them the chance to practise the two critical elements in dialogue and development via dialogue: 1) the element of being present and clear while expressing oneself; and 2) the element of being empathic and interested in the other person and their perspective.

The principles of dialogue and personal language are also applied while working with intercultural competencies. It is the way of being in the dialogue that enables new perspectives to emerge when the content in the exercises touches on e.g. discrimination, privilege or prejudice.

5. Active ingredients in the HAND in HAND programme

The programme aims to enhance the SEI competencies and relational competence of school staff because that is a precondition for the well-being, learning and development of children.

While developing the manual (Jensen et al., 2018a; Jensen et al. 2018b), the feedback received from the trainers concerning the active ingredients was that the inner exercises, physical exercises and dialogue exercises were crucial, and these must be combined with attention to making a gearshift when necessary.

The exercises that focus on innate competencies are repeated in the programme as a way to establish a basis for staying in contact with oneself. This is especially important when under pressure by giving the possibility of creating better contact with the other person(s). The teachers are recommended to do the exercises regularly even when the programme has finished in order to remain balanced. When they feel familiar with the exercises, they are encouraged to use them in the classroom with the children. The inner exercises are also used as a kind of gearshift to sharpen awareness and presence when the participants have been engaged in a single activity for some time.

Conclusion

An overriding issue throughout the programme is that the trainer be sensitive, responsive and willing to go into acknowledging dialogues with the participants. For the trainer, this means it is important to create a learning environment where the participants feel safe, are encouraged to be true to their own limits and boundaries during the training programme, and are sure that what is shared is confidential and will not be revealed elsewhere.

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Chapter 5:
Implementing the HAND in HAND programme for school staff and students

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Abstract

This chapter presents research examining the process of implementing the HAND in HAND programme in Sweden, Slovenia and Croatia. First, background theory about implementation is presented, including translation theory and theories about consequential transitions. An implementation model is discussed, and it is among other things stressed that both fidelity to the key elements in a given programme and local adaptation are factors which are critical for success. Following this, the chapter discusses data taken from the trainers' systematic reflection logs. The findings reveal a complex picture with differences between participant groups, but with a development over time in the trainers' experience of succeeding to establish close contact with school staff and students, and in their professional and relational agency. The findings confirm the high level of complexity brought by implementation processes. There are indications of challenges, especially in the trainers' first meetings with the participants. They emphasise that it takes time to create an atmosphere of mutual trust. The trainers e.g. refer to their own learning insights in relation to empowering teachers' capacities, developing a nuanced understanding of students' challenges, and supporting each other in the team of trainers. Reference to 'the next level in the chain of translations' – the teachers – highlights that they genuinely appreciated the training yet also felt insecure about how to connect the things they had learned with their everyday work.

Keywords: implementation, translation, transitions

1. Introduction

Strong empirical evidence shows that the way a programme is put into practice, its implementation, is a determent of its outcomes (Durlak, 2016). Therefore, a clear focus on implementation is crucial while developing and researching a given experimental project, such as HAND in HAND, to help evaluate how to interpret the outcome data. Yet implementation is not often evaluated when reporting on social emotional learning programmes (Jones & Bouffard, 2012). Nevertheless, the central authors emphasise that both the programme characteristics and the school context may be important for programme outcomes, where an initial issue regularly mentioned is the fidelity towards the key elements of a particular programme (Durlak, 2016). It has, however, been shown that adaptation to the national and/or local school context may likewise be important for programme outcomes: "*The important role that adaptation can play in program-implementation might be the most provocative finding of this review*" (Durlak & DuPre, 2008, p. 341).

The HAND in HAND project addresses the call for more knowledge in this area by including research that considers implementation. This chapter presents and discusses some results, starting with contextual information about project implementation and a theoretically based analysis of implemental issues. The overarching research question is: How do the 'trainers' (see below for more) perceive the process of implementing the HAND in HAND programme in local schools?

2. Background

Implementation is traditionally defined along the lines of: "*To put an innovation into practice in such a way that it meets the necessary standards to achieve the innovation's desired outcomes*" (Meyers, Durlak, & Wandersman, 2012, p. 465). Yet the focus in such definitions on the aims and standards of a certain innovation, and to what degree they are met, is challenged by other scholars in the field. Their main criticism is that a transformation of 'the object of implementation' in response to an intervention will always happen, whether intended or unintended (e.g. Penuel, Fishman, Cheng, & Sabelli, 2011). This leads to arguments to shift the focus of implementation research towards following in detail the complex processes during an implementation because this is what can truly provide an in-

depth understanding for interpreting the effects, or lack thereof, on the expected outcomes. Following processes in detail includes examining the support and capacity-building for the professionals in realising a given innovation.

Adapted from Lund (2018), the model in Figure 1 illustrates some of the overlapping and complex processes involved during an implementation. The model is developed in a Danish context as a general planning and processing tool for e.g. implementation projects in schools. The boxes showing the sub-processes can be read clockwise from the initiation of a particular innovation, but it is vital to note that these are dynamic and interacting sub-processes. An often eye-opening aspect when sharing this representation with professionals involved in implementing projects is the many steps that are essential *before* the actual application, e.g. in a given classroom, can take place. In relation to the step *after* the actual application, 'sustainabilisation', a tendency for effects from school development to fade away after a certain project stops if there is no explicit focus on supporting its sustainability is, for example, discussed in research about teachers' professional learning (e.g. Nielsen, 2017). The new term 'sustainabilisation' is seen as strongly signally the need for *active processes* to do so.
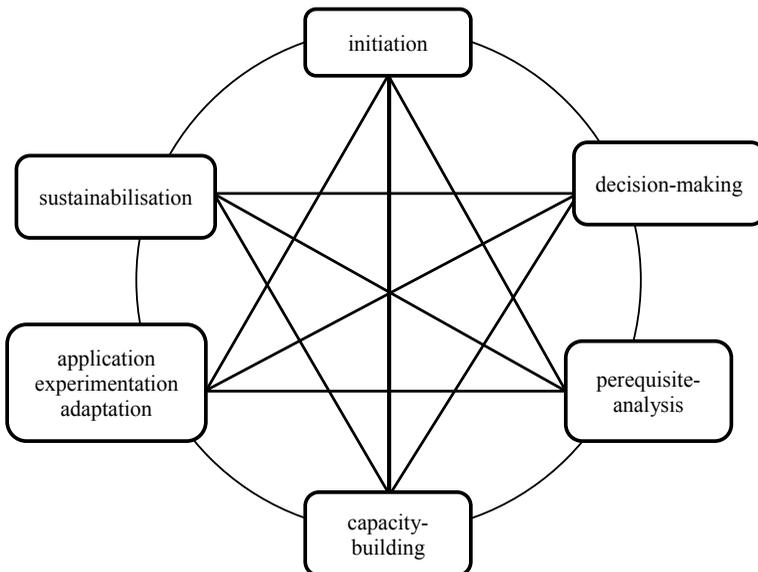
Figure 1: Implementation model. Adapted from Lund (2018).

2.1 Implementation of the HAND in HAND programme

A wide range of professionals from the five countries, namely, Slovenia, Croatia, Sweden, Germany and Denmark, were involved in initiating the HAND in HAND project. The foundation for the HAND in HAND programme was the practice and research of Helle Jensen and her team in Denmark and across Europe, but further developed in collaboration with the international team (see Jensen and Gøtzsche, this publication). Accordingly, the inspiration was both experiences from working in practice supporting school staff in developing relational competence with a focus on empathy, authenticity and socio-emotional aspects, and international research from the two traditions of social-emotional learning and intercultural/transcultural competencies (below referred to SEI (Social, Emotional and Intercultural competencies); for more, see the review in (Nielsen et al., 2019). The specific focus of the programme for the school staff is described elsewhere (Jensen and Gøtzsche, this publication). The key point here is that the project was initiated by quite a diverse and mixed group of professionals, both practitioners and researchers, mainly from the field of Psychology, yet also including researchers from the broader field of Education.

Schools were not involved in decision-making about the HAND in HAND project per se, but the sampling of schools involved sharing information about the ideas and also included some prerequisite analyses. This was e.g. organised as introductory visits to all of the schools.

Capacity-building included: 1) the 'training for the trainers', where the trainers are researchers from the partner countries. The Danish team was responsible for this. Afterwards, these trainers were responsible for: 2) the modules with school staff and students in each country. The collaborative process of developing the specific HAND in HAND programme occurred parallel to the 'training of the trainers'. From initiation of the project, it was discussed whether it was possible to work with a model where the training of the trainers was a prolonged process that includes sharing and co-reflecting on their experiences of working themselves with teachers and students locally. This was not fully achievable in practice. The programme for the trainers was scheduled before the training at the schools had started, yet with supervision sessions during step 2) in capacity-building, where the trainers were responsible for the modules for school staff and/or students. This part of the implementation is the focus of the data presented below.

A next step in the chain of transfer and translations is expected to happen in the meeting between teachers and their students. Yet it was not a central part of the HAND in HAND programme that school staff should experiment with and reflect on their experiences of working on SEI competencies with their own students. There may be good arguments to include enactment and reflection in one's own practice in professional capacity-building (Nielsen, 2017). Hence, the possibilities of this were certainly discussed during the initiation and planning. Still, there may also be arguments to let school staff take a step back and concentrate on them-selves, not least in the field of SEI competencies, bearing in mind the aims of both personal and professional growth, and the need for this to be a process with time and space. The HAND in HAND experimental design aimed to compare the pro-gramme's effects across several conditions: (i) the school staff only condition; (ii) the students only condition; (iii) a whole-school approach (students and school staff); while (iv) the control condition was another issue in these decisions.

This condensed description of all of the complexity involved in decision-making, capacity-building etc. in the HAND in HAND project shows the need for multi-faceted theories and data to understand what happens during implementation. Theories about translation and transfer will be included below, but first some fur-ther reference is made to the research on implementation connected to social emo-tional learning programmes specifically.

2.2 Implementation research in the field of social emotional learning

Social and emotional learning is a field of research that mainly relies on experi-mental research (Nielsen et al., 2019) and refers explicitly or implicitly to defini-tions of implementation like the one above (Meyers et al., 2012). Hence, fidelity to standards is the main interest in research on implementing programs (e.g. Abry, Rimm-Kaufman, Larsen, & Brewer, 2013). However, as mentioned in the intro-duction, the central scholars have stressed the importance of and complexity in-volved in implementing social and emotional learning programmes (Durlak & Du Pre, 2008). The average student learning gains arising as evidenced in re-views/meta-studies varies considerably, depending on the quality of the imple-mentation. Durlak et al. (2015, p. 12) therefore conclude that, "*We should not think about SEL programs as being effective, it is well-implemented SEL pro-grams that are effective*". Besides the crucial need for outside assistance and

capacity-building for school staff, Durlak (2015, 2016) show that different components of implementation determine the effect. The eight major components are fidelity, dosage, quality of delivery, adaptation, participant responsiveness or engagement, programme differentiation, monitoring of control conditions, and programme reach (Durlak, 2016, p. 335). It is highlighted that teachers who become positive role models for others can be influential in sustaining a school's commitment and motivation, and that programmes integrated for the entire school that include daily practices are more likely to be continued, as opposed to programmes in just a few classrooms (Durlak, 2016).

Anyon (2016) stresses three overall factors that influence implementation fidelity: 1) intervention characteristics, like compatibility with staff members' beliefs: 2) organisational capacity, e.g. ability to integrate the intervention into existing structures and routines; and 3) the intervention support system. In a synthesised model of facilitators of implementation, Freeman, Wertheim and Trinder (2014) refer to six major components: 1) ensuring a whole-school vision and process; 2) pre-programme engagement confirming the commitment and alignment of researcher and teacher visions; 3) a facilitative programme structure and processes, such as linking the current programme to existing programmes and processes at the school; 4) leadership and support for staff in the change process; 5) the nature of the programme content; and 6) feedback processes to sustain motivation.

In conclusion, all of the research on social and emotional learning programme implementation suggests that ownership at the school/teacher level is a critical factor for success.

3. Adaptation and professional agency

Summing up, there appears to be a subtle balance between programme fidelity and adaptation (Durlak, 2016; Durlak & DuPre, 2008). Thus, it is important for implementation quality to maintain the key components, which may be called the 'active ingredients', in a given programme, but also that the teachers have the professional competence, self-efficacy and motivation to adapt the programme activities to particular students, at a specific school, teaching certain content in a specific context (Nielsen et al., 2019). A crucial element of professional competence for adapting programme activities is the agency of the professionals.

Professional agency may be defined as the individual's capacity to make intentional choices and to act on those choices in ways that make a difference in their professional life. Professional agency depends on skills, attitudes and beliefs that can be supportive while acting to transform workplace practices (Goller, 2017). Edwards (2009; 2015) further emphasises the collective and relational elements of agency, including the capacity to work with other practitioners to draw on resources that are distributed across systems to support one's actions. Edwards (2009) refers in particular to agency related to collaborations for the well-being of children and young people; namely, the focus of the HAND in HAND programme. Calvert (2016) in a White Paper uses the phrase "moving from compliance to agency" in a more general sense while discussing the professional development activities planned by administrators and delivered by external vendors, where it is stressed, among others, that it is important that professional learning decisions only be made after serious consultation with school staff. Hence, the support of professional agency must be an issue in all the sub-processes illustrated in Figure 1.

3.1 Translation theory and sociocultural theory about consequential transitions

Theories accentuating the complex co-construction processes occurring during an implementation are, for example, translation theory (Røvik, 2016) and sociocultural theories about consequential transitions (Beach, 1999).

Røvik (2016) contends that the objects of implementing an intervention, like specific programmes, concepts, policies, reforms etc., are always going through a process of change when used in a certain practice. With inspiration from linguistics, Røvik (2016) sees these changes as processes of translation. Referring to a range of research studies, he stresses that local translation regularly leads to the emergence of new versions and significant variation in structures, routines and practices, and that the adoption of new ideas typically triggers complex processes involving sense-making and the elaboration of meaning, power plays, resistance and bargaining among local actors.

When presenting the concept of consequential transitions, Beach (1999) approaches these issues from another angle by challenging the widespread idea of a

one-way simple transfer. He accentuates an understanding of transfer as an ongoing relationship between changing individuals and changing social contexts. A consequential transition involves a developmental change in the relationship between an individual and one or more social activities. Transitions are consequential when they are consciously reflected on, often struggled with, and the eventual outcome changes one's sense of self and social positioning (Beach, 1999, p. 114).

4. Research aim

Building on this range of background theories and research, the aim of the empirical implementation research in the context of the HAND in HAND programme was to follow over time the implementation in three countries: Sweden, Slovenia and Croatia. The research questions guiding the study are:

- How do the trainers perceive the process of translating the programme to the local conditions?
    - What do they perceive as helpful?
    - Which challenges do they report?
    - What do they report having learned in the process?

The trainers' reflections on translating the programme to local conditions include references to the 'active ingredients' in the HAND in HAND project. These are described in the project materials under the headings of: 1) working with a variety of inner meditative exercises, more outgoing physical exercises and dialogue exercises; 2) the use of 'gearshifts', e.g. between outgoing and more inward going exercises; and by 3) working to establish close contact with school staff and students (see also Jensen and Gøtzsche, this publication).

5. Methods

Input from the trainers in the three countries was systematically collected after each 'session' at the schools, from introductory meetings, to capacity-building in the HAND in HAND programme modules for teachers, school-leaders/counsellors, and students, respectively (the 'whole-school approach': Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). An electronic survey instrument was used to frame these structured reflection logs. The reflection logs consist of nine open-ended questions, e.g.

asking for the trainers' experience of the social climate and atmosphere during the session, and about the most important own learning outcomes and new insights they experienced from this particular session. In addition, there were seven Likert-scale questions, e.g. about the experience of success with respect to the 'active ingredients' mentioned above.

The inputs in the electronic reflection log (n = 121) covering the period from May to December 2018 were analysed by inductive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) of open reflections, and frequency analysis and cross tabulations of the Likert-scale answers, e.g. regarding the experiences of success relative to the active ingredients referred to above.

6. Findings

A glance at the rich data set showed that, while it was clear that some overarching issues could be identified, differences also existed from school to school, from country to country and not least depending on whether the trainers were working with school students, teachers or school-leaders/counsellors. Some of the findings below are therefore organised according to the latter structure, but are also discussed with respect to some of the dominant themes.

6.1 Trainers' experiences related to the active ingredients

First, we present some findings from the Likert-scale questions about the trainers' experiences of succeeding with the active ingredients identified above when running the programme in the local conditions. Results are given for all answers summed across the session types and countries with the answers after the first 3 months in the phase with sessions at schools (May, June and July 2019) shown in Figure 2, and the answers from the full dataset in Figure 3.

We need to be careful with the interpretation. The two representations are not directly comparable, e.g. when it comes to a division into countries and persons in the inputs for the reflection log, but it is any case interesting to highlight some tendencies. While looking at the data, over time there appears to have been a development whereby the trainers started to feel more confident about having succeeded when leaving a specific session. In Figure 2, one sees 26%–35%

answering to a high or very high degree, but 51%–65% in Figure 3. It is also important to emphasise that it is the particular module the trainers just finished which they are reflecting on in the log, not the full programme.

This demonstrates how the trainers grow to become more confident and it might also be cautiously inferred that they, and perhaps also the school staff and students, developed a deeper understanding of the programme's core ingredients. Questions about achieving a more developed understanding and more confidence over time are discussed below in the section on qualitative data.

Figure 2 also shows that in the initial sessions the challenges were particularly related to the lack of feeling of being in close contact (the first question in Figure 2). The inputs for the log in the first months show that 31% experienced having succeeded in establishing close contact with the participants to a low or very low degree. In the full dataset (Figure 3), the answers across the three questions are more alike[1].
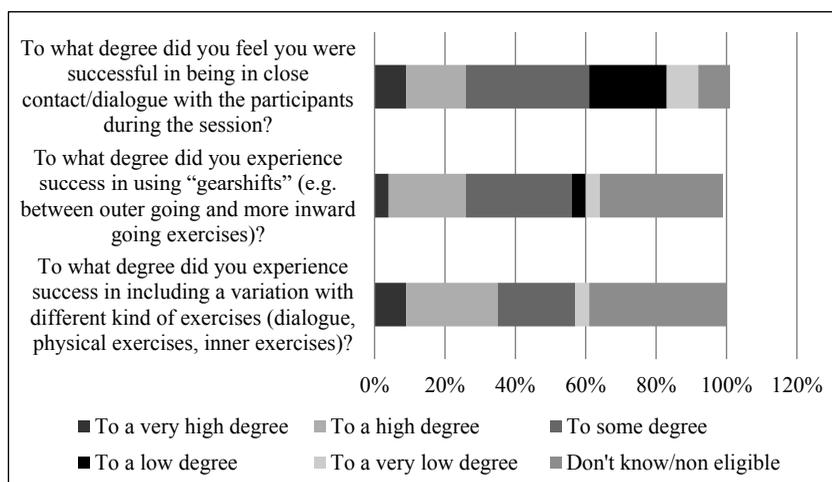
Figure 2: Likert-scale answers about the 'active ingredients' after 3 months (July, 2018)

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[1] For information, the non-eligible answers in Figure 2 in particular are about not having worked very much on these elements in the first sessions.
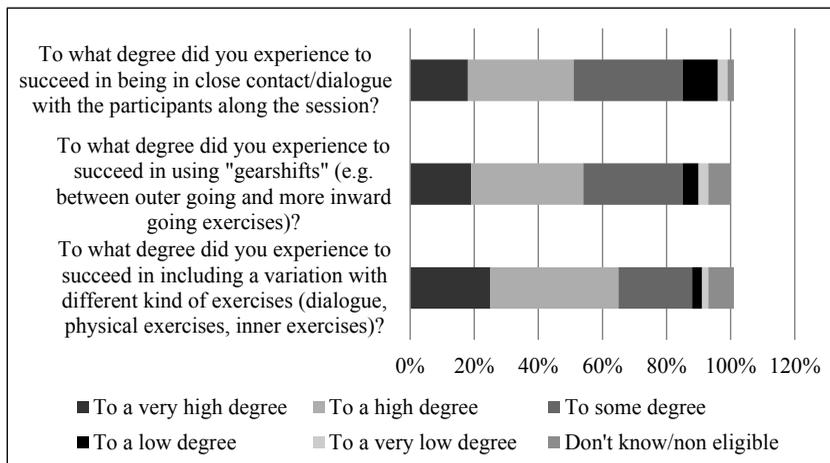
Figure 3: Likert-scale answers about the 'active ingredients' with all answers (n = 119)

Crossing the full dataset with session type and participant group confirmed that the challenges were especially experienced in the initial sessions held at the schools. Interestingly, the 51% of respondents who answered "to a high" or "very high" degree to the question about close contact (Figure 3) covers some of the differences depending on participant group, i.e. 59% in relation to student training sessions vs. 41% to the teacher training sessions. Here, it is again important to be cautious in making conclusions since different trainers were typically involved with the various groups. There are some national issues, but we are also cautious while interpreting these differences since there are also differences from school to school in each country. This shows the situated and strongly context-specific nature of these social meetings during the HAND in HAND modules.

In summary, there was overall development in time with the trainers' experiences of succeeding with respect to all three areas of the 'active ingredients', including apparently 'solving' some of the challenges related to the lack of close contact felt in the first sessions.

6.2 Interplay between the trainers and the school staff

The development in relation to the experience of being in close contact can be further illustrated with the open reflections of the trainers, and how they

developed over time. Table 1 gives an example of reflections from the same trainer over time, referring to sessions with teachers.

Table 1: Reflections of one trainer from one country referring to sessions with teachers. Example of development over 7 months.

Date	Quotes from reflection log
June, 2018	*...the atmosphere was bad, some teachers did not say hello back ...it felt like they were forced to be there by school coordinator. Their thoughts were somewhere else and it was hard to be enthusiastic about the pro-gramme and the project....*
August 2018	*The atmosphere was better, a lot of positive feedback ... participants started to share their experiences, thoughts. Some reflected that they were really focused on finding solutions on the first day and they feel now ... they are here just for themselves. They provided some insight at the end on how and what they find useful and were eager to use some also with students.*
September, 2018	*The atmosphere was very positive even though the teachers came after their classes and were tired they were in a good mood ...especially after the round, the connection was felt. By the fact that they had used several activities on their own, it felt that the programme was positively received. And that we are a group now.*
December 2018	*The climate was positive, accepting, it is also a result of the last module and we know each other well by now. It felt that the participants are re-laxed to share their opinions, thoughts. Also, at the end, there was a lot of gratitude and hugs and connection felt in the room.*

Development over time is illustrated by the open reflections (Table 1). This is seen in the way the development in the group of teachers is presented through the eyes of the trainer, realising a lack of ownership of the programme among the teachers from the outset, and later acknowledging the teachers' growing openness, and that they were contributing with their own experiences. Yet, there is also an implicit development over time, from the trainer being descriptive: "*the teachers did not say hello*", towards highlighting more dynamic issues in the interpersonal relations, e.g. the teachers' experiments in their own classes and their contributions to the co-creation: "*we are a group now*".

Here is an example taken from one of the other countries, also with regard to teacher training:

> *The teachers were worried about the days in December when they usually have a lot of work. There are many challenges for teachers with the students and I am not sure how we can handle this in the teacher training.* (June 2018)

> *It was much easier to be in quite close contact with the teachers this second time*, and added in relation to adaptation: *We did not always follow our schedule, but instead shifted exercises when we felt that the teachers needed that.* (October 2018)

There was a special, shorter 2-day programme for the school-leaders and counsellors. Based on the reflections in the log, particular issues were at stake with this participant group. The programme's value is, for instance, discussed more at a meta school-development level, as shown in these two reflections (from two different countries):

> *The atmosphere was pleasant, but a bit reserved, as if the participants were not fully convinced of the value of this kind of programme. They could not see the relationship ...with the quality...teachers deliver in the classroom.*

> *The climate was changing during the day. We had a positive atmosphere for most of the time and the participants opened up and talked about their experiences. At some point, it was a bit of a struggle when the two principals questioned the theory and many of the others did not agree. It was good to have that discussion.*

The complexity entailed in understanding the sessions with this group also concerns the group's heterogeneity. The mentioned meta school-development perspective might be a typical school-leader perspective. In general, the agenda of school leadership is not always the same as the agenda of teachers when talking of professional learning activities, as also mirrored in this dataset, e.g. in the reflection about who made the decision for the school's participation (Table 1).

Moreover, there are differences from country to country in who is participating in this group. In one country, health counsellors for example were included in this short programme. They can have quite a different agenda than teachers and school, as illustrated here:

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*The staff from the student health teams were happy that there, for once,
was focus on the students' well-being.*

The quote refers to an experience of a health counsellor that an agenda they apparently tried to raise is now being raised by the broader group of school staff.

6.3 Interplay between the trainers and the students

The reflections of the trainers working with modules for school students reveal some of the same issues like with the teachers, along with other kinds of issues. Many of the reflections about what went well in the modules concern students being active, interested, engaged, curious etc., not far from the reflections acknowledging teachers' active contributions. However, certain issues also arise in relation to, e.g. classroom management:

*Students participated and were engaged in all activities, however, as a
group are quite loud and sometimes difficult to maintain their focus….*

…there were a few students that were disturbing most of the exercises.

Yet, the reflections made by the trainers over time show a willingness to take a student perspective by realising the complexity of everyday life at school as experienced by a student, and that this can affect the students' engagement with the programme activities:

*Today, the students seemed to be under stress, probably due to tests and
grading. They seemed a bit uninspired and, when some girls refused to do
the exercise with the chair, others followed.*

Hence, while it is mirrored in the trainers' reflections that the students' mood changed from session to session, as one trainer put it, one can also identify some kind of development over time. Here are some quotes for illustration:

*The session as a whole went well, much better than module 2. Already
when we entered the school building some students were there and were
excited to see us and were looking forward to what we would be doing …
students came and eagerly volunteered to help (we had two boxes of yoga
mats with us).*

*This is a large student group with a wide variety of different students and
attitudes. Nevertheless, they are successful in listening to each other and*

co-operating. Some students who did not want to participate earlier showed some curiosity today and partly participated in the exercises. It seems that they are starting to realise that it's voluntary and that it's perfectly ok to attend according to one's own ability.

6.4 Reflections on own learning during the implementation at schools

One of the last questions in the reflection log concerns the most important learning insights the trainers themselves had experienced from the session. Some of these reflections are connected to specific issues raised elsewhere in the same input for the log, like the reflections revealing frustration at the beginning of the programme described above, but also the realisation when better contact was established:

On one hand, I wonder what I bring to these sessions that are so difficult, am I not as prepared, engaged …I can only expect very small steps.

I don't know what made the difference in them being able to participate better in this first hour of the session – was it something we did or it was just coincidence?.

…it takes some time to establish good contact with different students and groups of students. Now we feel that they are more relaxed and that they dare to trust us….

Some overarching themes identified in the thematic analysis of the trainers' reflections in this part of the logs are listed and exemplified in Table 2. Note that there are both themes independent of the participant group and other themes related to the respective groups (Table 2).

Table 2: Reflections from the logs concerning the question: "What are the most important learning/insights you as a trainer take away with you from this session?".

Theme	Quotes to exemplify the theme
Building trust over time (all participant groups)	• … it takes some time to establish good contact with different students and groups of students. Now we feel that they are more relaxed and that they dare to trust us. This seems to be especially true for the 'cooler' guys. • Creation of an atmosphere of mutual trust, support and authenticity is the most important element for the success of this programme. • That being in close contact is not always easy in all groups and it sometimes becomes easier with more time.
Adaptation, as each class and group of teachers is "it's one" (all participant groups)	• You do not have to do everything that is planned. It is better to address one idea in such a way that it gets through. • …it is important to listen to the group and make adjustments accordingly. We have three different classes and we make small adjustments so as to make it work for the students.
Own agency (all participant groups)	• That I can do it. That it was possible to lead a group and have the gear-shift in mind. That the exercises are well accepted, even in the leaders' group. • I can stay calm even in such difficult situations when students are not participating and responding to my questions. I have a strategy. • I got a sense I can really follow the students' energy and (lack of) of focus and respond so that I lead activities in a way that helps them use energy, restore focus or bring awareness inwards (depending on what they need). This brings me a sense of inner satisfaction and gratefulness and humbleness to be able to do this.
Physical environment (all participant groups)	• …it is important to have a room where you are able to move around as well as to sit and talk.
Co-reflection with students to understand and support instead of blame (student programme)	• …at first, I was getting annoyed … thinking why … not follow the instructions … then it hit me … it is too challenging. Once I had this acceptance and compassion, everything was easy. We reflected together on how this was difficult for them and verbalised strategies that would help…so, my insight was – do not judge, blame, try to understand … inquire about it. • Make the meaning of the exercises clear to the students.
Co-reflection with school professionals in	• We are making progress in students' ability to reflect…. The school coordinator also commented that we are having an important impact on one

Theme	Quotes to exemplify the theme
relation to the student programme	particular student who is responding very well to the activities in the module (i.e. she is opening up).
	• To establish good relations with teachers and other school staff.
	• The importance of having a teacher or another person who knows the group involved.
Hard to explain (school staff programme)	• That it is hard to explain the approach … the thoughts behind relational competence, the 'new' way of seeing children as social beings.
Professional agency (teacher programme)	• The idea of empowering their own capacities was new….
Relations with co-trainers	• It feels safe working together and we can take turns and help each other.
	• The team of trainers worked well.
	• Turn for help to your partner, when needed.

7. Discussion and perspectives

An initial reflection based on the findings is that the high complexity of the HAND in HAND project and of implementation processes generally is confirmed. Accordingly, the answer to how the trainers perceived the process of translating the programme to the local conditions is not simple. The reflection logs contain many indications of challenges, especially in the trainers' first meetings with the participants. However, there seems to be a development over time whereby the trainers generally grow to become more confident, feeling that the collaborative and active work with the ideas in the project can make a difference. The trainers appear to appreciate what the meetings with the participants do to themselves personally/professionally. The data indicate that over time most trainers developed a level of professional agency in relation to working with SEI competencies in a concrete school setting. This appears to be a two-way transition process (Beach, 1999) in the interplay of trainers and participants with relationship building (contact and trust) as a central aspect. The professional agency indicated in the data therefore appears to be very much about the relational aspects (Edwards, 2009; 2015), the capacity to work with school staff and co-trainers drawing on distributed resources, and translating the programme content in a meeting with participants while also acknowledging their perspectives and contributions. Hence, the perceived learning outcome from the trainers, outcomes that seem to (slightly) change the trainers' sense of professional self and social self, but often in a process

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with some struggles (consequential transitions: Beach, 1999), clearly refer to one particular aspect of the HAND in HAND programme: the question about relationship-building. Nevertheless, it may be argued that the findings have a more generic bearing when it comes to school development. Referring to the discussions on professional agency (Calvert, 2016; Edwards, 2009; 2015) and to the background to SEI competencies (see Kozina, Vidmar and Veldin, this publication), it may be argued that the building of trust and relations illustrated here is a prerequisite for supporting teachers' professional learning also *beyond* a programme where the content is about i.e. relationships.

Table 1 highlights the teachers' eagerness to use what they did in the training also with the students through the eyes of the trainer. This leads to another key reflection, including findings from another part of the qualitative data. Vieluf, Denk, Rožman and Roczen (this publication) stress that participating teachers appreciated the atmosphere during the training and the opportunities for personal development and self-empowerment, but felt unsure about how to connect the things they had learned with their everyday work. As mentioned above, the issue about including even more enactments and collaborative reflection on these during work in the programme was discussed early on in the implementation, in relation to both the programme for trainers and teachers, but it finally proved to be too hard to arrange due to e.g. practical reasons and experimental conditions. The reflections over time given by the trainers show the importance of one's own consciously reflected practice in developing professional agency (the trainers), and this is surely also an issue for teachers who are novices in the field, while all the trainers had research-based insight into and experience with some of the SEI perspectives before the project. There is no simple solution to this because, as indicated in Table 1 in this chapter and by Vieluf et al., the teachers also appreciated that they were "*here just for themselves*". It may be highlighted as a more generic dilemma related to school development that the Dewey perspective of learning by inquiry (enactment and reflection intertwined) is certainly central to professional learning (Nielsen, 2017). But we also need to be aware that we are living at a time when new forms of public management are challenging professionals' judgement and autonomy, with top-down demands being the 'new normal'. Hence, the experience of taking a step back and doing something for yourself might be a new positive experience for a teacher.

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This dilemma leads to the third key reflection. Although development over time is mirrored in the trainers' reflections, this is certainly not a straightforward process. Instead, the complexity of adaptive processes is illustrated. Røvik (2016) stresses that new ideas typically trigger complex processes involving sense-making and the elaboration of meaning (over time), but also power plays, resistance and negotiation. This describes quite well the trainers' overall experiences. Other scholars have noted that many innovation projects, like the HAND in HAND programme, are based on a rational planning approach with expert-driven designs being implemented, but emphasising that the assumptions underlying rational planning are inconsistent with complex adaptive systems (e.g. Patton, 2011; Zimmerman & Glouberman, 2002). Complex systems are inherently non-linear and exhibit a great deal of noise, tension and fluctuation in interaction with the rest of the environment (Zimmerman & Glouberman, 2002). A provocative question here is whether the whole idea of universal school development programmes adaptable for all contexts is simply an illusion. This would be a misinterpretation. We as researchers and professionals must be able to share and cooperate to develop pedagogy across schools and countries, i.e. in the crucial field of SEI competencies. But we must carefully consider how to develop a positive system-level change. Darling-Hammond (2005) illustrates how educational change generally depends on initiatives at different levels of the system, and that most successfully implemented reform initiatives are those that induce top-down support and the input of new ideas at the same time supporting bottom-up development. Downes (2014) highlights the need to examine multi-person systems of interactions when analysing the effects of reform initiatives. The data from the HAND in HAND project confirm the need for such a system-level view, in relation to both the implementation of reform initiatives, as stressed by Darling-Hammond (2005), and to research looking at implementation, where Downes (2014) discusses how to understand system change and emphasises e.g. the need to examine the two-way flow in a system of reciprocity to incorporate feedback. He also suggests a dynamic system theoretical framework that also highlights individual responsibility within the totality of the system (Downes, 2014). The analyses of the implementation data provide an insight into the reciprocal interaction between the trainers, their development of individual and relational agency, and the system/subsystems that frame implementation of the HAND in HAND project.

Conclusion

Summing up, the development over time in the trainers' confidence in relation to working in schools with the HAND in HAND programme is revealed in this chapter. It entails a multifaceted and sometimes quite challenging process of professional learning and of developing professional agency. The need for a similar process for teachers to develop confidence over time by applying the HAND in HAND approaches in their own classrooms can be hypothesised.

The identified challenges especially concern the trainers establishing close contact and trust in the participant groups. Based on the quantitative and qualitative data from the implementation survey, there appears to have been a transition process over time with relationship-building between the trainers and participants. The trainers stress that it takes time to create an atmosphere of mutual trust. They refer to their own learning insights in relation to helping and supporting each other in the team of trainers to meet the challenges. This indicates the development of relational agency. While working with the school staff, particular issues have been about supporting teachers in the feeling of participating 'for themselves', not just on a top-down decision from e.g. the leader. The trainers refer to their own learning insights in connection to the idea of empowering teachers' capacities. Working with students has for example included issues about classroom management. The trainers refer to their own learning insights with respect to a nuanced understanding of the challenges experienced by the students.

Looking then at the continuing process of 'sustainabilisation' (Figure 1), it should be considered how the materials developed in the project can be shared in a balanced manner. This means presenting the idea of SEI competencies and the crucial active ingredients from the HAND in HAND project, and the need for external supervisors to support a whole-school process (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009), while also highlighting the importance of adapting to and acknowledging the local context, competencies and professional agency. Calvert (2016) proposes as one of the steps in moving from compliance to agency resisting the temptation to 'scale up' or mandate a particular form of professional learning *without* thoroughly examining the context in which it will be implemented, understanding that learners must want to improve their practice and see how the learning opportunity will help them do so. This is also the idea behind the model at the top (Figure 1) as a generic planning and processing tool for use during implementation, and

emphasised when Freeman et al. (2014) refers to participants' vision and Durlak (2016) to integrated programmes with participant engagement that include daily practices as more likely to be continued.

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Chapter 6:
Development of the assessment for use in evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme

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Abstract

This chapter presents how the measures targeting social, emotional and intercultural/transcultural (SEI) competencies as well as classroom climate used to externally evaluate the HAND in HAND programme were developed and selected. In the first section, we describe the assessment strategy for our summative and formative evaluation, which consists of applying a multi-method approach that combines self-reports, other-reports, a sociometric measure, vignettes and interviews to measure possible effects of the HAND in HAND programme, find out how participants experienced the programmes and discover levers to help improve the programmes. In the second section, we look at the process of selecting the questionnaire scales based on a pilot study that was conducted in three countries (Slovenia, Croatia, Sweden). We conclude by presenting the final instruments used for the HAND in HAND programme evaluation.

Key words: assessment development, pilot study, external evaluation, multi method approach

1. Assessment strategy for use in external evaluation of the HAND in HAND project

The external evaluation of the HAND in HAND project[1] combines a summative and a formative evaluation. The evaluation's main focus is the summative evaluation of the project outcome; that is, we aim to trace the causal effects on the HAND in HAND student and school staff programmes (Widmer & De Rocchi, 2012) and explain those effects. Yet, we also carry out a formative evaluation that not only focuses on evaluating the programme's success but its further development (Moosbrugger & Schweizer, 2002; also see Vieluf, Denk, Rožman and Roczen, this publication for the relationship between summative and formative evaluation).

Summative Evaluation. At the start of the process to develop the assessment, all of the HAND in HAND partners defined what was expected by way of the programmes' outcomes and developed a theoretical model describing the effects of the programmes on those outcomes. This provided a common platform for the development of student and school staff programmes on one hand, and the development of the instruments for use while externally evaluating the programmes on the other, with a view to achieving the optimal alignment of both (for more information, see Kozina, Vidmar and Veldin, this publication).

In step two, we researched open-access instruments to assess these core concepts (Denk et al., 2017). Most existing instruments targeting social, emotional and intercultural/transcultural (SEI) competencies as well as classroom climate are based on questionnaire scales that are mostly self-reports. However, due to the known shortcomings of such data like response biases (e.g. social desirability or acquiescence, see Bogner & Landrock, 2015; He & Van de Vijver, 2012) or lack

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[1] This chapter refers to the external outcome evaluation (summative and formative) which was undertaken by the project partners who were not directly involved in the HAND in HAND Field Trials. There was also an internal process evaluation which is described in detail by Rasmusson, Oskarsson, Eliasson and Dahlström (this publication) and by Nielsen (this publication). However, it should be noted that during the process of finding agreement on the scope of the external evaluation and on the key evaluation questions, the external evaluation team became involved in discussions about the „core constructs" and about the inclusion of single exercises into the programmes. The other way around, some of the programme developers also suggested assessment scales for constructs used as outcome criteria in the external outcome evaluation when these constructs fell into their field of research expertise. This continuous cooperation and co-ordination between the external evaluators and the programme developers inevitably blurred the line between internal and external evaluation to a certain extent.

of introspection skills (see Klafehn et al., 2013, for the field of intercultural competencies), we decided to not rely exclusively on questionnaire scales for our evaluation, but to instead apply a broader and multifaceted assessment strategy that includes self-reports and other-report questionnaire scales, sociometry, interviews and vignettes.

Formative evaluation. The interviews mentioned in the paragraph above were not only used to better understand our effectiveness results and to gain insights into how the programme was experienced by the participants. We also relied on them for a formative purpose, that is, we expected to learn from them indications of how the programmes may be improved in future upscaling of the HAND in HAND programmes (for suggestions for improvement, please see Vieluf et al., this publication).

2. Measures for the evaluation

In the following, we first present the instruments we compiled to measure and understand the effects of the HAND in HAND programme on SEI competencies and the classroom climate in the framework of the summative evaluation. We conclude by presenting the interviews, whose purpose is twofold: On one hand, they supplement the summative evaluation with the participants' perspective while, on the other, they provide information for use in further development of the programmes and thus for the formative evaluation.

2.1 Measuring change in SEI competencies

Self-report questionnaire scales. With self-report scales, the respondents assess themselves regarding a selected characteristic like the extent of their own aggressiveness or the ability to take another's perspectives. Even though self-reports have some deficiencies (see above), they still bring several advantages such as their time-efficient and uncomplicated implementation, objectivity or comparability. Since many existing open-access instruments (for a review, see Denk et al., 2017) were available for each core concept in HAND in HAND, we decided to

test a large number of self-report scales in a set of cognitive labs[2] followed by a pilot study to underpin the selection of those for use in the evaluation, namely those with the best psychometric characteristics in the three countries in which the HAND in HAND pilot study was carried out (Slovenia, Croatia, Sweden). Self-report scales targeting self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and intercultural/transcultural competencies were selected for the pilot study. The scales are shown in Table 2 and 3 in the Appendix to this chapter.

Other-reports. One way to overcome some of the disadvantages of assessing competencies in the form of self-reports, such as conscious and unconscious answer tendencies, is to use "other-reports". This means that certain characteristics or competencies are not or not solely assessed by the persons concerned themselves, but the respective characteristics are (also) assessed by other persons. In the student questionnaire, we use one measure, namely the Multisource Assessment of Children's Social Competence (MASCS) (scale "Cooperation"; Junttila, Voeten, Kaukiainen, & Vauras, 2006) to compare different perspectives on students' cooperative behaviour. For each student, three randomly assigned classmates assessed that student's social behaviours, e.g., the extent to which that student offers help to others, or whether the student invites other students to participate in activities.

Vignettes. We also included vignettes (often also referred to as situational judgement tests). They start with a brief description of a scenario, followed by questions asking the participants to assess different aspects of that scenario (Whetzel & McDaniel, 2009). We used three different vignettes: The first vignette assesses social perspective-taking, i.e. one aspect of social awareness. The scenario describes an incident of bullying in the school environment that is adapted from the Social Perspective Taking Measure (SPTAM) (Diazgranados, Selman & Dionne, 2016). The participants were asked to adopt the perspective of different protagonists in the (verbally described) scenario and imagine how they might feel and

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[2] A pre-selection of questionnaire scales addressing self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, intercultural/transcultural competencies and classroom climate was tested in Cognitive Laboratories. Based on the feedback from students and school staff, the final measurement battery for the pilot study was developed by making necessary adjustments to tested scales and deleting scales that did not work at all (see HAND in HAND evaluation report available at http://handinhand.si).

think about the situation depicted and what kind of advice they might offer the protagonists. Both the quantity of constructive suggestions and their presumed effectiveness are rated. This vignette was only used in the school staff questionnaire. The second vignette is based on a situational judgement test developed by Schwarzenthal (2019) and was used in both the student and school staff questionnaires. It describes an intercultural incident in the school environment and is followed by questions about the participants' interpretation of the situation and their assessment of possible behavioural options to solve the situation. Open answers to these questions are rated with regard to the kind of understanding of cultural influences on people's behaviours, participants' ability to suspend judgement when interpreting behaviours, and their ability to find satisfactory solutions for everybody involved in the intercultural situations described. We developed the third vignette ourselves. It is used exclusively in the teacher questionnaire. It describes a scenario in which the teacher observes how a group of students harasses one student due to his cultural/religious background. The teachers are asked to describe why the protagonists in the scenario behave in the way depicted and how they would themselves behave in a similar situation.

2.2 Measuring change in the classroom climate

Questionnaire scales. As for SEI competencies, we also employed questionnaire scales to assess the classroom climate. Here, the participants did not assess their own competencies, but aspects of the classroom climate like the orderliness of the classroom or the relationships with their teachers.

Sociometry. Sociometry is a qualitative research technique which explores relationships among members of a group (Moreno, 1934; Wasserman and Faust, 1994). These relationships can thus be visualised in a sociogram where individuals are represented as points and the relationships between them as lines. For creating the sociograms, we adapted the approaches of Dollase (1976) and Schwab (2016) and asked students with which other students from their class they had most often spent their breaks during school over the previous 4 months and whether there were any students in their class with whom they did not spend any of their breaks during that time. Indicators for the quality of the classroom climate we derive from the answers to these questions are the number of classmates who

spent breaks with each student during the past 4 months and the number of students within a classroom with whom no one spent a break in the past 4 months.

2.3 Focus group interviews

With the focus group interview method, groups of individuals are guided by questions such that they can interact with each other and give responses that are related to the contributions of other participants (e.g. Vaughn, Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996). Interviews are a particular important component of an evaluation as they consider the perspectives of participants (for more details, see Vieluf et al., this publication). Three different group-interviews (students, teachers and school leaders together with other school staff) took place in each participating school in all three countries. Participants were asked among others why the school had taken part (only school staff), how they liked the programme and particular exercises, what they had learned from them, whether they had any suggestions to help improve the programmes, whether they were still practising some of the exercises themselves and whether they had noticed positive (perhaps also negative) changes in the classroom climate or in their teachers (only students). This data should also help us to move beyond detecting possible positive or negative effects of the programme. The interviews allowed us to understand how the participants experienced the programme. They also served a formative purpose and gave us suggestions for how to improve the programmes from the participants' perspectives. The answers given by the students, teachers and school leaders plus other school staff to some of these questions are summarised by Vieluf et al. (this publication).

2.4 The pilot study

While tests and qualitative instruments addressing SEI competencies as well as classroom climate are quite hard to find, many questionnaire scales addressing those constructs are available (Denk et al., 2017). To help selecting from among these scales we used the following procedure: First, we made an extensive and systematic review of the literature describing self-report scales that assess the core concepts of the HAND in HAND programme (Denk et al., 2017). From this collection, we chose several alternative instruments assessing each respective core

construct. To help select between those scales measuring the same construct, the scales were presented to the students and the teachers in the HAND in HAND pilot study. The methods and results of that study are described below.

3. Methods

Participants. For the pilot study, we collected convenience samples at schools in Sweden, Croatia and Slovenia. The target group was 13- to 14-year-olds (grade 8 students) and their teachers[3]. A summary of the students' and teachers' demographic characteristics is given in Table 1.

The average age of the students was 13.2 years in Slovenia, 14.0 years in Croatia and 14.7 years in Sweden. The share of girls in percent was 29.4 % in Croatia, 51.9 % in Slovenia and 53.5 % in Sweden. In the Slovenian Sample, 1.6 % of the students were born outside of Slovenia, 3.3 % usually speak a language other than Slovenian at home and another 6.6 % usually speak Slovenian and (an)other language(s) at home. In Sweden, 3.2 % of the students were born outside of the country, 1.1 % usually speak a language other than Swedish at home and another 6.5 6.5 % usually speak Swedish and (an)other language(s) at home. In the Croatian Sample, 1 % of the students was born outside of Croatia, 1 % usually speaks a language other than Croatian at home and another 8.8 % usually speak Croatian and (an)other language(s) at home.

The teachers' average age in Croatia was 42.6 years, 43.2 in Sweden and 44.1 in Slovenia. In Sweden, 80.4% of the teachers were female, in Croatia 88.6% and in Slovenia 89.6%. In Slovenia, 3.1% of the teachers were born outside of the country, in Sweden, the percentage was 5.3 % and in Croatia 22.8%.

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[3] In the Field Trials and in the Field Trial data collections, not only teachers, but also school principals, school social workers and counsellors were addressed. In the pilot study, questionnaires were only handed to teachers.

Table 1: Pilot study sample sizes and demographic characteristics of the students and teachers

		Students				Teachers			
		Overall	*SI*	*SW*	*CR*	*Overall*	*SI*	*SW*	*CR*
Sample Size	*N*	623	234.0	181	208	284	97	93	78
Age	*M (SD)*	13.9	13.2	14.7	14.0	43.2	44.1	43.2	42.6
		(0.83)	(0.43)	(0.84)	(0.37)	(9.61)	(9.55)	(9.79)	(9.41)
Gender	Female (%)	44.6	51.9	53.5	29.4	85.4	89.6	80.4	88.6
	Male (%)	55.1	48.1	45.3	70.6	14.6	10.4	19.6	11.4
	Diverse (%)	0.3	0.0	1.2	0.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Country of Birth	Other country (%)	1.9	1.6	3.2	1.0	9.2	3.1	5.3	22.8
Language at Home	Language of the country (%)	90.5	90.2	92.5	89.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Other lan-guage(s) (%)	1.9	3.3	1.1	1.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Both (%)	7.6	6.6	6.5	9.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Notes. M = Mean, *SD* = standard deviation, SI = Slovenia, SW = Sweden, CR = Croatia. Information on the students' gender was only collected from those students who answered booklet B. Therefore, information on the students' gender is only based on $N = 297$ students. In the teacher questionnaire, the question on gender only included the options. Information on the country of birth and language spoken at home was only collected from those students who answered booklet A ($N = 326$).

Measures. The full pilot study instrument for students encompassed 31 scales covering students' self-reported SEI competencies as well as their perception of the classroom climate. For the student data collection, we used two booklets to test a larger number of instruments and remain time efficient. Each student was presented with one booklet so that each item was only answered by about half the students. The pilot questionnaire for the teachers included 23 scales covering the teachers' self-reported SEI competencies as well as their perception of the classroom climate (see Table 3 in the Appendix to this chapter). Fourteen scales were used in both the student and teacher questionnaires (see the column "Parallel scale

in SSQ" in Table 2 in the Appendix to this chapter and "Parallel scale in TCQ" in Table 3 in the Appendix to this chapter).

Procedures. We performed the following analyses to ensure the aforementioned criteria were available for scale selection: We analysed (i) descriptive statistics on the item level (frequencies and missing values), (ii) descriptive statistics on the scale level (scale means and standard deviations), (iii) the dimensionality of the scales using exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and (iv) the internal consistency of scales (Cronbach's alpha). We analysed data for each country separately. All statistical analyses were carried out using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22 for Windows.

4. Results

The results of the analysis of the distributions and percentages of missing values, internal consistency and exploratory factor analysis are shown in Table 2 in the Appendix to this chapter for the student data and in Table 3 in the Appendix to this chapter for the teacher data.

Students. Overall, the internal consistencies of the scales in the student question-naire (see Table 2 in the Appendix to this chapter) are reasonable (DeVellis, 2003). For about half the scales (15), the reliability is above $\alpha = .85$ in at least one country. For two-thirds of the scales (20 out of 31 scales), the reliabilities in all three countries are above $\alpha = .70$. For seven other scales, the reliability is at least $\alpha = .60$.

The number of missing values is acceptable in all countries for most of the scales in the student questionnaire, i.e. < 10% in 17 out of 31 scales. For most scales, the number of missing responses is lower in Croatia and Slovenia than in Sweden. While the percentage of missing values lies between 0% and 2% for a large part of the scales in Croatia and Slovenia, a considerable range is observed in Sweden. For example, for five scales, less than 5% of responses are missing for the single items, but for 10 scales, there are up to 15%–25% missing values. These results show that many of the Swedish participants did not complete their questionnaire.

As regards the distributions, the mean values of positively worded scales are gen-erally relatively high. The scales with the highest mean values (with respect to the

possible maximum value) are "Prosocial behaviour" ($M = 3.28 – 3.55$), "Orderliness of the classroom" ($M = 3.20 – 3.36$) and "Inclusive classroom climate" ($M = 2.98 – 3.29$). Hence, positively worded scales – and the latter scales in particular – are skewed.

For the lion's share of the scales (21 out of 31), the factor structure is identical across the countries (see "✓" in the "EFA" column in Table 2 in the Appendix to this chapter). For the remaining scales, the number of extracted factors differs between countries. In most cases, a scale is one-dimensional as theoretically anticipated in some countries, whereas it is two-dimensional in others. Items usually group into two factors where one is characterised by the positively worded items and the other by the negatively worded ones (see the evaluation report).

Teachers. The reliabilities of the teacher scales are good or very good (see Table 3 in the Appendix to this chapter). For almost all scales (21 out of 23 scales), the reliabilities in all three countries are above $\alpha = .70$. For 16 of the scales, the reliability is $\alpha = .85$ or above in at least one country.

As in the student sample, missing values in Croatia and Slovenia are very low (often even 0%). In Sweden, the number of missing responses is much higher and also considerably higher than in the Swedish student data set. Again, a wide range of missing values can be observed. For the scale "Observe" of the "Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills" there are 18.9% of missing values, while one item of the scale "Professional Beliefs about Diversity Scale" is even missing for all participants. Here, too, these results show that many participants did not complete the questionnaire.

As with the student scales, the mean values of positively worded scales are relatively high. The scales with the highest mean values (relative to the possible maximum value) are "Teacher Self-Efficacy" ($M = 3.13 – 4.13$), "Empathic concern" ($M = 3.84 – 4.07$) and "Reflexivity" ($M = 3.22 – 3.36$).

For about half the scales (13 out of 23), the dimensionality is consistent across the countries (see the "EFA" column in Table 3 in the Appendix to this chapter).

Conclusion
Final evaluation instruments for the HAND in HAND Field Trials

While selecting one out of two or more scales intended to measure a similar construct, we applied the following criteria: (1) the accuracy with which one scale measures a construct (i.e. internal consistency – Cronbach's α; we regarded values above α = .7 as acceptable); (2) the correspondence of the number of extracted factors with the theoretically expected dimensionality in all countries – as this is a necessary precondition that has to be given if data analysis across countries or country comparisons are intended. We also checked (3) the distribution of the participants' responses – we primarily looked at those to identify ceiling effects as it is difficult to detect possible programme effects with instruments that are already strongly skewed in the direction of the expected effects. For these first three criteria, we used results from the pilot study described above. We also considered (4) the efficiency of a scale in terms of the response time. As an indicator for this efficiency, we relied on the number of items per scale but also an estimation of the response time that we determined in individual trial runs outside of the pilot survey. In addition to applying these criteria, we ensured that the entire range of HAND in HAND core concepts (see Kozina et al, this publication) was covered by the scales selected for the summative evaluation. To sum up, we chose the scale that was ideally more reliable, had a less skewed distribution, had the same structure in the three countries, and was shorter than the other scales. In many cases, the competing scales performed well in different analyses, making it sometimes difficult to choose the more suitable one. In these cases, we prioritised the selection criteria according to the above numbering (criterion no. 1 was the most important and criterion no. 4 the least important to be considered). The requirement to consider all core constructs led to the inclusion of a few scales that did not perform optimally. For example, the scale "Self-Awareness" shows unsatisfactory reliability in the Slovenian student sample and also the dimensionality was not consistent across the countries (see Table 2 in the Appendix to this chapter). However, since practising self-awareness is a fundamental core concept of the HAND in HAND programme (see Kozina et al.; Jugović, Puzić and Mornar; Jensen and Gøtzsche; all this publication), we nevertheless decided to keep the scale. This and similar scales are examined particularly critically in the analysis of the Field Trial data. In a few cases, we decided to shorten the scales (see Table 2 in the Appendix to this chapter, the "# Items Field Trial" column). For instance, for

the "Inclusive Classroom Climate" scale we kept only the negatively worded items to ensure a consistent structure in all countries.

All instruments included in the final Field Trial evaluation questionnaire are listed in the "Measures" column (printed in black) in Table 2 in the Appendix to this chapter and Table 3 in the Appendix to this chapter (the "Pilot" column shows which of those were part of the pilot study).

In the process of developing the assessment for external evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme, our assessment strategy had the following characteristics: (1) optimal alignment between the HAND in HAND programmes and the evaluation instruments by reference to common core concepts; (2) a multi-method approach to take account of both processes and outcomes and to capture different levels on which effects may occur; and (3) the pre-testing of a large part of the instruments in order to have measures available that are equally well suited for use in all participating countries. This should establish optimal conditions for measuring and explaining the effectiveness of the HAND in HAND programme and for providing data that can be used to optimise it.

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Appendix

Table 2 – Part 1: Overview of instruments for the Student Questionnaire (STQ)

Measures	# Items	# Items Field Trial	Pilot	Range	Parallel scale in TCQ	Time
Self-awareness						
Short Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (Stewart-Brown et al., 2011)	14	-	✓	1 - 4		01:29
Positive Youth Development Questionnaire (Geldhof et al., 2014; Lerner et al., 2005) – Scale Positive identity	6	6	✓	1 - 4		00:50
Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ-II; Gilman, Laughlin & Huebner, 1999; Marsh, 1990) - General Self-concept	10	-	✓	1 - 4		01:16
Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills (Baer, Smith & Allen, 2004):						
Scale 'Describe'	8	7	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:03
Scale 'Accept without Judgement'	9	9	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:14
Scale 'Act with awareness'	10	10	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:27
Scale 'Observe'	12	7	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:15
Self-Management						
Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children (SEQ-C; Muris, 2001) - Emotional Self-Efficacy (ESE)	8	-	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:39
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ; Goodman, 1997; Goodman, Meltzer & Bailey, 1998)						
Scale 'Hyperactivity'	6	-	✓	1 - 4		00:44
Scale 'Emotional Problems'	7	7	✓	1 - 4	✓	00:47
Brief Self-control Scale (BSCS; Sproesser, Strohbach, Schupp & Renner, 2011) - Scale self-management	13	-	✓	1 - 4		01:30
LA aggression Scale (LAS; Kozina, 2013)	18	18	✓	1 - 4		00:42

Table 2 – Part 2: Overview of instruments for the Student Questionnaire (STQ)

Measures	# Items	# Items Field Trial	Pilot	Range	Parallel scale in TCQ	Time
Social-awareness						
Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1980) - Multidimensional assessment of Empathy:						
Scale 'Fantasy'	7	-	✓	1 - 4	✓	01:15
Scale 'Empathic concern'	7	7	✓	1 - 4	✓	01:15
Scale 'Perspective taking'	7	7	✓	1 - 4	✓	00:50
Scale 'Personal distress'	7	-	✓	1 - 4	✓	00:50
Relationship skills						
Positive Youth Development Questionnaire (PYDQ; Geldhof et al., 2014) – Scale Caring	9	9	✓	1 - 4		00:30
Strengths and Difficulties Question-naire (SDQ; Goodman, 1997; Good-man et al., 1998):						
Scale 'Prosocial behaviour'	6	-	✓	1 - 4		01:20
Scale 'Peer Relationship Problems'	6	-	✓	1 - 4		00:36
Scale 'Peer Problems'	5	-	✓	1 - 4		00:21
Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children (SEQ-C; Muris, 2001) – Social Self-Efficacy Scale (SSE)	8	-	✓	1 - 5		01:10
Peer-Estimated Social Intelligence and Empathy (PESI/PEE; Kaukiainen, Björkqvist, Österman, Lagerspetz & Forsblom, 1995; Kaukiainen et al., 1999)	19	-	✓	1 - 4		01:20
Other-report: Multisource Assessment of Children's Social Competence (MASCS; Junttila, Voeten, Kaukiainen & Vauras, 2006) – Scale 'Cooperation'		5*3		1 - 4		10:00

Table 2 – Part 3: Overview of instruments for the Student Questionnaire (STQ)

Measures	# Items	# Items Field Trial	Pilot	Range	Parallel scale in TCQ	Time
Classroom climate						
Orderliness of the classroom (OOC-S; OECD, 2005)	5	5	✓	1 - 4		00:50
Teacher as Social Context (TASC, 1992) Belmont, M., Skinner, E., Wellborn, J., Connell, J., & Pierson, L. (1992)	9	-	✓	1 - 4		01:35
Perceived quality of student-teacher relations (positively worded; Fischer, Decristan, Theis, Sauerwein & Wolgast, 2017)	8	8	✓	1 - 4		00:53
Perceived quality of student-teacher relations (negatively worded; OECD, 2018)	7	7	✓	1 - 4		00.44
Inclusive Classroom Climate (ICC; OECD, 2018)	7	4	✓	1 - 4		00:54
Social Climate in the Classroom (SCC; Stöber, 2002)	10	-	✓	1 - 4		01:00
Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire (OBVQ; Olweus, 1996; Olweus Sample School Report, 2007)	22	-	✓	1 - 4		01:03
Adolescent Discrimination Distress Index (ADDI; Sangalang, Chen, Kulis & Yabiku, 2015)	7	7	✓	1 - 4		00:33
Teachers' Relational Competence Scale (TRCS; Vidmar & Kerman, 2016)	11	9	✓	1 - 4	✓	01:13
Sociometric Measure (adapted from Dollase, 1976, and Schwab, 2016)	-	2		n.a.		05:00
Intercultural/transcultural Competencies						
Attitudes Towards Immigrants (Schulz, Ainley, & Fraillon, 2011)	6	6	✓	1 - 4		01:12
Critical Consciousness Scale (CCS; Diemer, Rapa, Park & Perry, 2017)	10		✓	1 - 4	✓	01:07
Vignette: Intercultural Awareness (Schwarzenthal et al., 2017)	-	3		n.a.	✓	10:00
Measures targeting several areas						
Focus group interviews	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.	✓	n.a.

Table 2 – Part 4: Overview of instruments for the Student Questionnaire (STQ)

Measures	Cronbach's α	EFA	Missings (%)	Distribution *M (SD)*
Self-Awareness				
Short Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale	.79-.86	✓	0.9 (SI) - 3.8 (CR)	3.06 (0.39) - 3.18 (0.44)
Positive Youth Development Questionnaire – Scale Positive identity	.72-.87	✓	1.2 (CR) - 6.3 (SI)	2.81 (0.53) - 3.05 (0.59)
Self-Description Questionnaire - General Self-concept	.74-.93	✓	1.1 (SW) - 3.9 (SI)	3.02 (0.39) - 3.18 (0.49)
Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills:				
Scale 'Describe'	.52 - .84	-	1.2 (CR) - 12.6 (SW)	2.97 (0.55) - 3.44 (0.74)
Scale 'Accept without Judgement'	.83-.87	✓	0.9 (SI) - 12.8 (SW)	2.56 (0.81) – 2.96 (0.75)
Scale 'Act with awareness'	.74-.79	-	0.9 (SI) - 12.8 (SW)	2.96 (0.66) - 3.04 (0.60)
Scale 'Observe'	.71-.91	✓	1.2 (CR) - 11.6 (SW)	2.80 (0.83) - 3.31 (0.71)
Self-Management				
Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children- Emotional Self-Efficacy	.72 - .87	✓	0.9 (SI) - 3.4 (SW)	3.04 (0.96) - 3.39 (0.65)
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire:				
Scale 'Hyperactivity'	.63-.82	-	0.9 (SI) - 4.7 (SW)	2.42 (0.65) - 2.22 (0.58)
Scale 'Emotional Problems'	.79-.84	✓	0.9 (SI) - 3.5 (SW)	2.24 (0.62) - 2.38 (0.68)
Brief Self-control Scale – Scale self-management	.72-.80	✓	0.9 (SI) - 5.8 (SW)	2.49 (0.49) - 2.59 (0.38)
LA aggression Scale	.84-.89	✓	1.2 (CR) - 7.4 (SW)	1.99 (0.42) - 2.12 (0.51)
Social-Awareness				
Interpersonal Reactivity Index - Multidimensional assessment of Empathy:				
Scale 'Fantasy'	.63-.74	✓	0.9 (SI) - 7.0 (SW)	2.47 (0.63) - 2.57 (0.63)
Scale 'Empathic concern'	.61-.76	-	0.9 (SI) - 7.0 (SW)	2.66 (0.52) - 2.97 (0.49)
Scale 'Perspective taking'	.66-.79	✓	0.9 (SI) - 7.0 (SW)	2.58 (0.64) - 2.62 (0.53)
Scale 'Personal distress'	.68-.78	✓	0.9 (SI) - 8.1 (SW)	2.14 (0.61) - 2.36 (0.56)

Table 2 – Part 5: Overview of instruments for the Student Questionnaire (STQ)

Measures	Cronbach's α	EFA	Missings (%)	Distribution *M (SD)*
Relationship skills				
Positive Youth Development Questionnaire – Scale Caring	.86-.91	✓	1.2 (CR) - 5.5 (SI)	2.97 (0.57) - 3.22 (0.63)
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire:				
Scale 'Prosocial behaviour'	.78-.83	✓	0 (CR) - 5.3 (SW)	3.28 (0.58) - 3.55 (0.49)
Scale 'Peer Relationship Problems'	.51-.59	-	1.2 (CR) - 9.5 (SW)	1.87 (0.39) - 1.98 (0.47)
Scale 'Peer Problems'	.56-.64	✓	2.4 (CR/SI) - 8.4 (SW)	1.78 (0.51) - 1.94 (0.51)
Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children - Social Self-Efficacy Scale	.65-.72	✓	0.9 (SI) - 9.3 (SW)	3.58 (0.66) - 3.69 (0.54)
Peer-Estimated Social Intelligence and Empathy	.84-.94	✓	1.2 (CR) - 21.1 SW)	2.78 (0.64) - 2.99 (0.41)
<u>Other-report:</u> Multisource Assessment of Children's Social Competence – Scale 'Cooperation'	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Classroom Climate				
Orderliness of the classroom	.77-.88	✓	0.9 (SI) - 15.1 (SW)	3.20 (0.70) - 3.36 (0.70)
Teacher as Social Context	.90-.91	✓	1.2 (CR) - 14.7 (SW)	2.35 (0.69) - 2.58 (0.65)
Perceived quality of student-teacher relations	.87 - .94	✓	1.3 (CR) - 16.3 (SW)	2.65 (0.63) – 3.22 (0.86)
Perceived quality of student-teacher relations	.63 - .83	✓	0.0 (CR) - 14 (SW)	1.82 (0.83) – 1.95 (0.72)
Inclusive Classroom Climate	.75-84	-	1.2 (CR) - 17.9 (SW)	2.98 (0.52) - 3.29 (0.58)
Social Climate in the Classroom	.68-79	-	1.3 (CR) - 15.1 (SW)	2.49 (0.48) - 2.57 (0.39)
Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire	.85-.92	✓	1.2 (CR) - 15.8 (SW)	1.20 (0.36) - 1.34 (0.42)
Adolescent Discrimination Distress Index	.77-.90	-	1.3 (CR) - 17.4 (SW)	1.61 (0.73) - 1.84 (0.83)
Teachers' Relational Competence Scale	.80-91	✓	1.2 (CR) - 21.1 (SW)	2.78 (0.63) - 2.99 (0.44)
<u>Sociometric Measure</u>	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Table 2 – Part 6: Overview of instruments for the Student Questionnaire (STQ)

Measures	Cronbach's α	EFA	Missings (%)	Distribution *M (SD)*
Intercultural/transcultural competencies				
Attitudes Towards Immigrants	.79-.87	✓	1.3 (CR) - 18.6 (SW)	2.81 (0.69) - 2.99 (0.79)
Critical Consciousness Scale	.46 - .58	✓	1.3 (CR) - 18.6 (SW)	2.35 (0.56) - 2.59 (0.58)
Vignette: Intercultural Awareness	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Measures targeting several areas				
Focus group interviews	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Notes. Instruments printed in black font in the "measures" column are part of the final Field Trial questionnaires. The "pilot" column indicates which of those instruments were tested in the Pilot Study. Instruments or single scales appearing in grey font were excluded after the Pilot Study. In the "range" column, the possible response range for each scale is displayed so that the mean values in the "distribution *M (SD)*" column can be interpreted in relation to it. The values in the "missings (%)" column refer to individual items within a scale: For each scale, a percentage is given for the item with the lowest number of missings and for the item with the highest number of missings (each in a country comparison). The "EFA" column shows whether the factor solution, i.e. the structure across the countries was comparable (= "✓") or inconsistent (= '-').

Table 3 – Part 1: Overview of instruments for the Teacher Questionnaire (TCQ)

Measures	# Items	# Items Field Trial	Pilot	Range	Parallel scale in STQ	Time
Self-Awareness						
Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills (Baer et al., 2004):						
Scale 'Describe'	8	7	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:03
Scale 'Accept without Judgement'	9	9	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:14
Scale 'Act with awareness'	10	10	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:27
Scale 'Observe'	12	7	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:15
Teacher Self-Efficacy (TSE; OECD, 2013a)	12	-	✓	1 - 5		02:13
Self-Management						
Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children (SEQ-C; Muris, 2001) – Scale Emotional Self-Efficacy (ESE)	8	-	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:39
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ; Goodman, 1997; Goodman, Meltzer & Bailey, 1998):						
Scale 'Hyperactivity'	6	-	✓	1-5	✓	00:44
Scale 'Emotional Problems'	7	7	✓	1 - 5	✓	00:47
Social-Awareness						
Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI; Davis, 1980) - Multidimensional assessment of Empathy:						
Scale 'Fantasy'	7	-	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:15
Scale 'Empathic concern'	7	7	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:15
Scale 'Perspective taking'	7	7	✓	1 - 5	✓	00:50
Scale 'Personal distress'	7	-	✓	1 - 5	✓	00:50
Vignette: Social Perspective Taking (Diazgranados et al., 2016)	n.a.	3		n.a.		10:00
Relationship Skills						
Teachers' Relational Competence Scale (TRCS; Vidmar & Kerman, 2016)	11	9	✓	1 - 5	✓	01:13

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Table 3 – Part 2: Overview of instruments for the Teacher Questionnaire (TCQ)

Measures	# Items	# Items Field Trial	Pilot	Range	Parallel scale in STQ	Time
Classroom climate						
Teacher Evaluation of a Positive Climate in the Classroom (Bear et al., 2016)	8	8	✓	1 - 5		01:22
Orderliness of the Classroom (OOC-T; Sullivan et al., 2012; Sullivan et al., 2014)	11	11	✓	1 - 5		02:03
Verbal and physical violence among students (Sullivan et al., 2012; Sullivan et al., 2014)	8	8	✓	1 - 5		01:32
Verbal and physical violence towards the teacher (Sullivan et al., 2012; Sullivan et al., 2014)	5	-	✓	1 - 5		01:01
Intercultural/transcultural competencies						
Critical Consciousness Scale (CCS; Diemer, Rapa, Park & Perry, 2017) – Critical Reflection	10	10	✓	1 - 4	✓	01:07
Reflexivity (Denson et al., 2017)	3	-	✓	1 - 4		
Adaptability/Flexibility (Denson et al., 2017)	17	5	✓	1 - 6		
Professional Beliefs about Diversity Scale (PBDS; Pohan & Aguilar, 2001)	24	-	✓	1 - 4		04:16
Vignette: Intercultural Awareness (Schwarzenthal, 2017)	n.a.	3		n.a.	✓	10:00
Vignette: Intercultural Awareness (own development)	n.a.	3		n.a.		10:00
Culturally Inclusive Teaching Strategies (CITS; Denson, Ovenden, Wright, Paradies & Priest, 2017)	4	4	✓	1 - 4		00:51
Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale for Classroom Diversity (TESCD; Kitsantas, 2012)	17	4	✓	1 - 4		01:53
Measures targeting several areas						
Focus group interviews	n.a.	n.a.		n.a.	✓	
Other measures						
Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS; OECD, 2013b; OECD, 2014)	10	10	✓	1 - 6		01:53

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Table 3 – Part 3: Overview of instruments for the Teacher Questionnaire (TCQ)

Measures	Cronbach's α	EFA	Missings (%)	Distribution M (SD)
Self-Awareness				
Kentucky Inventory of Mindfulness Skills:				
Scale 'Describe'	.73-.93	✓	0.0 (CR) - 22.1 (SW)	3.51 (0.55) - 3.85 (0.60)
Scale 'Accept without Judgement'	.86-.90	✓	1.3 (SI) - 28.4 (SW)	3.28 (0.78) - 3.60 (0.71)
Scale 'Act with awareness'	.75-.83	-	0.0 (CR) - 28.4 (SW)	3.08 (0.50) - 3.57 (0.49)
Scale 'Observe'	.87-.90	✓	0.0 (CR) - 18.9 (SW)	3.49 (0.69) - 3.60 (0.62)
Teacher Self-Efficacy	.70-.87	✓	0.0 (CR) - 69.5 (SW)	3.13 (0.30) - 4.13 (0.42)
Self-Management				
Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children – Scale Emotional Self-Efficacy	.74-.86	✓	0.0 (CR) - 32.6 (SW)	3.28 (0.63) - 3.45 (0.52)
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire:				
Scale 'Hyperactivity'	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Scale 'Emotional Problems'	.86-.88	✓	0.0 (CR) - 31.6 (SW)	2.13 (0.77) - 2.65 (0.77)
Social-Awareness				
Interpersonal Reactivity Index - Multidimensional assessment of Empathy:				
Scale 'Fantasy'	.78-.82	✓	0.0 (SI) - 35.8 (SW)	3.10 (0.70) - 3.32 (0.69)
Scale 'Empathic concern'	.69-.76	-	0.0 (CR) - 34.7 (SW)	3.84 (0.48) - 4.07 (0.56)
Scale 'Perspective taking'	.81-.83	✓	0.0 (SI) - 42.1 (SW)	3.48 (0.54) - 3.75 (0.54)
Scale 'Personal distress'	.75-.84	-	0.0 (SI/CR) - 42.1 (SW)	2.20 (0.63) - 2.78 (0.58)
Vignette: Social Perspective Taking	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Relationship skills				
Teachers' Relational Competence Scale	.79-.92	✓	0.0 (SI/CR) - 66.3 (SW)	3.86 (0.5) - 4.02 (0.44)

Table 3 – Part 4: Overview of instruments for the Teacher Questionnaire (TCQ)

Measures	Cronbach's α	EFA	Missings (%)	Distribution M (SD)
Classroom Climate				
Teacher Evaluation of a Positive Climate in the Classroom	.90-.94	✓	0.0 (CR) - 63.2 (SW)	3.31 (0.58) - 3.58 (0.65)
Orderliness of the Classroom	.87-.88	-	0.0 (CR) - 68.4 (SW)	1.94 (0.74) - 2.62 (0.81)
Verbal and physical violence among students	.84-.88	✓	0.0 (SI/CR) - 65.3 (SW)	1.58 (0.61) - 1.84 (0.69)
Verbal and physical violence towards the teacher	.66-.85	-	0.0 (CR) - 64.2 (SW)	1.06 (0.19) - 1.29 (0.53)
Intercultural/transcultural competencies				
Critical Consciousness Scale – Critical Reflection	.86-.90	✓	0.0 (CR) - 76.8 (SW)	2.51 (0.49) - 2.88 (0.64)
Reflexivity	.84-.88	-	3.6 (CR) - 67.4 (SW)	3.22 (0.49) - 3.36 (0.43)
Adaptability/Flexibility	.62-.84	-	0.0 (CR) - 60.0 (SW)	3.85 (0.45) - 4.18 (0.51)
Professional Beliefs about Diversity Scale	.73-.75	-	4.0 (SI) - 100 (SW)	2.78 (0.30) - 2.92 (0.32)
<u>Vignette:</u> Intercultural Awareness	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
<u>Vignette:</u> Intercultural Awareness (own development)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Culturally Inclusive Teaching Strategies	.7-.9	-	0.0 (SI) - 66.3 (SW)	2.14 (0.72) - 2.42 (0.84)
Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale for Classroom Diversity	.82-.88	-	1.3 (SI) - 70.5 (SW)	2.93 (0.43) - 2.98 (0.51)
Measures targeting several areas				
<u>Focus group interviews</u>	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Other measures				
Job Satisfaction Scale	.83-.88	✓	3.6 (CR) - 76.8 (SW)	4.59 (0.79) - 4.85 (0.76)

Notes. Instruments printed in black font in the "measures" column are part of the final Field Trial questionnaires. The "pilot" column indicates which of those instruments were tested in the Pilot Study. Instruments or single scales appearing in grey font were excluded after the Pilot Study. In the "range" column, the possible response range for each scale is displayed so that the mean values in the "distribution *M (SD)*" column can be interpreted in relation to it. The values in the "missings (%)" column refer to individual items within a scale: For each scale, a percentage is given for the item with the lowest number of missings and for the item with the highest number of missings (each in a country comparison). The "EFA" column shows whether the factor solution, i.e. the structure across the countries was comparable (= "✓") or inconsistent (= '-').

Chapter 7:
Evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme:
Results from questionnaire scales

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Abstract

A principal focus of the evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme is tracing back causal effects on the student and/or school staff programmes. We investigate whether the programme had the expected effects on social, emotional and intercultural competencies (hereinafter SEI competencies) and classroom learning environments. In this chapter, we present results regarding the programme's effectiveness that are based on questionnaire scales from the student and school staff evaluation instrument. These results are part of the experimental outcome evaluation. We compare the experimental groups to the control group in the pre- and post-measurements. Our analysis of the short-term programme effects reveals some of the programme's expected effects in all participating countries. However, many effects in an unexpected direction were also observed. Hence, the HAND in HAND programme may be judged as effective, although its effects are complex and appear to be both positive and negative depending on the specific outcome being examined.

Keywords: external evaluation, quantitative data, programme effects

1. Introduction

The primary aim of the experimental outcome evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme was to investigate whether the programme had effects on social, emotional and intercultural competencies (hereinafter SEI competencies) and classroom learning environments as theoretically expected. The focus of the HAND in HAND programme on fostering SEI competencies was chosen due to the large body of research showing a range of positive outcomes associated with the enhancement of both students' social and emotional competencies (Bierman, Nix, Greenberg, Blair, & Domitrovich, 2008; Cook et al., 2008; Durlak et al., 2011; Elliot, Frey, & Davies, 2015; Malecki & Elliot, 2002; Sklad et al., 2012; Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004) and teachers' social and emotional competencies (Schonert-Reichl et al., 2015). A more detailed review of the literature is presented by Kozina, Vidmar and Veldin (this publication). To foster these competencies, two programmes were developed that target the SEI competencies of students, teachers, principals and school counsellors[1], which are also described elsewhere in this publication (see Jugović, Puzić and Mornar; Jensen and Gøtzsche, both this publication). To evaluate whether we had succeeded in fostering these competencies, an evaluation instrument was used at three different points in time. In this chapter, we only focus on the first two points of measurement – one prior to the programme implementation (T1) and the other post-programme implementation (T2) – and on self-reported measures contained in the questionnaires. For detailed information on how the assessment was developed, see Roczen, Endale, Vieluf and Rožman (this publication).

1.1 The evaluation strategy

The literature on evaluation research (Chen, 1996) distinguishes kinds of evaluations depending on whether the process or the outcome of a programme is being evaluated, and whether it is formative or summative. One focus of the evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme may be categorised as a summative outcome evaluation; that is, tracing back causal effects on the student and/or school staff programmes (see Widmer, 2012; also, Roczen, Endale, Vieluf and Rožman, this

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[1] The HAND in HAND programme for school staff consists of a programme for teachers and a separate programme for school leaders and counsellors that differ in length (more in Jensen and Gøtzsche, this publication).

publication; for an interview-based evaluation complementing this approach see Vieluf, Denk, Rožman and Roczen, this publication).

To estimate the causal effects of the different programmes, the study used a randomised experimental design, with four groups: (A) a control group without any intervention; (B) a group where only the students participated in the programme; (C) a group where only school staff participated; and (D) a group in which both students and school staff took part in the programme. In all four groups, a prior measurement (see Roczen et al., this publication) was conducted. The experimental groups of students and/or their school staff then completed the HAND in HAND programme (the three different programme conditions), followed by a post-measurement directly after finishing the programme. A post-measurement was also made in the control group with a similar distance to the pre-measurement as for the experimental groups. Given that the programme was conducted in three different countries, we have a 4 (groups) x 3 (school systems) x 3 (time points) design.

The focus of this part of the evaluation was to examine the effectiveness of the student and school staff programme. We looked at how far the programme had helped foster the SEI competencies of school staff and students, and succeeded in improving the classroom climate. In this chapter, we present a quantitative analysis of the differences between the control and experimental groups with regard to changes in SEI competencies and classroom climate between T1 and T2.

Our main research question is: Do the manifest difference scores for SEI competencies and school climate between T1 and T2 differ significantly between the control group and experimental groups?

2. Methods

2.1 Target population

The student target population was the same in all four countries, namely 13- to 14-year-olds or grade 8 students. Similarly, the school staff target population was defined as teachers working in grade eight and other school staff in these schools. In addition, only those teachers of the 8th grade class selected for the student programme were invited to participate in the teacher programme. Further,

representatives of the school leadership and other school staff (e.g. counsellors, school social workers, school psychologists, school nurses) at the same schools completed a HAND IN HAND programme for school leaders and counsellors.

2.2 School selection and condition assignment

The experimental procedure was conducted consistently in all countries conducting the HAND in HAND field trial: Croatia, Slovenia and Sweden. For this purpose, each country made a list of eligible schools meeting the criteria of the target group of "schools with a high percentage of students at risk" (e.g. refugee students and/or other students with a migration background, students from other minorities groups such as Roma students and/or other students with disadvantaged backgrounds). Each country developed a unique sampling plan based on the national context. While the Slovenian team concentrated on schools with students who had recently migrated to Slovenia and needed additional hours of support in the Slovenian language (operationalised by the number of extra hours for Slovenian language lessons offered at the school level), the Croatian team placed its emphasis on schools with significant proportions of Roma children, children from families who had migrated from other ex-Yugoslav countries (mainly Bosnia and Herzegovina), and schools with other immigrant children. Sweden mainly considered schools containing many students from a disadvantaged socio-economic background and schools with a larger share of immigrant students.

Slovenia provided a sampling frame of eligible schools (which offered 115 or more extra hours in the 1st and 2nd year), from which 14 schools were randomly sampled (12 plus 2 backup schools[2]). In Croatia and Sweden, the national centres chose the schools based on the criteria described above. In the next step, the study was presented to all of the selected schools by a researcher from the national HAND in HAND team who asked whether the schools were willing to participate in any of the four conditions. After obtaining the consent of the schools, the list of 12 schools was sent to the evaluation team where the schools were randomly allocated to the various conditions. In Slovenia and Croatia, a list of eligible classes was also submitted by the national team and, in these cases, one class within each school was randomly sampled before assigning the condition.

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[2] As two of the initially selected schools refused to participate, two backup schools were included instead.

2.3 Description of the sample

Overall, a total of 815 students, 355 members of school staff from 36 schools participated in the HAND in HAND programme, with Slovenia having the largest sample. In Croatia and Slovenia, the majority of participants responded to the questionnaire at both points in time, T1 and T2 (see Table 1). In Sweden, there was a drop out of about 50 participants in both the student and school staff samples. This is partly due to the drop out of one complete school from the control group after the T1 assessment. Finally, only those that participated at both points in time were included in the analyses. This led to a total sample size of 732 students and 260 school staff members being included in the database. As seen in Tables 2 and 3, the sample sizes are balanced across the treatment groups.

Table 1: Number of participants at different points in time by country

	School staff			Students		
	Slovenia	Sweden	Croatia	Slovenia	Sweden	Croatia
T1 only	17	48	8	3	53	0
T2 only	6	10	6	3	21	2
T1 and T2	128	49	83	265	201	266
Total	151	107	97	271	275	268

Table 2: Number of school staff members participating at both points in time by condition and country

	Slovenia	Sweden	Croatia
Teachers			
Control	32	5	10
Students only	25	6	9
School staff only	19	9	12
Students and school staff	21	10	10
School principals			
Control	4	3	2
Students only	3	4	3
School staff only	6	1	3
Students and school staff	2	3	3

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	Slovenia	Sweden	Croatia
Social workers/school counsellors			
Control	4	5	8
Students only	4	2	8
School staff only	2	1	8
Students and school staff	6	0	7
Total	128	49	83

Table 3: Number of students participating at both points in time by condition and country

	Slovenia	Sweden	Croatia
Control	66	20	69
Students only	63	55	63
School staff only	62	62	67
Students and school staff	74	64	67
Total	265	201	266

2.4 Analysis

The dimensionality of scales was examined by exploratory factor analysis using data from the Pilot Study. The results are presented by Roczen et al (this publication). We used Cronbach's alpha as a measure of internal consistency. The coefficient for most scales in all three countries was higher than $\alpha = 0.7$[3] (for more details, see the evaluation report, available at www.handinhand.si). In this chapter, we present results from all scales included in the questionnaires. We exclude two scales, one from the student population (the *teachers' relational competence* because it was not administered in Sweden) and one from the school staff population (*job satisfaction* because the reliability at T2 for Sweden was below 0.30).

The data collected for the HAND in HAND programme have a multilevel structure with students and school staff being nested within classrooms and schools (although, as data were collected from only one classroom per school, the school and classroom levels coincide), and schools being nested within education systems or countries. This is important to consider in our methodology because students within the same classroom share many unobserved characteristics which

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[3] The following scales had coefficients ranging between $\alpha = 0.6$ and $\alpha = 0.7$: *are act with awareness* in T1 and *efficacy for classroom diversity* in T1 and T2 in Sweden, *adaptability/flexibility* in T1 in Slovenia, *emphatic concern* in T1 and T2, and *efficacy for classroom diversity* in T1 in Croatia.

might influence our statistical analysis. It was difficult to take the school level into account in the analysis: Given the small sample sizes at the school level, it was impossible to use multi-level modelling [according to Maas & Hox (2005) multilevel modelling requires at least about 20 cases on the highest level, but we only have 12 schools per country]. Therefore, we solely analysed effects at the individual level, but at least took account of the multilevel-data structure by correcting standard errors for clustering at the school level. Accordingly, we used linear regression analyses of the student and school staff data to allow us to predict changes in outcome variables with treatment assignments at the individual level.

The scale score for each participant at each point in time was computed as the arithmetic mean of responses to the items of one scale. A scale value was only computed if responses for at least half the items of a scale were available. To assess the size of the effects of the HAND in HAND programmes, we compared *changes in an outcome* across groups of individuals completing the same programme. For this, we calculated the manifest difference score for each participant in a certain outcome variable before and after treatment (i.e., scale score T2 – scale score T1). This difference was used as our dependent variable in regression analysis. As independent variables, a set of dummies was used to reflect the experimental condition each individual was subject to. The baseline or the comparison group was the control group.

All statistical analyses – descriptive analysis and those used for scale construction – were carried out with IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22 for Windows (IBM Corporation, 2013). We performed all regression analyses using the R statistical programming environment (RStudio Team, 2015) and corrected the standard errors for clustering in all analyses. As the national contexts differ and the effects are very heterogeneous across countries all analyses were performed separately by country.

3. Results

In this section, we present results of quantitative analysis of the effectiveness of the HAND in HAND programme. The effects are interpreted as expected or unexpected as defined in Kozina et al (this publication). We first outline the results for Croatia, then for Slovenia and, finally, Sweden. For each country, we begin

by presenting the results for the student sample and then for the school staff sample. The scales are grouped by overarching constructs.

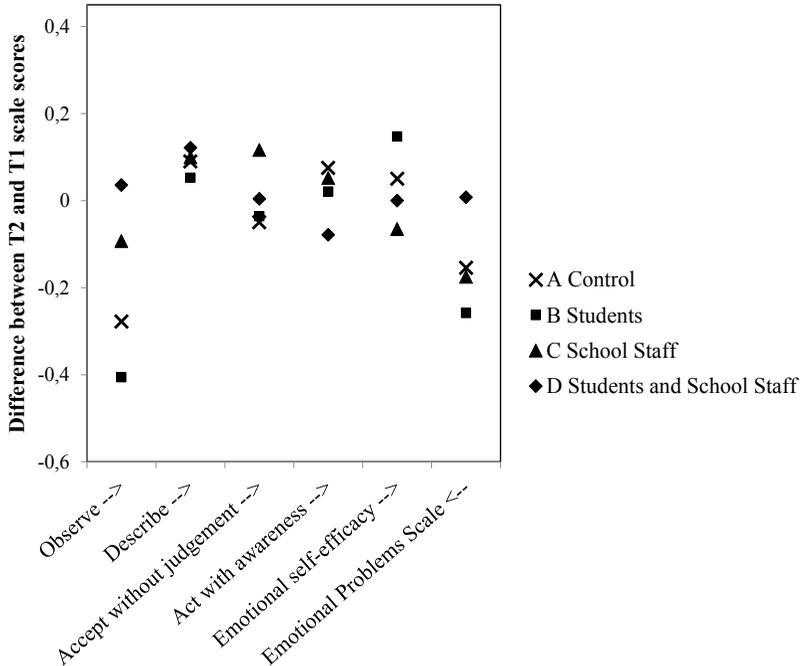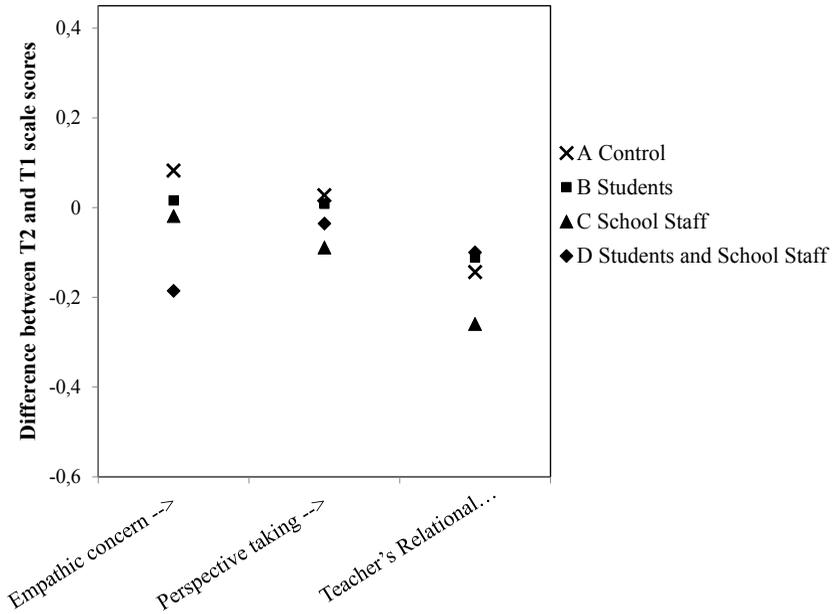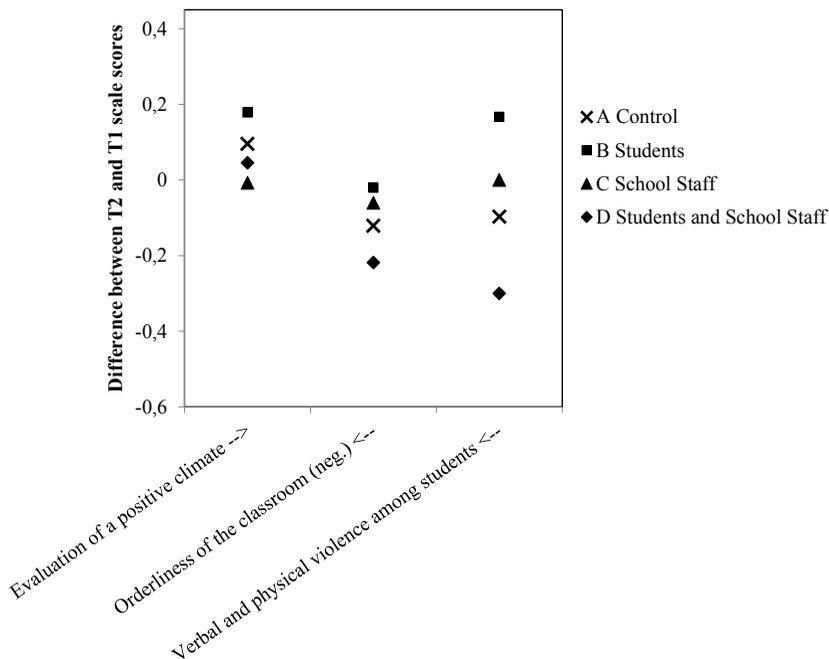## 3.1   Results for the Croatian Sample

Students: Self-awareness
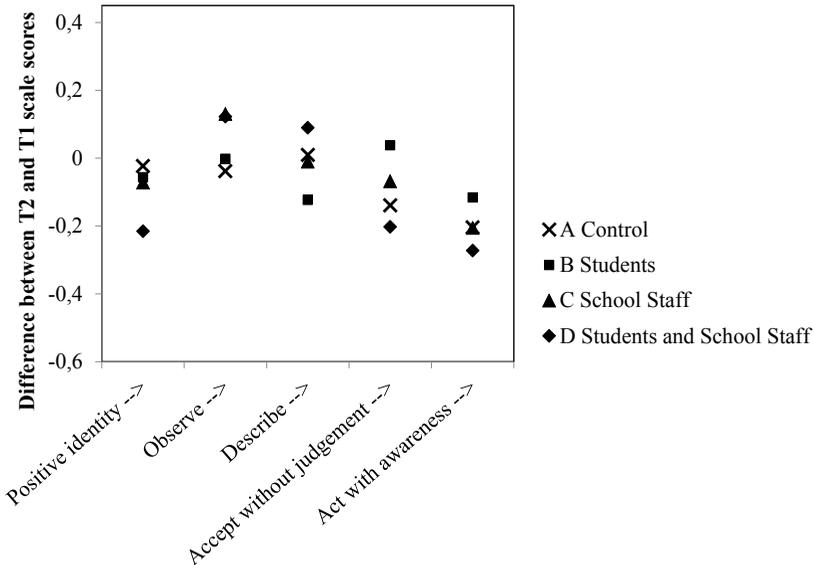
Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 1: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' self-awareness in Croatia

The average differences between groups for scales measuring aspects of self-awareness are shown in Figure 1. Three of the 15 differences between the control group and experimental groups were significant where, of these, one effect is in the expected direction and the other is the opposite to what was expected. This unexpected effect is observed for the scale *positive identity*. The difference in the manifest difference score between the control group and condition D is significant ($t = -3.61$, $p = 0.000$). Students from group D report a lower level of *positive*

identity at T2 than at T1 while the level in the control group does not change between these points in time.

Effects in the expected direction occur with the scale *observe*. The difference scores for conditions C and D significantly differ from the one in the control group (C: $t = 1.98$; $p = 0.049$; D: $t = 2.23$, $p = 0.026$). While the score in *observe* increases for groups C and D between the time points, it does not change much for the control group.
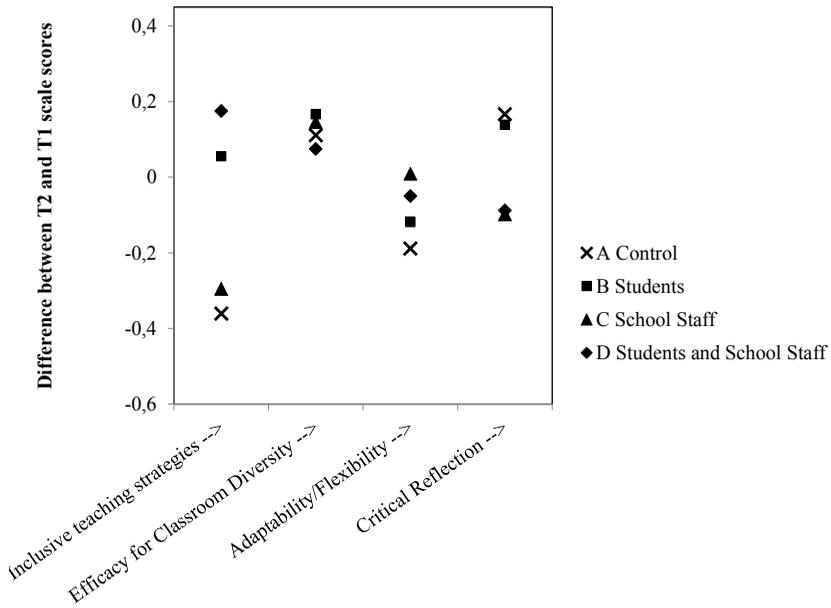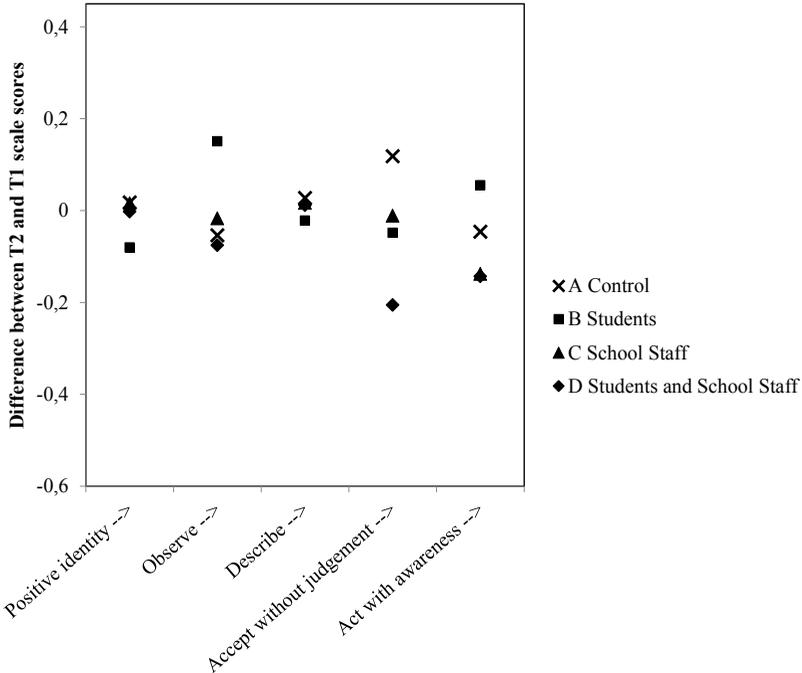
Students: Self-management
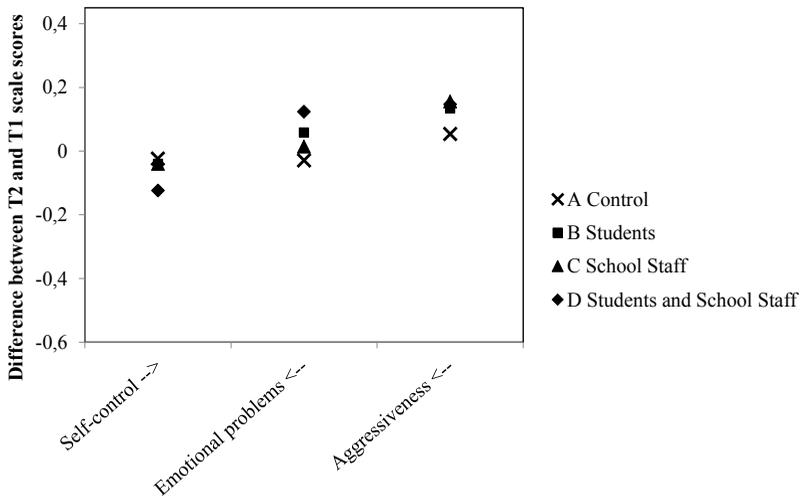
Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 2: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' self-management in Croatia

We found three significant effects in the unexpected direction for the self-management scales in Croatia. The average differences for the groups per scale are shown in Figure 2. In all three scales, group D significantly differs from the control group (*self-control*: $t = -3.02$, $p = 0.003$; *emotional problems*: $t = 4.40$, $p = 0.000$; *aggressiveness*: $t = 2.85$, $p = 0.005$). On the *self-control* scale, in students subject to the condition where students and school staff were exposed to the

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programme on average we observe a larger decrease in scale scores compared to the control group. Students in group D show on average a bigger increase in emotional problems and aggression than in the control group.
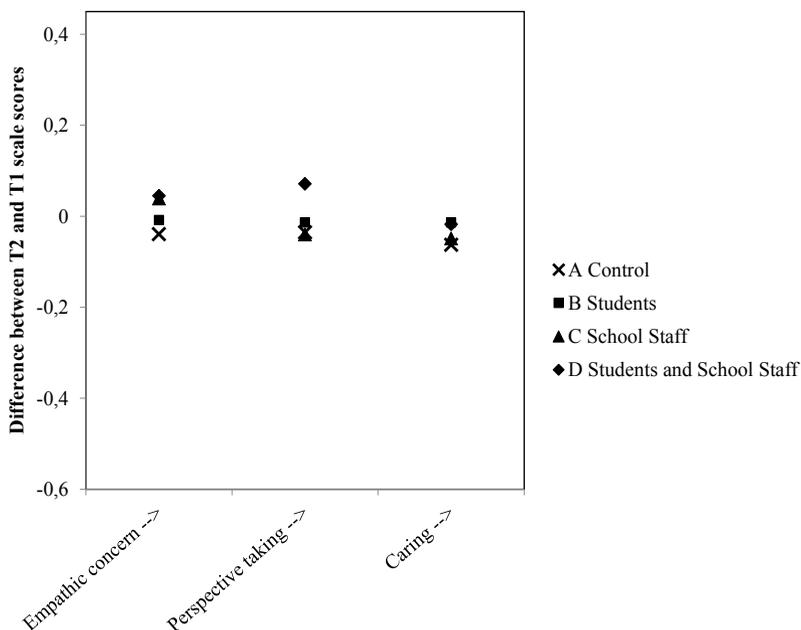
Students: Relationship skills and social awareness

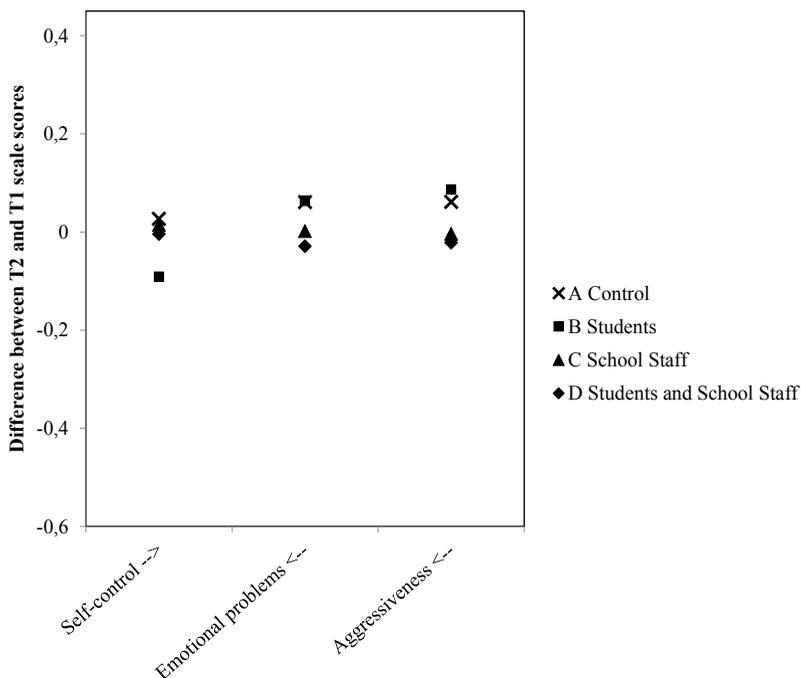*Note:* the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 3: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' relationship skills and social awareness in Croatia

There are no significant effects for the scales that were included to measure relationship skills and social awareness in Croatia between the experimental groups and the control group. The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales are presented in Figure 3.

Students: Classroom climate
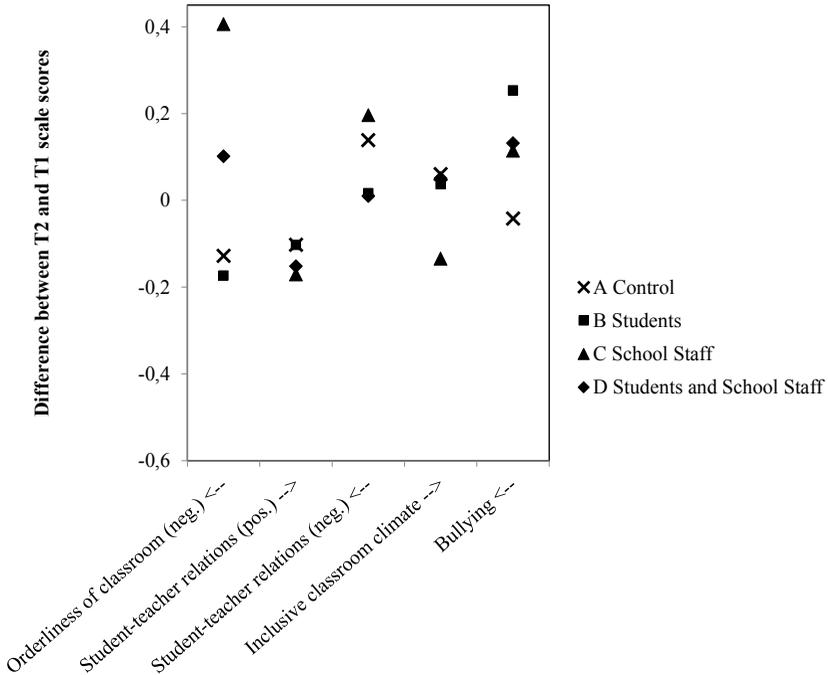
Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 4: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales of classroom climate assessed by the students in Croatia

The average differences between the two time points for the groups and scales that measure classroom climate are given in Figure 4. There is one significant effect in the expected direction: For the *student–teacher relations (negatively-worded items)* scale, the average change in group D between T1 and T2 differs to that in the control group ($t = -2.06$, $p = 0.040$). *Perceived negative relations between students and teachers* in group D does not change between the points in time, while perceptions of negative student–teacher relations rise in the control group.

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There are also several significant effects in the unexpected direction. For *orderliness of classroom (negatively worded),* groups C and D show a significantly larger increase between T1 and T2 than the control group (C: $t = 4.19$, $p = 0.000$; D: $t = 2.76$, $p = 0.006$). Further, *inclusive climate* decreased more in group C than in the control group ($t = -2.13$; $p = 0.034$). Another effect of the treatment was found in the *bullying* scale where the unexpected increase between T2 and T1 was significantly bigger in groups B and C than in the control group (B: $t = 2.45$, $p = 0.015$; C: $t = 2.67$, $p = 0.008$).

Students: Intercultural/transcultural competencies
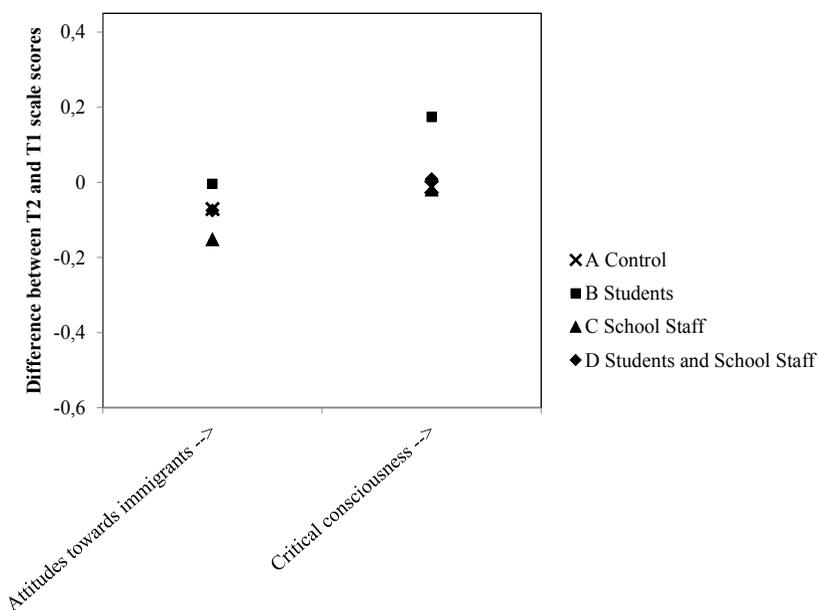
Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 5: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' intercultural/transcultural competencies in Croatia

The average differences between the two time points for the groups and scales that measure intercultural/transcultural competencies are shown in Figure 5. No

significant differences between the control and experimental groups are found for these scales.

School staff: Self-awareness and self-management

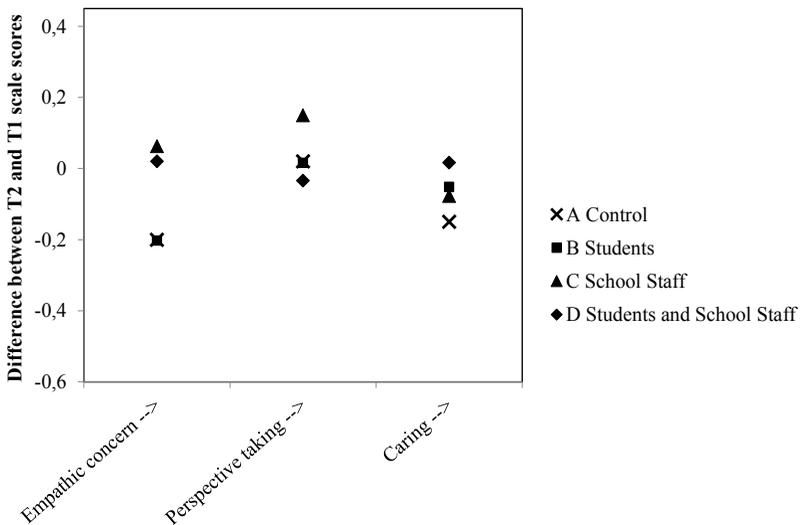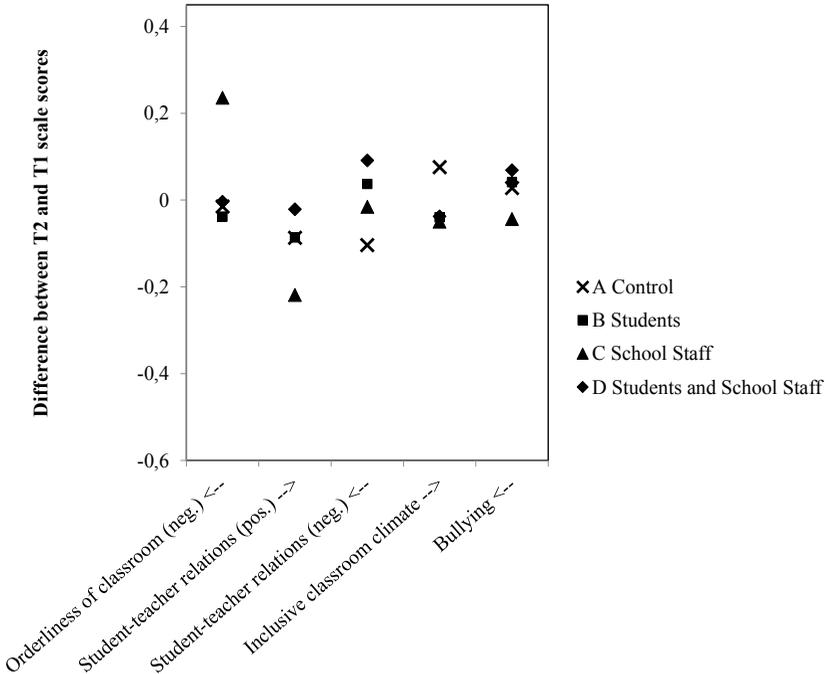*Note:* the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 6: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's self-awareness and self-management in Croatia

Figure 6 presents the average differences between the two time points for the groups and scales for self-awareness and self-management. Only one significant effect can be found in these scales. The effect in the expected direction is found for the *observe* scale in condition D. The difference between T2 and T1 is, on average, larger in condition D than in the control group ($t = 3.05$, $p = 0.003$). Although we observe a decrease between T2 and T1 in the control group, the average scale score in group D does not change.

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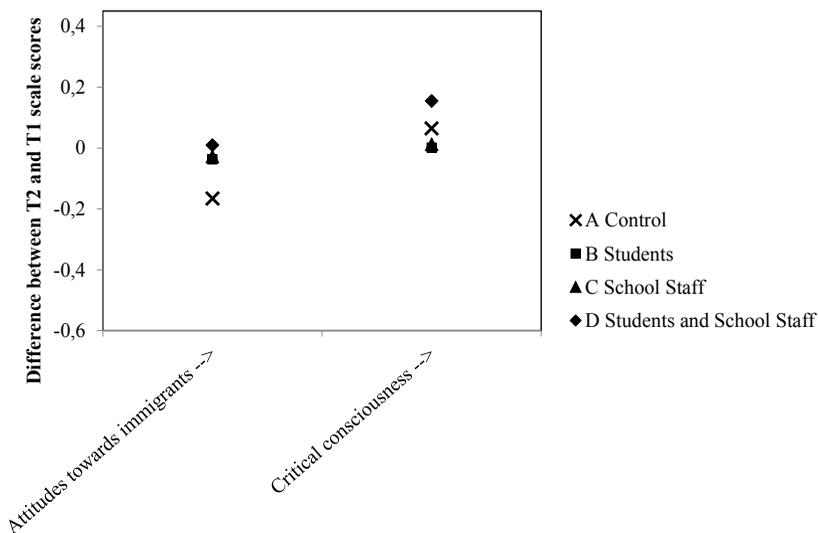*School staff: Relationship skills and social awareness*

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 7: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's relationship skills and social awareness in Croatia

We find one significant effect going in the unexpected direction for relationship skills and social awareness. The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales are presented in Figure 7. A significant unexpected effect was found for *empathic concern* in group D ($t = -2.45$, $p = 0.012$) in comparison to the control group: Empathic concern improves in the control condition but in group D it decreases on average.

School staff: Classroom climate

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 8: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales of classroom climate assessed by the school staff in Croatia

Figure 8 shows the average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure classroom climate. We find no significant effects in any of the school staff responses for the scales measuring classroom climate.

School staff: Intercultural/transcultural competencies

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 9: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's intercultural/transcultural competencies in Croatia

The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure intercultural/transcultural competencies are presented in Figure 9. One significant effect in the unexpected direction is found for *critical reflection*. In group C, there was a decrease in the scale scores whereas in the control group the scores increased from T1 to T2, where the difference is statistically significant ($t = -2.64$, $p = 0.010$).

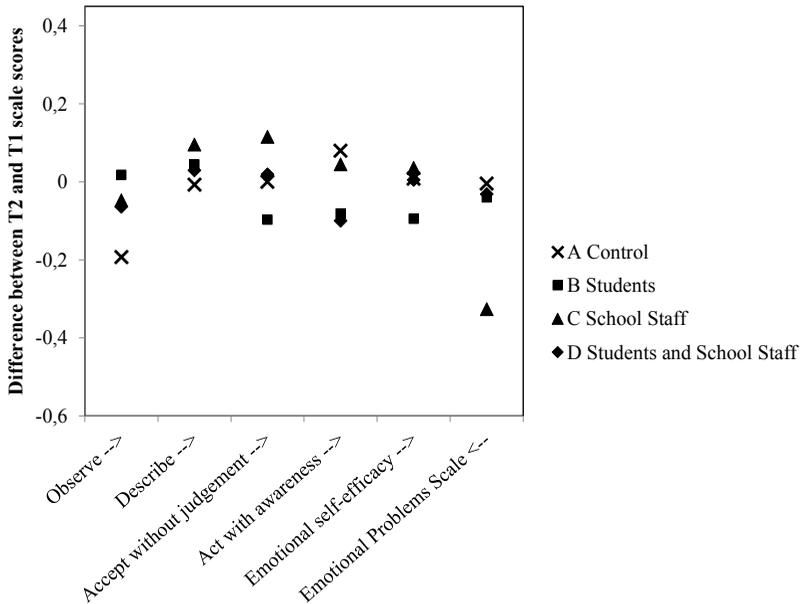### 3.2 Results for the Slovenian Sample

Students: Self-awareness

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

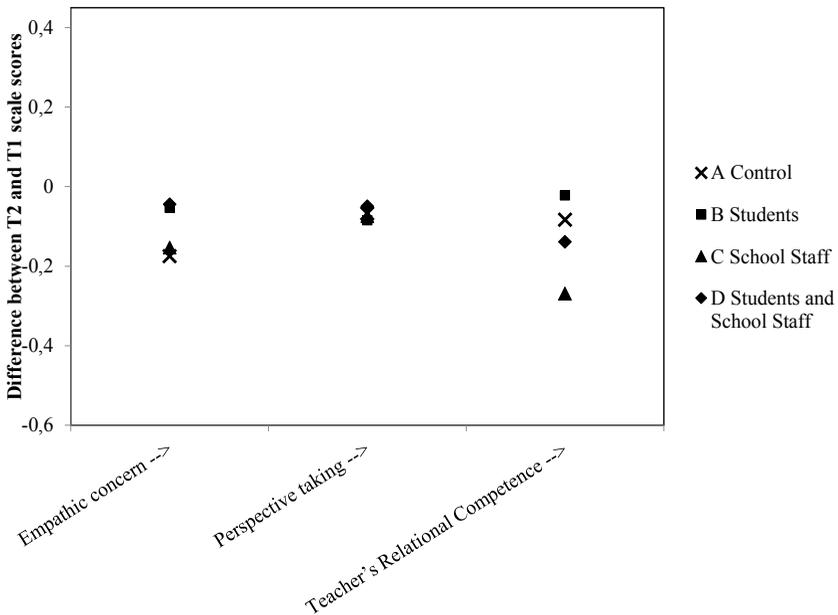**Figure 10:** Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' self-awareness in Slovenia

The average differences between the two time points for the groups and scales that measure self-awareness are shown in Figure 10. In Slovenia, we can observe one expected effect for the *observe* scale. Condition B significantly differs from the control group ($t = 3.36$, $p = 0.001$). In the group that completed the student programme, the increase in the scale between T1 and T2 was larger than in the control group.

Moreover, we find unexpected effects in three scales. For *positive identity*, group B significantly differs from the control group ($t = -2.02$, $p = 0.044$). For *accept*

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without judgement, a significant effect is found in group D (t = -2.20, p = 0.029) and for *act with awareness* in group C (t = -2.08, p = 0.039). The scores in the experimental groups decrease on average, whereas in the control group they do not change much for *positive identity* and *act with awareness,* and increase for *accept without judgement*.

Students: Self-management

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 11: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' self-management in Slovenia

There are two significant effects for the scales targeting self-management in the student questionnaire in Slovenia, one in the expected and the other in the unexpected direction. The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales are presented in Figure 11.

The change in *aggressiveness* goes in the expected direction. In condition D, the change between T1 and T2 is larger than in the control group ($t = -2.06$, $p = 0.040$). On average, the scale score in the control group increased while in condition D it decreased.

We found an effect in the unexpected direction for the *self-control* scale. The change in the scale is significantly larger in group B than in the control group ($t = -4.59$, $p = 0.000$). The scores in group B on average decrease whereas they do not change much in the control group.

Students: Relationship skills and social awareness

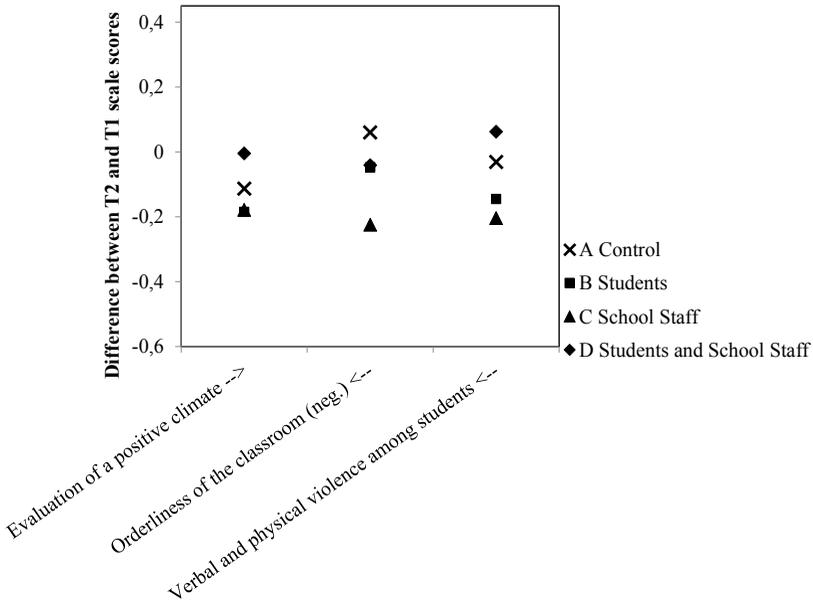*Note:* the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 12: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' relationship skills and social awareness in Slovenia

Figure 12 presents the average differences between the two time points for the groups and scales that measure students' relationship skills and social awareness. We find an effect in the expected direction for *empathic concern*. The changes for groups C and D are significantly larger than in the control group (C: $t = 7.79$, $p =$

0.000; D: $t = 3.30$, $p = 0.001$). While the score in the control group decreases, it stays on a similar level or slightly increases in groups C and D.
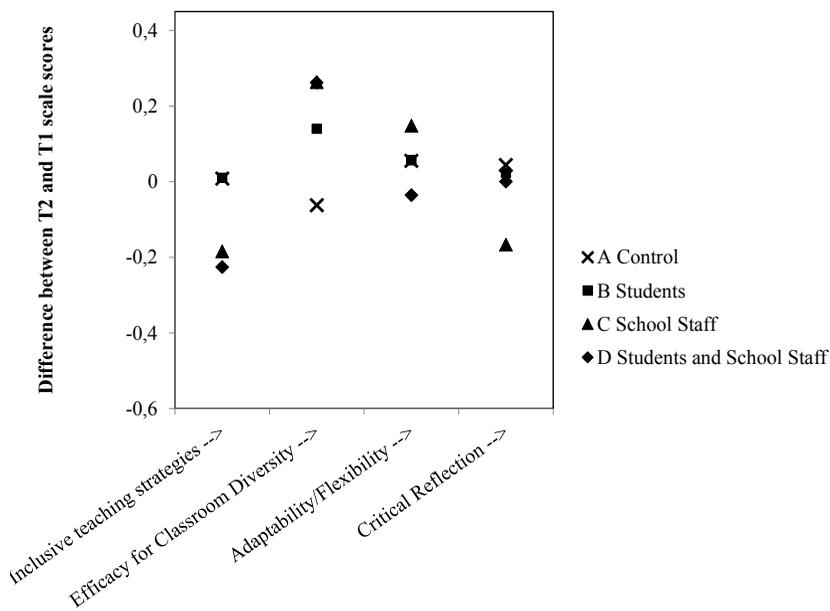
Students: Classroom climate

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 13: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales of classroom climate assessed by the students in Slovenia

The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure classroom climate are shown in Figure 13. One effect is found in the expected direction for *bullying*. The average difference between the two time points is bigger for group C than for the control group ($t = -2.02$, $p = 0.044$). While the scale score increases in the control group and groups B and D, it decreases in group C.

We note two significant effects in the unexpected direction. One is with the *student–teacher relations (negatively-worded)* scale, where the difference between the two time points remains the same or rises in groups C and D, but decreases in the control group. The difference from the control group is significant (C: $t = 2.64$, $p = 0.009$; D: $t = 7.90$, $p = 0.000$). The other effect in the unexpected direction is observed for *inclusive classroom climate*. In the control group, the difference between the two points in time increases, yet decreases in groups C and D. The difference from the control group is significant (C: $t = -2.10$, $p = 0.037$; D: $t = -2.08$, $p = 0.039$).

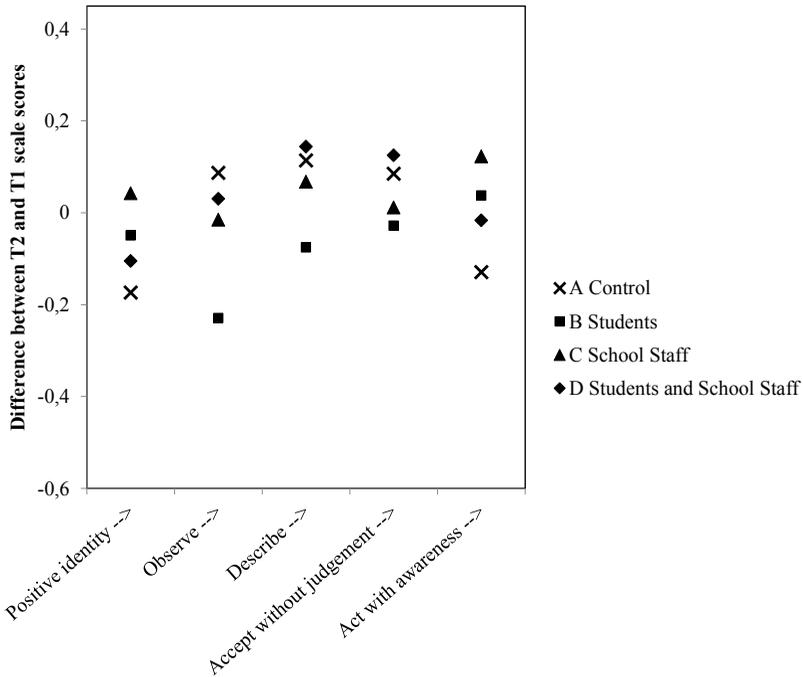### *Students: Intercultural/transcultural competence*

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 14: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' intercultural/transcultural competencies in Slovenia

The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure students' intercultural/transcultural competencies are presented in Figure 14. We establish a significant effect in the expected direction for *attitudes towards immigrants*. The difference between the two points in time is

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significantly larger in groups C and D than in the control group (C: $t = 2.39$, $p = 0.017$, D: $t = 3.70$, $p = 0.000$). While the level of positive attitudes towards immigrants falls from T1 to T2 in the control group, it changes only slightly in experimental groups C and D.

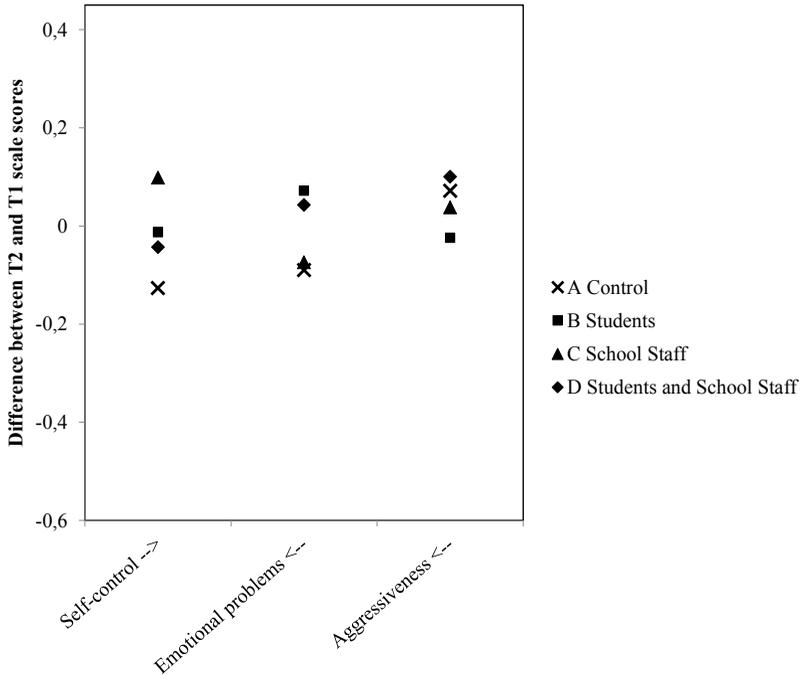### *School staff: Self-awareness and self-management*

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 15: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing self-awareness of the school staff in Slovenia

The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure school staff's self-awareness and self-management are presented in Figure 15. We find a significant effect in the expected direction for the *observe* scale. In condition B, the difference between the two time points is significantly bigger than in the control group ($t = 2.87$, $p = 0.005$). While on average the scale score does not change in group B, it decreases in the control group. Another effect in the expected direction is seen with *emotional problems*. School staff from

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group C show a decrease in emotional problems and this change is significantly different from that observed in the control group ($t = -2.27$, $p = 0.026$).

One effect in the unexpected direction is established for the *act with awareness* scale. While in the control group the difference increases between the two points in time, it decreases in groups B and D. The difference between groups B and D and the control group is significant (B: $t = -2.52$, $p = 0.013$; D: $t = -2.49$, $p = 0.014$).

School staff: Relationship skills and social awareness

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 16: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's relationship skills and social awareness in Slovenia

Figure 16 shows the average differences between the two time points for the groups and scales that measure school staff's social awareness. An effect in the unexpected direction can be observed for *teachers' relational competence* for

group C. Perceived relational competence decreased in group C significantly more than in the control group ($t = -2.22$, $p = 0.029$).

One effect in the expected direction is found for *empathic concern*. The difference is significant for groups B and D in comparison to the control group (B: $t = 2.05$, $p = 0.042$, D: $t = 3.55$, $p = 0.001$). While the scale score decreases in all groups from T1 to T2, it decreases the least in groups B and D.
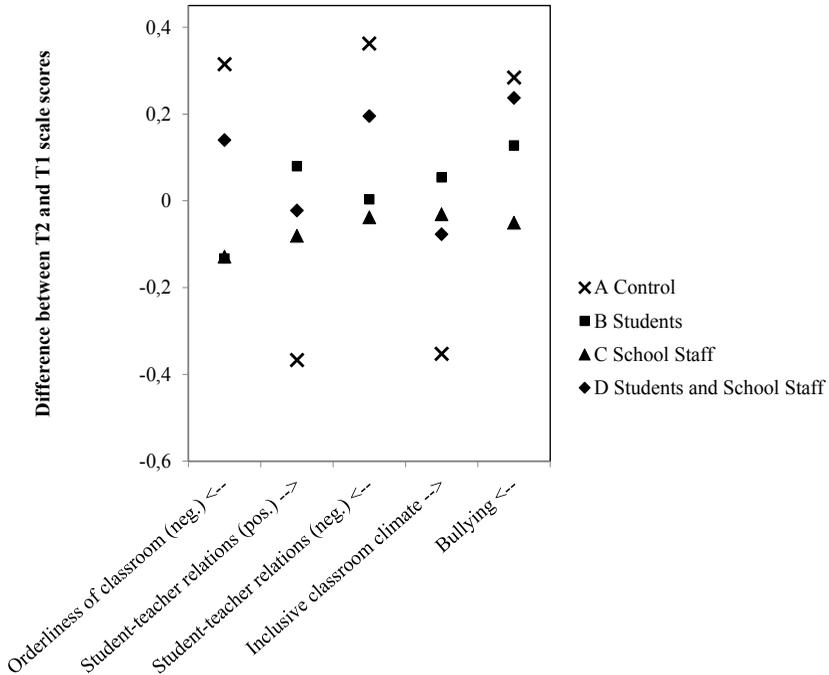
School staff: Classroom climate

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 17: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales of classroom climate assessed by the school staff in Slovenia

We find an expected effect in the scales measuring classroom climate as perceived by the school staff. The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales are shown in Figure 17. The effect in *orderliness of classroom (negatively worded)* is significantly different in groups B and C than in the

control group (B: $t = -2.15$, $p = 0.034$; C: $t = -2.22$, $p = 0.029$). While the perception of orderliness in groups B and D increases (indicated by lower scale scores), it decreases in the control group.

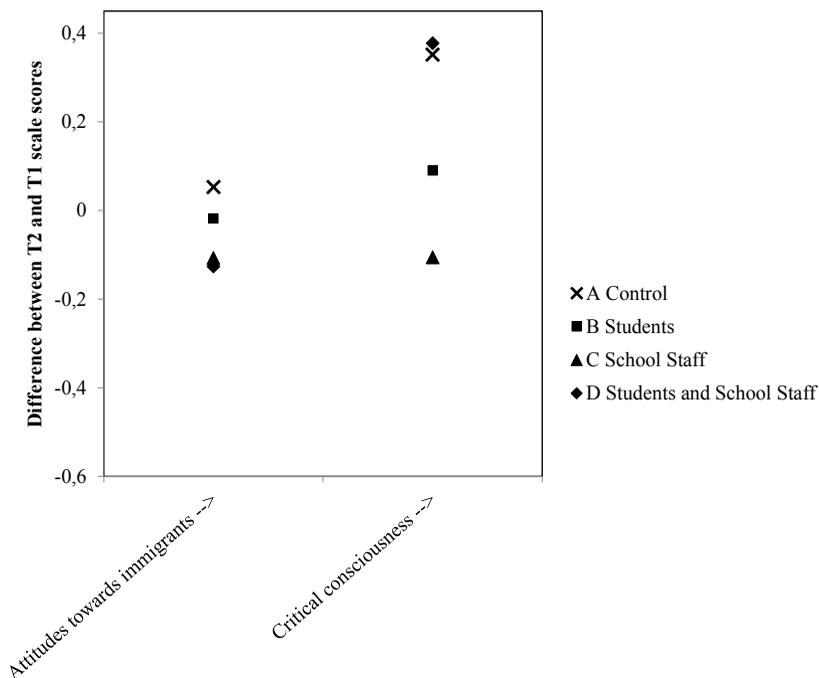### School staff: Intercultural/transcultural competencies

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 18: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's intercultural/transcultural competencies in Slovenia

Figure 18 presents the average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure intercultural/transcultural competencies. On the *efficacy for classroom diversity* scale we find an effect in the expected direction for group D. While in the control group, the reported efficacy decreases slightly from T1 to T2, it increases in all other experimental conditions. The difference between group D and the control group is significant ($t = 4.11$, $p = 0.000$).

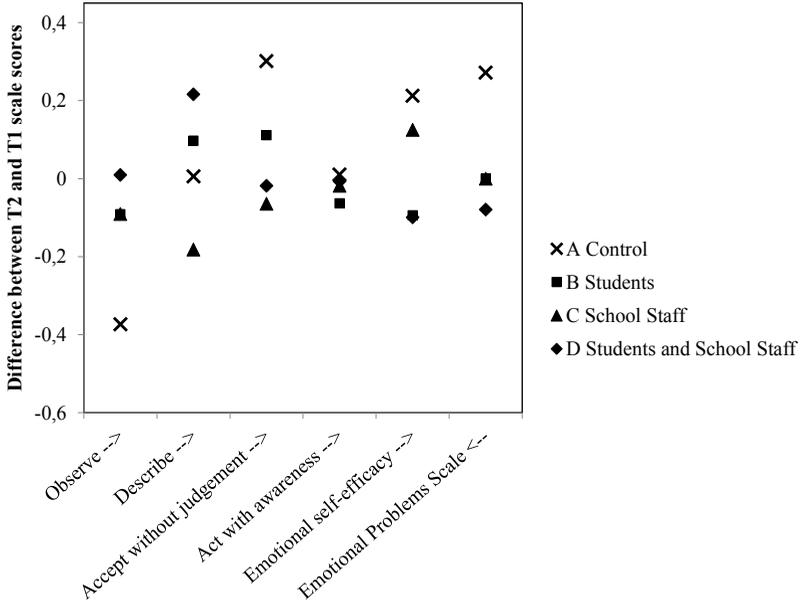### 3.3 Results for the Swedish sample

Students: Self-awareness

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 19: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' self-awareness in Sweden

For the scales measuring students' self-awareness in Sweden, we find two effects in the expected direction and two in the unexpected direction. In Figure 19, the average differences between the two time points are presented. We find significant effects in the unexpected direction for *observe* and *describe* for group B, compared to the control group (*observe*: $t = -4.17$, $p = 0.000$; *describe*: $t = -2.79$, $p = 0.006$). While the scores in the control group increased for both scales, they were lower in group B.

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The effects of the *positive identity* and *act with awareness* scales point in the expected direction. While for students in condition C the average scale scores rise from T1 to T2, they fall in the control group. The difference between condition C and the control group is significant (*positive identity*: $t = 1.99$, $p = 0.048$; *act with awareness*: $t = 2.29$, $p = 0.023$).

Students: Self-management

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 20: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' self-management in Sweden

Figure 20 presents the average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure students' self-management. Students from all experimental groups on average report higher *self-control* at T2 than at T1 and this difference is smaller in the control group. While the average score in the

experimental groups only changes marginally or increases from T1 to T2, it decreases in the control group. The difference between all experimental groups and the control group is significant (B: $t = 2.78$, $p = 0.006$; C: $t = 4.07$, $p = 0.000$; D: $t = 2.58$, $p = 0.01$).

The change between T1 and T2 for the *emotional problems* scale is significant and points in the unexpected direction. For students in group B, we find an increase in emotional problems in T2 compared to T1 whereas the scale score for students in the control group decreases ($t = 4.86$, $p = 0.000$).

Students: Relationship skills and social awareness
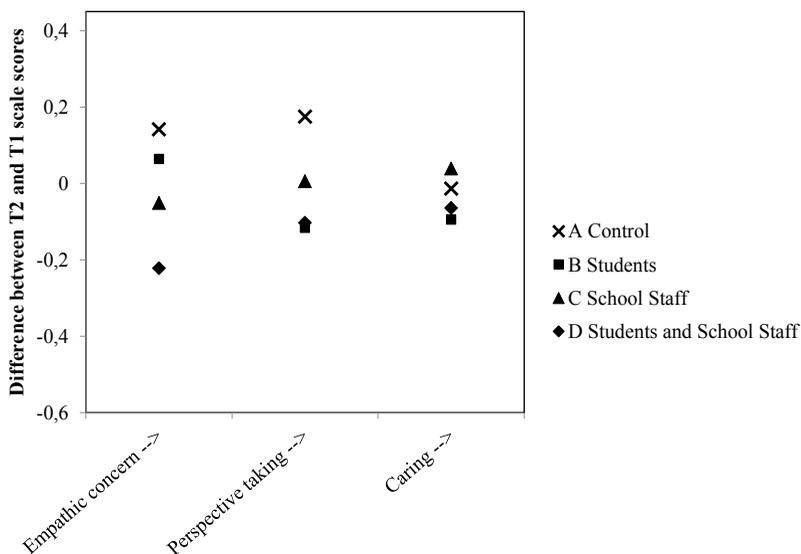
Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 21: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the students' relationship skills and social awareness in Sweden

We find one effect in the unexpected direction for the scales measuring students' relationship skills and social awareness. The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales are shown in Figure 21. The levels of

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empathic concern decrease on average in groups C and D from T1 to T2 but increase in the control group, with the difference being significant (C: $t = -2.24$, $p = 0.026$; D: $t = -4.45$, $p = 0.000$).
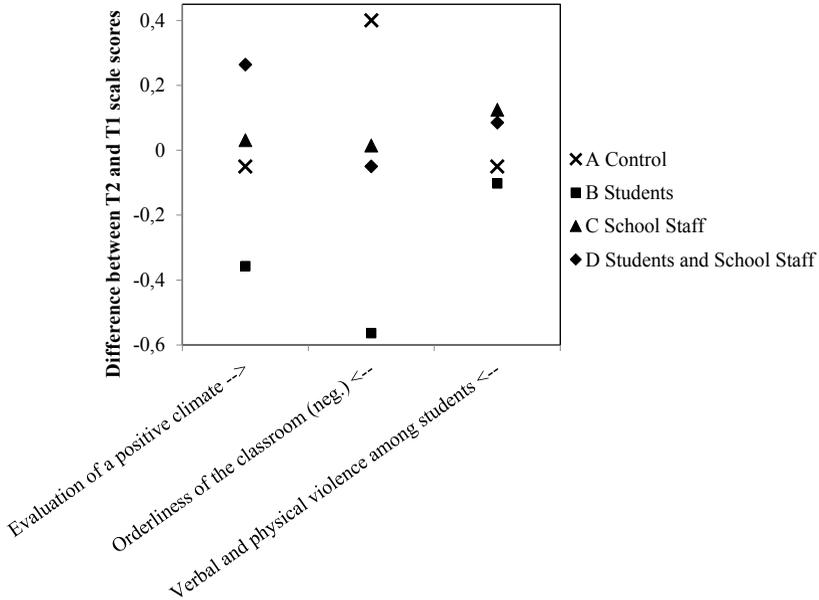
Students: Classroom climate

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 22: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales of classroom climate assessed by the students in Sweden

Figure 22 presents average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure classroom climate as perceived by the students. We find one effect in the expected direction for *orderliness of classroom (negatively worded)*. While the perception of orderliness decreases in the control group (indicated by higher values on the scale), it increases in groups B and C. The difference is significant (B: $t = -4.00$, $p = 0.000$; C: $t = -4.08$, $p = 0.000$).

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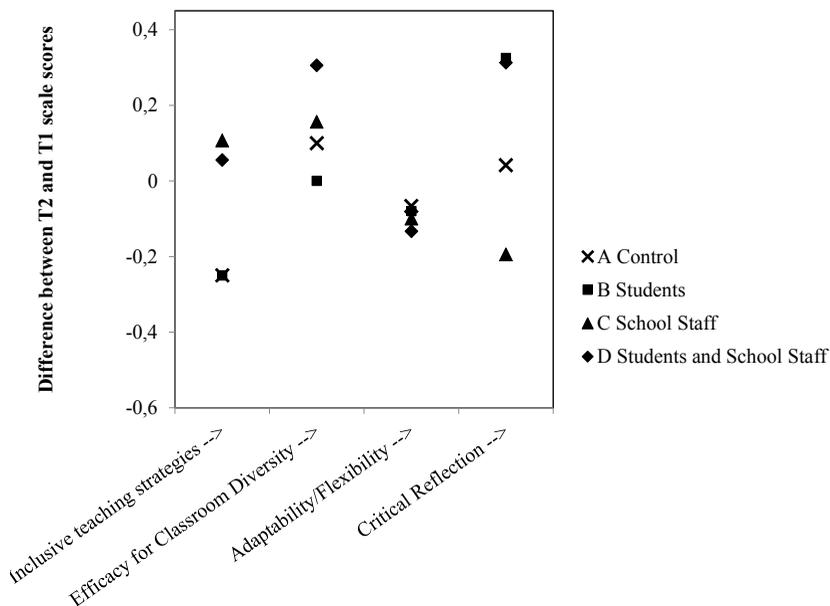## *Students: Intercultural/transcultural competencies*

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 23: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing students' intercultural/transcultural competencies in Sweden

Figure 23 presents the average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure intercultural/transcultural competencies. The effect for the *attitudes towards immigrant* scale goes in the unexpected direction. While the scale scores rise slightly in the control group from T1 to T2, they fall in groups C and D. The difference is significant compared to the control group (C: $t = -2.04$, $p = 0.043$; D: $t = -2.10$, $p = 0.037$).

School staff [4] : Self-awareness and self-management

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 24: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's self-awareness in Sweden

In the scales measuring school staff's self-awareness and self-management in Sweden, one effect in the expected and two in the unexpected direction are found. The average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales are shown in Figure 24. The significant effect in the expected direction is for *observe*. In all experimental conditions, the difference between the two time points is significantly larger than in the control group (B: $t = 2.48$, $p = 0.017$; C: $t = 2.45$, $p = 0.018$; D: $t = 2.45$, $p = 0.018$). While on average the scale score does not

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[4] As shown in Table 2, there was a dropout rate of almost 50% in school staff in Sweden. All results should therefore be interpreted with caution.

change or decreases somewhat in the experimental groups, it decreases more in the control group.

Unexpected effects are found for scales *accept without judgement* and *emotional self-efficacy*. While in the control group the scale scores increase in T2 from T1, they decreased for group C for *accept without judgement* (t = -2.46, p = 0.018). The same holds true for *emotional self-efficacy*. The scale scores in the control group increase while the scale scores for groups B and D decrease. The differences are statistically significant (B: t = -2.44, p = 0.020; D: t = -2.44, p = 0.020).

School staff: Relationship skills and social awareness*Error! Bookmark not defined.*
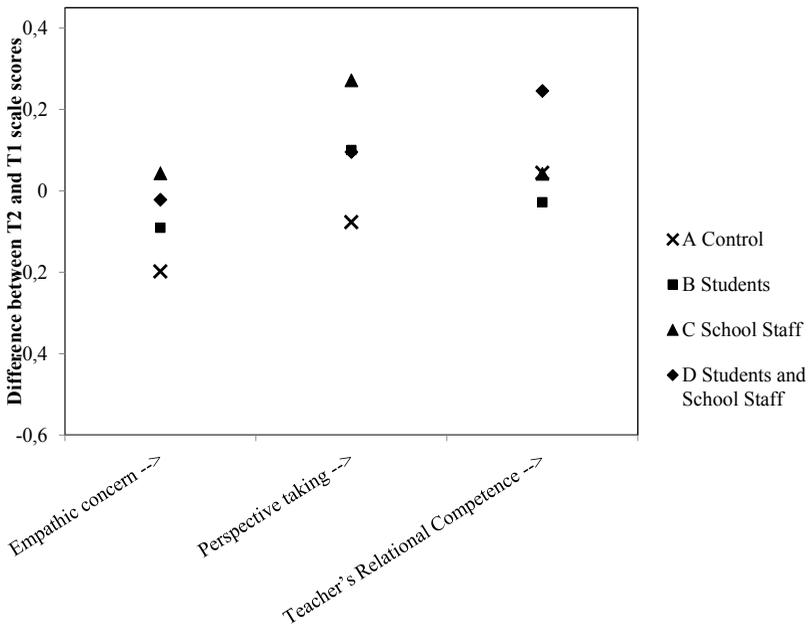
Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 25: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's relationship skills and social awareness in Sweden

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We find no significant effects for the relationship skills and social awareness scales for teachers in Sweden. Figure 25 presents the average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales.

School staff: Classroom climate

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 26: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales of classroom climate assessed by the school staff in Sweden

Figure 26 presents the average differences between the two points in time for the groups and scales that measure classroom climate as perceived by school staff. Two effects in the expected direction are observed. Teachers' observations from group D in T1 and T2 reflect an increase in positive climate from T1 to T2 while in the control group the *evaluation of a positive climate* changes only slightly. The difference is significant ($t = 2.10$, $p = 0.045$). Another effect in the expected direction is found for *orderliness of the classroom (negatively worded)*. Teachers' responses from group B show a higher perception of orderliness in the classroom

from T1 to T2 (indicated by a decrease in scale values) while in the control group the perceived level of orderliness is lower in T2 than in T1 ($t = -5.30$, $p = 0.000$).

School staff: Intercultural/transcultural competencies

Note: the arrow following the scale name on the x-axis points in the direction of the expected effect.

Figure 27: Average difference between T2 and T1 per group for the scales assessing the school staff's intercultural/transcultural competencies in Sweden

Although the mean scale values differ for some groups and certain scales that measure intercultural/transcultural competencies (see Figure 27), the difference between the experimental and control group is not significant.

4. Discussion

The HAND in HAND programme was implemented in three different countries with the goal of building more inclusive classrooms, schools and societies for all

by helping students, teachers and other school staff to develop their SEI competencies. Whether this goal was accomplished was evaluated using a randomised experimental design that compares three different experimental groups with one control group. This chapter presents the results of the comparisons of manifest changes in the outcome variables pertaining to the students and school staff between the experimental groups and the control group.

Overall, we find the programme had mixed effects. There are only slightly more expected effects than unexpected ones in Slovenia and Sweden, and even more unexpected than expected effects in Croatia. Further, the effects are inconsistent across countries and conditions. Only very few effects seem to be more consistent in this regard: For school staff, we find an effect in the expected direction in all countries for the *observe* scale. This scale assesses the observing, noticing or attending to various stimuli, including internal phenomena (cognitions, bodily sensations) and external phenomena (sounds, smells). The interview results presented by Vieluf et al (this publication) also show that those participating in the school staff programme especially liked the inner exercises, where the focus is on observing bodily sensations. Moreover, we find no consistent evidence in support of a whole-school approach because the condition with both student and school staff programme often did not reveal the biggest change in the scale scores. We also find no systematic evidence suggesting one particular programme (i.e. student vs. school staff programme) was more effective in terms of our outcome criteria than the other.

We believe some of the unexpected effects should be interpreted with caution. For example, the negative effect on *emotional problems* and *bullying* for students might mean that after the programme students are more aware of the behaviour and actions, which they assess more critically or realistically than before. This interpretation is supported by the finding of an effect in the expected direction for the *observe* scale for students and school staff in most countries following the programme. Another possible interpretation of negative effects is that some unexpected events occurred between the two time points. We know from the implementation questionnaire about a class in one country that one student experienced a stressful personal event which was discussed in the class before one of the sessions. Since only three schools (classes) represent one condition, events like this can already produce an effect on the overall difference score for a condition in a country. In addition, we have no detailed information about potential activities

that could have had an impact on the results in this group. However, a negative effect of the programme also cannot be completely rejected.

Notably, the results of this evaluation vary substantially across the three countries, suggesting effect-heterogeneity at the country level – which may be explained by the fact that different trainers implemented the programme in different countries. The countries also applied different sampling strategies. Moreover, characteristics of the three education systems as well as the school characteristics (the school samples were small and unrepresentative of the target population for each country) may have played a role.

Limitations

The data arising from the HAND in HAND programme are not exempt from technical limitations. First, the sample sizes collected are quite small, particularly for the school staff population. This makes statistical inferences more challenging because detecting significant differences becomes more unlikely. In addition, the teachers cannot be analysed separately from other school staff as their sample is too small. In this case, two variations of the school staff programme are evaluated together (the longer teacher programme and the shorter programme for school leaders and other school staff). Further, in Sweden and Croatia the schools self-selected for the programme (a convenience sample), holding important implications for the external validity of the results. In Sweden, the drop-out rate during the programme was also relatively high; therefore, special caution should be taken when interpreting the school staff results.

Finally, this quantitative analysis is just one of many components of the HAND in HAND evaluation. The results presented here should be combined with a comprehensive qualitative analysis and complemented by country-specific information. We thus suggest that all the conclusions should be seen within a national context, while noting that a more detailed evaluation (including also T3 data) can be found in the Evaluation report (available at www.handinhand.si).

Conclusion

The HAND in HAND programme aims to build more inclusive classrooms, schools and societies for all. The programme's effects described in this chapter

were assessed using self-reported measures of different constructs. After analysing the short-term programme effects, we find some programme effects on self-reported SEI competencies in all three participating countries. Yet, many effects on these outcomes that were in the opposite direction were also observed. Hence, some competencies improved more in the experimental groups than in the control group – according to participants' self-reports, but others improved more in the control group than in the experimental groups. It may be that a longer programme is needed to bring about consistent changes in SEI competencies. It could also be that the measures used to assess the selected constructs were not sensitive enough to detect these kinds of changes. In any case, it should be noted that schools are complex systems and that triggering change in these complex systems might depend on many contextual factors that are impossible to control for in small experimental studies. The data obtained in this study give initial insights into the effects of the HAND in HAND programmes, although the effects should be studied in greater detail and complemented with information from other available sources (e.g. qualitative data).

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Chapter 8:
How do the participants evaluate the
HAND in HAND programme?
Results of semi-structured focus group interviews

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Abstract

This chapter summarises and discusses how participants evaluated the HAND in HAND programme. It is based on responses to two questions asked during semi-structured focus group interviews which comprised part of a more comprehensive evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme. The findings complement the experimental outcome evaluation described by Rožman, Roczen, and Vieluf (this publication) but they also serve a formative purpose, i.e. to help identify the starting points for improving the programme. In terms of the summative outcome evaluation, the results show that many participants liked the programme (particularly the teachers, less so the students) and that the programme had positive short-term effects on the participants' mood and on the group atmosphere in several groups. However, only a few participants observed long-term effects. One reason for the latter finding may be that many school staff groups reported difficulties in implementing exercises, practices or ideas from the programme within their everyday pedagogical practice. Hence, the programme could probably gain from including longer-term support with respect to implementation. Other suggestions for improvement derived from the interviews are designing the intervention according to a real 'whole-school' approach and better supporting the autonomy of students.

Key words: evaluation, summative, formative, semi-structured focus groups interviews, intervention

1. Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the results of semi-structured focus group interviews asking about participants' views of the HAND in HAND programme. The interviews formed part of a more comprehensive external evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme. Such a formal evaluation may be defined as "a form of 'disciplined inquiry' (Lincoln & Guba, 1986; p. 550) that applies scientific procedures to the collection and analysis of information about the content, structure and outcomes of programmes, projects and planned interventions" (Clarke & Dawson, 1999; p. 1). Evaluations usually aim to determine the worth or value of something (e.g., Scriven, 1967). Many evaluations also aim to help "people make wise decisions and choices about future programming" (Weiss, as cited by Clarke & Dawson, 1999; p. 2). These two functions of evaluations are often called "summative" and "formative" (Black & Wiliam 2003; Wiliam & Thompson, 2008). Another distinction frequently made in the literature concerning evaluation is that between the evaluation of inputs, processes and outcomes (e.g. Chen, 1996; Kuper, 2005). In the 20th century, a strong focus was given to summative outcome evaluations with strict experimental designs, i.e. analysing whether an intervention had causal effects on predefined outcomes. Yet, this focus has attracted criticism, e.g. for its one-sided epistemological perspective, for its neglect of processes, and for its distance from stakeholders and subjects (e.g. Abma, 2006; Greene, 1988; 2001; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Stake, 1975). For example, Denzin (2001) noted that social programmes intended to improve people's lives are often based on understandings that "bear little relationship to the meanings, interpretations, and experiences of the persons they are intended to serve" (p. 3). In his outline of a responsive evaluation, Stake (1975) also emphasised the importance of taking account of the participants' perspectives so as to obtain a deeper understanding of an intervention's effects.

In the evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme[1], different strategies were combined: an experimental outcome evaluation and an interview-based

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[1] This chapter refers to the external outcome evaluation (summative and formative) which was undertaken by the project partners who were not directly involved in the HAND in HAND Field Trials. There was also an internal process evaluation which is described in detail by Rasmusson, Oskarsson, Eliasson and Dahlström (this publication) and by Nielsen (this publication). However, it should be noted that during the process of finding agreement on the scope of the external evaluation and on the key evaluation questions, the external evaluation team became involved in discussions about the „core constructs" and about the inclusion of single exercises into the

evaluation, a summative and a formative approach, along with quantitative and qualitative data analysis. In this way, and so as to avoid the one-sidedness criticised in earlier evaluation research, the evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme referred to various epistemologies and methodologies to assess and improve both the outcomes and the processes of the programme. A randomised control control group experiment with pre-post and follow-up measurements had the aim to find out whether the HAND in HAND programme had actually served the purpose it was developed for: fostering the social, emotional and intercultural (SEI) competencies of students, teachers and other school staff and, mediated through this improvement, to improve classroom climates in the participating schools. Some results of this experiment are presented by Rožman et al. (in this publication). Complementing this part of the evaluation, semi-structured focus group interviews with groups of all participants (students, teachers and school leaders together with other school staff[2]) allowed the perspectives and experiences of different stakeholders to be accounted for in the "overall judgement of [the] program in terms of its merit or worth"[3]. The participants' responses to the semi-structured interview questions inform how they evaluate the programme and which criteria are relevant in their judgement and how these relate to the criteria predefined by the researchers/the contracting entity. The semi-structured focus group interviews also give a basis for a formative evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme; namely, for identifying ways to improve it. During the interviews, participants reported what they had perceived as challenging or what they disliked during the programme. In this way, insights into the experiences and perspectives of those people the HAND in HAND programme is ultimately intended to serve – the students, teachers and other school staff – were obtained. This chapter summarises some of the results and draws summative and formative conclusions about the outcomes and processes.

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programmes. The other way around, some of the programme developers also suggested assessment scales for constructs used as outcome criteria in the external outcome evaluation when these constructs fell into their field of research expertise. This continuous cooperation and coordination between the external evaluators and the programme developers inevitably blurred the line between internal and external evaluation to a certain extent.

[2] The trainers' perspective was also taken into account. They received an online questionnaire with open (and a few Likert-type) questions asking about their experiences after each programme session. The results are reported in Nielsen (this publication).

[3] This is how Chen (1996, p. 125) defined summative outcome evaluations.

2. Method

In the following, the interview procedure, the sample and the methods of analysis are described.

2.1 Interview procedure

The three participant types – students, teachers and school leaders/other school staff – were group-interviewed separately in each participating school by researchers from the national HAND in HAND teams (but not by those who had served as trainers). Each respective interview group consisted of two to eight interviewees (students or teachers or school leaders/other school staff) plus one or two researchers. The interviewees were randomly chosen from the group of HAND in HAND programme participants (often all school leaders/other school staff and teachers who had participated in the HAND in HAND programme were interviewed, but only between one-quarter and one-third of the students in each class that had participated in the programme). Based on the focus group methodology (Johnston, Weaver, Smith & Swallow, 1995; Vaughn, Schumm & Sinagub 1996; Kaplowitz & Hoehn, 2001), the participants were "guided by a certain set of questions that enable[d them] to interact and build on each other's replies and reactions" (Ohene-Nyako, 2019, p. 105). These guiding questions helped ensure the interviews remained focused on the programme. At the same time, the guidelines were flexible enough to give room for explications of viewpoints and own experiences of the interviewees (e.g. Kuper, 2005). The group procedure also allowed for the emergence of manifold response patterns in a single interview that complement or contrast each other. The interview guidelines included up to nine open questions, with several sub-questions. However, due to space limits this chapter is based on the responses to just two broad questions:

1. How did you like the HAND in HAND programme overall? (students) / How would you evaluate the HAND in HAND programme overall? (teachers and school leaders/other school staff)
2. Were there any activities or topics that were uncomfortable for you and which types of activities or topics did you not like so much and why? (students) / What did you experience to be challenging for yourself in the programme? (teachers and school leaders/other school staff).

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The researchers gave the participants room to answer these two and all the other questions openly in an interactive group setting. The time limit for each group-interview was 45 minutes. To document the participants' responses, the researchers took notes during the interviews. Some researchers were also able to record the interviews and use those recordings to subsequently transcribe the them. Hence, literal transcriptions exist for some interviews, but only notes taken in-vivo for others.

2.2 Participants

Interviews were carried out separately with three different stakeholder groups: students, teachers, and school leaders together with other school staff (this includes school psychologists, counsellors, school social workers, teachers for special needs, school nurses and principal assistants). Hence, three interviews were conducted in each of the 36 schools that had participated in the HAND in HAND experiment (theoretically this would amount to 108 interviews, but a few interviews could not take place). The 36 schools were further located in 3 different countries (12 schools per country) and, within each country, distributed over 4 experimental groups:

A) the control group;

B) an experimental group where only the student programme had taken place (but not the teacher programme or school leader/other school staff programme);

C) an experimental group where only the teacher and the school leader/other school staff programme had taken place (but not the student programme); and

D) an experimental group where all three programmes were completed (the student programme, the teacher programme, and the school leader/other school staff programme).

Since this chapter aims at describing how the participants evaluated the programmes, only interviews with those participants who actually participated in one of the programmes are included. Interviews with the control group were excluded as well as interviews with students in schools where only the teacher and school leader/other school staff programme had been completed and with teachers and

school leaders/other school staff in schools where only the student programme had been completed. All in all, our analysis is based on 52 interviews. Table 1 shows how they are distributed across the stakeholder groups, experimental conditions, and countries.

Table 1: Participants in the semi-structured focus group interviews

Experimental group:	Croatia			Slovenia			Sweden			Total
	S	T	SL/OSS	S	T	SL/OSS	S	T	SL/OSS	
A: control group	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
B: only student programme	3	-	-	3	-	-	3	-	-	9
C: only teacher and school leader/other school staff programme	-	3	3	-	3	3	-	3	3	18
D: student, teacher and school leader/other school staff programme	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	25
Total	6	6	6	6	6	5	6	6	5	52

2.3 Analysis

Our analysis of the responses to the semi-structured focus group interviews aimed to understand the perspectives of the participants, i.e. the students, teachers, school leaders and other school staff. To this end, inductive ('bottom-up') coding was used, i.e. codes were developed from the material instead of using predefined codes. This coding stayed close to the material; in many cases, *in-vivo codes* were used. In the second step, the codes were summarized into thematic categories. In step three, the number of semi-structured focus group interviews in which these thematic categories appeared, were counted. Finally, quotes from the interviews were selected to illustrate the thematic categories.

3. Results

Our presentation of the results of the semi-structured focus group interviews with the HAND in HAND programme participants is structured by two broader questions: 1. How did the participants evaluate the HAND in HAND programmes? 2. What did the participants find challenging about the programmes? Since students, teachers and school leaders/other school staff play different roles in schools and, therefore, hold fundamentally different perspectives on school-based programmes, they were interviewed separately and thus analyses for these three stakeholder groups are also presented individually.

3.1 How did the participants evaluate the HAND in HAND programme?

During the semi-structured focus group interviews, students were asked: How did you like the HAND in HAND programme overall? Similarly, both teachers and school leaders and other school staff were asked: How would you evaluate the HAND in HAND programme overall? Responses to these questions are summarised below.

3.1.1 Students

Four of the 18 student groups (22%) had a positive overall evaluation of the HAND in HAND student programme. These four groups stated the programme was "*fun*", "*interesting*" or "*innovative*". Eight (of the 18 groups, i.e. 44%) gave the programme a mixed evaluation. These groups, for example, stated that "*some exercises were fun, but others were boring*", that the programme was "*interesting*" but that they "*had expected more*", or that the programme was "*okay*". A mixed evaluation might also imply that some students within the interview group found the programme better than others. In 1 of the 18 student groups (6%), students had a largely negative evaluation. This group called the programme "*childish*", "*not serious enough*" and "*boring*". Finally, 4 of the 18 groups (22%) only made specific comments and did not provide an overall evaluation. Hence, the students' evaluations were mostly mixed. Many students found the programme 'ok', but were not enthusiastic about it. Still, different students liked the programme better than others and there were also a few students who expressed dislike.

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When students gave reasons for their positive evaluations, they often argued that the programme had been "*fun*" (5 out of 18, i.e. 28%) or referred to the programmes' "*interestingness*" (4 out of 18. i.e. 22%). Further, 3 groups (out of 18, i.e. 17%) argued that the programme was, at least, better than regular lessons. Related to this, one group liked the fact there was no need to sit still during the programme, that they had the opportunity to express their opinion, that they did not have to study, and that they were not given grades. Two groups (out of 18, i.e. 11%) appreciated that the programme had helped with connecting with classmates and two groups (out of 18, i.e. 11%) said that it was relaxing. Finally, one Croatian group (out of 18, i.e. 11%) stated: "*There are many things that can be learned from the HAND in HAND programme, like how to deal with conflicts and violence, about emotions like loneliness and others*".

Negative evaluations sometimes referred to the "*boringness*" of individual exercises (4 out of 18, i.e. 22%). Three groups (out of 18, i.e. 17%) believed the programme was not adapted to their level of maturity and knowledge, i.e. that the exercises were "*childish*" or that they already "*knew many of these things that were taught during the programme*".

3.1.2 Teachers

The teacher evaluations of the programme were considerably more positive than those the students. Fourteen out of 18 teacher groups (i.e. 78%) agreed on a positive overall evaluation of the HAND in HAND teacher programme. These groups called the programme "*good*", "*interesting*", "*useful*", "*an excellent experience*" or "*the best training so far*". One group said that it "*worked well*", another that they "*liked*" the programme or "*really enjoyed*" it. Four out of 18 groups (22%) gave the programme a mixed evaluation. Teachers in these groups said positive things in response to the question of how they evaluated the programme overall, but also voiced some criticism. No evaluation was clearly negative.

In response to the question about their overall evaluation of the programme, teachers mentioned a variety of evaluation criteria. First of all, the majority of teacher groups (11 out of 18, i.e. 61%) substantiated their positive evaluations of the HAND in HAND programme with their liking of its specific focus. In fact, many teacher groups found this focus quite unusual (7 out of 18 groups mentioned this, i.e. 39%), in particular, teachers in Croatia. For instance, one teacher stated that it

had been the first programme that was "*focused primarily on the empowerment of the teachers*". Another teacher said: "*It really seemed important to me that the focus was also on the teacher*". It is noticeable that something about the programme made some teachers feel recognised in a way that was apparently exceptional, as best illustrated by the following quote: "*That was what I liked about this programme: One felt important*".

Apart from the focus, many teacher groups also commented positively on the content and design of the HAND in HAND programme: Half the teacher groups (9 out of 18, i.e. 50%) mentioned the exercises were useful. For example, one teacher said: "*it was applicable in the classroom, but we also learnt the techniques for self-awareness and personal growth which we as teachers need as it is a stressful job*". Another teacher stated: "*There were new exercises that felt applicable to the school and that can be used in everyday life*". In addition, 3 groups (out of 18, i.e., 17%) emphasised that they had become familiar with a variety of exercises. An example statement is: "*It was a good mix of exercises, group strengthening, physical, relaxation. A good package*". Nine teacher groups (out of 18, i.e. 50%) also liked that the programme had a hands-on approach. Three groups (out of 18, i.e. 17%) positively viewed the programme for not being presented as a fixed sequence of exercises, but as a fund of ideas, exercises and techniques from which they could choose whichever seemed most suitable for their situation and purpose.

The implementation of the programme also attracted many positive comments: Seven teacher groups (out of 18, i.e. 39%) mentioned they appreciated the positive atmosphere during the programme. For example, one teacher said: "*The atmosphere was relaxed, we were very relaxed at the programme too*". Another stated: "*It was a good feeling and an atmosphere of acceptance*". As these quotes indicate, several teacher groups also said the programme made them feel good (6 out of 18 groups, i.e. 33 %; all in Slovenia). For example, one teacher said: "*We were having a rest, we laughed, and we were full of energy*". Another teacher stated: "*I always came back in a better mood then when I had left*". Three teacher groups (out of 18, i.e. 17%) supported their positive evaluation of the programme by referring to its positive effect on the social relationships between the participating teachers. Four groups (out of 18, i.e. 22%) spontaneously praised the trainers. Finally, three groups (out of 18, i.e. 17%) liked staying in a hotel.

Negative aspects mentioned in response to the question about overall evaluation of the programme were that teachers found implementing the exercises in their own classrooms difficult (5 out of 18 groups mentioned this, i.e. 28%), that it was exhausting to participate for 6 hours in a programme session after a long working day on Thursday and Friday afternoons (2 out of 18 groups mentioned this, i.e. 11%), and that the exercises started repeating after the first session (1 out of 18 groups, i.e. 6%).

3.1.3   School leaders/other school staff

School leaders and other school staff also held largely positive evaluations of the HAND in HAND programme. Eleven school leader/other school staff groups (out of 16, i.e. 69%) had a positive overall evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme. For example, these groups called the programme "*interesting*", "*useful*", "*helpful*" or "*successful*". One group even said they were "*impressed by the programme*". Five (out of 16 groups, i.e. 31%) only gave the programme a mixed evaluation. Here, school leaders and/or other school staff said some positive things in response to the question of how they evaluated the programme overall, but also expressed some criticism.

The school leaders mentioned a variety of evaluation criteria in their responses that were partly different from those mentioned by the teachers and students. Similar to the teachers, many school leader/other school staff groups generally liked the focus of the programme. Five groups commented positively on the focus on personal growth and empowerment (out of 16, i.e. 31%) and three groups commented positively on the focus on relationship-building (out of 16, i.e. 19%). Four groups (out of 16, i.e. 25%, all 4 in Croatia) described these foci as being "*new*" and "*different*" from other programmes.

The content and design of the HAND in HAND programme as well as its implementation was mentioned less often by the school leaders/other school staff than by the teachers: Two groups (out of 16, i.e. 13%) said they enjoyed the programme and had had a good time. Three groups (out of 16, i.e. 19%) praised the experiential approach of the programme. Individual groups also liked the whole-school-approach, that there was no time pressure during the programme, the possibility of exchanging with colleagues from other schools, and that the programme did not hinder the school process because it took place outside of lesson time. Another

aspect mentioned by one group was the European dimension of the HAND in HAND project.

Instead of praising the content and/or implementation of their own programme, the school leaders/other school staff often commented positively on the teacher programme. Six groups (out of 16, i.e. 38%) expressed that they had the impression that the teachers liked their programme and two groups (out 16, i.e. 13%) said they thought the programme had a positive effect on teachers. For example, one principal said: "*It seems that they felt that they were helped by HAND in HAND. It suited the lessons well*". Another said: "*Teachers think a little different now; they have done some exercises in class*".

The main criticism voiced by school leaders and other school staff was that their own programme had been too short (only 2 days): six groups mentioned this (out of 16, i.e. 38%). For example, one group said the programme had been "*an initial spark, but it remained somehow unfinished*". Three groups (out of 16, i.e. 19%) were further critical of having been separated from the teachers in the programme. One group complained they did not even get to know what the teachers and students had done in their programme. In one group (out of 16, i.e. 6 %) in Sweden, the student health team and teachers for special needs also said they had felt left aside. They suggested: "*We could be the motors instead of testing without practising before*". And one group (out of 16, i.e. 6 %) said they found it a pity that it was not possible to let the whole staff at the school participate.

Finally, stronger criticism of the HAND in HAND programme comes from three school leader/other school staff groups: Two of these groups (i.e. 12 %) stated they doubted the applicability of the HAND in HAND exercises in the classroom and one Swedish group (i.e. 6 %) doubted whether the programme had any effects.

3.2 What did the participants find challenging about the programme?

During the semi-structured focus group interviews, students who had participated in the student HAND in HAND programme were asked whether there were activities or topics they felt uncomfortable with and which types of activities or topics they did not like so much, and why. Analogically, the teachers as well as school leaders and other school staff were asked what they experienced as challenging for themselves in the programme. In their responses, the interviewees often

commented on specific HAND in HAND exercises. These exercises fell into four categories:

1. inner exercises, in particular: body scans, which were led by the trainer and practised in the whole group;
2. physical exercises and games, e.g. counting up to 20 in a group, shaking arms and legs, dancing, passing a ball from head to head, climbing up and down on a chair, balancing on one's toes, or giving each other massage; these exercises were also led by the trainer and practised in the whole group or in pairs;
3. exercises with discussions or dialogues, e.g. discussions about how to recognise emotions, listening to another's story and trying to reproduce it without commenting, telling a story together by taking turns and each time taking up what the other had said, practising the formulation of "I"-messages, or structure dialogues to reflect one's own pedagogical practice (only the teachers); these exercises were often done in pairs or small groups;
4. exercises addressing diversity, e.g. experiential exercises where students experienced in games how it felt while entering a group without knowing the rules according to which the group was behaving, or how it felt while they were treated on the basis of prejudices about a social difference category, or how it felt when they lacked privileges that all other children had. This category also includes teacher reflections on their own way of addressing diversity in schools. Reflection on diversity was done in pairs, small groups or in the whole group.

The various stakeholder types undertook different programmes (HAND in HAND programme for students, HAND in HAND programme for teachers; HAND in HAND programme for school leaders and other school staff), but they all had exercises from all four categories, entailing a significant overlap (all exercises in the school leader and other school staff programme were also included in the teacher programme and some of these exercises were also part of the student programme).

3.2.1 Students

Inner exercises were often mentioned by the student groups in response to the questions whether there had been activities or topics that they were uncomfortable

with or which did not like so much. Students in 4 groups (out of 18, i.e. 22%) agreed on a negative evaluation of inner exercises and in six groups (out of 18, i.e. 33%) there was disagreement during the interview: some students stated they liked the inner exercises, others said they did not. Hence, altogether, inner exercises were disliked by some (but not necessarily all) students in 10 out of 18 groups (i.e. 57%). Many of the students who had felt uncomfortable with the inner exercises found them "*boring*" (mentioned by 5 out of the 10 latter groups). Physical exercises also received critical comments from several groups (5 out of 18, i.e. 28%). Most of these groups gave no reason for their evaluation. One group specified that a particular exercise which involved climbing up and down on a chair was dangerous and that the students had fallen off while doing this. One group said that body contact had felt uncomfortable for them. Four groups (out of 18, i.e. 22%) mentioned exercises with discussions or dialogue in response to the question of what they had felt uncomfortable with or disliked during the programme. Some students in these groups said they were not comfortable telling their classmates private things (mentioned in two groups; i.e. 11%). Students further problematised that during group work others had been giggling and chatting and unwilling to work on the task (also mentioned in two groups; i.e. 11%). Other students said they did not like talking to classmates they did not get along with (mentioned in one group). Only 2 groups (out of 18, i.e. 11%) mentioned the exercises addressing diversity in response to the question of what they felt uncomfortable with or disliked: One student said that these exercises were "not easy". Another student was irritated by how badly he had been treated when given the label "Roma" in a game.

More general things mentioned by students in response to the question of what they felt uncomfortable with or what they disliked about the programme were: other students making noise and disturbing the programme (mentioned by 4 out of 18, i.e. 22%), doing something in a mixed-gender pair (mentioned by 3 out of 18 groups, i.e. 17%), conflicts during group work (mentioned by 1 group out of 18, i.e. 6%) and that students who did not want to participate in exercises (which was explicitly allowed) were watching the others doing the exercises, which these others found uncomfortable (mentioned by 1 group, i.e. 6%).

3.2.2 Teachers

Two teacher groups (out of 18, i.e. 11%) found nothing difficult, challenging or uncomfortable during the programme. When teachers identified specific exercises as challenging, these were often exercises involving discussions or dialogue – especially in Slovenia (altogether 8 out of 18 groups mentioned this, i.e. 44%). Reasons given were that teachers had felt uncomfortable opening up in front of their colleagues, that awkward questions were asked during the dialogue exercise, and that teachers had been disappointed that no solutions were developed during the dialogue exercise. Inner exercises and physical exercises were also mentioned by some groups in response to the question of what the teachers had experienced to be challenging (inner exercises by 6 out of 18 teacher groups, i.e. 33%; physical exercises by 5 out of 18, i.e. 28%). Above all, many teachers found the inner and/or physical exercises unfamiliar and therefore difficult at the beginning. One group also mentioned – related to the physical exercises and similarly to students – that being touched by people they did not know well had felt uncomfortable. Another critical comment concerned the chair exercise (climbing up and down on a chair), which was perceived as dangerous. Exercises addressing diversity were not mentioned by any of the teacher groups in response to the question about things that had felt uncomfortable.

3.2.3 School leaders/other school staff

Similar to the teachers, the school leaders and other school staff also named fewer challenges than the students. Five school leaders/other school staff groups (out of 16, i.e. 31%) found nothing difficult, challenging, uncomfortable or negative about the programme. Four school leaders/other school staff groups found the inner exercises difficult (out of 16, i.e. 25%), but only one of these explicitly disliked them. The exercises involving discussion and dialogue were also perceived as challenging by some (3 out of 16 groups, i.e. 19%). They said they found it difficult to listen without giving advice or that they had, more generally, not completely understood the exercise. A challenge with the physical exercises was mentioned by one group (out of 16, i.e. 6 %) in Croatia and none of the groups mentioned the exercises addressing diversity. On a more general level, one school leader/other school staff group (out of 16, i.e. 6 %) said they found it difficult to open up in front of people they had not known before. Another group (out of 16.

i.e. 6 %) said they had found it difficult to build connections in the group during the programme.

A topic that arose in several interviews (4 out of 16, i.e. 25%) in response to the question about challenges was implementation. For example, one school leader said: "*I did not perform those exercises outside the programme. To stick to this, during the daily routine, this is based on discipline, to exercise every day*." Another stated: "*When I came from the programme, I was thinking that this is something that I would introduce at the staff meeting, but the group was too big and the space inappropriate*". And yet another group raised the issue of embarrassment: "*It looks stupid to do this in a group, with children*". Finally, one school counsellor had attempted to do it with a group of teachers and felt that it was not received well: "*I was performing the relaxing techniques with half of the teachers three weeks ago. It was hard for them when they closed their eyes. Some of them went to the toilet at that time, because they did not want to do those relaxation techniques*".

4. Discussion

So far, this chapter presented the results of 52 focus group interviews with students, teachers, school leaders and other school staff in three different countries (Croatia, Slovenia and Sweden) concerning their experiences of the HAND in HAND programme. The interview results complement the experimental outcome evaluation presented by Rožman et al. (this publication) as a basis for drawing conclusions about the overall quality of the HAND in HAND programme and its elements. More importantly, the interviews give an indication of how the programme can be improved. Both will be discussed separately in the following before conclusions are made with regard to the HAND in HAND programme and evaluations of SEI-learning-programmes more generally.

4.1 The quality of the programme from the participants' perspectives

The large majority of semi-structured focus interview groups evaluated the HAND in HAND programme positively. However, there were differences between stakeholders: Most groups of teachers as well as groups of school leaders/other school staff evaluated the programme positively. In contrast, there were

quite a few student groups that gave the programme a mixed evaluation and one student group (out of 18) even explicitly disliked the programme.

With regard to the criteria the participants mentioned as being fundamental for their evaluations, it may be concluded that participants used a variety of different criteria, but that only some of the interviewed groups referred to the programme's effectiveness. Hardly any group described changes to their own or others' SEI-competencies. When outcomes were mentioned in this section of the interviews, it was mostly the positive atmosphere during the programme (mentioned by about one-third of the teacher groups) or that the programme had made the participants feel good (also mentioned by about one-third of the teacher groups as well as by about one-third of the student groups and one-eighth of the school leader/other school staff groups). In many evaluations, these two aspects would actually be considered processes, not outcomes. Yet, two central aims of the HAND in HAND programme were to foster the participants' emotion regulation and to improve school climates. Considering this, the positive emotions felt by individuals and the positive group atmosphere during the programme do provide some indication of the programme's effectiveness – at least in the short term. Long-term effects on the school climate were also mentioned in the interviews, but by an even smaller number of participant groups: 17% of the teacher groups and 11% of the student groups stated the programme had helped them to connect with their colleagues/ peers. As the interviews showed that at least about one-third of the teachers found it difficult to implement the programme in the classroom, it is possible that longer term effects might have been revealed if the participants had carried out the exercises on a regular basis at school. Hence, the findings from the interviews related to a summative outcome evaluation are in line with those from the experimental outcome evaluation described by Rožman et al. (this publication): It seems the programme did not have consistent long-term effects on the participants' SEI-competencies or school climates. However, the interviews suggest that at least the programme had short-term effects on the mood of many participants and on the atmosphere in many groups and that the lack of long-term effects might have been caused by difficulties in integrating the exercises, practices and ideas from the programme into everyday pedagogical practice at the participating schools. Finally, it is also reassuring that the participants did not report any unintended negative effects of the programme during the interviews.

4.2 Suggestions for improving the HAND in HAND programme that can be derived from the participants' criticism of the programme

In line with our argument in section 3.1., one key conclusion from the semi-structured focus group interviews with the participants in terms of the formative evaluation is that it is desirable to extend the programme. In particular, the 2-day programme for the school leaders and other school staff was considered too short by the participants, with many saying they had merely been shown a glimpse into the programme but nothing they could yet implement. Implementation in the classroom, but also the individual practice of the inner exercises, generally appears difficult for many participants, in particular for the teachers. Hence, it might be worthwhile accompanying the implementation process with regular short programme sessions over a longer period of time (e.g. a year) during which the participants not only refresh their memory with regard to the exercises learned, but also support each other in developing plans for implementing the programme in the school, and when they can report how the implementation went and reflect on difficulties that may have arisen. Peer supervision and peer coaching including mutual classroom observations could make up an important part of this process (see e.g., Bowman & McCormick, 2000; Glatthorn, 1987; Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990; Showers 1984). This would imply that teachers would need to invest even more extra time in the programme. On the other hand, it could make the programme more sustainable and, in that sense, the time already invested even more worthwhile.

Another potentially helpful extension would be to address the whole school with the programme. HAND in HAND did target different stakeholders in the school: Students, teachers, school leaders and other school staff and, thereby, went beyond many previous social and emotional learning programmes. However, only one class per school was trained and only the teachers teaching in this class (also see Kozina, Vidmar and Veldin, in this publication). As also suggested by several school-leader/other school staff interview groups, it would be desirable to include the whole student body, the whole teaching body and all of the other school staff. This would help in realising a real 'whole-school approach', meaning that not only one classroom is targeted but really the entire school, and that not only new exercises are implemented in classrooms, but that more fundamental changes with respect to pedagogy, curriculum development, school governance, community outreach, and, in particular, the hidden curricula are initiated and orchestrated, i.e.

changes with regard to the whole school culture (see e.g. Ferreira, Ryan, & Tilbury, 2006). Such a 'whole-school approach' would also imply more institutional support at the policy level for implementing the programme, e.g. curriculum changes, easing the teaching-load for participating teachers, and providing space and materials for the exercises. The wish expressed by the school leaders and other school staff, to be trained together with teachers, also relates to the realisation of a 'whole-school approach'. Indeed, to change the dominant orientations to social interactions and actual interaction practices in the school (i.e. the school culture, see Helsper, 2008), it could be beneficial when not only the whole school participates but when also different stakeholders do part of the exercises together.

Finally, it would be important to better involve the "other school staff" (i.e. the student health teams, special needs teachers, school social workers, school counsellors, school psychologists and similar professions) in planning and implementing the programme. The roles of these professional groups include counselling students, parents and teachers, developing individual support plans for students, helping with conflict resolution, but also systematically supporting social, emotional and intercultural learning in schools. Hence, it would be consequential to regard them as motors of change for school development processes aimed at improving the quality of social processes in the school. As yet, they were only addressed as participants and not involved in the planning and implementation of the intervention.

It would be difficult to find funding for a big programme that realizes all these suggestions, but it would nevertheless be interesting to see whether a real "whole-school" approach produces more consistent effects on the outcomes.

Another major need for improvement stemming from the interviews is to better adapt the HAND in HAND student programme to the needs of this age group. The students' critical evaluation of the programme might be a sign of the healthy development of autonomy, often described as a central developmental task for adolescence (e.g. Christie & Viner, 2005). Students at the age of 13 or 14 years (the HAND in HAND target group) might more generally be sceptical of adults' proposals, especially in schools which they generally do not attend out of their own free will. Accordingly, a meta-analysis by Yeager, Fong, Lee and Espelage (2015) suggested that the existing anti-bullying programmes are much less effective with students in grade eight or older than with younger students. Referring to

this study, Downes and Cefai (2016) also stated: "With older students, the question also arises as to their particular resistance to didactic style approaches that would undermine their increased sense of autonomy" (p. 39). During the actual HAND in HAND programme, it was always facultative to participate in the exercises and this opportunity for autonomous decision-making was used and appreciated by many students (also by many adults), as other parts of the interviews suggest. Still, the programme itself was developed by adults and led by adults, and the decision that the school would participate in the programme was made by adults (as can be inferred from other parts of the interviews). Perhaps students would have felt more ownership of the programme had they been involved in this latter decision. Possibly, also asking them about their wishes for prioritising the different elements of the programme would increase feelings of autonomy. The HAND in HAND manuals (Jensen et al., 2018a; Jensen et al., 2018b; Marušić et al., 2018) clearly specify that the programme should always be adapted to the local needs while implementing some of the 'key ingredients', but it is the trainers (and later in the process of implementation the teachers) who are supposed to make these decisions about adaptation. Instead, it would be possible to involve students more directly (for this and other strategies for autonomy support in the classroom, see e.g. Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Stefanou, Perencevich, DiCintio, & Turner, 2004). Better addressing students' need for autonomy could increase their motivation for the programme and reduce classroom disruptions (which about one-third of the student groups mentioned critically during the interviews), thus making it easier for the trainers and teachers to implement the programme in the classroom (for a theoretical discussion about the role of autonomy support in intrinsic motivation, see e.g., Deci & Ryan, 1987; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Another criticism mentioned by a few student groups is quite fundamental: Some students found some of the exercises (in particular the games and physical activities, not the critical discussions of social issues) too "*childish*", "*not serious enough*", not adapted to their age and/or level of competence. Students at the age of 13 to 1 are in a period of transition between childhood and adulthood. Probably their criticism is also an expression of adolescents' desire to distance themselves from childhood. Still, this result suggests that the games and physical exercises might need to be differently framed in this age group in order to avoid students feel like they are not being taken seriously. Here it might also help if different

stakeholders do some of the exercises together: Seeing adults and professionals doing game-like and potentially embarrassing exercises could change students' perception that this is something for children. However, where problematic teacher–student relationships are involved, such joint practice could also have the opposite effect. In that case, it might instead help if the students did the exercises together with young adults, i.e. with students from the senior grades of their schools, or even with vocational school students or young university students who would act as trainers for this part.

Other critical feedback from the participants concerned particular exercises: Teachers often found the dialogue exercise, where they were supposed to practice mutual supervision with colleagues, difficult or even uncomfortable. Here, more modelling of the role of listener and counsellor by the trainers and more monitoring and feedback during practice seems required. The issue mentioned most frequently by students was boredom during the inner exercises. Maybe this topic could be addressed more clearly during the programme. On the other hand, no one was obliged to practise inner exercises during the programme, and perhaps it is also good to accept that mindfulness is not the right strategy for everyone and that it is more a suggestion that can be taken up by those who feel it is appropriate.

Conclusion

In this chapter, insights from focus group interviews with participants of the HAND in HAND programme were summarized and discussed. Many comments made by the students, teachers, school leaders and other school staff were positive and encouraging. The programme was a positive experience for many participants – in particular, the teachers, but also for many of the school leaders, other school staff and students. Apparently, the trainers have largely succeeded in creating a positive atmosphere and making participants feel good. Thus, they have also served as a model for the participants in this regard. However, the participants also expressed multiple criticisms, which may help in further improving the programme. The participants especially do not seem convinced about the programme's effectiveness with respect to changing their own SEI competencies and/or classroom climates in the longer term, which is in accordance with the mixed results of the experimental outcome evaluation presented by Rožman et al. in this publication. The semi-structured interviews point to one possible reason

for this finding: teachers had difficulties implementing exercises, practices, and ideas from the programme in their pedagogical practice and also did not frequently practise the inner exercises, which they came to know during the programme, by themselves. Changes in social/emotional and intercultural competencies probably require more consistent engagement over and above participation in several programme sessions. Moreover, students did not feel fully regarded as 'almost adults' during the programme due to the types of exercises chosen (which were apparently perceived as too playful), which may have reduced their motivation to participate and practice. Related to this, a lack of democratic participation of students in the decision-making process in relation to participating in the programme in general and to its concrete focus and structuring might also play a role. As central improvements of the HAND in HAND programme it is, therefore, suggested: (1) to extend the programme and follow a real "whole-school approach" by addressing the whole student body and staff of each school and by additionally working on systemic conditions as well as different types of practices, including the hidden curricula, and (2) to increase autonomy support for students. Arguably, these suggestions concern programmes for social and emotional learning more generally; the findings might be instructive over and above the actual context of our study.

On a more abstract level, this study is also a good illustration of the merits of combining different evaluation strategies – quantitative and qualitative, summative and formative – for understanding the effects of programmes aimed at fostering SEI-learning – and in particular the lack thereof – and for identifying the starting points for improving the programmes.

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Chapter 9:
Quality assurance in the HAND in HAND project

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Abstract

The HAND in HAND project has been subject to internal quality assurance for the entire duration of the project, 2017–2020. For this, we have applied a set of procedures that were chosen to ensure the desired level of quality in the HAND in HAND project. The project includes several levels, both the project management level (management of the whole project and the partners in all five countries) and the implementation of the programmes at the schools (the HAND in HAND Field trials). The methods, procedures and instruments used for quality assurance were: (1) a web tool, to keep track of progress, including all work packages in the project and all expected outcomes and activities in each work package. At the start of the project, (2) a risk management strategy was developed, and all partners contributed with possible risks, the level of severity, and how to manage them. Quality visits made during the Field trial with interviews and School visits (3). After each project meeting, (4) a questionnaire was delivered to all participants to measure the quality of the meeting. The team responsible for quality assurance has maintained (5) continuous dialogue with the project coordinator. Drawbacks included the lack of approval from the relevant ministry to do the Field trial in Germany, a Swedish school that declined to answer the follow-up questionnaires, and that too little emphasis was put on education for the trainers that performed the student programme in the schools. On the whole, the HAND in HAND programme has been well managed and almost everything has been performed according to the plan in the project application.

Keywords: quality assurance, risk management, project management, project quality

1. Introduction

Quality assurance in scholarly projects is important for both the grant giver, to ensure that resources are used optimally, and for the researchers to ensure that research is properly conducted and that the results are reported accurately, based on well-documented methods and techniques (Durlak, 2016; Durlak, 2015). Quality in research, on one hand, "involves adherence to key principles such as intellectual rigour, accurate recording and honest reporting of results, and integrity in recognising the work of other researchers" (Research Information Network, 2010, p. 7). Assurance, on the other hand, "implies a promise or guarantee – a statement that something is of good quality and can be trusted" (Research Information Network, 2010, p. 7). Accordingly, in our case, quality assurance is viewed as a set of procedures chosen to ensure the desired level of quality in the HAND in HAND project.

Quality assurance is the internal evaluation of the HAND in HAND project, which aims to establish processes and procedures in the workflow that help maintain a good standard of all work. Moreover, a risk management strategy was included to avoid damage, losses and interruptions in the project, with a special focus on the field trials. Overall, the quality assurance work attempted to ensure that all parts of the project were properly conducted and that the outcomes were well documented.

2. Theoretical background

The theoretical foundation used for quality assurance is a combination of a four-step model adapted from Oliveira Reis (2009, p. 5) and the six stages identified by the Research Information Network (2010, p. 9), and is illustrated in Figure 1. Oliveira Reis (2009) described the quality assurance cycle in four steps: planning, implementation, evaluation and review. Oliveira Reis' model is primarily intended for quality assurance in education and is broader in scope. The six stages identified by the Research Information Network (2010) are: programme and project proposals, monitoring and oversight during projects, sharing early findings with colleagues, formal publication, data sharing, as well as post-publication assessment and review. These six stages (Research Information Network, 2010) target the quality assurance of a research project. In Figure 1, it can be seen that

stages four and five overlap the third and fourth steps of Olivieira Reis' model. The reason for combining these two models is that the HAND in HAND project is not simply a research project but also a project aimed at supporting policy reform, thus, a mix of Oliveira Reis' model and the Research Information Network model is more appropriate in this context.
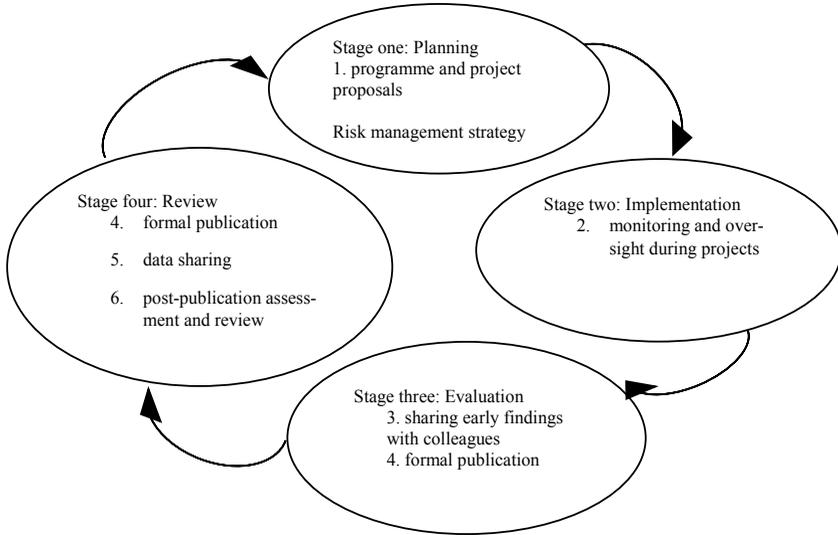
Figure 1: Quality assurance model (adapted from Oliveira Reis, 2009, p. 5 and Research Information Network, 2010, p. 9)

In stage one, *planning*, the priority is formulating clear and measurable goals for all aspects of the project, such as organisation, tasks, and human resources. It is also here that the standards linked to the goals are established to support the design and implementation of the quality assurance (Oliveira Reis, 2009). Quality assurance starts with the proposal and the review before projects are approved. Funders use several checks as part of seeking to ensure that only high-quality research is funded. Many institutions assess the quality of research proposals before they are submitted to external bodies (Research Information Network, 2010). A successful project can be seen as providing what is promised on time and on budget. Risk management is about analysing and managing uncertainties in a project in order to make it successful (Williams, 1995). Thus, the quality assurance for HAND in HAND also incorporated a

risk management strategy in stage one. However, Williams (1995) states that "risk analysis and management can only be as good as the perception and quantification of risk by the project team, and it is at this point that the credibility of risk analysis often falls down".

In stage two, *implementation*, key principles must be established that support the implementation to ensure the goals and objectives are achieved effectively. These principles have to be coherent with the established goals. The implementation of the planned activities must be described and, in addition, the funding of the different partners performing the activities needs to be clear (Oliveira Reis, 2009). In this stage, the funder wants to monitor and oversee the progress of the project (step 2). They can actively participate in this or rely on the management structures and the procedures of the institutions receiving the grant (Research Information Network, 2010).

Stage three, *evaluation,* relies on mechanisms for evaluating progress so as to recognise strengths, areas for improvement and recommendations if needed. This stage includes the continuous collection of data, analysis and discussions on progress (Oliveira Reis, 2009). For a research project, early findings are shared with partners (step 3) and formal publications (step 4) are planned and/or carried out. The early findings can be shared and discussed during informal meetings or seminars to assure good quality. Such formal publications can be of different types, such as conference proceedings, scientific articles, or monographs. These formal publications almost always include a peer-review process that includes quality assurance (Research Information Network, 2010).

The last stage, stage four, enables feedback and procedures for change and gives a chance for the project members to *review* and improve if necessary. The result of the quality assurance should be shared, giving the grant provider and relevant stakeholders an opportunity to assess the results in light of the quality assurance outcomes (Oliveira Reis, 2009). The process of making formal publications (step 4) continues during this stage. Funders often require that data be made available to other researchers or by way of open-access, thereby data sharing (step 5) becomes more and more common. This also gives the reviewers of articles the possibility to check the quality of the results presented. In the digital environment, many articles can be found in several digital versions and researchers can comment on and discuss publications online. The number of citations an article

attracts is also used as an indicator of quality. Hence, the post-publication assessment and review (step 6) entails ongoing quality assurance of the research (Research Information Network, 2010).

3. Aim and Objectives

The overall aim has been to ensure the HAND in HAND project has good quality when it comes to planning and goal setting, organisation and execution and the project's final deliverables.

4. Method

This section describes the methods used in the quality assurance of the HAND in HAND project in the different stages and steps. The quality assurance work started in the planning stage when the application was developed. In the project's work packages, clear and measurable goals about procedures, meetings, tasks and outputs were formulated. Effort was taken to make sure the goals and objectives were formulated in understandable terms and could be measured. When the project was approved, a more detailed plan for quality assurance was produced. It was decided to focus on three main project areas: planning and goal setting, organisation and execution, and the project's final deliverables. Indicators used to measure the quality were process, performance, and outcome indicators. The process indicators were defined as the level of implementation of the activities, their conformity with the project proposal's provisions, keeping up with the project time-frames and schedule, and the dissemination channels used. The performance indicators included the level of the team spirit and collaboration and the number of target-group representatives involved in activities. The outcome indicators included the type and content of the outcomes, the quality of the outputs, and the outcomes' conformity with the parameters stated in the proposal.

4.1 Procedures and instruments

In practice, a set of procedures and instruments was developed in order to ensure the quality of these three areas. The methods, procedures and instruments used in the quality assurance were: (1) a web-based checklist to keep track of progress,

including all work packages in the project and all expected outcomes and activities in each work package. At the beginning of the project (2) a risk management strategy was developed, and all partners contributed with possible risks, the level of severity, and how to manage them. After each project meeting (3), questionnaires about the meeting were delivered to all participants to measure the meeting's quality.

Web-based checklist: All deliverables planned in the project were included in a web-based checklist, together with information on which partner(s) hold the main responsibility for each deliverable as well as the starting time and the deadline. All partners were given access to the web-based checklist and asked to indicate when they had completed their task. The deliverables in the checklist served as indicators for monitoring the project's overall progress as well as for each work package. This served as a tool for monitoring but also as a way for all the partners to gain an overview of the overall complexity of the project and to create a shared understanding of the tasks needing to be accomplished.

Risk management strategy: Another part of the quality assurance work has entailed developing a risk management strategy. The strategy aimed at finding serious risks and possible solutions in advance (Olsson & Skjöldebrand, 2008). At the start of the project, each partner defined major risks within their area of responsibility together with a suggestion on how to manage them. The project coordinator has been responsible for monitoring and taking appropriate actions to prevent risks identified as being highly probable and severe.

For each identified risk, we estimated the likelihood of its occurrence, the severity, and possible measures to prevent or handle it.

Quality visits: The quality team visited the partners in Slovenia and Croatia during the field trial and conducted interviews with the national team. One class in Slovenia was also visited during the student programme. Moreover, the quality team completed a self-report about the work in Sweden.

Meeting questionnaires: A web-based questionnaire has been delivered after each project meeting. The planning of the meetings, preparations and decisions taken during the meeting are monitored. The scope of the quality assurance of these meetings has been to assure high quality communication within and among all partners during face-to-face meetings. The questionnaires were administered

to all participants of each meeting. The quality assurance team analysed the data after each meeting and reported the results to the project manager, including suggestions for improvement if needed.

5. Results

In this section, the results are reported and organised according to the three main areas that were in the focus of the quality assurance: the project's planning and goal setting, organisation and execution, as well as the final deliverables.

5.1 Quality assurance of the project's planning and goal setting

In stage one, *planning*, the project proposal was developed by the Educational Research Institute (ERI) in Slovenia and reviewed by all of the partners. The application procedure had two steps whereby a shorter proposal was first submitted and reviewed by the Erasmus+ committee. The present project was chosen and invited for the second step. Thus, the full proposal was developed, submitted and approved. The project was not funded with the proposed amount, and the lower budget induced a review of the proposal and saw changes being made to the project plan.

The application of HAND in HAND consists all work-packages and all deliverables described in detail. Each partner has held distinct roles and responsibilities. The deliverables have been transformed to a web-based checklist in order to make them well known and transparent. All of the partners have recorded which deliverables are ongoing and when they are completed.

5.1.1 Risk management strategy

An essential part of the work on the quality assurance plan has been to develop a risk management strategy. At the beginning of the project, each partner defined major risks within their area of responsibility together with a suggestion for how to manage them. The project coordinator has been responsible for monitoring and takin appropriate actions to prevent risks identified as being highly probable and severe.

For each identified risk, we estimated the likelihood of its occurrence, the severity, and the prevention measures.

Examples of some severe risks:

- Time delay in programme/instrument development, sampling, data collection etc. which reduces the time left for analysis and report writing. To manage this risk, all partners need to meet the deadlines.
- Schools may drop out of the programme. This risk could be managed by sampling replacement schools.
- Fragmentation of actions across partners. Clear communication should reduce this risk.
- Low alignment between the content of the workshops and the assessment. This could be prevented by careful operationalisation of the goals and targets.
- No stable group of local trainers throughout the project. To prevent this, we need to urge the partner countries to assemble a stable group (e.g. that the 2 persons who are going to be the teacher trainers also participate in all the training arranged by the responsible partner).
- Many levels of adaptation can affect the outcome measure. Keeping the focus on implementation of the core values in the project can decrease this risk.
- Too few schools willing to participate in randomised conditions. We could reduce this risk if the project is well communicated and the schools are contacted and prepared in time.

5.2 Quality assurance of the project's organisation and execution

This part describes the information and workflows, the quality of communication among partners, the partners' timeliness according to the project agenda, and partner satisfaction.

All partners have made a brief report to the ERI every month about progress, risks and drawbacks. The ERI has included these reports in the HAND in HAND monthly newsletter. Besides the project meetings, monthly online meetings for monitoring the project have been arranged by the managing team.

One measure was to evaluate the project meetings. Table 1 presents the results of questionnaires completed by all partners attending the project meetings.

Table 1: Assessment of the project meetings (PM)

	n	How did you perceive the main purpose of the meeting? (Unclear 1-Clear 5)	I felt that we had a meeting climate characterized of a sensitivity, responsiveness and trust. (Not agree 1- Agree 5)	It was clear what the meeting decided (Unclear 1-Clear 3)	It is clear what the next step in the project is for me (Unclear 1-Clear 3)	The timeline about what to do after the meeting is clear (Unclear 1-Clear 3)
PM1	13	4.5	4.6	2.3	2.8	2.8
PM2	14	4.5	4.6	2.9	2.9	3.0
PM3	16	4.6	3.9	2.8	3.0	2.9
PM4	20	4.6	4.6	2.9	2.9	3.0
PM 5	15	4.8	4.9	2.9	2.9	3.0

Table 1 reveals that the project partners are very satisfied with the meetings. All partners answered that they prepared their contributions to the meetings on time, they actively participated in the meetings and felt they had opportunities to ask questions and that these questions were discussed in the meetings.

5.2.1 Quality assurance visits to the partners

Two quality assurance visits were made to the project partners in Slovenia and to the partners in Croatia during the HAND in HAND field trials in November 2018. Interviews were performed with the team members at the project partner institutions during these visits. In Slovenia, it was also possible to visit a school where the student programme was being implemented.

1. *Slovenia*

Overall, HAND in HAND in Slovenia progressed according to the plan. The sampling procedure, the translations, contacts with the participating schools, organisation of the materials, and collecting parental consents were accomplished. The HAND in HAND field trial and implementation of the student programme went according to plan. There were some minor adaptations of the modules. All practices were implemented but the order of the practices in some cases was switched

in order to meet the dynamic of the student group. Some exercises were also shortened when the students' attention started to wane. Some topics were switched when working with the teacher programme so as to fit in with the mood of the teachers. One conclusion is to be sensitive and be aware of the teachers' mood when implementing the teacher programme (see e.g. Nielsen et al., 2019).

Obstacles: A member of the Slovenian team went on sick leave and a new person had to assume their tasks, which was achieved. Early on, before the field trial started, two schools dropped out and two new schools had to be included. This was resolved by recruiting replacement schools that had been selected during sampling for that purpose.

2. *Croatia*

In Croatia, the visit showed the same results as in Slovenia; the project has to that point progressed according to plan; the sampling procedure, the translations, contacts with the participating schools, organisation of the materials, and collecting parental consents.

Obstacles: The process in the project was new to the Croatian team members and much effort was made to understand the organisation, the work packages, and all the tasks in the project. They also experienced some difficulties convincing schools to participate in the project.

3. *Self-report from the Swedish team*

The programme has progressed according to plan. All materials have been translated with the help of professional translators, with one team member being responsible for the necessary adaptation. Good contacts with regional and national stakeholders ensure the project is well known and this also helped when recruiting schools for the field trial. All selected schools participated in their different programme activities. The student and teacher programmes were both carefully adapted to suit the characteristics of the group as well as the participants' mood and willingness. Consents from parents and all participants were collected and the project was approved by the Swedish Ethical Review Authority, as required by Swedish legislation.

Obstacles: Twelve Schools were selected, and all participated with only one change. One Teacher School and one Control School switched roles in the

programme after the final sampling. In one control school, the students did not respond to the second and third questionnaire. In addition, another control school declined to participate in the interviews. Questions to students about student–student relationship and social awareness were not used in Sweden as they were not included in the ethical vetting.

5.2.2 Quality assurance of the project's final deliverables

In summary, the project has managed to complete the deliverables on time with the exception of the field trial in Germany since the German team did not receive permission from the relevant ministry to conduct the field trial in German schools.

The main deliverables are

1. HAND in HAND catalogues: Catalogues for SEI assessment, SEI school staff programmes, and SEI student programmes have been developed and published on the project website.
2. HAND in HAND assessment: Assessment tools to measure SEI competencies have been developed, both quantitative measures and qualitative measures (semi-structured interviews, focus groups).
3. The HAND in HAND programme for school staff: A programme with a set of learning activities (a combination of personal development activities and classroom-based activities) to increase the SEI competencies of school staff, including their relational competence, has been developed (Jensen et al., 2018a; Jensen et al., 2018b).
4. The HAND in HAND programme for students: A programme with a set of learning activities to help develop students' SEI competencies (with a focus on the competencies needed to build an inclusive society) has been developed (Marušić et al., 2018).
5. HAND in HAND guidelines for policy and practice: The results of the field trials, and the policy questionnaire (mapping of national policy contexts regarding SEI competencies) were published at the end of 2019.

6. Discussion

The discussion is organised in line with the three main areas of the quality assurance: the project's planning and goal setting, organisation and execution, and the final deliverables.

6.1 Quality assurance of the project's planning and goal setting

The well-structured application and the checklist allowed the participants to obtain an overview of all work packages and all deliverables. Each partner had distinct roles that it made it clear who was responsible for each deliverable. The risk strategy identified several possible risks in the project and needs for things like replacement schools and professional translators were identified. However, it is hard for project members to foresee all possible risks in the planning stage of a project (Williams, 1995). Advice for future projects would be to involve external experts in this process to try to identify and perceive risks. One risk that was not foreseen was that the relevant ministry in Germany denied permission to access the schools and, thus, the planned field trial in Germany was cancelled. Nevertheless, the programmes were implemented and evaluated on a smaller scale in Danish schools instead, during the spring of 2019. Another unforeseen risk was that the tight schedule made it impossible to obtain approval for all of the scales used in the assessment of the students and, therefore, two scales could not be used in Sweden. The other risks listed in the risk management strategy were either not realised or handled by the management strategies. An example is the risk of school dropouts which was managed by the fact that a sampling of replacement schools was made in each country.

6.2 Quality assurance of the project's organisation and execution

The HAND in HAND programme is well managed and almost everything has been performed according to the plan outlined in the application. Monthly reports, newsletters and online meetings have ensured that all partners are updated on the stage of the project. The project meetings have been productive and successful and, according to the questionnaires, the participants have reported being satisfied with the meetings.

The partners in Denmark worked with the programme for school staff during the first year of the project in the collaboration with the rest of the partners (more in Jensen and Gøtzsche, this publication). The student programme was developed by the Croatian partners and in the collaboration with project partners in the same period (more in Jugović, Puzić and Mornar, this publication). Thereafter, the field trials were carried out during autumn in 2018 at 12 schools in Slovenia, Croatia and Sweden. The risk of not having a stable group of trainers through the project was solved by ensuring that all countries had a stable group of teacher trainers who also participated in all of the training arranged by the responsible project partner. Yet, this was not the case for the trainers in the student programme, which might have been preferable. In that way, we could have avoided the trainers being unsure about how the exercises would work out in the student groups. However, this was managed by having cognitive labs in all countries. By having these labs, the trainers had an opportunity to test some of the exercises and obtain feedback from the students on how they worked out. After the cognitive labs, the results were discussed and adaptations to the exercises were made where necessary. Still, too many different adaptations in the countries might cause bias in the randomised experimental design, although keeping the focus on implementation of the core issues reduced this risk. Training for those responsible for the student programme was not planned, even though some training was carried out in the national contexts. This may have had an effect on the delivery of the student programme, for example when it comes to the balance between fidelity and adaptation in the student programme.

6.3   Quality assurance of the project's final deliverables

The project has been successful in producing the main deliverables: the three catalogues (SEI assessment, SEI school staff programmes, and SEI student programmes), assessment tools to measure SEI competencies, the programme for school staff, the programme for students, and the guidelines for policy and practice. In addition, external quality assurance will be provided in the process of publishing results in scientific journals according to the peer review process.

Conclusion

HAND in HAND is a well-designed and well-managed project. The project has overall met the standard that was initially established. The dropping out of Germany could have been avoided with even more preparation and a longer time frame.

The coordination could have been better between the training of those who were leading the teacher programme and those who were leading the student programme in each country. Greater effort was put into training the persons who delivered the teacher programme in each country than the persons delivering the student programme. Moreover, the mix of fidelity and adaptation was not discussed in the student programme in the same way as in the teacher programme. Like in all projects, the timeframe introduces limits and, if the scales used in the assessment tools had been developed earlier, they could all have possibly been approved by the ethical committee in Sweden.

As mentioned, quality assurance in the HAND in HAND project includes several levels, both the project management level and the implementation of the programmes at the schools. The evaluation of the HAND in HAND field trials is discussed further and the results are outlined by Rožman, Roczen and Vieluf et al (this publication) and Vieluf, Denk, Rožman and Roczen (this publication).

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Chapter 10:
Mainstreaming social, emotional, intercultural/transcultural learning in European national educational policies and practices: The way forward

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Abstract

Building on the fact that HAND in HAND is an EU policy experimentation project, the final chapter concentrates on the question of how to include and realise the HAND in HAND results in existing EU and national education policy and practice. Based on the HAND in HAND outcomes, the chapter provides recommendations regarding how an in-depth systematic policy approach (including a distinct European approach and expert-based definition of social, emotional, intercultural/transcultural (SEI) learning, clear political and policy goals, well-grounded theoretically and locally adaptive programmes of SEI learning, national curricula, teacher training, a whole-school approach and reliable measurement of SEI learning) can positively help with the realisation of SEI learning, taking the particularities of EU and distinct national contexts into consideration.

Key words: EU, member states, SEI policies, SEI practices, recommendations

1. Introduction

This chapter aims to place the HAND in HAND outcomes in a well-defined and consistent policy perspective and to explain their importance in pursuing sustainable systemic improvement and innovation in the respective context. As an EU policy experimentation project, HAND in HAND has identified good practices and lessons on 'what works' and 'what does not work' in field of social, emotional, intercultural/transcultural learning in the EU. It provides improved knowledge and an evidence base for reforms with a potentially large systemic impact (European Commission, 2018a; 2018b). The chapter therefore, based on the lessons learned within the HAND in HAND project, as presented and discussed in earlier chapters in this publication, gives recommendations to help further develop policies on SEI learning in the EU and national contexts. It thus elaborates on the conditions for the scalability, transferability and therefore sustainability of the HAND in HAND outcomes and the wider field of SEI learning.

The following paragraphs set out the main recommendations that flow from the HAND in HAND project outcomes, which we believe are the most crucial while continuing to develop EU and national policies and practices in this field. These recommendations should be considered as a coherent whole. The order in which they are listed does not suggest any particular priority, but may be seen as giving meaningful direction while implementing the actions in order for SEI learning in the EU to reach its full potential.

2. Recommendations

2.1 A distinct European approach and definition of SEI learning

First, our research reveals the current lack of and future need for a distinct European approach and definition of SEI learning. The need for a distinct European approach and definition is theoretically well grounded. Hecht and Shin (2015) and Lowenthal and Lewis (2011) explain that social and emotional education varies across cultural contexts since the very definition of what it is to be mentally, emotionally and socially well-developed varies considerably and sometimes diametrically between cultures. In this framework, the CASEL definition was adapted for the European context within the project (see Kozina Vidmar and Veldin, this

publication). Further development of the SEI learning definition in the EU could build on this adaptation, as well on cooperation with other international organisations dealing with SEI learning (e.g. WHO, UNICEF, OECD).

Having in mind the growing social and cultural diversity in modern societies, the HAND in HAND project has made a theoretical and practical contribution to understanding that, on top of the social and emotional competencies (including self-awareness, self-management, social-awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making) needed for any type of communication, it is important to also develop intercultural competencies so as to support for positive collaboration between social and cultural groups. Both elements, i.e. the socio-emotional and intercultural, may be viewed as approaches to learning that are critically reflexive, and aim to ensure young people's self-esteem and self-confidence, as well as individual and social responsibility (see Kozina et al., this publication; Jugović, Puzić, and Mornar, this publication).

In addition, a possibility should be assured for national adaptations of the common EU approach and definition of SEI learning. There are at least two reasons for this: First, there are important differences between national contexts, among which Hecht and Shin (2015) highlight the differences between individualistic Western and collectivist Eastern EU societies.[1] Second, EU countries have sovereignty over their national education systems (including curriculum) and the EU institutions only have a formally supporting role in the development of national educational policies and practices. These reasons show the need for a flexible, non-prescriptive and user-involved approach to SEI learning in the EU context (see Nielsen, this publication), as also well advocated by Cefai et al. (2018).

Special attention should also be paid to developing a commonly agreed expert definition of SEI learning[2] and awareness of the possibility of exploiting it for different political purposes. After citing different authors, Cefai et al. (2018) warn of the possibility of a narrow understanding of SEI learning that seeks to produce

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[1] Hecht and Shin (2015) explain that cultures differ in the way they construe the self; some cultures understand the self as representing individual personhood, others underline the importance of the collective group. For instance, behaviours like shyness and anxiety are considered problematic in individualistic societies such as Western cultures, but may be regarded as positive personality traits in traditional collectivist Eastern societies (Hecht and Shin, 2015).

[2] For the current debate on the appropriate role of social and emotional education in an educational setting, see for example Ecclestone and Hayes (2009) and Downes (2018).

the successful student as an ideal employee and keeper of the status quo. SEI in this sense is seen as an instrument of social and cultural conformity where people's personalities are treated in prescriptive, normative terms of success. The policy purposes of SEI could be rigidified into a mode of social control, whereby children's individuality and cultural differences are flattened through a systemic push towards prescribed personality packages. These concerns serve as an important cautionary note about the danger that SEI can be put to policy purposes that are not centred on children and young people's needs, and their own and others' well-being, but more narrowly on economic concerns (producing a flexible, conforming employee who supports productivity). Cefai et al. (2018) argue that such a politically narrowed understanding of SEI is already evident in OECD documents on SEI learning. The HAND in HAND project considered these and places great emphasis on including the interpretation of concepts of fidelity and adaptation and also emphasising the importance of national and local school contexts (see Nielsen, this publication).

2.2 Clear political and policy goals

Second, for policies to be effective, it is important that their goals are clearly stated. This sharpens the focus of different stakeholders towards achieving these goals, while also enhancing the possibilities that their achievement is properly measured. The HAND in HAND project recognises the lack of clear goals related to SEI learning at the EU and national level.

Theoretical and empirical considerations about the importance of SEI competencies for individual and EU society development make including SEI learning as one of the strategic priorities of the new strategic framework on Education and Training 2030 a necessity. Realisation of this strategic priority should be fully supported by all existing EU measures (e.g. inclusion of SEI as a distinct, critical area in the EU Framework of Key Competencies for Lifelong Learning, qualitative and quantitative measurement of progress, establishing a dedicated working group, coordinating research and sharing of good practices among the EU countries). We believe this would not only make SEI learning more meaningful in the European context, but also serve to enrich SEI learning. The development and introduction of SEI learning strategies, goals, and quality assurance indicators in national education policies and practices would add to the influence of SEI

learning while at the same time demonstrating the importance of context-based individualised approaches.

2.3 Programmes of SEI learning that are well grounded theoretically and locally adaptive

Third, for programmes (including SEI programmes) to be successful and effective, their content and implementation itself must be well designed and their implementation tailored to suit the respective local context (see Nielsen, this publication).

In this respect, it is crucial that the design of programme activities be informed by a comprehensive theoretical background. The use of various theoretical frameworks for different activities was recognised as valuable while designing the HAND in HAND programmes for students and school staff simply because the competencies and concepts entailed in an activity stem from different and very specific theoretical approaches (see Jugović et al., this publication). The review of existing programmes (Marušić et al., 2017; Nielsen et al., 2017) may be seen as giving added value to the preparation of the comprehensive and innovative HAND in HAND programmes.

Adaptation to the national and/or local school context can likewise be important for programme outcomes. The HAND in HAND manuals (Jensen et al., 2018a; 2018b; Marušić et al., 2018) explicitly state that a programme should always be adapted to the local needs while implementing certain 'key ingredients', but it is the trainers or teachers who are supposed to make these decisions concerning adaptation and it might be possible to involve students more directly (see Vieluf et al., this publication). Adaptation allows for school staff needs to addressed, but also facilitates ownership of the programme. This issue is also particularly important for students at a time when the importance of their voices to ensure quality education is being emphasised (see Downes, this publication; Vieluf et al., this publication).

2.4 Placement of SEI in national curricula

Fourth, the HAND in HAND results confirm existing research findings showing the importance of including SEI learning in curricula. A review of the existing curricula in the HAND in HAND participating countries reveals the lack of a systematic (distinct curricula or cross-curricular) approach to SEI learning. Qualitative evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme (see Vieluf et al., in this publication) confirms this can pose an obstacle to the effective implementation of SEI learning. Teacher and other educational staff found the HAND in HAND programme interesting and important, but warned it could hardly be implemented within the existing curricula frameworks. Further national curricular reforms should therefore have in mind the positive effects of SEI learning and the importance of its coherent and systematic integration into the whole vertical of education systems.

The HAND in HAND results support previous findings (e.g. Downes, 2014) showing that curricular commitment to SEI learning needs to provide systemic support for teachers so as to improve their own SEI competencies. This would require imparting these background relational competencies during pre-service and in-service teacher education which, according to the review of current national policies and the qualitative evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme in the HAND in HAND experimentation countries, are currently limited.

2.5 SEI in teacher education

Fifth, the school staff participating in the HAND in HAND programmes appreciated the atmosphere during the training and the opportunities for personal development and self-empowerment, although they expressed concerns as to how to implement these activities in their everyday practice and in the classroom (see Vieluf et al., this publication). This points to an important question of how the materials developed in the project may be shared in a balanced manner (Nielsen, this publication). The HAND in HAND programmes are simply not a tool to be removed from a toolbox for automatic use in educational practice. A complex process is entailed of school staff becoming able to successfully and effectively implement it.

For sustainabilisation of the HAND in HAND programmes it is important that the school staff and especially teachers possess the professional competence, self-efficacy and motivation to implement the SEI programmes for students, including adapting programme activities to certain students at a specific school while teaching particular content in a set context (Nielsen, this publication). This would require long term external supervisors to support a whole-school process and at the same time the increased competencies and professional agency of school staff.

2.6   A whole-school approach

Sixth, different studies (for a review, see Cefai et al., 2018, p. 73) indicate the positive impact of a whole-school approach on SEI learning. Quantitative evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme (see Rožman, Roczen and Vieluf, this publication) shows no consistent evidence in support of a whole-school approach, but in any case, reveals that the most efficient intervention in this regard depends on the (national) setting in which the intervention takes place. Qualitative evaluation of the HAND in HAND programme (see Vieluf, Denk, Rožman and Roczen, this publication) adds weight to the whole-school approach to SEI learning since both groups (the teachers and school leaders participating in the programme) show that for the HAND in HAND programme to be truly effective in educational practice, the involvement of all school staff (or at least the involvement of all teachers of the school in the HAND in HAND programme) is crucially important. In the current HAND in HAND experiment, only some teachers of one class, their principals and school counsellors, were involved, A whole-school approach would not only enable new exercises to be introduced in classrooms, but for the change to occur in a multifaceted and system-wide manner. This includes changing the dominant orientations to social interactions and actual interaction practices in the school (i.e. the school culture). In the HAND in HAND programme participants' assessment, the involvement of SEI learning in school development programmes would provide greater added value and imply more institutional support at the policy level for implementing the SEI programmes.

2.7 The importance of multi-method approach in evaluation of SEI learning

Seventh, with its assessment catalogue (Denk et al., 2017) and innovative assessment of the SEI competencies of both educational staff and students, the HAND in HAND project importantly contributes to developing the field of the measurement of SEI competencies in education. The HAND in HAND evaluation represents a good illustration of the merits of combining different epistemologies and evaluation strategies – quantitative and qualitative, summative and formative. It demonstrates the importance of applying a multi-method approach that brings together self-reports, others' reports, a sociometric measure, vignettes and interviews to measure the possible effects of the SEI learning programmes (summative evaluation), to establish how the participants experienced the trainings and to find levers to improve the programmes (formative evaluation). Moreover, the HAND in HAND project confirms the considerable importance and complexity of selecting appropriate measurement scales (see Roczen, Wubamlak, Vieluf and Rožman, this publication).

At the same time, the evaluation of the HAND in HAND programmes exposes that schools are complex systems and that triggering change in such systems may depend on several contextual factors impossible to control for in small experimental studies (see Roczen et al., this publication), showing the need for further large-scale evaluation research in this field.

Conclusion

Kingdon (1995) states that to successfully form policies it is important that problem, policy and politics stream couple and open a policy window which facilitate policy change. It seems that pressing EU issues (migration etc.) and ambitious goals of social cohesion and economic prosperity, policy development, which recognises the importance of SEI learning and the right political moment (the appointment of a new European Parliament and European Commission and preparation of a new strategic framework for EU cooperation in education until 2030) open a window for the HAND in HAND results and recommendations to become a mainstreamed practice across the EU.

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