

GUIDELINES

BLENDED SHORT-CYCLE
TRAINING COURSE IN
COMMONIG PRACTICES



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION



1 Introduction

Over the last few years, under circumstances of economic, political, environmental, and health crisis, people are on the lookout for alternative logics, practices and ethics in response to social exclusion, unemployment and underemployment, the disdain of democracy, and environmental degradation (Kioupkiolis & Pechtelidis 2017; Pechtelidis 2020). They seek to explore, build up, and uphold a different, collaborative way of living, which enacts democratic ideals, egalitarianism, creativity, community through differences, and sustainable relations between humans and nature. Education is of vital significance in this regard, as it can act as a leverage for advancing such processes of alternative social construction. The incubation of experimental, collaboratively, and unconventional educational projects is not new in Europe. However, in recent years, it has stepped up the pace driven by the general socio-economic, environmental, and health crisis.

The Blended Short-cycle Training Courses on 'Commoning Practices (hereinafter ComPra) project introduces the emergent paradigm of the 'commons' as an alternative value and action system in the field of education, and it critically draws out the implications of the commons for refiguring education and enabling active social inclusion and promoting well-being for all. Commons are living and dynamic social systems that develop around the values of collective ownership and equal management of resources or goods established by different communities to ensure the survival and prosperity of each of their members (Bollier & Helfrich 2012). People who have accepted the logic of the commons, that is the commoners, seek to create a social network of cooperation, solidarity, dialogue, sharing and



interdependence that connects all members of a community equally.

This document presents a methodological guide for developing and establishing Academic Short-cycle training courses in the scientific area of 'Commoning Practices' in the framework of the ComPra project. The educational approach of the commons presented here is based on a blended learning scheme by exploiting the most innovative e-learning pedagogical methodologies and ICT tools. It also comprises descriptors of training modules on commons' philosophy and new conceptual and communicative pedagogical tools such as pedagogical documentation and pedagogy of listening, specially designed for offering learning-outcomes oriented training within the framework of short-cycle courses in Higher Education.

The project's aim is to enable higher education students of Education Sciences, Social Sciences, Social Work and Communication to explore values and practices of commons' pedagogy and become acquainted with using innovative methodologies and tools. These would enable them to develop a commons-based educational environment helping children and young people to act as 'commoners'. Through the development of short-cycle training courses on 'Commoning Practices', based on a blended learning scheme, higher education students will gain theoretical and practical knowledge around the commons' discourse (commons' logic of sharing and caring, fair and open relations, co-participation in the production or provision of knowledge) and develop skills for building and strengthening the identity of commoner both for them and their future students.

The project opens with an intellectual output (hereinafter IO1) about the creation of a *Methodological guide for developing*



Short-cycle training course in the area of 'Commoning Practices'. This output consists of four chapters:

The first chapter concerns the *Learning Content* of the course. In particular, the theoretical framework of the commons is briefly presented, and then the focus is shifted to the *educational commons, children as commoners, and peer governance* which is based on a *relational ontology*. Furthermore, chapter one highlights the *commons' research view* when we study an education setting.

Chapter two presents the *Course design structure*: the goals, the objectives, and the learning outcomes of the course. Moreover, chapter two illustrates the *modules* and the *lessons* of each module of the course.

Chapter three delineates the *teaching strategy* of the course, and the European typical context of the Short Cycle Programmes.

Chapter four closes this output with the *Tutor guides* and *practical tips* about how to effectively and creatively involve the students in the learning environment of the course.

CHAPTER II

LEARNING CONTENT



2 Learning Content

2.1 What is the 'Commons'

The spreading paradigm of the 'commons' is an alternative value and action system, a different way of building and living our environments, which nourishes democratic ideals, egalitarianism, creativity and sustainable relations between humans and nature (Bauwens, Kostakis & Pazaitis, 2019). The 'commons' or 'common-pool resources' (Ostrom 1990: 30, 90) or 'commons-based peer production' (Benkler & Nissenbaum 2006: 395) comprise goods and resources that are collectively used and produced. Access to them is provided on equal terms, which may range from totally open access to universal exclusion from consumption, with many possibilities in-between. The common good is collectively administered in egalitarian and participatory ways by the communities which manufacture or who own it. *Sharing* is a fundamental process which lies at the heart of the commons. 'These things we share are called commons, which simply means they belong to all of us' (Walljasper 2010: xix).

There are many different classes of common goods, from natural common-pool resources (fishing grounds, irrigation canals etc.; Ostrom 1990: 30) to common productive assets, such as workers' co-operatives, and digital goods, such as open-source softwares (Benkler & Nissenbaum 2006; Dyer-Witheford 2012). 'Commons can be gifts of nature – such as fresh water, wilderness, and the airwaves – or the products of social ingenuity, like the Internet, parks, artistic traditions, or the public health service' (Walljasper 2010: xix). Their common baseline, however, is that they involve shared resources which are managed, produced and distributed through collective participation in ways which challenge the logic of both private-corporate and state-public property



(Ostrom 1990: 1-30, 90; Benkler & Nissenbaum 2006: 394-396; Dyer-Withford 2012; Hardt & Negri 2012: 6, 69-80, 95).

Furthermore, it is now widely held that all commons in their diversity tend to display a tripartite structure. Most definitions render commons as an artifice which consists of three main intertwined parts: (a) *common* resources/goods, (b) institutions (i.e. *commoning* practices) and (c) the communities (called *commoners*) who are implicated in the production and reproduction of commons (Dellenbaugh et al. 2015: 13; see also Bollier & Helfrich 2015: 3).

Finally, it is well-established that the commons are not primarily resources or goods, but practices of *commoning*, that is, of actively forging and reproducing communities of collaboration and action around different dimensions of social life and the environment. From a socio-political angle, the commons encompass fundamentally a diversity of social structures and processes through which commoners, i.e. potentially all members of a community on equal terms, configure and deploy resources by collectively crafting the rules of such production and use. Commoners improvise and reformulate these rules on an ongoing basis, in ways which respond to particular socio-ecological situations and historical contexts. As a result, there is 'an incredible range of commoning across time, geography, resource domains and cultural tradition' (Bollier & Helfrich 2015: 7), which defies any simple formulas and predetermined taxonomies. Yet, what singles out commoning activities across the board is that they are shaped by the drive of commoners to self-devise ways to meet their needs and to pursue their desires (partly) independently from the state and the market, engineering diverse, complex and evolving systems and flows (Linebaugh 2008; Dardot & Laval 2014; Bollier & Helfrich 2015: 2-5).



In this perspective, the 'common' offers a principle of organizing society and collective activities (Hardt & Negri 2012: 71, 92) which enjoins that social goods and activities are made, sustained, governed and shared by communities on the basis of egalitarian, horizontal participation. This principle seeks to effectively include all people in decision making, and it contests established bounds, exclusions, class, racial, gender, age inequalities and all kinds of hierarchies, such as those between leaders and led, experts and non-experts, professionals and amateurs. Commoning as a whole process challenges the cultural and political model which claims that "poor and 'uneducated' people should not participate because they don't not know how to do so" (Fishman & Gandin 2016: 82). In that sense, commoning may contribute to 'epistemic justice' (Martínez-Vargas 2020). *Commoning* consists then in the practice of making and managing a collective good in a manner of openness, equality, co-activity, plurality and sustainability. The fulfilment of these terms is never perfect, but remains an ongoing aspiration and an object of lasting struggle. Education is of particular significance in this regard, as it can operate as a catalyst for advancing such processes of experimentation, exploration and alternative social construction and active inclusion.

2.2 Educational Commons

In education, the concept of commons affects the processes of learning and producing knowledge. The modes of governing these processes are managed and co-constructed by the entire educational community - teachers, students, pupils and, likely, their families, in terms of participation, openness, diversity, and consequently flatter hierarchies. The teacher becomes a companion and a facilitator who enables pupils and students to



become commoners, i.e. self-directing, creative individuals who draw on the educational commons of culture and knowledge, but they also embark on their own innovative explorations, renewing inherited forms and inventing new ones. Hence, the teachers, even as they acquaint pupils and students with particular fields of knowledge and activity, negotiate with them the terms of learning and apprenticeship. They enable them to become autonomous creative subjects who take their cues from the common cultural heritage, but they also reconstruct it, conjuring new ideas and works up, communicating with other creative singularities and participating thereby in the reinvention and the expansion of culture, values and knowledge in society. The teacher forsakes the position of the master who transmits a fixed, authoritative tradition, culture, and identity. By contrast, s/he treats pupils and students as equally capable actors who bear singular capacities and creative energies. S/he accompanies them in becoming free commoners, that is, individuals who are integrated in communities that share common goods, but navigate their own course through them (Pechtelidis & Kioupkiolis 2020).

From a critical perspective, however, the educational commons assume the equal potential of each and all to learn, to invent, to communicate, to govern and to develop themselves. Therefore, education from the perspective of commons, must always attend to contest existing hierarchies and exclusions which prevent this potential from unleashing itself within education institutions due to class, gender, racial, age and gender inequalities, which are understood as intersecting categories with simultaneous and interacting effect. Hence, the educational commons in the mode of an egalitarian co-production of learning, educational life and community by all parties involved is an orientation and an



objective for which educators should strive, both critically and creatively. The common potential is already there. However, as an always imperfect condition of fully free and equal co-activity of singularities, it is now and ever *not-yet* there (Bourassa 2017: 87-88).

A liberating educational common should permanently seek, thus, to empower all people to enhance their senses and their ability to think, to feel, to create and to relate to each other, beyond fixed identities and closed communities. It would be akin to contemporary urban commons, in which actual limits, exclusions and inequalities are subject to endless contestation, redefinition and re-invention with a view to always making the community more open, equal and diverse.

2.3 Children as commoners

A new perception of the 'child' as a citizen, as a commoner, and rights-holder has emerged relatively recently and has affected relationships between adults and children (Baraldi & Cockburn, 2018). This notion was developed on the basis of the perception of 'child' as an active subject, as well as on the basis of the argument that children have the right to participate in the public sphere and, more generally, in socio-political life. Children with their public interventions and mobilizations, like the recent ones about the protection of the environment and the planet, appear active, critical, and complex, with social and cultural skills and abilities. Recent developments in Childhood Studies, have made a decisive contribution to the conceptualization of the 'child' as a social actor capable of shaping his/her identity, producing and communicating reliable views of the social world, while retaining the right to actively participate in it (Perry-Smith & Thomas 2010; Reynaert & Roose 2016). The process of constituting the rights of



the child, leading to the legal-normative model with the global scope that currently exists - that the approval by the United Nations General Assembly of the CRC, in 1989, is its most visible and known face - it was slow, difficult and conflictual. Still, it has become a legal and symbolic framework, pointing to a universality of the rights of younger citizens. The UNCRC promoted a new conception of childhood and, recognizing the capacity of children to hold rights, it also inaugurated a new category of rights, the participation rights, which join provision and protection rights.

Strengthening of the status of children, promotion and actualization of their image as 'capable social actors' requires an effective educational environment, commons-oriented, with highly skilled teachers able to create elastic, adaptive and smooth educational conditions helping children to consciously act as 'commoners'. This important development is a result of a shift from a paradigmatic perspective that emphasized the logic of reproduction and placed children as an object of educational policies and pedagogical practices led by adults, to a another paradigmatic perspective that considers childhood as likely to be analyzed in itself, which interprets children as full-fledged social actors and the worlds of children's lives in the multiple symbolic interactions that children establish among themselves and with adults.

2.4 Peer governance

The commons do not emerge naturally, spontaneously, but are products of the commoning process (Dardot & Laval 2014). In addition, there is no *commoning* without *peer governance* (Kostakis 2010), through which people co-decide, set limits by setting specific rules and co-manage conflicts that arise both



within a common and between different commons. In a world of peer governance (*commonsverse*, see Bollier & Helfrich 2019), people, although they have different personalities and abilities or skills, perceive other members of the group or network as peers, that is, people with similar status, that is, with equal social and political power within a group or a network. In this context, peers have the same rights and obligations and are considered equally capable of contributing to a collaborative project and deciding in which direction this will go or how it will evolve. From a commons' angle, people are not adversaries and enemies with each other who compete to siege the control of a circumstance and a group of people, but are peers or commoners with the same opportunity to participate in a collective process. *Peer governance* is enacted *by the people* themselves and *through the people*, and thus is radically different from other dominant forms of governance for the people and with the people (Kioupkiolis 2019; Pechtelidis & Kioupkiolis 2020). Systematizing the processes of some of the most prominent characteristics of peer governance like equipotentiality, holoptism, modularity and heterarchy into learning scenarios (Pantazis 2021) might strengthen the educational process towards a non-antagonistic learning that harness collective intelligence. The ComPra course is developed around the alternative logic of commons' peer governance and promotes its potentiality for deeper democratic transformation of education and society in general.

2.5 Relational ontology of the commons

Peer governance is linked to a *relational ontology*, in which relations between entities are more fundamental than the entities themselves (Davies 2014). This approach shifts the importance to the intra-actions through which individuals together create a new



'entangled agency' and develop social systems (Barrad 2007; Taguchi 2010). Intra-actions are not simply interactions between completely independent and completely autonomous individuals, but a force for change, transformation and emergence of the interacting entities. These interactions engage the internal dimensions of living organisms and thus cause change. In light of this relational ontology of the commons, the world is relational and contingent, consisting of many dynamic 'I', each of which is involved in many different communities and is therefore part of many of we's (Bollier & Helfrich 2019: 49).

Therefore, this ontological relational approach challenges (OntoShift, see Bollier & Helfrich 2019: 49) the hegemonic individualistic ontology of the modern West, which considers the world to be constituted by independent and absolutely autonomous individuals without meaningful relationships with the social, cultural, historical, and natural environments in which they live. The *relational ontology* that underpins the commons deems the nature of reality through relational categories such as the 'nested - I' and 'Ubuntu rationality'. The notion of the 'nested-I' "describes the existential interdependence of people with one another and with the wider world, which co-creates and supports our personal development" (Bollier & Helfrich 2019: 83). The use of the concept of the 'nested-I' instead of the concept of the 'individual' aims at recognizing the relational foundations of people's identity. The 'nested-I' stands in contrast to the hegemonic modern secular ideal of the rational and completely autonomous individual who freely chooses and plans an individual biography irrespective of the limitations of community, family, class, age/generation, gender, sexual orientation, religion and ethnicity. The 'nested-I' practically challenges the 'isolated-I' hegemonic ideal that corresponds to homo economicus and



homo entrepreneur and is solely interested in maximizing its individual interest and benefits. The person who recognizes himself or herself as nested is aware that his or her individual interests are not necessarily in competition with the collective ones and that they can be aligned. The 'I' is perceived as part of a pluriverse made up of many different worlds and realities, of diverse relationships. This awareness leads to Ubuntu rationality, which comes from the South African Bantu language and signifies the profound interdependence of the I with WE, in other words that *I am because we are* (Bollier & Helfrich 2019).

In setting-up, developing and analysing the processes through which the HIs' students of the project will be empowered to involve themselves more fully in the self-direction of the community, we will draw selectively and critically on the specific accounts of self-government in the commons that have been elaborated by Elinor Ostrom's Bloomington School and the Peer-to-Peer approach to digital commons.

Through her long-term and systematic studies of commons of nature, such as grazing lands, irrigation channels and fisheries, Ostrom pinned down a set of essential conditions ('design principles') which underpin robust self-governing institutions of the commons over time. [The following list has been adapted from Ostrom (1990: 90-102) and Poteete, Janssen & Ostrom (2010: 100-101)]. These include:

1. Clearly defined boundaries, determining who have rights to participate in the community and its self-government, and on which terms.
2. Collective-choice arrangements. Most individuals affected by the operational rules of the community can participate in modifying the operational rules. Through



such arrangements, institutions of the commons can adapt their rules to changing local circumstances and learning over time. These self-designed rules through collective participation are considered fair by participants.

3. Monitoring. Reliable monitoring raises confidence among users so that they can co-operate without the fear that others are taking advantage of them, they are not observing collective rules and decisions etc.
4. Graduated sanctions. Graduated sanctions signal that infractions are noticed while allowing for misunderstandings, mistakes, and exceptional circumstances that lead to rule breaking. They encourage individuals who have broken a rule to resume compliance in order to enjoy ongoing trust.
5. Conflict-resolution mechanisms.
6. Minimal recognition of rights to organize. The rights of appropriators to devise their own institutions are not challenged by external governmental authorities.

In the field of *digital commons* (Kostakis 2010; 2019) such as free or open-source software and Wikipedia, researchers and activists have also identified distinct modes of governance, which are 'characterized by flexible hierarchies and structures based on merit that are used to enable participation' (Bollier 2008: 5). In these on-line communities, the self-governance of different projects is based on open input by volunteers and a participatory process of coordinating work, but it may also involve a 'transparent heterarchy,' whereby qualified and elected members of the community may undertake quality control and refuse contributions which imperil the integrity of the system (Bauwens 2005, 2014).



Furthermore, the design of peer-to-peer projects is such that participants are able to freely gather information about the presence and the contribution of other participants, in tandem with the aims and the documentation of the entire project. This capacity for a free comprehensive view is dubbed 'holoptism' to contrast it with the 'panopticism' of hierarchical projects, where total knowledge is reserved for the elites. Accordingly, in peer-to-peer processes, communication is more 'horizontal,' based on the equal freedom of participants rather than on top-down rigid hierarchies (Bauwens 2005).

The logic of the commons-based peer education is embodied in an alternative pedagogical paradigm. However, it is well known that alternative pedagogies are multiple and assume many different forms. Therefore, it is important to clarify the convergences and divergences between a pedagogy of the commons and alter-pedagogies which compete for hegemony in the educational field. No doubt, the pedagogy of the commons evinces many affinities with alternative, critical (Freire 2003; Giroux 1997; McLaren 1997) and utopian, pedagogy projects. However, there are also significant differences between them. People actively pursuing utopian pedagogical projects are interested in the processes of constructing 'other' spaces and subjectivities 'here' and 'now' in terms of equality, freedom, and collective autonomy, in a spirit akin to the educational commons. However, they tend to focus their activity mainly on challenging and, potentially, overturning neo-liberalism through these alternative and experimental educational realities. In several cases, the radical projects in question diminish or overlook the possibility of alternative educational communities striving primarily for self-determination, self-sufficiency and self-regulation, or for



shaping and maintaining community life (Pechtelidis & Kiouпкиolis 2020; Pechtelidis 2020).

Another significant divergence of the educational commons from alter-pedagogies, such as critical pedagogy, concerns the pathway to learning and ‘emancipation’. In particular, in the educational commons, students and pupils do not rely on teachers to explain reality to them. Rather, the main objective is self-reliance and autonomy and, thus, the emancipation of children from adults, teachers and parents in the present (here and now). Therefore, the aim is to confirm the principle according to which all people are equal and the belief that there is no natural hierarchy of intellectual capabilities. Children are encouraged to see, to think and to act for themselves, in order to realize that they are not dependent upon others who claim that they can see, think and act on their behalf. The path of children learning and knowing by themselves is also a way to emancipation, where the mind learns to obey only to itself. However, the role of the teacher is not annulled. The teacher assumes, rather, the role of a companion. S/he demands efforts and commitment from students. And s/he seeks to establish that they carefully accomplish this process (Pechtelidis & Kiouпкиolis 2020; Pechtelidis 2020).

From this angle, the main ambition of the short-cycle course on ‘Commoning Practices’ is to craft a scientifically and socially sound and innovative training and educative framework and set of practices to enable the European education system to contribute to the reversal of inequalities and fulfil the needs of vulnerable groups at risk, in order to prevent and reduce social isolation, marginalization, political frustration, fundamentalism and extremism, insecurity and fear among these groups. Education should not only take account of the diverse social and



cultural backgrounds of people but also actively involve them in initiatives and activities that consider the relational nature of their identities and reality. Specifically, the developed course focuses on what occurs between the children/youth, and also between the children/youth and the adults in a completely relational situation. The gaze that focused on the individual child/young person and his or her needs and lack is turned around in the course.

2.7 Care, Community and Commons

The notion of care is traversed by multiple dimensions, terminologies, inequalities and conflicts. On the one hand, care can be identified with an alternative political project that decenters markets and capital and situates life and well-being [human and non-human] as the primary analytical (and political) object (Pérez Orozco 2014). From other perspectives this concept can be used to identify and describe a whole set of needs to be satisfied (Carrasco 2014) or all the needs that people require to guarantee the sustainability and reproduction of their lives, as well as their physical and emotional wellbeing (Gálvez 2016). In an even narrower sense, the term would allow us to address the various social activities and practices aimed at ensuring the basic survival of people throughout the life course (Tobio et al. 2010).

As a result, it can be said that care encompasses all those temporary resources and activities intended to produce and fairly manage all the necessary and indispensable goods and services (although to varying degrees) for the sustainability of life. It can take place in a domestic or extra-domestic environment, by family members or third parties, as something chosen or obligatory, something pleasant or unpleasant, something accompanied by feelings of guilt or not. Irrespective of these



particularities, it is generally performed under a set of relations of exploitation and inequality that make it a devalued job. This is because the patriarchal ideology defines care as a practice naturally associated with women. Being cared for is a manifestation of power, and women have not only cared for, and do care for those who cannot look after care for themselves, but also for those who could do so but who do not care or take care of themselves (or do so insufficiently). However, this is to change when care is considered (and performed) as a core value of the commons.

The social organisation of care, this is how care is distributed between different spheres in society i.e. the state, the market, the family and the community, has emerged as a prolific line of work in the social sciences. Academic attention has been paid mostly to the interrelations between the state, the market, and the family in the provision of care. However, the participation of the community as a public space where care practices are developed, and the role of care provision in the creation and sustainability of communities still presents a diffuse and vague knowledge. There is the need for an integrated analytical account for the composition, emergence and deployment of care in communities and its relation to the commons. This course approaches these issues by providing new theoretical keys to analyse the social organisation of care from a feminist perspective.

2.8 Communication and commons

As it is from the contact with the other or with the others that people are able to develop abilities and acquire knowledge and competences, so we can say that communication affects the learner's appropriation and organization of the world (Moreno



2004). For this reason the dimension of *communication* is considered one of the pillars of the project and pretends to cover, on the one hand, the *interpersonal* and *cultural* relations with emphasis on the dialog and decision making processes working especially to acquire assertive communication skills that allows students to create opportunities for open discussion with a variety of opinions, needs and choices to be respectfully heard and considered in order to achieve a win-win solution to certain problems (Pipas & Jaradad 2010).

This dimension also considers the *media literacy and mass media representation of different vulnerable targets* to work especially on the knowledge students have about the role media play in society, their economic structure and their political interests. It is also important to strengthen the ability to interact and teach prospect students to interact with the media in a broader sense, being able to express oneself through a variety of codes and formats. The same way, we want to highlight the role that beliefs, unconscious attitudes and emotional responses play throughout our interaction with the media. On the same line, we propose to go deeply into the processes of influence of the media messages and the effects that certain discourses have upon society. In that way, we propose to work on the analysis and understanding of the impact that these messages have on specific vulnerable audiences. So, starting from the children, the course reviews different target audiences and strategies to which media discourse draws on.

On the other hand, it is essential to include *social media analysis* not only to understand the use children and young people do focusing only on the responsible use of social media, which of course it is important; but also to use the potential of social media as an educational tool that could empower children and young



people to participate actively on social and political debates as social media, combined with other networking opportunities, enabling the networked young people to reflexively consider a wider range of political discourses and share these with friends or engage in connective repertoires of political action (Bennett & Segerberg 2012).

Finally, the communication dimension of the training course considers the *audiovisual participatory methodology* as a tool that enhances empowerment especially in children and young people working on self-reflection and critical thinking through technical, creative and artistic training processes (Wang 1996).

CHAPTER III

COURSE DESIGN



3 Course Design

3.1 Current Situation

1. Education often enhances competition and inequalities (Dahlberg, Moss & Pence 2013).
2. Education is obsolete and based on the past, declining social reproduction system (Ibid; Moss 2019)
3. The meaningful use of technologies in Education is scarce while the fancy use, frequent
4. Learning is often boring
5. Self-learning might soon outstrip formal/institutional learning

3.2 Goals

1. Enhance active inclusion via educational commons in a bottom-up approach.
2. Develop social and personal skills, attitudes and knowledge that fit in today's ways of interacting and producing
3. Delimitation of contemporary challenges in Education and social life in a globalized world through new educational frameworks and approaches which emphasize more collaboration, sharing, caring, and flexibility rather than performance, efficiency and productivity
4. Convert Education to a commons resource by practicing Education as a resource co-produced and co-managed by all
5. Enhance the collaborative and inclusive elements of human condition in Education and beyond



3.3 Approach

A course for higher education institutions' (HEIs') students and education professionals about the commons and commoning practices.

A course around a commons-based peer education, which is developed on a footing of experimentalism, participation, peer to peer (P2P), and collective meaning making.

3.4 Objectives

1. Develop a new, innovative, ethical, and applied educative model through the lens of commons which:
 - a. Foster participation in public life and enable active inclusion
 - b. Acknowledge of difference/Recognition of difference (different cultures, thinking and identities) and promotion of pluralism
 - c. Promote educational practices for a democratic value
 - d. Encourage students to share their knowledge with others.
 - e. Enable young students to become peer teachers using commoner innovative skills.

2. Include theoretical and methodological discussion about the commons and commoning practices within HEI curricula.



3. Foster the participatory democratic culture of the Higher Education community.
4. Spread the commons' logic to enhance individuals' participation in public life, social and civic engagement and agency.
5. Provide a strategic plan of professional development for academic staff in line with individual and social needs and objectives (differentiated approach in pedagogy).
6. Ensure a dynamic and professional environment to HEIs, ready to insert good practices and new pedagogical concepts and practices into daily activities

3.5 How to obtain our objectives

1. Blended short-cycle course on commoning practices - Development of a learning scenario combining both on-line courses and face-to-face practical workshops.
2. Creation of an open, modularised training form
3. Training of tutors and teachers for enabling them to deal with all aspects of these learning activities.
4. Creation of a shared and open pool of educational resources on Commons' theory and practices.
5. Bringing the students in touch with commoning practices, by their involvement in lectures, discussions, workshops, data analysis and experimental sessions.
6. Delegating to them open-ended case study problems to develop skills and competences in the commoning logic



3.6 What the student will learn (Learning outcomes)

On the course, the student will learn how to

- cooperate in a team environment towards a common goal
- critically think through an open-ended problem-based approach
- apply the commons' logic
- enhance values like multiculturalism, gender perspective, tolerance etc. through educational commons
- be aware and deal with inequalities in a constructive way
- reflect on the role of mass media discourse in the construction of imaginaries
- use commons-based peer to peer characteristics to enhance collaboration and content creation
- improve their research, digital, communication and social competences

3.7 What the student will gain

Throughout this course, the higher education students will

1. become pioneers in the emerging practices of the commons in Education.
2. gain expertise in creative thinking towards asset-sharing, production of mutual resources, self-governance and peer-to-peer models
3. gain both robust theoretical and practical knowledge around the commons' discourse and practices to develop an



integrated and critically aware understanding of the commons and to promote a critical and analytical approach to contemporary challenges in Education (commons' logic of sharing and caring, heterarchy, horizontal, fair, and open relations, co-participation in the production or provision of knowledge)

4. develop skills for building/strengthening the identity of commoners both for them and their future students.
5. increase competence in foreign languages, and improve their communication tools
6. improve their professional profile, and increase opportunities for professional development

3.8 Commoning Practices Course content

Educational Commons – is an umbrella term of the course, which is based on 3 interrelated pillars:

- a. *Sociology of Education, Youth & Childhood*
- b. *Communication*
- c. *Technology*

Training Pillars on Commoning Practices





Educational commons will be approached through the lens of Sociology, Communication and Technology. The commons are social practices, and social systems; therefore, the sociological perspective is at the core of the course. Also, the focus of the course is upon education, that's why Sociology of education, childhood and youth is a main pillar of the course. Moreover, communication is considered as vital due to the fact that dialog, decision making processes and collective making meaning are inextricably connected to communication. Furthermore, technology forms a basic component of the new commons, education and the contemporary world in general from the peer-to-peer architecture of the Internet to the open source technologies and the emergence of a collaborative form of production process termed Commons-based Peer Production.

Module: Experimentalism, Democracy & Educational Commons

- Lesson 1:** The educational commons as public participatory forums
- Lesson 2:** Experimental collective meaning making in educational settings
- Lesson 3:** Alternative pedagogies and alternative pedagogues; The teacher as a commoner

Module: Care, risk, community and educational commons

- Lesson 1:** Caring dimensions in learning communities
- Lesson 2:** The educational commons in risk societies
- Lesson 3:** Feminism, interdependency and care

Module: Changing contexts of childhood and youth in a globalised world

- Lesson 1:** Children, Childhood and Commons (3 C's)
- Lesson 2:** Youth and Commons
- Lesson 3:** Children and Youth's Rights, Public Policies and Lived Realities

Module: Conflict resolution, decision making processes & communication skills

- Lesson 1:** Communication skills, such as negotiation, dialog, active listening
- Lesson 2:** Assemblies, decision making processes, and communication infrastructure

Module: Intercultural & Intergenerational Communication and Community

- Lesson 1:** Intercultural & intergenerational communication strategies for building communities of the commons
- Lesson 2:** Communication channels and languages for visibility and participation
- Lesson 3:** Creativity, communication and participation enabled by artistic practices

Module : Media and the commons' imaginary

- Lesson 1:** Media Literacy Overview; ideology dimension; stereotypes on beauty and health
- Lesson 2:** Commoning Social Media; Responsible use of Social Media; Social media as an educational tool; Social media as a revitalization tool

Module: Technology and peer-to-peer commoning practices

- Lesson 1:** The technological infrastructure of digital commons
- Lesson 2:** Peer to peer as infrastructure; The political economy of Commons-based Peer Production and its characteristics
- Lesson 3:** Commons-based Peer Education: Notion, implication and practical exercise

Module: Educational commoning platforms and tools

- Lesson 1:** Understanding the functionality of educational platforms of the commons
- Lesson 2:** Practicing and developing educational scenarios about the commons using educational platforms and tools
- Lesson 3:** Commoning Hackathon: Hackfest in education - collaboration on software projects following the commons' logic

Module: Identities and risks in a digitalized commonsverse

- Lesson 1:** Digital commons' skills and commoner's digital identity; online & offline gender, childhood, youth identities in a glocal (global + local) fluid world
- Lesson 2:** Digital commons and risks: problems and security analysis of digital skills and identity
- Lesson 3:** Intersectionality and empowerment and autonomy of children and youth via ICT



3.8.1 Introductory Module: The commons in education

Welcome and warming up commons-oriented games

Lesson 1: The commons: History of the commons; Governance and organizational characteristics of the commons; Integrating governance and organizational characteristics of the commons in learning

References:

Bauwens, M. (2005). The political economy of peer production. *CTheory*, 12-1.

Benkler, Y., & Nissenbaum, H. (2006). Commons-based peer production and virtue. *Journal of political philosophy*, 14 (4), 394-419.

Bollier, D., & Helfrich, S. (2019). *Free, Fair and Alive: The Insurgent Power of the Commons*. New Society Publishers.

De Moor, T. (2012). What Do We Have in Common? A Comparative Framework for Old and New Literature in the Commons. *International Review of Social History*, 57(2), 269–290. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S002085901200020X>

Mies, Maria (2014). No commons without a community. *Community Development Journal*, Volume 49, Issue suppl_1, January 2014, Pages i106–i117, <https://doi.org/10.1093/cdj/bsu007>

Tomašević, T., Horvat, V., Midžić, A, Dragšić, I., & Dakić, M. (2018). Commons in South East Europe: Case of Croatia, Bosnia & Herzegovina and Macedonia. Zagreb: Institute for Political Ecology. <http://ipe.hr/en/publications/commons-in-south-east->



[europe-case-of-croatia-bosnia-herzegovina-and-macedonia/](#) ,
Chapter II: subchapters 4 & 5; Chapter III: all, *Chapter IV:all*.

Lesson 2: Educational commons: in formal, non-formal and informal settings

References:

Bourassa, G. N. (2017). Towards an elaboration of the pedagogical common. In A. Means, D., R. Ford & G. Slater (eds). *Educational commons in theory and practice* (pp. 75–93). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

De Lissovoy, N., Means, A., and Saltman, K. (2015). *Toward a new common school movement*. Boulder, CO: Paradigm Publishers.

Korsgaard, M. T. (2018). Education and the concept of commons. A pedagogical reinterpretation. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, vol.50.

Martinez-Vargas, C. (2020) Democratic Capabilities Research: Exploring contextual challenges and contributions of participatory research towards epistemic justice, in Walker, M. and Boni, A. (Ed.) *Participatory research, capabilities and epistemic justice. A transformative agenda for higher education*. London: Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 139-164.

Pechtelidis, Y. (2020). Educational Commons. In S. Themelis (ed.). *Critical Reflections on the Language of Neoliberalism in Education. Dangerous Words and Discourses of Possibility*. London and New York: Routledge.



3.8.2 Sociology of Education, Youth & Childhood

Module 1: Experimentalism, Democracy & Educational Commons

Lesson 1: The educational commons as public participatory forums

References:

Bobbio, I. (2019). Designing effective public participation. *Policy and Society*, 38(1), 41-57, DOI: 10.1080/14494035.2018.1511193

Dahlberg, G., Moss, P., & Pence, A. (2013). *Beyond quality in early childhood education and care*. Milton Park, Abingdon. Routledge. (chapter 4)

De Lissovoy, N. (2011). Pedagogy in common: Democratic education in the global era. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 43 (10), 1119–1134.

Nowak-Lojewska, A., O’Toole, L., Regan, C., & Ferreira, M. (2019). “To learn with” in the view of the holistic, relational and inclusive education. *The Pedagogical Quarterly (Kwartalnik Pedagogiczny)*, 64(1), 151-162. doi:10.5604/01.3001.0013.1856

Santos, B.S. (2018). *The End of the Cognitive Empire: The Coming of Age of Epistemologies of the South*. Duke University Press.



Lesson 2: Experimental collective meaning making in educational settings

References:

Dahlberg, G., Moss, P., & Pence, A. (2013) Beyond quality in early childhood education and care. Milton Park, Abingdon. Routledge. chapter 5

Invernizzi, A., & Williams, J. (ed). Children and Citizenship. Sage.

Olsson, L. M. (2009). Movement and Experimentation in Young Children's Learning. Deleuze and Guattari in early childhood education. Routledge.

Pechtelidis, Y. & Kioupkiolis, A. (2020). Education as Commons, Children as Commoners. The case study of the Little Tree community. Democracy & Education, 28 (1), Article 5. Available at: <https://democracyeducationjournal.org/home/vol28/iss1/5>

Ranson, S. (2017). Education And Democratic Participation. The Making of Learning Communities. Taylor &

Lesson 3: Alternative pedagogies and alternative pedagogues; The teacher as a commoner.

References:

Cockburn, T. (2010). Children and deliberative democracy in England. In B. Percy-Smith, & N. Thomas (eds.), A Handbook of Children and Young People's Participation Perspectives from theory and practice (pp.306-317). Routledge.

Dahlberg, G. (2003). Pedagogy as a locus of an ethics of an encounter. In M. Bloch, K. Holmlund, I. Moqvist, & Popkewitz (eds),



Governing Children, Families and Education: Restructuring the Welfare State. Palgrave Macmillan.

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Moss, P. (2019). Alternative Narratives in Early Childhood. An Introduction for Students and Practitioners. Routledge.

Moss, P. (2014). Transformative Change and Real Utopias in Early Childhood Education: A story of democracy, experimentation and potentiality. Routledge.

Module 2: Care, risk, community and educational commons

Lesson 1: Caring dimensions in learning communities

References:

Casas-Cortes, M. (2019). Care-tizenship: precarity, social movements, and the deleting/re-writing of citizenship. *Citizenship Studies*, 23(1), 19-42.

Dahlberg, G., Moss, P., & Pence, A. (2013) Beyond quality in early childhood education and care. Milton Park, Abingdon. Routledge. chapter 5

Tronto, J.C. and Fisher, B. (1990). Toward a Feminist Theory of Caring. In E. Abel and M. Nelson (eds). *Circles of Care* (pp. 36-54). Suny Press.

Tronto, J.C. (1993). *Moral Boundaries: A Political Argument for an Ethic of Care*. Psychology Press.



Sato, C., & Soto Alarcón, J. M. (2019). Toward a postcapitalist feminist political ecology' approach to the commons and commoning. *International Journal of the Commons*, 13(1), 36–61. DOI: <http://doi.org/10.18352/ijc.933>

Lesson 2: The educational commons in risk societies

References:

Bauman, Z., & Haugaard, M. (2008). Liquid modernity and power: A dialogue with Zygmunt Bauman. *Journal of Power*, 1(2), 111-130.

Beck U. (1992). *Risk Society. Towards a New Modernity*. Polity.

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Marine, S. & Lewis, R. (2017). Mutuality without Alliance: the roles of community in becoming a college student feminist. *Gender and Education*, 31(7), 886-902.

Pechtelidis, Y. and Pantazidis, S. (2020). Poverty, Well-being and Educational Opportunities for Children in Contemporary Greece. The case of two afterschool programs in Gaitán, L., Pechtelidis, Y., Tomás, C., & Fernandes, N. (2020). *Children's Lives in Southern Europe. Contemporary Challenges and Risks*. Edward Elgar, pp. 88-103.



Lesson 3: Feminism, interdependency and care

References:

Agenjo-Calderón, A., & Gálvez-Muñoz, L. (2019). Feminist economics: Theoretical and political dimensions. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 78(1), 137-166.

Federici, S. (2018). *Re-enchanting the World: Feminism and the Politics of the Commons*. Oakland, CA: Kairos/PM Press. Chapter: "From crisis to the commons: reproductive work, Affective labor and technology and the transformation of the every life"

Fraser, N. (2016). Contradiction of capital and care. *New Left review*, 100, June July. Available: <https://newleftreview.org/issues/ii100/articles/nancy-fraser-contradictions-of-capital-and-care>

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Ramsey, L. et al. (2007). Thinking of others: Feminist identification and the perception of others' beliefs. *Sex Roles*, 56, 611-616.



Module 3: Changing contexts of childhood and youth in a globalised world

Lesson 1: Children, Childhood and Commons (3 C's); children as commoners; diverse childhoods; cultural and social constructions of childhood and children's everyday lives.

References:

Esser, F., Baader, M., Betz, T., & Hungerland, B. (Eds) (2016). *Reconceptualising Agency and Childhood. New perspectives in Childhood Studies.* Routledge.

James, A., & Prout, A. (2014). *Constructing and Reconstructing Childhood: Contemporary issues in the sociological study of childhood.* Routledge.

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Spyrou, S. (2018). *Disclosing Childhoods. Research and Knowledge Production for a Critical Childhood Studies.* Palgrave Macmillan UK.



Lesson 2: Youth and Commons; young people as commoners; youth urban cultures as commons; the commons' culture of contemporary youth social movements

References:

Kioupkiolis, A., & Pechtelidis, Y. (2017). Youth Heteropolitics in Crisis-ridden Greece, in J. Bessant and Sarah Picard (eds). *Re-Generating Politics: Young People and New Forms of Politics in Times of Crises*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Pechtelidis, Y. (2016). Youth Heterotopias in Precarious Times. *The Students Autonomous Collectivity*. *Young*, 24 (1), 1-16.

Lesson 3: Children and Youth's Rights, Public Policies and Lived Realities

References:

Baraldi, C., & Cockburn, T. (Eds.). (2018). *Theorising Childhood. Citizenship, Rights and Participation*. Palgrave. Chapter(s)?

Biesta, G. (2011). The Ignorant Citizen: Mouffe, Rancière, and the Subject of Democratic Education. *Studies in Philosophy and Education*, 30 (2), 141-153.

Cordero Arce, M. (2012). Towards an Emancipatory Discourse of Children's Rights. *The International Journal of Children's Rights*, 30(3), 365-421.

Moran, L., Reilly, K., & Brady, B. (Eds.) (2021). *Narrating Childhood with Children and Young People. Diverse Contexts, Methods and Stories of Everyday Life*. Palgrave. Chapter(s)?



3.8.3 Communication

Module 1: Conflict resolution, decision making processes & communication skills

Lesson 1: Communication skills, such as negotiation, dialog, active listening, etc., to improve student's equal communication and promote participatory democracy.

References:

Davies, B. (2014). *Listening to Children. Being and becoming*. Routledge. Chapters 3 & 4

Fairclough, N. 1989. *Language and Power*. Longman.

Gerden, J., Schrader, S. M. & Gergen, M. (2009). *Constructing Worlds Together. Interpersonal Communication As Relational Process*. Pearson Education. Chapter?

Gordon, T. (2003). *Teacher Effectiveness Training*. Three rivers press. Chapter 3

Hall, E. T. (1959). *The silent language*. Doubleday and Company.

Hartley, P. (1993). *Interpersonal Communication*. Routledge.

Lesson 2: Assemblies, decision making processes, and communication infrastructure

References:

Moran-Ellis, J. & Sünker, H. (2018). Childhood studies, children's politics and participation: perspectives for processes of democratization, *International Review of Sociology*, 28 (2), 277-297.



Pechtelidis, Y. (2018). Heteropolitical Pedagogies, Citizenship and Childhood in Contemporary Greece. In C. Baraldi, & T. Cockburn (eds). *Theorising Childhood: Citizenship, Rights, and Participation* (pp. 215-237). Palgrave Macmillan.

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Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. Continuum. Chapter?

Module 2: Intercultural & Intergenerational Communication and Community

Lesson 1: Intercultural & intergenerational communication strategies for building communities of the commons.

References:

Butler, J. (1993). Endangered/Endangering: Schematic Racism and White Paranoia. In R. Gooding- Williams (Ed.), *Reading Rodney King/Reading Urban Uprising* (pp. 16-22). Psychology Press.

González, A., & Brett R. L. (2014). Rationality and Critical Intercultural Communication. *Hypothesis*,1(1), 89-100.

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interculturality in Spain, *International Journal of Iberian Studies*, 30(2), 93-112.

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<http://www.uis.unesco.org/culture/Documents/fcshandbook-2-cultural-participation-en.pdf>.



Lesson 2: Communication channels and languages for visibility and participation

References:

Petty, R. E. & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). Communication and persuasion: Central and peripheral routes to attitude change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51 (5), 1032-1043.

Brever, P. R. (2002). Framing, value words and citizens explanations of their issue opinions. *Política y Comunicación*, 3 (10).

Goldman, R. (1992). *Reading Ads Socially*. New York.

Kent, M. L. (2015). The power of storytelling in public relations: Introducing the 20 master plots. *Public Relations Review*, 41(4), 480-489. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2015.05.011>

Montero-Pérez, M., & Codina, L. (2016, 1a. edición), *Navigation Design and SEO for Content-Intensive Websites: A Guide for an Efficient Digital Communication*. Chandos Publishing (Elsevier). Chapter?

Lesson 3: Creativity, communication and participation enabled by artistic practices

References:

Harcourt, W. (2019). Feminist Political Ecology practices of worlding: Art, commoning and the politics of hope in the class room. *International Journal of the Commons*, 13(1), 153–174. DOI: <http://doi.org/10.18352/ijc.929>

Black, J., Castro, J., & Lin, C. (2015). *Youth Practices in Digital Arts and New Media: Learning in Formal and Informal Settings*. Palgrave Macmillan US.



Livingstone, S. (2008). Taking risky opportunities in youthful content creation: teenagers use of social networking sites for intimacy, privacy and self-expression. *New Media & Society*, 10(3), 393-411.

Pritzker, S., LaChapelle, A., & Tatum, J. (2012). *Urban Youth and Photovoice: Visual Ethnography in Action*. Oxford University Press.

Module 3: Media and the commons' imaginary

Lesson 1: Media Literacy Overview; ideology dimension; stereotypes on beauty and health, childhood, youth and adulthood; (de)construction of imaginaries; media messages to different target audiences.

References:

Araüna N., Tortajada I., & Figueras-Maz, M. (2020). Feminist Reggaeton in Spain: Young Women. Subverting Machismo through "Perreo". *YOUNG* 28 (1), 32-49.

doi:10.1177/1103308819831473

Buckingham, D. (2007). *Beyond Technology. Children's Learning in the Age of Digital Culture*. Polity Press, Ltd.

Figueras Maz, M., Mauri, M., & Martínez-Rodríguez, R. (2013). Invisible, Stereotyped and Filtered by Adults: The Image of Young People in the Catalan News Media, *Young*, 1 (21), 77-93

James, C. (2016). *Disconnected: Youth, New Media, and the Ethics Gap*. [MacArthur Foundation Series on Digital Media and Learning](#).

Loader, B., Vromen, A., & Xenos, M. (2016). Performing for the Young Networked Citizen?: celebrity politics, social networking



and the political engagement of young people. *Media, Culture & Society*, 38 (3), 400–419.

<http://doi.org/10.1177/0163443715608261>

Lesson 2: Commoning Social Media; Responsible use of Social Media; Social media as an educational tool; Social media as a revitalization tool

References:

Garcia Galera, M. (2017). *Youth empowerment through social network through social networks. Creating participative digital citizenship.*

Bragg, S. (2006). "Having a real debate": using media as a resource in sex education. *Sex Education: Sexuality, Society and Learning*, 6(4), 317–331. doi:10.1080/14681810600981830

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Zagal, J. (2010). *Ludoliteracy. Defining, understanding and supporting games education.* ETC Press.



Lesson 3: Audiovisual participatory methodology; audiovisual as a pedagogical tool promoting educational commons

References:

Ohmer, M., & Owens, J. (2013). Using Photovoice to Empower Youth and Adults to Prevent Crime. *Journal of Community Practice*, 21(4), 410-433.

Pritzker, S., Lachapelle, A. & Tatum, J. (2012). "We need their help": Encouraging and discouraging adolescent civic engagement through Photovoice. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 34(11), 2247-2254.

Rappaport, J. (1987). Terms of Empowerment/Exemplars of Prevention: Towards a Theory for Community Psychology. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 15(2), 121-148.

Servaes, J. (1996). Participatory Communication (Research) from a Freirean Perspective. *African Council for Communication Education*, 10(1), 73-91.

Wang, C. (2006). Youth participation in photovoice as a strategy for community change. *Journal of Community Practice*, 14(12), 147-161.



3.8.4 Technology

Module 1: Technology and peer to peer commoning practices

Lesson 1: *The technological infrastructure of digital commons: What is technology; The dark and the bright side of technology; technology and the commons; commoning education via technology.*

References:

Giotitsas, C. (2019). *Open Source Agriculture: Grassroots Technology in the Digital Era*. Springer International Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-29341-3> : Chapter 5

The New Yorker: [The Efficiency Dilemma: If our machines use less energy, will we just use them more?](#), By David Owen

Doc Searls Weblog: [Saving the Internet—and all the commons it makes possible](#).

Kostakis, V., Latoufis, K., Liarokapis, M., & Bauwens, M. (2018). The convergence of digital commons with local manufacturing from a degrowth perspective: Two illustrative cases. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 197, 1684–1693. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.09.077>

Study the case of P2PU: <https://www.p2pu.org/en/>

Lesson 2: *Peer to peer as infrastructure; The political economy of Commons-based Peer Production and its characteristics*

References

Arvidsson, A., Caliandro, A., Cossu, A., Deka, M., Gandini, A., Luise, V., Orria, B., & Anselmi, G. (2017).

Commons Based Peer Production in the Information Economy



[https://www.academia.edu/29210209/Commons Based Peer P
roduction in the Information Economy](https://www.academia.edu/29210209/Commons_Based_Peer_Production_in_the_Information_Economy)

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Kostakis, V., & Bauwens, M. (2021). The Grammar of Peer Production. In M. O’Neil, C. Pentzold, & S. Toupin (Eds.), *The Handbook of Peer Production*. New York: Wiley-Blackwell.

Lesson 3: Commons-based Peer Education: Notion, implication and practical exercise.

References:

View of Peer governance and Wikipedia: Identifying and understanding the problems of Wikipedia’s governance | First Monday. (n.d.). Retrieved January 4, 2021, from

<https://firstmonday.org/ojs/index.php/fm/article/view/2613/2479>

Kostakis, V., Niaros, V., Dafermos, G., & Bauwens, M. (2015). Design global, manufacture local: Exploring the contours of an emerging productive model. *Futures*, 73, 126–135.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2015.09.001>

Pantazis, A. (2021). Learning and the Concept of Commons: How Peer-to-Peer can Enhance Learning and Education in the Digital Era. PhD Thesis (<https://digikogu.taltech.ee/en/Item/b5e583c5-c0b2-475a-ada8-d5e79d1d5114>): Chapter 4



Module 2: Educational commoning platforms and tools.

Lesson 1: Understanding the functionality of *educational platforms* of the commons.

References:

Corneli, J. Danoff, C. J., Pierce, C., Ricaurte, P., & Snow MacDonald, L. (eds). (2016). *The Peeragogy Handbook* (3rd ed.). PubDomEd/Pierce Press. <http://peeragogy.org>.

Damasceno, C. S. (2018). New pathways: Affective labor and distributed expertise in peer- supported Learning Circles. *Communication Education*, 67(3), 330–347. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03634523.2018.1467026>

Pazaitis, A., Kostakis, V., & Bauwens, M. (2017). Digital economy and the rise of open cooperativism: The case of the Enspiral Network. *Transfer: European Review of Labour and Research*, 23(2), 177–192. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1024258916683865>

Antoniadis, P., & Pantazis, A. (2021, in press). P2P Learning. In O’Neil, M., Pentzold, C. & Toupin S. (Eds.), *The Handbook of Peer Production* (pp. 197–210). New York: Wiley-Blackwell.

Lesson 2: Practicing and developing *educational scenarios* about the commons using educational platforms and tools.

Practical exercise.

References:

Antoniadis, P., & Pantazis, A. (2021, in press). P2P Learning. In O’Neil, M., Pentzold, C. & Toupin S. (Eds.), *The Handbook of Peer Production* (pp. 197–210). New York: Wiley-Blackwell.



Pantazis, A., & Priavolou, C. (2017). 3D printing as a means of learning and communication: The 3Ducation project revisited. *Telematics and Informatics*, 34(8), 1465–1476.

Lesson 3: Commoning *Hackathon*: Hackfest in education - collaboration on software projects following the commons' logic. Commoning Minecraft

Practical exercise.

References:

Duhring, J. Project-based Learning Kickstart Tips: Hackathon Pedagogies as Educational Technology, Cogswell Polytechnical College, <https://venturewell.org/open2014/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/DUHRING.pdf>

Module 3: Identities and risks in a digitalized commonsverse

Lesson 1: Digital commons' skills and commoner's digital identity; online & offline gender, childhood, youth identities in a glocal (global + local) fluid world

References:

Sinders, C (2019). Making Critical Ethical Software. In L. Bogers, & L. Chiappini (Eds.), *The critical makers reader: (un)learning technology*, 86-95. Institute of Network Cultures. <https://networkcultures.org/blog/publication/the-critical-makers-reader-unlearning-technology/>



Alevizou, P. (2008), Beyond Technology: Children's Learning in the Age of Digital Culture. *Children & Society*, 22, 70-71.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1099-0860.2007.00135.x>

de Almeida, A. N., Alves, N. de A., Delicado, A., & Carvalho, T. (2012). Children and digital diversity: From 'unguided rookies' to 'self-reliant cybernauts.' *Childhood*, 19(2), 219–234.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0907568211410897>

Lesson 2: Digital commons and risks: problems and security analysis of digital skills and identity; dealing effectively with a risk society through a digital commons-oriented peer education

References:

Koch, A. B., Brandt, E. Z. (2021). The use of digital media: To support and enhance vulnerable children's perspectives, voices and choices. *Children & Society*, 32(1), 229-243.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/chso.12421>

de Almeida, A. N., Delicado, A., de Almeida Alves, N., & Carvalho, T. (2015). Internet, children and space: Revisiting generational attributes and boundaries. *New Media & Society*, 17(9), 1436–1453.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444814528293>



Lesson 3: Intersectionality and empowerment and autonomy of children and youth via ICT

References:

Konstantoni, K, & Emejulu, A. (2017). When intersectionality met childhood studies: the dilemmas of a travelling concept. *Children's Geographies*, 15(1), 6-22.

Alanen, L. (2016). 'Intersectionality' and other challenges to theorizing childhood. *Childhood*, 23(2), 157–161.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0907568216631055>

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PART III

TEACHING STRATEGY



4 Teaching Strategy

4.1 Short Cycle Programmes

4.1.1 General Remarks

In the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué (2009), the European ministers responsible for Higher Education stated that higher education is being modernised with the adoption of a three-cycle structure including, within national contexts, the possibility of intermediate qualifications linked to the first cycle. They further anticipated that within national contexts, intermediate qualifications within the first cycle can be a means of widening access to higher education.

Three years later, in the Bucharest Communiqué (2012) the ministers agreed to explore how the Qualifications Frameworks in the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA) could take account of short cycle qualifications (EQF Level 5) and encourage countries to use the QF-EHEA for referencing these qualifications in national contexts where they exist. To this aim, they committed themselves to explore how the QF-EHEA could take account of short cycle qualifications in national contexts, at the European level, in preparation of the Ministerial Conference in 2015 and together with relevant stakeholders.

Programmes of higher education in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) are offered at three levels - undergraduate, graduate and doctoral studies - which are usually referred to as the three-cycle system. Alongside the three main cycles, around half of all EHEA countries offer short-cycle higher education programmes, which are usually vocational and practice-oriented, providing students with professional knowledge, skills and competences to facilitate entering the



labour market. In many European countries, short-cycle programmes act as integral parts of the European higher education landscape and involve a considerable portion of students.

According to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) for Lifelong Learning (LLL) and the Qualifications Frameworks in the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA), Short-cycle in Higher Education (SCHE) is considered as a level 5 studies, either within or linked to the first higher education cycle. Although the descriptor for level 5 of the EQF for LLL is not identical to the descriptor in the QF-EHEA for short-cycle higher education, they correspond and are compatible with each other (Bologna Process: London, 2007).

In most countries, studies at level 5 are SCHE, with two parallel systems exist: on the one hand SCHE – level 5 studies (within HE) and on the other level 5 professional higher education which is not considered to be part of higher education and mainly focuses on the labour market. Within this binary system at level 5, all together qualifications at level 5 remain quite blurred.

However, the fact that the Bologna process has led to the introduction of the Qualifications Framework for the EHEA (including, within national contexts, the possibility of intermediate qualifications) has definitely enhanced the status of SCHE.

Short-cycle higher education (SCHE) spread quickly throughout most of Europe, as a result of rising demand for higher education, growing diversification of the student body, and the changing needs for high-skilled manpower of post-industrialized societies.

SCHE level 5 studies are provided by various public education providers such as universities, university colleges, universities of applied sciences, regional technical institutes, further education



or adult education organisations, but in some cases, it is organised also by private providers. In both cases it may sometimes be organised in cooperation with sectoral or professional organisations, with chambers of commerce, with individual companies, with trade unions etc. In all cases, HEI is very often the awarding or responsible organisation or body.

The fact that SCHE is provided in such a wide variety of settings enhances the opportunities of non-traditional learners to participate in higher education.

According to a EURASHE study, commissioned by the DGEAC of the European Commission (2011) [1], in the majority of countries surveyed students can use most of the credits earned in SCHE to progress to degree courses. In some countries, students can even use all the credits earned to progress to a bachelor's award. The minimum students can transfer is 30 ECTS. Sometimes the number of credits depends on the articulation between programmes.

4.1.2 The role of Short-cycle Programmes

The critical role of SCHE programs in preparing people for dynamic labor markets and knowledge-based economies has attracted growing attention throughout Europe. Two main factors have stimulated the extension of SCHE. One is the need to expand tertiary education in response to pressure from student aspirations and from the perception that in a flexible, knowledge-based economy, more people from varied social and economic backgrounds will need high-level skills such as communication, problem-solving and advanced vocational skills (OECD, 2004). The other factor reflects the pressure of market forces towards the development of programs that are more geographically accessible, financially more affordable, shorter, and more



applied and vocationally oriented thus more responsive to employer needs.

4.1.3 Short Cycle Higher Education

This type of education may be general or vocational, and is understood as:

- Tertiary sub-degree education embedded in higher education institutions.
- Tertiary education taking place in separate institutions – colleges, centres for adult education, professional organisations, companies – but having strong links with higher education institutions.
- Tertiary education taking place in separate institutions – colleges, centres for adult education, professional organisations, companies – and having no or only occasional links with higher education institutions.
- Post-secondary education having strong links with higher education, and very often delivering identical qualifications to those received in tertiary short cycle education.

This type of education falls under Level 5 in the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 2011). In this frame, it:

- Has a minimum of two years full-time equivalent duration.
- Is often designed to provide participants with professional knowledge, skills and competences.
- Is typically practically based, occupationally specific, and prepares students to enter the labour market.
- May provide pathways to other tertiary education programmes.
- Includes academic programmes below bachelor or equivalent.



This type of education falls under Skill Level 2 in the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO 2008), since the knowledge and skills required for competent performance in occupations at this level are usually obtained as a result of study at a higher educational institution for a period of 1 to 3 years following completion of secondary education (short or medium cycle).

This type of education falls under Level 5 in the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF-LLL). According to the Descriptor, relevant learning outcomes are:

- Comprehensive, specialised, factual and theoretical knowledge within a field of work or study and an awareness of the boundaries of that knowledge.
- A comprehensive range of cognitive and practical skills required to develop creative solutions to abstract problems.
- The ability to exercise management and supervision in contexts of work or study activities where there is unpredictable change.
- The ability to review and develop performance of self and others.

This type of education is addressed in the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA) as short cycles linked to / within higher education first cycles. The Descriptor developed by the Joint Quality Initiative as part of the Bologna process (Dublin Descriptor), corresponds to the learning outcomes for Level 5 in the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF-LLL).



Thus, qualifications that signify completion of the higher education short cycle (within the first cycle) are awarded to students who:

- Have demonstrated knowledge and understanding in a field of study that builds upon general secondary education and is typically at a level supported by advanced textbooks; such knowledge provides an underpinning for a field of work or vocation, personal development, and further studies to complete the first cycle.
- Can apply their knowledge and understanding in occupational contexts.
- Have the ability to identify and use data to formulate responses to well-defined concrete and abstract problems.
- Can communicate about their understanding, skills and activities, with peers, supervisors and clients.
- Have the learning skills to undertake further studies with some autonomy.

Concerning recognition of professional qualifications, the Directive 2005/36/EC, Art.11c states that relevant diplomas should certify successful completion of:

(i) either training at post-secondary level other than that referred to in points (d) and (e) of a duration of at least one year or of an equivalent duration on a part-time basis, one of the conditions of entry of which is, as a general rule, the successful completion of the secondary course required to obtain entry to university or higher education or the completion of equivalent school education of the second secondary level, as well as the



professional training which may be required in addition to that post-secondary course; or

(ii) in the case of a regulated profession, training with a special structure, included in Annex II [Paramedical and childcare training courses; Master craftsman sector, which represents education and training courses concerning skills not covered by Title III, Chapter II, of this Directive; Seafaring sector; Technical sector], equivalent to the level of training provided for under (i), which provides a comparable professional standard and which prepares the trainee for a comparable level of responsibilities and functions.

A distinction has to be made between countries having Short Cycle Higher Education at Level 5 in the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF-LLL), and countries, where Short Cycle Higher Education is not part of the higher education structure as understood in the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA), but where vocational education at Level 5 in the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF-LLL) is offered.

In this document, the term Short Cycle Higher Education indicates study programmes, which are placed by the pertinent national ministries at Level 5 in the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA), and are also seen as an intermediate level within or linked to the first cycle of the Qualifications Framework for the European Higher Education Area, (QF-EHEA); and which are organised by universities, colleges, centres for adult education, or even upper secondary schools.

It is evident that Level 5 in the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF-LLL) requires learning outcomes that go



clearly beyond the restricted perspective of Level 4, but do not attain the complexity and independence of Level 6. Thus, knowledge should be comprehensive and specialised, even though critical understanding of theories and principles is not required. Skills should permit developing solutions to abstract problems, but not to complex and unpredictable ones. Responsibility and autonomy should reach the stage of facing activities where there is unpredictable change; nevertheless, decision making in complex unpredictable contexts is not asked for. In the same frame, the competence of developing performance of self and others should be acquired, however without managing professional development of individuals and groups.

4.1.4 The current situation of the Short-cycle higher education in the partners' countries

Portugal

Organising Short-cycle higher education training course fits in with the assumptions inherent to the Higher Education Mission in Portugal (Article 2), namely: promoting the qualification, production and dissemination of knowledge and the training of students within an international reference framework; lifelong learning; the promotion of effective mobility of students and graduates across Europe, as well as a public understanding of the humanities, arts, science and technology, among others.

In relation to the "Objectives of the short-cycle higher education", according to the legislation in force, namely Article 8 of the Judicial Regime of the Higher Education Institutions (JRHEI), which considers the attributions of higher education institutions, the possibility of "a) conducting study cycles aimed at awarding academic degrees, as well as other post-secondary courses,



post-graduate training courses and others "and article 4 of Decree-Law no. 65/2018, of 16 August, also supports the teaching of non-degree courses by HEIs: "Higher education institutions may also award other non-academic degrees (...)".

In what concerns Quality Assurance in Short-cycle Higher Education It is up to each higher education institution to create the mechanisms for internal evaluation, after being approved by the governing bodies (for example, Scientific Council and Pedagogical Council).

Spain

Short Cycle Higher Education in Spain refers to two concepts: Lifelong Learning and Advanced Vocational Training. The first one refers more to adult training to get not specific competences and the second one refers to specialised training that enables students to carry out various professions in a qualified manner.

Even when no one of them fits exactly with Short Cycle Higher Education as this kind of training is innovative in the country and there is not clear legislation, Lifelong Learning could be more likely the kind of short cycle higher education in Spain that could be considered in order to frame the project within the guiding legal framework in relation to access, qualification and certification.

Tertiary education in the Spanish education system comprises the following types of provision: university education, advanced vocational training, advanced Arts studies, advanced vocational training in Plastic Arts and Design, and advanced Sports studies.

Spain has adopted a new legal framework in order to bring its higher education structure in line with the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) Qualifications Framework. Higher education is now organised into three cycles: Bachelor's,



including a minimum of 240 credits, Master's, including between 60 and 120 credits, and Doctorate's. University education (ISCED 5A) is provided in university faculties, escuelas técnicas superiores (higher technical schools), escuelas politécnicas superiores (higher polytechnic schools) and escuelas universitarias (colleges providing only first-cycle studies). Advanced Arts Education is also considered to be ISCED 5A and is provided in public institutions called conservatorios superiores (higher music conservatories) and escuelas superiores (advanced schools).

Advanced vocational training (ISCED 5B) is offered in the same schools as ESO and Bachillerato, in centros de referencia nacional (national reference schools) or in centros integrados de formación profesional (integrated vocational training schools). Advanced Plastic Arts and Design Education (ISCED 5B) is taught in public arts schools and Advanced Sports Education (ISCED 5B) is offered in public or private training schools, authorised by the corresponding education authority, and in educational institutions within the military education system.

Greece

The level of education following secondary education plays an important role for society according to Eurostat, from which the following data were derived, with reference year 2013. In the EU we generally find four (4) levels of higher education. The basic bachelor, the master, the doctoral, as well as a short-cycle that precedes the basic degree, which concerns very specialized professional fields. The latter is not part of the education system in many countries (including Greece).

Each Higher Education Institution can organize short cycle programs, which include courses that correspond to a maximum of 120 credits (Law 4009/2011). The courses are completed with



the award of a short cycle training certificate, as defined in the institution of the institution. This certificate is not equivalent to a first cycle degree.

Estonia

In Estonia, the short-cycle higher education is integrated into the fifth qualification level that is acquired in the fifth level of vocational training (Eurydice, 2020b). Therefore, to examine the shortcycle higher education in Estonia, we have to look into the fifth level of vocational training.

According to Cedefop (2017, 49) and The Estonian lifelong learning strategy (2020), the promotion of participation in vocational training is currently a political priority in Estonia. At least one vocational education institution can be found in each Estonian country (Estonian Ministry of Education and Research, 2021), in 2019/20 “there were 37 educational institutions providing vocational training in Estonia, including 26 state vocational educational institutions, 2 municipal vocational educational institutions, 4 private vocational educational institutions and 5 institutions of professional higher education, which provide VET” (Eurydice, 2020b) offering in total 160 specialties (Estonian Ministry of Education and Research, 2021). Those institutions can be owned by state or municipal or private institutions, operate by the Ministry of Education and Research, and have Estonian as the primary language while in some few Russian or English are also used (Estonian Ministry of Education and Research, 2021). There are various types of support for students involved in vocational education, from compensations for participation in the studies to dormitories, free lunch, or free public transport (Eurydice, 2020c).



4.2 e-Learning pedagogic methodologies

4.2.1 Blended learning

Blended learning refers to learning models that combine traditional classroom practice with e-learning solutions. In our case, a Web-based training course can be enhanced by periodic face-to-face instruction. 'Blending' was learning models that combine traditional classroom practice with e-learning solutions. Prompted by the recognition that not all learning is best achieved in an electronically mediated environment, particularly one that dispenses with a live instructor altogether. Instead, consideration must be given to the subject matter, the learning objectives and outcomes, the characteristics of the learners, and the learning context in order to reach the optimum mix of instructional and delivery methods.

Short-term education and training courses are indeed the preferred means for acquainting students with applications of open pedagogy in the field of education, given that every contemporary university is offering the basic theoretical and practical knowledge, as well as the competences and skills indispensable for the subject. In this frame, no lengthy stays abroad are necessary, while trans-national teaching staff guarantees the expertise and diversity of viewpoints required. ICT are largely contributing in the blended teaching environment, while harmonization of educational structures and efficiency towards practical needs are constantly addressed. Further objectives are the completion of an open-ended online pool for didactic material, as well as the extension of a network dealing with educational matters in this highly interdisciplinary subject.



4.2.2 Educational technology and instructional design

The designing of an effective learning environment, that supports active learning, requires the incorporation of opportunities for interaction and feedback (Chickering and Ehrmann, 1996).

The United State based Association of Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) defines educational technology as a systematic process involving materials, theories, human resources, and knowledge to solve educational problems, and improving learning (AECT, 1977). In 1994 AECT revised the definition of educational technology and reworded it as follows: "Educational technology is the theory and application of the design, development, use, management, and evaluation of learning processes and materials" .

When referring to technological materials, we must clarify that it includes all those devices, components, computer hardware, network devices, video and audio recorders and audio. Generally, anything processed in any form the information and helps us communicate with each other. Educational technology can combine many media, such as:

- sound,
- image,
- movement,
- text,
- video,
- graphics etc.

The use of educational technology makes it possible to integrate into education populations that are traditionally excluded for cultural or social reasons (e.g. women, the elderly, people with



disabilities). People living in remote areas or marginalized/isolated can access knowledge and actively participate in learning using educational technology. New technologies can provide people with disabilities with the support they need to participate in the education system and the labour market. People with mobility, vision or hearing problems can be trained with special devices, custom equipment and appropriate training software. Properly designed software can also be used by students with cognitive or learning difficulties. Educational technology also contributes to more timid people (in character) to actively participate in the educational process.

The effective handling of all teaching resources that the teacher has at his disposal today, with a highly developed technology, as well as the general composition, consideration and performance of the designed teaching methodology through the utilization of the resources as mentioned earlier constitutes the instructional design of teaching systems. Instructional design is a pedagogical current that has contributed and continues to do so in the design and organization of computer-assisted teaching, education and training systems. It plays an essential role because it identifies and describes all the systems, all the stages and all the relationships that can be developed, with excellent clarity to define and clarify the objectives pursued. With the passage of time and the continuous evolution of educational technology, educational planning radically changed any outdated perceptions of the teaching process and placed the teaching methodology scientifically

Educational technology as part of pedagogical science, related to the optimal application of all the factors that can contribute to the solution of learning problems and help in the development of the teaching process. Proper coordination of the factors that will



be mentioned below has a direct result in the reliable implementation of the process of teaching and the production of learning as much as possible since subjective factors are also included. These factors that shape educational technology are applying knowledge, ideas, theories, and the use of technical means such as tools, machines and systems in general.

The values that are the desired goals of educational design are cooperation, personal autonomy, creativity, reflection, active involvement, personal meaning and pluralism, which in a way reflect the commons' logic and value system. The actions that the educational systems designer must take are the following:

- 1) to analyse students' prior knowledge with qualitative and quantitative criteria as much as possible, by using questionnaires or personal interviews or in any way he deems fit,
- 2) to determine how many and which support tools and procedures are available for use in the specific case, which is achieved through the use of cognitive and post-cognitive strategies;
- 3) to finalise and delimit the content considering the previous knowledge of the students;
- 4) ensure access to high-quality information that will allow students to make sense of new knowledge.

The most important features to consider in constructive approaches are (Lowyck, 1991):

- 1) Discovery learning. The main goal here is learn to learn. This means knowing how to ask questions, evaluating situations, theories and knowledge.



2) The 'scaffolding'. It is based on Vygotsky's 'zone of imminent development' and means providing support and guidance to the student to move from what he/she already knows to what he/she needs to learn by overcoming his/her previous skills in this field.

3) The role of the teacher continues to be advisory. The student's teacher is an assistant or otherwise has the role of a mentor who aims to broaden the students' views. It is not a model to be imitated by students, but to be understood and accessible by students in order to be considered a reliable source of knowledge.

4) Teaching and learning with problem solving. Students develop skills in formulating assumptions, critical thinking, self-regulation for problem solving and teachers encourage and help students to continue solving problems based on their experience to date.

5) Assessment during learning. In traditional teaching, assessment takes place at the end of teaching, while in constructive systems, assessment is intertwined with the activity and takes place in the context of learning activities of exploration and problem solving.

6) Collaborative learning. Students need to work together to formulate and share different views on the same subject, and this helps them to gradually abandon their potentially selfish attitudes and become aware of the views of others, while at the same time defending their own point of view. But the goal remains to reach an audience purpose and the development of communication and collaboration skills with others, while learning and understanding the content.



4.2.3 Virtual Learning Environments

Virtual learning environments are well-structured information spaces, realised through software packages incorporating different information and communication technologies (Kozaris 2010).

Content management becomes the main issue for all teachers involved in virtual learning environments since the learning material has to be organised in a standard way, as a course divided into modules and lessons. Designed to support teachers in the management of computer-supported educational courses, learning management systems are server-based platforms that control access and delivery of online learning resources through a standard web browser. Hence, they manage, track, and report on the interaction between learner and content, as well as learner and instructor. They consist of tools for communicating, organising the administration of a course; testing students; and disseminating information; and are thus covering virtual worlds, simulations, assessment engines, management tools, content repositories, reporting services, a discussion board, intelligent tutoring systems.

Their mediator role is essential in improving the educational experience, especially in the field of Education Sciences, where lecturing material derives from predetermined texts, giving audiences little incentive to attend and participate in class.

Blackboard and Moodle are the two most widely spread learning management systems, which have several fundamental differences along with obvious similarities. Thus, Blackboard permits instructors to post course information and materials, readings and assignments, while providing functionality for basic discussion and other internal collaborative tools. Designed for



teacher-directed/centred delivery of content, it is especially geared for lower-level large classes. Moodle is a course management system – a free, easily downloadable open-source software package designed on the basis of sound pedagogical principles, in order to assist educators in creating effective online learning communities (Kozaris 2010). The tools focus on content delivery for course information; and the use intended is group work, collaboration, communication, sharing activities, and critical reflection.

In order to create a learning environment that will not simply function as a repository of educational material but will promote active learning, must be developed strategies that enhance the learner's engagement by stimulating curiosity and ultimately lead to new attitudes and to a personalized learning experience

The proposed scheme is based on the development of educational material at four stages that complete the learning process by changing perceptions.

In the first level the learner must be guided with the necessary teaching material in order to understand what is necessary to know. The material covers procedural knowledge and includes mainly instructional and explainer videos

In the second level the learner interacts with the content trying to understand it. The aim is to manipulate the content through activities such as appropriate material for study and discussion development, small-scale research, development of learning communities and generally engaging conversation with experts or any other related opportunities.

At the third level the learner connect knowledge assimilating what they are learning into what they already know. In this process the learner tries to understand how and when to use this



content. The appropriate material and the activities to be designed relate to open-ended learning models and peer collaborative learning such as problem solving, analyzing and criticizing situations, finding and analyzing information.

In the fourth stage learning content should modify learner attitude and this change leads to new or improved attributes as result of the knowledge acquired. In the last stage, the connection of knowledge with the non-virtual environment must be made and activities that enhance experiencing learning are required, such as practical assessments that promote the holistic approach and place knowledge in a natural environment. This stage is the phase-to-phase training that takes place at the end of each course.

PART IV

TUTOR GUIDE



5 Tutor Guide

- **Involve your students**

Classes need to be student-centred while the teacher acts as a facilitator, escorting and enabling the learning process. To achieve this, students need to take up an active self-reflective role and be involved in making decisions around the learning activities, and the teaching and learning processes.

Practical tips:

- Collect clear data about students such as strengths and interests using online tools.
- Genius Hour (also called 20% Time or Passion Time): give time during work week to pursue their own creative projects (see Genius Hour Resources. <https://engagetheirminds.com/genius-hour-resources/>)
- Choice Boards: to allow students to tailor their own learning activities/learning style options, feedback modality, to individual preference (see The Differentiator at <https://www.byrdseed.com/differentiator/>).
- Leverage social media (see Instagram Challenge Assignment at <https://laurarandazzo.com/2015/11/12/instagram-challenge/>).
- Publicize goals to help students to stay accountable. An example is the vision board, on which you display images that represent whatever you want to be, do or have in your life (see makeavisionboard.com at <https://makeavisionboard.com/>).



- Project-based learning: students actively explore real-world problems and challenges and acquire a deeper knowledge.
- Flipped classroom: direct instructions move from the group learning space to the individual learning space, and the resulting group space is transformed into a dynamic, interactive learning environment where the educator accompany reflectively students as they apply concepts and engage in the subject matter.
- Case study: the learners analyse a problematic, real-life situation and attempt to solve it.

- **Make learning fun**

Vary the social dynamics. Set a variety of engaging, meaningful activities. Make it experiential: students learn the mindset concepts through hands-on experiences. Use a wide range of materials that appeals to different senses (sight, hearing, etc.).

Practical tips:

- Integrate pop culture into lessons using song lyrics, mems and clips from movies and television shows.
- Get them out of their seats and get them to move around (for example standing up to ask a question).
- Ask students to work in pairs or in groups. Ask them to change partners regularly.
- Gamification: use games also a chance for interaction including materials that go beyond the textbook. Include videos, quizzes, photos, news, visuals, flashcards, infographics, and make use of new technology.



- **Give very clear instructions**

Allow students time to prepare first and ask you any questions. Discuss reasons for carrying out classroom activities and what students will accomplish. Give students tasks where they can see the results of their efforts.

Practical tips:

- Make study materials available to students before the lesson so that they can read it in advance.
- Before the course starts, have a clear outline of what the course will entail, so that students will know what to expect at each lesson.

- **Set clear, attainable goals for every lesson**

Involve learners in setting learning goals, so that they will be able to develop feelings of control and autonomy in learning.

Practical tips:

- Start lessons by writing down your lesson plan on the corner of the board, so that the students know what they are going to learn.
- At the end of the class, point to the lesson plan and go over everything they have learned.

- **Praise and do not over-correct: the importance of feedback**

Avoid over-correcting, especially when students are speaking in front of the class. Avoid interrupting every single time they make a mistake. You can remind students that making mistakes is a



natural part of learning and that everybody makes mistakes, even the teacher. Consider group feedback as well as individual feedback. Make marking criteria available to the student before the exam/assignment. Track progress.

Practical tips:

- Give timely feedback: frequently administer formative assessments such as comments in Google Docs, or using student response options like Plickers (<https://get.plickers.com/>), Kahoot (<https://kahoot.com/>) or Socrative (<https://www.socrative.com/>).
- Use praise effectively (see www.schoolhousedivas.blogspot.com).
- Portfolio: individual students or groups of students can keep their assignments, reflections, in a portfolio that will be marked by the teacher.
- Group notebook: students will be taking notes of their activities and reflect on them. It also represents a tool for the teacher to evaluate groups' work.

- **Create a relaxed atmosphere**

Create a supporting learning environment. Develop a personal relationship with students but respect professional boundaries. Encourage cooperation among students. Promote students' sense of belonging to the classroom and school, and a shared purpose. Recognise and enhance one's mental and physical stability. Ensure the classroom environment is welcoming to students from all cultures. Enhance students' self-belief. Allow them to learn in ways that are personal and significant to them. Set a personal example. Minimise student to student comparisons. Promote learners' autonomy. Give them the opportunity to show



what they value most. Create a friendly atmosphere where they feel they can talk freely and ask questions.

Practical tips:

- Formulate group norms explicitly and have them discussed and accepted by learners.
- Conduct survey students to obtain information about their likes and dislikes. Understanding what students like and dislike will provide suggested areas in which teachers can connect with the student (e.g., favourite books, movies, video games).
- Plan around 15–20-minute cycles. Students have difficulty maintaining attention after a longer period of time.
- On the first day or during the first week of the course, ask students to send a picture of them, followed by a brief description of their hobbies and academic goals.
- Utilise an online discussion forum: teachers can provide a discussion question for the week and ask each student to answer the question in the online forum. Another option is to divide students into discussion groups. You can change the discussion groups a few times throughout the course so that students have the chance to interact with more of their classmates.
- Student representatives: within the class, one or two students are appointed as representatives. These are responsible for conveying the classroom's needs, problems and suggestions to the teachers.
- Index for Inclusion (Booth and Ainscow, 2011): a set of materials to improve inclusion in the learning environment. It is aimed at building supportive communities and fostering high achievement for staff and students.



- TAI (Team Assisted Individualization): all students work on the same task but each of them follows a personalised plan, depending on their preferences and strengths.
- Peer tutoring: students of different levels work in pairs on a shared goal.

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