Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9

Stefania Baroncelli
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Teaching and Learning the European Union

Traditional and Innovative Methods

Springer

Teaching and Learning the European Union

Innovation and Change in Professional Education

VOLUME 9

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ISBN 978-94-007-7042-3 ISBN 978-94-007-7043-0 (eBook)
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0
Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg New York London

Library of Congress Control Number: 2013951013

Printed on acid-free paper

Springer is part of Springer Science+Business Media (www.springer.com)

Foreword

The speed and depth with which the European Communities/European Union have evolved is breathtaking and has radically shaped the life of the continent. Ever since the beginning of this ambitious economic and political project, scholars around the world have tried to explain the underlying logic behind it and the mechanisms of its functioning. Thus, a plethora of studies developed alongside the evolution of the EU.

SENT (Network of European Studies) is an innovative and ambitious project which brought together about 100 partners from the EU member states, candidate and associated countries, and other parts of the world. It was a far-reaching project aimed to overcome disciplinary and geographical-linguistic boundaries in order to assess the state of EU studies today, as well as the idea of Europe as transmitted by schools, national politicians, the media, etc.

SENT's main goal was to *map European Studies*, in order to get a *comprehensive picture of the evolution of European Studies over the last decades in different disciplines and countries*. *This approach permitted to achieve a better understanding of the direction these studies are now taking*. *Five disciplines were identified* where European Studies have particularly evolved: *law*, *politics*, *economics*, *history*, *and social and cultural studies*. The mapping of European Studies thus includes a review of the *most studied issues in European Studies* today, the *main academic schools*, and the *most influential journals* and *books* published, but it also shows how local realities and national identities affect the study and teaching of Europe around the world. In addition, an important work was done in mapping and discussing teaching methodologies in relation to European studies with the aim of introducing and diffusing the most up-to-date techniques.

The project was structured in various working groups, corresponding to their respective disciplines. These networks worked closely together to ensure a discussion across geographic boundaries. At the same time, the SENT network brought together scholars around the world in a direct and multidisciplinary dialogue in a General Assembly held in Rome in July 2010 to reflect on the state of the EU disciplines and their future.

We are very proud to present the results of this ambitious project in a series of volumes. The following are being published with Il Mulino:

1. *European Integration Process Between History and New Challenges*, edited by Ariane Landuyt
2. *Analyzing European Union Politics*, edited by Federiga Bindi and Kjell A. Eliassen
3. *Integration Through Legal Education*? *The Role of EU Legal Studies in Shaping the EU*, edited by Valentino Cattelan
4. *Questioning the European Identity/ies*: *Deconstructing Old Stereotypes and Envisioning New Models of Representation*, edited by Vita Fortunati
5. *Ideas of Europe in National Political Discourse*, edited by Cláudia T. Ramos
6. *Communication*, *Mediation and Culture in the Making of Europe*, edited by Juliet Lodge, Stergios Mavrikis, Francisco Seoane Perez, and Katharine Sarikakis

The other two volumes that are part of the SENT series are published elsewhere: *Mapping European Economic Integration*, edited by Amy Verdun and Alfred Tovias with Palgrave, and *Teaching and Learning European Studies*: *Traditional and Innovative Methods*, edited by Stefania Baroncelli, Roberto Farneti, Ioan Horga, and Sophie Vanhoonacker with Springer.

This extensive project was coordinated by Prof. Federiga Bindi, director of the Jean Monnet European Centre of Excellence of the University of Rome "Tor Vergata," and her valuable team. The project benefited from the generous support of the European Commission.

The scientific organization was assured by a core coordinating committee formed by Federiga Bindi, Ariane Landuyt, Kjell A. Eliassen, Vita Fortunati, Stefania Baroncelli, Ioan Horga, Sophie Vanhoonacker, Cláudia Toriz Ramos, Juliet E. Lodge, Amy Verdun, and Alfred Tovias. It is fair to say that these volumes show how the EU has uniquely affected not only the daily life on the "old continent" but also its scholarly work. We hope that this project opens the path for further extended debates about these transformations providing food for thought and research tools for young researchers, practitioners, and scholars of European affairs alike.

SENT Coordinator Federiga Bindi
Rome, Italy

Contents

Chapter 1
Introduction – Teaching European Studies: Educational Challenges

Stefania Baroncelli, Roberto Farneti, and Sophie Vanhoonacker

The increasing importance of the European Union as a central player in both domestic and international politics since the late 1980s has given a strong boost to an academic research agenda moving beyond nation-oriented approaches (Keeler 2005). This development found promptly its way into university curricula, be it in economics, law, history, political science, cultural studies, IR and other programmes. These traditional disciplines saw the rise of new courses, specialised tracks and even entire master's programmes focusing on the impact of the EU on their respective discipline. In addition, the multifaceted character of the European integration process also led to the creation of new multi- and interdisciplinary bachelor's, master's and even PhD programmes specifically focusing on the EU. These programmes were mostly labelled European Studies or European Union Studies. While the term European Studies could be considered to be broader in scope and reflecting an interest in the European continent in more general terms, in practice both terms are being used interchangeably. In the framework of this study, we have chosen for the most commonly used term of European Studies. If the author however specifically wanted to emphasise that a programme was exclusively focusing on the EU, we have allowed for the term EU Studies.

The development of 'European Studies programmes', either within or beyond strict disciplinary boundaries, did not take place in a vacuum. It was heavily influenced by the rapidly changing European educational environment. The Bologna process (1999) fostering increasing harmonisation of European educational

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_1,

systems and quality standards, the Lisbon agenda (2000) with its emphasis on the development of a knowledge-based economy and the boom in information technology all stimulated universities to critically reflect on the set-up of their curricula, not only in terms of content but also pedagogy. Although both dimensions are closely interconnected, the main emphasis of this volume will be on the pedagogical dimension. Inspired by educational scholars urging to move beyond traditional knowledge-based learning (knowing *that*) and advocating a 'learning to learn paradigm' with emphasis on a more pragmatic problem-solving and problem-based learning (knowing *how*) (Bleiklie and Henkel 2005), the various contributions on this volume try to bring a better understanding of the educational challenges and needs in the field of European Studies, map the state of the art of the teaching methodologies currently used and share experiences about innovative teaching methods. It not only examines inter- and multidisciplinary programmes but has also looked at curricula where the EU is taught as a horizontal topic in more conventional programmes such as law and economics.

The educational challenges facing European Studies[1] are far from unique, and many of the questions discussed in this volume are also relevant for other programmes of higher education. As an emerging field, it is, however, particularly appealing as an interesting area of investigation and scholarly concern. There is a lively debate about the knowledge, competencies and skills it should foster (Wessels et al. 2001; Smith 2003; Calhoun 2003; Cini 2006; Cini and Bourne 2006; Rosamond 2007; Holland et al. 2008), and in the absence of a long-standing tradition, it has been an attractive laboratory for trying out novel and uncharted pedagogical tools (Korosteleva 2010). Being a new area, it has shown particular concern as to how to best prepare its graduates for the rapidly changing European-wide job market. Dealing with a subject that goes beyond national borders, it has further been open to exchange of students and teaching staff, stimulating an international exchange of views and teaching in a second language (mainly English). The exclusive focus on educational experiences in European Studies allows the rather diverse chapters to 'speak to each other', and it allows to bring together experiences of colleagues operating in relatively similar contexts.

Given the rather wide scope of questions, the volume is organised in three parts. The first part deals with the broader contexts of teaching and learning within the EU and explores some of the challenges involved, paying special attention to the issue of professional education. The second part presents the results of a mapping exercise of teaching methods in EU Studies based on an extensive survey conducted by the University of Bozen-Bolzano. In the third part, academics teaching on European Studies programmes share some of their experiences with the use of innovative teaching tools and provide a platform for the exchange of best practices. Most of the chapters were originally presented and discussed in three workshops[2] organised in

[1] In this volume both the terms European Union Studies and European Studies (ES) will be used.

[2] The workshops took place in Forli (16–18 March 2008), Oradea (28–29 May 2009), and Rome (2 July 2010).

the framework of the SENT network, a European-wide network of 66 universities involved in teaching European Studies (see also the preface to this publication).[3]

The first part of the volume is undoubtedly the most diverse, dealing with questions ranging from the professional requirements for graduates in European Studies to issues of civic education and multilingual teaching. The opening chapter, by *Wim Gijselaers et al.,* looks at European Studies from the perspective of professional education. The authors examine the literature on professional education and examine how insights from established professions such as medicine can be of use to new professions such as EU specialists. They not only plead to engage the learner more actively in the learning process but also advocate more educational research and more attention on guiding learners so that they can deal with the continuous changes in practice. *David Bearfield*, the Director of the European Personnel Selection Office (EPSO), elaborates on the recently reformed HR selection strategy for staff at EU institutions. He shows how the new EPSO Development Programme has contributed to modernising the EU institutions' selection methods so that human capital and management potential can be more effectively detected, which ultimately provides new cohorts of motivated and talented staff. *Gretchen Van Dyke* focuses on active learning as a critical resource for both educational and civic purposes. She stresses the value of active and experiential learning in engaging students as citizens of Europe. Building upon her experience with civic education in the USA, she examines what is needed at the classroom level to help European Studies students to connect academic learning with the practical realities of EU citizenship. *Rita Franceschini and Daniela Veronesi* address the sensitive topic of multilingual universities. They use the notion of 'functional multilingualism' to examine the role of linguistic diversity in shaping the EU public sphere. They analyse communicative practices in multilingual universities and present a case study on the trilingual Free University of Bozen-Bolzano in northern Italy, where multilingualism is used as a key instrument to prepare future professionals to successfully operate in a multilingual and multicultural Europe. The chapter by *Eduard Lavalle and Alexander Berlin* illustrates an EU Study Tour and Internship programme for Canadian students and elaborates on the social and cultural implications of circulating human capital within the Union. The programme has provided innovative opportunities for students to strengthen their knowledge of the EU, with practical immersion, hands-on experience and 'face-to-face' contact with professionals actively involved in the day-to-day work of EU institutions. It is a means of socialisation, but it is also a way to initiate students with a non-EU background into the 'new' EU professions.

Part II presents an empirical analysis of the use of teaching methods and tools in EU studies across a number of disciplines (Economics, Law, History, Political Science, and Cultural studies). Secondly it also tests the influence of multilingualism on European Studies courses. The three chapters are all based on the results of a survey conducted on more than 2,000 EU courses in 30 European countries and

[3]For more info, see: http://www.sent-net.uniroma2.it/

7 different disciplines via the abovementioned SENT European Studies network and the Jean Monnet Programme network. The chapter by *Baroncelli, Fonti and Stevancevic* maps the use of innovative learning methodologies such as teamwork, the role of experts, field work, simulations, project-based approach, long-distance learning, peer tutoring, internships, exchange programmes and e-learning. They explore the link between the use of new methodologies and demographic and personal characteristics of the lecturers involved. Their overview shows that there is still a long way to go with regard to the use of innovative teaching tools, especially in terms of diversification. The chapter by *Fonti and Stevancevic* builds on the previous one by looking more into detail into the innovative methods of internships, distance learning and exchange programmes. Using statistical techniques, they investigate how factors such as group size, experience and position of teaching staff, size of class and presence of teaching evaluations correlate with the increased use of these methods. The third chapter, by *Stefania Baroncelli*, deals with the promotion of multilingualism in European Studies. She argues that, despite its obvious commitment to linguistic pluralism, the EU promotes multilingualism mainly at the level of EU legislation and political institutions. The EU lacks a more ambitious policy on linguistic pluralism, a *politics* of multilingualism that may affect the very relationship between EU citizens and EU institutions and impact on the identity of the EU. Based on the survey's findings, the author discusses the role of the EU in promoting teaching and learning in English and other EU languages other than English and advocates a more active role of the EU in promoting language pluralism in the classroom.

Part III elaborates on the use of innovative teaching methods in EU studies and presents a number of case studies on the use of simulation games, distance learning, problem-based learning, blended learning, the use of social media and internships. The contributors share their experiences with the use of these tools and reflect on both the strengths and possible pitfalls. *Rebecca Jones* and *Peter Bursens* deal with the use of simulations as a way to increase a type of learning that the authors call 'affective', involving the emotional sphere of the participants in the learning process. Their chapter presents a case study on EuroSim, a yearly organised simulation game taking place in the framework of the Trans-Atlantic Consortium for European Union Studies and Simulations (TACEUSS). By conducting pre- and postsimulation surveys, they empirically test the learning effect of this teaching tool. *Natalia Timus* explores the use of distance learning (DL) by surveying its most popular techniques. Based on the analysis of the advantages and limitations of DL, and with a special focus on the case study of a graduate course on 'EU-Turkey relations' at Maastricht University, she argues that DL provides an important space for innovation in learning and makes the learning process more accessible. She also shows how DL provides a framework for interuniversity cooperation and a platform for exchanging the best teaching and learning practices. *Heidi Maurer* and *Christine Neuhold* focus on the strengths and challenges of using problem-based learning (PBL) in the field of European Studies. PBL is based on the idea of small group collaborative learning with students being actively responsible for their own learning process. Drawing on their experience in the Bachelor ES at Maastricht University,

they look at the possible pitfalls of the method with a particular focus on the role of tutors and the design of assignments. *Alexandra Mihai* presents a case of 'blended learning' (BL) as applied by the Institute for European Studies (IES) in Brussels and combining the e-learning tool of E-modules with face-to-face training sessions and webinars (i.e. web seminars). An important strength of BL is that it is a flexible tool that can be adapted to the target group, be it regular students or professionals. Each medium can be used for the functions it is best designed for so that the various pieces of the 'pedagogical puzzle' fit together. The chapter by *Roberto Farneti et al.* makes a case for the use of social networks in the classroom. The chapter draws on a pilot project using an electronic forum in a political science class. Students were challenged to respond to a 'prompt' from the instructor on topical issues in EU politics and to engage in informed discussion in class. The forum prescribes a method of discussion and critique and presents itself as a miniature of the democratic 'public sphere'. This article is linked to *Gretchen van Dyke*'s chapter on civic education in this volume and connects current issues and challenges in higher education with the ever more relevant problem of the 'democratic deficit' of the EU.

The names of those who helped us to complete this book by way of discussion and criticism are too numerous to record. Our primary debt is to the scholars who contributed to the volume and patiently bore with us by integrating our comments into their chapters. We also would like to thank the anonymous referees of Springer. They gave us direction and provided us with valuable comments both at a very preliminary stage and at the end of the process. This volume would not have been possible without Federiga Bindi, who as coordinator of the SENT network brought us together with great enthusiasm and sense of purpose and encouraged us in editing this volume. Only a few weeks before completing the volume, Stéphane Vanderveken of the European Personnel Selection Office came to Bozen-Bolzano to give a keynote to a small conference on teaching the European Union. He made us aware once again of the practical significance and implications of our endeavours. We wish to thank him for his insights and collaborative efforts. Jemma Prior has helped us to streamline the English of each chapter; Irene Bianchi and Gordana Stevancevic collected and formatted the single chapters into one document. We also wish to thank Giuliana Laschi and Fabio Casini of the Punto Europa in Forlì: the wonderful conference they organized in Forlì in 2008 allowed many contributors to this volume to meet and to exchange ideas in a way that would not have been possible in purely virtual situations.

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Part I
European Studies: Contexts and Challenges

Chapter 2
Shaping the New Professional for the New Professions

Wim H. Gijselaers, Amber Dailey-Hebert, and Alexandra C. Niculescu

> I woke up this morning to find that the world had changed. Almost without my realizing it, we had moved from the industrial age into the information age. The dominant technology had changed from the machine to the computer; the strategic resource from capital to knowledge. … But students are no longer limited to interaction with local faculty. They listen to the most inspirational lecturers at a time most useful to their learning. Their learning community is truly a global community, accessed through electronic technology.
>
> Milter and Stinson (1995)

2.1 Introduction

Our world and society have become increasingly more complex in recent years, characterized by globalization, hypercomplexity, and hyperconnectivity (IBM 2010a; Friedman 2007; Pink 2008). We are experiencing the dynamics of such change through globalization and, as a consequence, scientists and educational researchers are investigating responses to (and proactive strategies for) success in this fluid environment and ways to prepare professionals for the evolving workplace.

However, we have been aware of these significant shifts for quite some time now. More than 15 years ago, Milter and Stinson (1995), among others, argued that due to exponential changes in our society, we needed to rethink the nature of higher education, both content wise and pedagogy wise. In their view, higher education should pay much more attention to how students could adapt – as learners while in

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_2,

college and as continuing learners after college – to changing societal demands. Still, despite a growing number of publications which articulated similar views (e.g., Mintzberg 2004; Bennis and O'Toole 2005; Friedman 2007), and expressed the need to help students in acquiring necessary skills, reform in higher education seemed to focus solely on the acquisition of knowledge (as expressed in choices of textbooks, lectures, seminars, contributions to the disciplines, courses offered, etc.).

More recently, educators in the established professions (management, teaching, medicine) have expressed their concerns, again, that the contemporary context of modern Western Society has changed markedly (Hafler 2011; Kanes 2010). While economic and production systems within the EU showed substantial changes, higher education systems continued to waste human talent (low retention rates, access barriers to enrollment in higher education). But perhaps one of the most profound problems in preparing young people for challenging new jobs in times of exponential change is that higher education barely questions the assumptions on which preparation for practice is based (Kanes 2010). The most recent financial crisis has demonstrated in a dramatic way how our society has changed and the challenges we face when preparing young people for the global marketplace/workforce.

Over the past decade, many new job specializations have emerged with a need to assess the preparation of these new jobs. They question the nature of their education programs and examine continuous development at the workplace: SAP consultants (ICT-systems applications and products in data processing), management consultants, specialists in European Integration, web designers, e-learning designers, global governance experts, sustainability experts, specialized lawyers in intellectual copyrights, financial experts in derivatives, etc. now comprise the "new professions." All the new job specializations have in common the substantial impact of their professional work on welfare and productivity. For example, SAP consultants have become extremely important for organizations which want to achieve better control of organizational processes. Failure of good SAP consultancy and expertise in business management software causes tremendous consequences for organizational performance. Confidence about the competencies of SAP consultants has become a key concern for organizations to maintain and improve competitiveness (Hendricks et al. 2007).

In this context, European Studies (ES) is an evident example of a new job specialization which requires the acquisition of insights from a wide range of disciplines in the social sciences, humanities, arts, and economics. However, the question may be raised whether it is sufficient to define and restrict the requirements for this new job at the level of knowledge and skills. It is obvious that graduates from European Studies programs should demonstrate how issues in EU administration, EU governance, or management of EU institutions can be understood by synthesizing insights from various academic disciplines. It is therefore not surprising that many ES curricula follow a multi- and even interdisciplinary approach. But in our view, narrowing down this question to the level of program design which only addresses EU issues from a content perspective does not pay sufficient merit to the roles and challenges which will become part of the daily work life of those graduates. Both established professions (management, medicine, law, engineering), as

well as new educational programs such as European Studies, are confronted with a dynamic body of knowledge which focuses on the development of core competencies such as continuous learning and development. Established professions are increasingly acknowledging this problem (e.g., Kanes 2010) and demand reform in higher education (e.g., Frenk et al. 2010). The question can be raised as to whether "the new professions" – including ES – can benefit from the experiences from the established professions in terms of curriculum and course design.

The present chapter will discuss how higher education can advance its programs and prepare students for jobs which demand a high level of professionalism. We will focus on how this is being done in programs for established professions and what can be learned from them in programs dedicated to the "new professions" such as ES. Consider our contribution as an attempt to learn from insights developed in established professional education and to apply them to an emerging field such as ES, which puts increasing demands on graduates from these programs. The present chapter will review current literature and landmark works on professional education to examine how insights from those professions can be transferred to the new professions. It will question the assumptions underlying higher education programs and the way they prepare young people for the new professions. Attention will be paid to what both professional practice and society need for further development, over and beyond the knowledge and expertise supplied by professional schools. The final part of our chapter will provide educators in the new professions with guiding principles for course and program design.

2.2 Calls for Change in Education for Established Professions

Recent publications on professional education acknowledge the importance of training students in science, but they also seem to agree on the necessity of changing the pedagogy of professional education, suggesting an alternative to the traditional, content-based approach for learning and learning design. For example, Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006: 404) argue that "Pedagogy that focuses on promoting acquisition of decontextualized knowledge and skills fails to address issues concerning when it is appropriate to use such knowledge and skills, how to use them, and to what purpose. Furthermore, given the breadth and complexity of professional practice, no single pedagogical method can be a panacea." In their view, it is no longer content which should serve as the guiding principle of program design, but understanding the nature of professional practice and its consequences for how to teach. Such an alternative approach would focus on the learner experience, the learning process, and ways to connect experience-based learning to formalized training and learning. Frenk et al. (2010: 1933) arrive at similar conclusions about medical education and state: "The first generation, launched at the beginning of the 20th century, taught a science-based curriculum. Around the mid-century, the second generation introduced problem-based instructional innovations. A third generation

is now needed that should be systems based to improve the performance of health systems by adapting core professional competencies to specific contexts, while drawing on global knowledge." They are in favor of developing learning systems which enhance students with professional skills, allowing students to acquire leadership capabilities to become change agents in their profession: people who are capable of shaping their own profession and professional practice. This can be defined as transformative learning which is the successor of informative learning (focused on content) and formative learning (focused on understanding professional values).

In educational practice, the present authors have often observed that curriculum reform is unfortunately perceived as simply adding or replacing content in programs with new or updated information. Reform is driven by the notion that "Content is king" (Gijselaers and Milter 2010). It is assumed that student learning can be changed through changing curriculum content, and hence, most recent or so-called "innovative" approaches to learning and development for the twenty-first century have continued to center on changes to curricular content, rather than focusing on the learner or learning process. This limited focus keeps issues such as faculty development, improved assessment practices, and careful curriculum planning aside from main-stream teaching.

Preparation for the established professions (law, management, medicine, and engineering) has become increasingly based on multi-professional settings, requiring training and development in a wide range of disciplines that support professional development (e.g., sociology, psychology, management, law). For example, a recent position paper (Frenk et al. 2010) on required changes in professionalization pointed out that redesign of professional health education is necessary "due to acceleration of flows of knowledge, technologies, and financing across borders, and the migration of both professionals and patients" (ibidem: 1923). Management education is increasingly criticized for putting its emphasis on the wrong issues. It has been suggested that graduating students are "ill-equipped to wrangle with complex, unquantifiable issues –in other words, the stuff of management" (Bennis and O'Toole 2005: 1). The recurring themes within professions such as management and health care are that practice has become complex, requiring more multi-professional teamwork together with a stronger focus on connectivity between different stakeholders and increased pressures on accountability.

Above all, the financial crisis has also become a crisis in confidence about the competencies of financial professionals. It has shown in part that there is a discrepancy between the knowledge produced by business schools and the competencies in use while working in the financial world. But perhaps the financial crises have demonstrated as well that current governance structures which regulate financial markets, and governance bodies at the EU level, faced a crisis in how to ensure that we can trust the people working in the financial and economic system. One of the responses from national governments was to increase certification and licensing requirements for people working in the financial industry. However, the question can be raised whether addressing confidence issues in professionals can be limited to improving assessment and certification practices. It seems that modern higher

education systems should rethink how to design the learning systems that prepare young people as the new professionals in the established (engineering, law, health care, management) or new emerging professions (consultants, governance experts, EU experts, specialists in finance or law).

It seems clear that current developments in our society have made a major push forward to demand highly equipped graduates that are capable of working in dynamic and complex environments. The question can be raised how this will impact workers in the fields of the classic professions, and how it will affect our views on graduates from academic programs such as ES which are not yet considered as professionals.

2.3 Classic Professions in Transformative Times

A profession is normally defined as an occupation or career "based on systematic, scientific knowledge" (Dall'Alba and Sandberg 2006). Typically students acquire professional skills during formal professional education within higher education and continue their professional training and development in professional practice. Subsequent training and development can take place through postgraduate education combined with prolonged training at the workplace (Eraut 1994). Expertise within a profession is typically controlled by peers. As a consequence, professional experts provide services to clients who are not sufficiently knowledgeable about the quality of the professional services delivered (ibidem). So, it may not come as a surprise that professions put much effort in the development of codes of conduct, ethics, and continuous training and assessment to ensure that clients can trust the services delivered by professionals. The social nature of professional expertise also brings with it the development of strong professional interrelationships, which is necessary to assure high-level performance (e.g., Ericsson et al. 2006; Ericsson 2009; Kozlowski and Salas 2010).

Not that long ago it seemed to be self-evident that academic education prepared young people for future careers and equipped them to become citizens who would contribute to the welfare of society. In particular, those students who decided to sign up for one of the "classic" professions (engineering, management, medicine, law, accounting, clergy) knew that after graduation most of them would end up in jobs with continuing development in that particular profession, with membership in professional associations, with crystallized rules for professional conduct within the profession, and career prospects within the profession until retirement. Both academic and professional education was strongly rooted within the traditions of university education. The traditions of university education served more or less as a guarantee that young graduates were well prepared for future careers in society (Duderstadt 2000).

In the past century, we have seen many examples of how professions (medicine, management, and accounting) entered universities and became very successful in recruiting students and fulfilling societal needs. Enrolment in classic academic

programs faced tremendous growth as well. Professional education departed from classic academic education by putting more emphasis on the importance of practical experience, preparing students for specific jobs in the labor market, and offering specific training that meets the requirements of a license to practice. Moreover, schools for professional education also developed programs for further professional training and development (e.g., specialist training in academic hospitals and post-graduate training of accountants).

One of the most prominent new entrants in higher education consisted of the foundation of business education programs. These programs have demonstrated unprecedented growth since the first bachelors program in 1881 was offered at the University of Pennsylvania. It is said that through the efforts of businessman Joseph Wharton, a program was developed that included courses in accounting, mercantile law, economics, finance, and statistics. Such courses are still considered as cornerstones of any modern business education program. Over the past century, business education has held a unique position with business schools serving as knowledge creation institutions through research and by delivering substantial numbers of bachelor and master graduates. Accounting education went through a similar development as business education. Students who wanted more practical business training went to commercial schools. These schools frequently evolved into separate schools for business training only. Again it was the Wharton School that led the way by introducing an accounting course in 1883. It can be easily understood that in those days, academics considered the newly developing programs in business and accounting as too practical or too heavily aligned with the needs of business practice (Gijselaers and Milter 2010).

Medical education went through a similar development as business education. Around 100 years ago programs for the medical professions became more and more fuelled by input from scientific disciplines in the biological sciences. Through building strong foundations in science, professional programs realized a major breakthrough in preparing graduates for medical practice, which in turn had major impacts on the improvement of health care (Frenk et al. 2010).

Business and medical education share certain commonalities in the way students are prepared for professional practice. Both types of professional curricula require substantial input from basic (academic) sciences which are perceived as cornerstones in the training of young professionals. Both programs contribute to increased welfare, health, and further development of society. However, despite the progress made, they encounter new challenges which demand new approaches to program design in higher education. One of the prominent critics on the nature of professional education was Donald Schön. In 1987, he published his famous monograph *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. His message was simple, but the implications were complex: professional education (business, law, engineering, and medicine) was experiencing a crisis of confidence. He argued that professional schools were lacking a clear perspective on how to teach and what to teach. In his view, graduates from professional schools did not seem to be equipped with the skills and knowledge required for later practice. He seriously questioned whether teaching systematic scientific knowledge would prove to be instrumental

for problem-solving in professional practice. Schön argued that professional problems do not present themselves as well-formed structures, but as "messy indeterminate situations." He concluded that radical changes in the programs of professional schools were needed. More attention should be paid to the question of how curricular content (as expressed in the selection of lectures, activities, courses, textbooks, and contributions to the disciplines) relates to the everyday practice of professionals. Hence, students should be explicitly trained in problem-solving skills and communication skills. Finally, emphasis should be shifted from the acquisition of knowledge toward the use of knowledge.

Schön's comments can be considered as a source of inspiration too for more recent publications on the nature of professional education. While Schön identified the importance of problem-solving and communication skills, recent publications on professional education have built further on this by endorsing the importance of multi-professional teamwork skills (on top of communication skills), the skill to connect with various stakeholders any time, any place, and the ability to adapt to ongoing change. For example, the leading medical journal *The Lancet* commissioned and published a high-impact article on reform in health-care education which put forward the importance of these skills given the increasing complexity and interconnectivity of health-care practice (Frenk et al. 2010). In this position paper about health-care education for the twenty-first century, it is said that:

> Professional education has not kept pace with these challenges, largely because of fragmented, outdated, and static curricula that produce ill-equipped graduates. The problems are systemic: mismatch of competencies to patient and population needs; poor teamwork; persistent gender stratification of professional status; narrow technical focus without broader contextual understanding; episodic encounters rather than continuous care; predominant hospital orientation at the expense of primary care; quantitative and qualitative imbalances in the professional labor market; and weak leadership to improve health-system performance. (Frenk et al. 2010: 1923)

It is interesting to note that various issues as identified in the quote above were also mentioned in a recent review by Kanes (2010) about professionalism in other domains. In his view, professions and professional education are increasingly being challenged because they seem to lose the trust of society and have to deal with competing ends of trust and autonomy, care and profit, authority and accountability. For example, the recent financial crisis has shown that while society has always relied on the authority of accountants and bankers, this could no longer be guaranteed by the profession itself.

In summary, it can be concluded that the nature of professional education – and maybe the nature of academic education as well – needs to be questioned when it comes to preparing graduates for future practice. Recent calls by employers (IBM Report 2010a, b) urge higher education to prepare graduates in dealing with increased complexity by making them more aware of the problems faced by industry. Skill development which focused on creativity, passion, and personal development was considered as cornerstones for continuous further learning. Employers should also pay more attention to training young professionals in further development of team skills, developing a holistic view on problems encountered in practice, etc.

What remains central in all the pleas mentioned above is that attention to content cannot be the only driver for continuous renewal in higher education, nor the objectives and course design in higher education. If this seems to be the case, the obvious questions for the established professions are about how to deal with increased complexity issues, the consequences for training and development, and how to match societal needs with the training of students. It all comes together in questions about how to connect with practice, how to find a balance between basic and applied sciences, and how to equip students with interpersonal skills which are fundamental to work in practice with other professionals (e.g., teamwork skills, decision-making skills).

2.4 Shaping the New Professional for the Classic Professions

Gijselaers and Milter (2009) argue that many professional programs deal with short life cycles of knowledge due to ongoing innovations in practice. Next, professional programs encounter strong counterparts in practice through their clients, legislation, professional association, or government regulations and policy making. Dall'Alba and Sandberg (2006) analyzed classic professional education programs and questioned whether these programs are still capable of delivering graduates who can meet the changing demands of society:

> Taken together, socioeconomic changes have led to new and pressing demands on educational institutions and other organizations to become more efficient in promoting skill development across the professions. A central question, then, is what is entailed in professional skill development. (Dall'Alba and Sandberg 2006: 383)

They concluded on the basis of their extensive analysis that (1) professional curricula should focus on understanding practice instead of giving students tools to work in practice, (2) professional programs should develop pedagogies that focus on the learners – instead of curricular contents only – through constant monitoring of the learning process, (3) professional programs should contain assessment practices which mirror professional practice and adequate understanding of professional practice by its learners, and (4) professional programs should be subjected to continuous evaluation by a range of stakeholders.

Ten years earlier, Christine McGuire (1996) arrived at similar conclusions in her excellent review on developments in medical education. She identified three major problem areas in medical education and the medical profession: (1) the changing role of knowledge in medical education, (2) the changing workplace for medical practitioners, and (3) the changing regulations for medical practice. McGuire (1996) pointed out that the body of knowledge in medicine nearly doubles every 8 years. As a consequence it would be impossible for medical schools to cover all necessary knowledge in curricula. Next, she highlighted that the professional workplace of medical practitioners has changed dramatically over the years: bureaucratization of medical practice and diminished autonomy of professionals. The increasing complexity of health-care organizations forces graduates and professionals to adapt to

changing organizational structures and work procedures. Finally, she mentioned the changes in legislation and professional ethics. Graduates are not only expected to know how to deal with sophisticated technologies but also when to apply them. McGuire (1996) indicated that graduates would face the problem of asking what price is acceptable to use certain technology for certain patients. More and more, budget constraints would force professionals to evaluate the cost-effectiveness of medical care. At the same time, medical practitioners would be confronted with demanding patients with higher expectations about the possibilities of medical care. As a consequence, medical professionals would become increasingly involved with lawsuits from patients against physicians for alleged medical malpractice and questions about the use of medical care. These are not only interesting points for the state of medical education, but more importantly they have a direct application in the field of European Studies referring to changes in the role of knowledge, the changing workplace, and the changing EU regulations.

So what else can be said about the shaping of new professionals such as ES for the established professions (e.g., medicine)? If the problem does not primarily seem to lie in the knowing (informative learning), but much more in understanding the importance of values in professional practice (formative learning), and serving as a change agent for the profession (transformative learning), the call for change in professional education is far more complex than merely building new programs around curricular content. Furthermore, as we consider the new professions (such as experts in the European Union), we must consider the continuously changing content and subject matter of such a curriculum which further emphasizes the need to focus on the learner and learning process.

Over the past decade the department of educational research and development at Maastricht University has built a research program which explores the development of professional expertise (Arts et al. 2006a, b), how to improve development through interventions in program design (ibidem), why some students in professional programs become experts and others do not (van der Rijt et al. 2010), how professionals learn and perform in multi-professional teams (Bossche et al. 2006), and how professionals learn from experiences in the workplace (Beausaert et al. 2011b).

For example, our research on expertise development shows how cognitive performance is related to different levels of schooling and experience. It deviates from survey studies that collect data from employers and/or graduates. We investigated stages of progress toward the development of managerial expertise by analyzing cognitive performance and the nature of underlying knowledge. Our research on stages of expertise was based on the contention that learners move through various but characteristic stages of knowledge organization before reaching the proficiency level that "true" experts have. Our main focus was whether and how subjects, with different levels of business schooling and management experience, make progress in cognitive performance while solving realistic problems. We analyzed this progress by examining how differences in cognitive problem-solving could be explained by changes in knowledge structures underlying problem-solving performance. We found that the key to speed up this process lies in the ability to find better ways for incorporating business practice in business education.

In our view, the first step in transforming professional education for established professions lies in building strong connections between theory (school) and professional practice. This implies that students need to divide their time between school and work so that knowledge acquired in a school context can be readily applied to a professional situation, and vice versa. Action learning involves real-life-structured projects in organizations ("learning by doing") rather than performing projects in traditional classroom settings. Such approaches can circumvent the time delay between (a) knowledge acquisition in formal educational settings and (b) knowledge application in practical (workplace) settings. Of course, dual learning and action learning are not always realistic options for formal education.

Another approach is to "bring the workplace" into the context of professional curricula, for example, by enhancing the authenticity of assignments and of the learning environment (e.g., Arts et al. 2006a, b). In a series of instructional interventions, we made substantial changes to a current second-year undergraduate marketing course (Arts et al. 2002, 2006a, b), by introducing authentic company materials as learning material, by downsizing the number of small-group meetings, through improved feedback moments, and using web-learning tools that allowed students to work in small virtual teams, which possessed Web 2.0 tools for improved interaction and exchange of knowledge and ideas. It was found that by consistent redesign of this course and its changed emphasis on authenticity, collaboration, and team-learning feedback, students participating in this approach outperformed students in the parallel tracks with respect to exam grades, cognitive performance, and course satisfaction. Our research has consistently demonstrated that the key for improved professional learning (and in return improved professional performance) lies in changing the nature of social interaction, increasing accountability, and learning demands, combined with professional feedback, which is perceived by students as constructive and not overly critical (destructive).

Recent research on how professionals develop before and after graduation emphasizes the importance of formal and informal feedback to engage people in continuous learning and improved performance (van der Rijt et al. 2010; Beausaert et al. 2011a, b). All our research evidence suggests that professionals who continue developing are the ones who seek feedback actively in their networks of peers and who are employed in companies who support feedback-seeking behavior. Given the importance of feedback as a tool to improve and support learning, education and training practices should pay explicit attention to this tool. The final section of this chapter will demonstrate how this can be done in practice.

2.5 New Professions in Transformative Times

The question at the core of this chapter is how the above insights on improved professional training for the established professions (e.g., Ericsson 2009) can help the new professions to build and design better programs. Is it the adagio "what works

for them doesn't work for us"? As mentioned several times in the previous sections, the key issues for the established professions deal with three challenges:

1. How to assure adequate professional learning (informative learning) to prepare graduates for new professions.
2. How to help them internalize the importance of values and ethics in professional behavior.
3. How to help them acquire professional skills to assist them in complex and multi-professional settings.

Preparing new professionals for new professions first requires understanding of what is expected from graduate students when entering the labor market. A classic approach to find out what these expectations are consists of conducting surveys and interviews with people working in the field. Recently IBM published two reports which make a case in point (IBM 2010a, b). IBM wanted to investigate the challenges faced by CEOs and senior executives of leading organizations in different sectors and regions. Their report "Capitalizing on Complexity" focused on the perceptions of more than 1,500 CEOs and senior executives in more than 60 countries and 30 market sectors (IBM 2010b). Next, to collecting data from CEOs they (IBM) asked a subset of similar questions of the CEO Study questions to 3,619 students from more than 100 major universities around the world. IBM considered these students as potential future leaders. They invited students in undergraduate and graduate programs to participate between October 2009 and January 2010. One of the main conclusions of this report was that international business has become more and more global, interconnected, and collaborative. They make a call for fostering more creativity within companies: "Benefits are to be had for those who create new products, services, delivery methods and channels that hide intricacies and make things simple in the eyes of consumers and citizens" (IBM 2010b: 64). Next, it was concluded that avoiding complexity is not an option because international business shows that a growing number of people, companies, and governments become connected when operating business. Their plea is that business should focus more on building creative leadership, reinventing customer relationships, and building operating dexterity. Finally, it was found that students were acutely aware of the complexity they will face in their career. The IBM (2010b) report suggests that students were even more aware of the impact of the growing complexity on organizations than CEOs. Another striking finding was that, while CEOs and students seemed to agree on the importance of fostering development of creative leadership, substantial differences between both groups were found with respect to global thinking and sustainability. Students rated both issues as more important than the CEOs did. Moreover it was found that students expected customers to be much more demanding in the near future. Again more students than CEOs expected this.

While the "Capitalizing on Complexity" report (IBM 2010b) focused on market developments, IBM published another report on how organizations need to deal with their human capital. The IBM "Working Beyond Borders" report (IBM 2010a) collected data from nearly 600 senior global HR leaders. The interviews revealed that development of professionals should focus much more on talent

allocation, development of creative leadership, and skill development for effective collaboration in global teams (IBM 2010a: 3).

Both reports seem to underline the importance of two out of three issues mentioned above: (1) the importance of dealing with ethics and values and (2) the importance of cooperation in a growingly complex world. Next, they confirm (again) what has been identified in research on the changing nature of the workplace for graduates in management sciences: Gijselaers and Milter (2010) report that research findings consistently point to the importance of four required competencies to function adequately in managerial practice. Graduates are expected to possess (1) functional competencies (discipline specific), (2) systemic competencies (cross-disciplinary knowledge and skills), (3) personal competencies (self-management), and (4) organizational competencies (managing others). It has been found that employers put a growing emphasis on interpersonal skills such as "interpersonal communication," "team building," and cognitive skills such as "problem-solving."

Correlating back to business education, Gijselaers and Milter (2010) concluded in an earlier publication that in order to respond to changes in the business environment, business education must accept the challenge to help in the development of requisite capabilities to lead the organizations of the future. They claim that business professions have consistently called for more dynamic and responsive learning platforms to prepare the next generation of leaders, yet universities have been unresponsive to such calls. They criticized the classic response of university education to develop new programs for new professions by emphasizing the importance of content. It may seem clear from the above that while the importance of teaching curricular content may hold in professions with strong bodies of knowledge, this is a critical issue for programs which are built while the workplace is "under construction." This is true for programs such as European Studies, which study ongoing processes of European integration, while simultaneously teaching such processes. The unique opportunity for such program lies in using academic study on those integration processes as real-time input for students' learning experiences. The dynamics of change can serve as part of the program design. Proponents of action learning, problem-based learning, and other interactive learning platforms have advocated such approaches especially for adult learners who combine study with work. The risk contained in such approaches is that teachers are not well prepared to shift their focus from content (informative learning) to formative and transformative learning. It is well documented from other professions that many teachers lack the necessary skills to design such programs or to provide students with adequate feedback (e.g., Steinert and McLeod 2006; Steinert et al. 2009).

2.6 Shaping the New Professional in Transformative Times

What if indeed society is demanding graduates with additional competencies? And what if changing curriculum contents do not meet any longer those needs? And what if there is growing demand to pay more attention to preparing students

for new leadership roles in a complex society? Then it all gets back to dealing with uncertainty about how to find a (new) balance between the Know-What question (the content-based notion about curriculum design) and the Know-How question (the pedagogical notion about how we should teach). The risk contained in the traditional approach of content-focused program design remains evident in challenges facing professionals today (IBM 2010a, b). In this way European Studies programs run similar risks to many other programs in the established professions. Since they have not acquired the heavy-sized bodies of knowledge as in the established professions, "content can't be king" should be considered as a leading slogan when (re)designing programs.

As we live in an adaptive and dynamic world, we need to acknowledge the adaptive and dynamic nature of learning and development and consider a paradigm shift in how we think about learning and training (Salas and Rosen 2010):

> We live in a flat world now, a world where those who learn the fastest and those who know more win. And so expertise, its nature, and its development are crucial to organizations. Organizations that develop experts, those that motivate the acquisition of expert performance, those that provide opportunities for learning and development, those that create mechanisms and initiatives to develop expertise, and those that value human capital at its best will thrive. (Salas and Rosen 2010: 125)

It is important to design learning experiences around the process and not solely embedded in content alone. Too frequently inadequate attention is paid to the learning experience. Problems, cases, projects, and assignments are packaged around content because it is convenient for faculty (Stinson and Milter 1996). The same can be observed in a majority of educational learning theories. They tend to focus on the content of curriculum, a situation within learning, or learning as an outcome. While such theories have offered significant value and insight to better understand the learner, the learning process, and the learning environment, few have offered a more holistic perspective that addresses the interaction of these elements (Schank 2004). Furthermore, they fail to recognize this interaction in a contextualized learning/work environment and fail to consider the learner as a self-regulated actor participating in the learning equation. In order to understand how the learner and environment interact, we need to start by recognizing them as the key factors in this adaptive learning process meant to develop the new professional.

Learning for the new professionals should begin by considering the most critical elements of the learning experience: the learner and the environment. We suggest there are no blueprints to create a perfect interaction between these two elements, yet providing the following is essential to achieve an optimal balance for learning and development:

1. Promoting a Sense of Empowerment Through Autonomy
   Since we are preparing students to become professionals, we need to bring a wealth of expertise and work experience to the learning process. Therefore, they need to be empowered by relevant and contextualized figures from the learning environment in order to create meaningful connections through autonomy and support (Brookfield 1991; Shor 1992).

2. Offering Challenge with Trust
   Professional learning and working in today's interconnected society usually requires cooperation in teams for knowledge building. According to Edmondson (1999) effectiveness in teams is a matter of psychological safety that is dependent more on trust and challenge than on organizational factors. Hence, failure is something to be learned from instead of resulting in blame or punishment (Pile 1979).
3. Creating a Positive Emotional Climate
   In addition to ensuring the formal conditions to create a favorable learning environment, encouraging a positive emotional climate is essential (Pekrun et al. 2002). Fostering positive emotions in academic settings is an issue which had previously been overlooked, yet has recently received attention and recognition. The role of academic emotions has been acknowledged in explaining student performance and learning (Pekrun et al. 2002).
4. Integrating *Proactive Feedback*
   The power of feedback has been widely researched, discussed, and acknowledged as one of the key mechanisms for learning (Hattie and Timperley 2007). Typically, feedback is offered as corrective or reactive – targeted at a low level of performance only. Rather than waiting for poor performance to give feedback (corrective feedback), we encourage provision for proactive and continuous feedback to assist the learner in their adaptation and, further, to promote a sustained level of performance and motivation toward continued development.

The reader will note that these guiding principles are not intended to be a recipe for success, but rather factors to consider in the learning process. We encourage learning design and development to center on such dynamic and flexible processes which can be adapted within any learning situation for the new professions.

In light of the new professions and the adaptive learning needs for the new professionals, we must consider alternative ways to approach education and training. Rather than beginning a learning experience focused on the content and structure required, we should first consider the learner, the influence of the learning environment, their interaction, and allocate moments of feedback.

Through focusing on the process of learning, rather than the mere content to be learned, we hope to achieve a learning experience that allows the individual to develop the capability of applying, not only possessing, knowledge that can be used and transferred in various contextualized settings for the dynamic world we experience. We speculate that innovation is failing because it is organized around content and not around the learning process itself. In order to innovate, we need to consider new paradigms to disentangle how people develop expertise, to better position educators/trainers to recognize the critical interactions between learners and the environment, and to create opportunities for feedback. An emerging new professional domain such as European Studies can serve as a perfect place for innovation and reflection to achieve the kind of learning as promoted in this article.

2.7 Concluding Thoughts

In our view, programs such as European Studies represent the development of one of the new professions. Typically, one would expect that our ideas on how to shape programs for the new professions would focus on the design of learning experiences at the course level. In this respect we have argued indeed that students need opportunities to see how experts analyze problems, to receive feedback on their own use of these actions, and to obtain suggestions during the process of carrying out tasks. In addition, students need to study concepts over an extended period of time in a variety of contexts. Through linking content with context, knowledge becomes easily accessible when students are confronted with new problems. Problem-based learning can provide an innovative platform for such learning experience because it engages the learner actively in the learning process; it recognizes the idiosyncrasy of the learner's knowledge, the importance of changing students' misconceptions about science, and the need to prepare students for professional practice by paying explicit attention to the transfer of learning to practice (see also the chapter by Maurer and Neuhold on this volume, Chap. 12). Even more important, it has a substantial educational research basis as published in many academic journals and has produced many new and profound insights on how people learn within and outside schools (e.g., Arts et al. 2006b).

However, our recommendations go beyond the level of instruction and how to improve learning within courses. First of all, we are strongly in favor of programs where innovation is an inherent process of a professional school. Our experience shows over and over again that innovations within professional education cannot be copied (Gijselaers and Milter 2009). As a consequence, schools for the new professions should invest effort, time, and financial resources to develop programs which strive for continuous renewal based on educational research. Medical education provides excellent examples of how this can be achieved (Frenk et al. 2010). On top of that, we strongly recommend designing programs that put much more effort in guiding learners on how to deal with continuous change in practice. Frenk et al. (2010) defined this as moving away from informative learning and heading toward transformative learning. We are aware that educational research in the new professions is underdeveloped compared to management and medical education. However, the present volume offers an opportunity to develop new platforms for knowledge exchange and the foundation of a research base for designing programs for European Studies.

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Chapter 3
Working at the EU Institutions: New Human Resources Selection Strategy

Nicholas David Bearfield

3.1 Introduction

In intellect-based organisations, human capital is the main resource. The European Union Institutions[1] are no exception. The men and women who form the European Civil Service constitute by far the Institutions' greatest asset. The quality of the selection process is the best guarantor of its reputation for independence, permanence and competence. In a context of considerable change and challenge for the EU Institutions, it is therefore essential that the European Personnel Selection Office (EPSO), the inter-institutional body charged with HR (Human Resources) selection on behalf of the EU Institutions, has in place modern, efficient and reliable selection methods. In this way its stakeholders are provided with the staff they need so that they can meet the considerable challenges they face – both now and in the future. The constantly evolving character of the European labour market requires EPSO to find new ways to constantly improve the quality of its work and to be successful in the growing 'war for talent'. The guiding principle is to renew and enrich the Institutions with the best and brightest – individuals who are the best qualified and most suitable for the great diversity of challenging jobs which the Institutions have to offer in fields ranging from policy formulation through programme and project implementation via resources management and diplomatic representation.

[1] The Institutions covered comprise European Parliament, Council of the European Union, European Commission, Court of Justice of the European Union, Court of Auditors, European Economic and Social Committee, Committee of the Regions, European Ombudsman, European Data Protection Supervisor.

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_3,

3.2 The European Union's HR Selection System

The individual Institutions put in place their own HR selection and recruitment procedures within the framework laid down by the *Staff Regulations of Officials of the European Communities*, originally adopted in 1968 and updated incrementally several times during the following 40 years. The original models for HR management systems operating within the Institutions were inspired by those of the original six Member States. In the area of recruitment and selection, mechanisms were modelled to a large extent on those in France at that time. These procedures were competitive in nature, politically neutral and founded on the principle of equality of access to all candidates with the minimum academic or professional qualifications. They have therefore ensured selection based on merit. This is the origin of the term 'competition', still used as the *terminus technicus* for EU open selection procedures. For the rest of the twentieth century, each Institution ran its own recruitment competitions, setting their own standards and recruiting successful candidates to their own services. There was little interchange or coordination in the area of HR selection, so that when reforms were finally mooted, there was considerable potential for economies of scale.

External circumstances coupled with an internal dynamic tipped the balance in favour of change. Major reforms of human resource management in the late 1990s identified inter alia the need for a centralised selection service. Furthermore, when faced with the enormous challenge of hiring thousands of new staff as a result of the rapidly approaching 2004 Enlargement of the EU, the Institutions agreed to pool their resources. It made little sense to compete simultaneously for the same job profiles, particularly given the unprecedented scale of the challenge, both in terms of size and linguistic diversity. The solution which was adopted involved the creation of an autonomous office, answerable to the Institutions collectively, to provide a staff selection service on an inter-institutional basis to the EU Institutions and act as a central point of contact for EU citizens wishing to apply for work opportunities in the EU Institutions. The Institutions individually remained responsible for interviewing, assigning and onboarding successful candidates ('laureates') to specific posts.

EPSO was officially established in 2002 and rapidly organised competitions for officials throughout the EU, applying the existing competition model, with some significant changes at a technological rather than a structural level. Online applications replaced the old paper procedure and initial steps taken towards introducing computer-based testing to process applications in bulk at the first ('preselection') stage of competitions. Since the creation of EPSO and up to the third quarter of 2010, the Office has successfully concluded some 600 competitions and identified nearly 17,600 laureates from amongst more than 468,900 applicants. Over 11,900 of these laureates have subsequently been recruited by the Institutions.

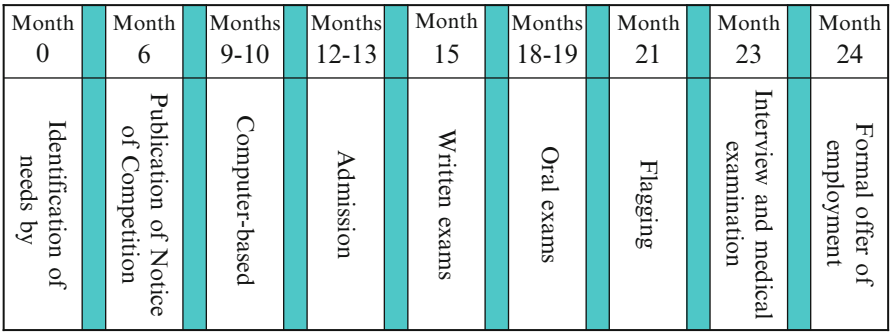

Fig. 3.1 Timeline – previous model

3.3 Diagnosing the Issues

The throughput has been impressive; EPSO, in its first years of operation, could claim a 50 % efficiency gain by virtue of processing twice as many applications as all the Institutions put together previously, both *per annum* and over a 5-year time frame. But this could not disguise some serious structural issues, since the basic approach, procedure and testing tools had not progressed over several decades. Therefore, shortly following my appointment as Director in September 2007, a strategic review of the whole organisation was launched, benchmarking the then current practices against best practice internationally, principally in international organisations and in Member States. The review identified key areas where the then selection and recruitment model fell short. These may be summarised as follows:

- The EU applied an outdated selection system based on an academically oriented and knowledge-based system of the 1950s and 1960s (notwithstanding the fact that several national administrations had already embarked on fundamental change to their systems).
- Speed of delivery was out of line with both the needs of the Institutions and candidate expectations. Time frames of between 2 and 9 months are the norm whereas the EPSO system took at least 2 years from identification of a need to a new official taking up post (Fig. 3.1).
- Reliability/predictability was weak since it was based largely on testing declarative knowledge and on an unstructured interview, with poor correlation between these tests and predictive job performance.
- Every example of best practice showed competency-based testing underpinning selection internationally and assessment centres as the most reliable predictors of future performance.
- Workforce demographics indicated that the pool of available people in Europe was on a long-term downward curve and that the best qualified are also the most

mobile internationally. Therefore, the EU is required to position itself more prominently to compete for the 'best and brightest'.
- Succession management (i.e. the early identification, nurture and retention of future leadership candidates) would grow as a key challenge in the so-called war for talent, in particular due to the large numbers of staff and managers expected to retire over the coming decade.
- Internationally, there is an increasing focus on operational and portable skills, meaning that individuals are increasingly less wedded to the 'job-for-life' ethos with which the EU Institutions were pitching their unique selling point.
- A growing need to shift focus from talented amateur to professional selection service, whereby the selectors do not just have to be motivated but, crucially, to be fully qualified for their task.

In order to lay the groundwork for change, a high-level Task Force within EPSO was created, which was charged with conducting research on an ongoing basis into best practice in public and private sector selection internationally. Good practices in various public and private organisations across Europe showed that companies use the staff forecast to organise their recruitment, training and development plans, succession policies (planning for leadership). A key step to selecting the right number of people with the right knowledge, skills and experience at the right time is the efficient implementation of Strategic Human Resource Planning. This model requires a focus on quantitative and qualitative forward planning, identifying current skills needs by grade/category and number, current skills gaps and future skills needs. Examples of best practice came from a variety of sources, from the national administrations in Europe and sister organisations internationally. The main findings showed that components should include:

- A focus on medium- and long-term planning of HR needs
- The application of an agreed set of general competencies, generally numbering between 6 and 12, against which to assess candidates' performance
- Fixed and clearly programmed recruitment cycles in cases of regular selection of staff with standard profiles
- Job/employee requirements linked directly to the essence of the job
- Professional HR input to planning and implementation
- Succession planning with the aim of identifying future potential in terms of leaders and managers

This analysis of the gaps in the existing selection process within the broader HR context led to identifying possible ways forward, based on accepted best practice. This resulted in the launch of a substantive change process, a root-and-branch overhaul of HR selection for the EU Institutions. The HR Directors-General of the Institutions gave a clear mandate, meeting as the EPSO Management Board at a seminar in January 2008, to come forward with concrete proposals for change. Discussions were held on a range of issues relating to the development of EPSO as

a provider of personnel selection services to the Institutions. In particular the following key issues were addressed:

- How EPSO could better identify and meet the future staffing needs of the EU Institutions through an improved delivery of EU selection procedures.
- How relevant best practice in selection procedures could benefit EPSO and, through EPSO, the Institutions' long-term HR strategy.
- How EPSO could best respond to the impact of the changing HR environment.
- Identifying the underlying issues for action.

3.4 A New Strategy

The outcome of the seminar was to mandate EPSO, in collaboration with the Institutions, to produce practical proposals for realistic and achievable change over a 2-year preparation and implementation process. This internal change process was codified as the EPSO Development Programme. The main thrust was set out in a number of actions, presented within three main pillars, as follows:

1. Planning and Needs
    - Forward planning: Introduce more accurate forecasting of needs (3-year rolling plan), based on common methodology adopted by the Institutions.
    - Reduce time taken to conduct competitions, in practice down to between 5 and 9 months.
    - Organisation of competitions on an annual basis according to a fixed timetable.
2. Testing and Professionalism
    - Shift from knowledge to a competency-based assessment system (whilst retaining testing of applied knowledge where appropriate).
    - Conduct job and competency analysis leading to the adoption of a competency framework.
    - Generalise use of assessment centres as a key part of the selection process, exploring opportunities for internalisation (i.e. operated by EPSO with EU officials acting as selection board members rather than being outsourced).
    - Professionalise selection boards by providing comprehensive training and by seconding officials from the Institutions on a full-time basis.
    - Introduce structured interviews founded on the competency framework.
    - Explore further the idea of field-skills testing as an initial screening approach for specialised profiles.
3. Diversity and Attractiveness
    - Identify and take steps to improve the employer image of the EU Institutions.
    - Evaluate measures aimed at ensuring appropriate diversity, with reference to disability, target populations (in particular recent university graduates for entry-level recruitment) and geographical balance.

3.5 Implementing the Programme: Laying the Foundations

Stakeholders inside EPSO recognised that the cornerstone of an effective selection process would be the establishment of a competency framework. The application of such a fundamental tool would enable a shift away from predominantly knowledge-based testing to competency-based testing. Competency models had already been adopted by several Institutions, in particular for career development purposes; the challenge would be to develop a coherent and user-friendly competency set specifically for HR selection and recruitment.

To this end, EPSO created a project team and undertook a comprehensive job analysis, in conjunction with Kenexa, a leading consultancy firm. The process consisted of gathering information aimed at identifying the key characteristics and behaviours of effective officials. All entry-grade EU officials, recruited between 2004 and 2007, were surveyed and had to explain what they did professionally, how they went about doing it, what they knew and what made for effective performance in their job. Three techniques were used in the survey: an online questionnaire, which was completed by nearly 1,500 jobholders; structured interviews with high-performance jobholders selected by their Institutions; and a series of focus interviews and group discussions with senior officials to offer a broader view of future HR requirements at a skill-set level. The field work was undertaken from February to April 2009, following which the data was analysed by grade, profile and Institution. The considerable amount of data generated by the questionnaires and interviews allowed the project team to compare roles at the same grade across the Institutions.

The outcome of the job analysis was the development of a general competency framework (Fig. 3.2).

Some explanations are in order. The emphasis was placed on identifying those competencies common to all Institutions and therefore suitable for assessing in open competitions. Whilst the project team started from the hypothesis that the competency set would have to be adapted to the separate entry levels (administrators or assistants) or major profiles (generalist versus specific), in fact the analysis confirmed a set of core competencies equally valid at administrator and assistant levels. A high degree of consistency was also found across different job profiles, whereas the behaviours associated with each competency in complexity with the seniority of the grade or expressed differently in line with the differing expectations of what is required in terms of performance. Thus, the core competency ‘Communicating’ will be assessed differently for a translator, an interpreter or a lawyer, whilst remaining equally valid for all three profiles. Aside from the seven universally applied core competencies, an eighth, ‘Leadership’, applies specifically to the administrator function group. This competency is all the more important as the ‘greying’ of the current staff moves up the agenda. The average age of European Commission officials, for example, is currently 47 years and rising. In this perspective, succession issues will take on added significance in the coming decade, and it is desirable to identify management potential at an early stage.

- **Analysis and Problem Solving**: Identifies the critical facts in complex issues and develops creative and practical solutions
- **Communicating**: Communicates clearly and precisely both orally and in writing
- **Delivering Quality and Results**: Takes personal responsibility and initiative for delivering work to a high standard of quality within set procedures
- **Learning and Development**: Develops and improves personal skills and knowledge of the organisation and its environment
- **Prioritising and Organising**: Prioritises the most important tasks, works flexibly and organises own workload efficiently
- **Resilience**: Remains effective under a heavy workload, handles organisational frustrations positively and adapts to a changing work environment
- **Working with Others**: Works co-operatively with others in teams and across organisational boundaries and respects differences between people

A further competency applies to the Administrator function group:

- **Leadership**: Manages, develops and motivates people to achieve results

Fig. 3.2 EPSO competency framework

3.6 Implementing the Programme: Building the Superstructure

The competency set had now been identified and was ready to be applied to underpin the new competency-based test content and assessment tools. Setting a deadline of March 2010 for the launch of the new selection procedures, EPSO organised a campaign of information and sensitisation aimed at internal stakeholders as well as more widely for interested parties in the Member States. The principal aim was to ensure that potential candidates amongst the target population would be well aware in advance of what was expected of them.

In parallel, EPSO successfully completed calls for tender for assessment centre design and support (awarded to Hudson) and for new test content (awarded to SHL and Kenexa), in line with the shift from predominantly knowledge to competency-based testing (Fig. 3.3). Concerning the early stage of the selection process, the preselection, the key change would be to move away from assessing a very narrow range of skills and the 'one-size-fits-all' model. This has been achieved by extending the elements used in the preselection and by modulating the nature of the preselection phase depending on the type of competition (administrator or assistant levels, generic or specific job profiles).

EPSO has enlarged the scope of cognitive testing, which previously covered only verbal and numerical reasoning, to include abstract reasoning as this is the third key parameter of cognitive ability. Cognitive skills testing is used universally and has proven to be the best predictor of general intelligence and future performance for large populations in a multiple-choice format. Thanks to an intensive pretesting phase and greater post hoc performance analysis, the tests are now

PREVIOUS MODEL

1. Application on-line (standard CV)

2. Pre-selection tests
   Computer-based since 2005
   Multiple-choice questions in:
   Verbal reasoning
   Numerical reasoning
   EU knowledge

3. Written examination
   Essay-style, broadly academic
   Developed by selection board

4. Oral examination (45 minutes)
   Conducted by selection board

5. Unsuccessful candidates receive score with brief comments. Laureates receive no feedback and are simply placed on a reserve list.

NEW MODEL

1. Expanded on-line application (CV adapted per competition, including sections on relevant qualifications, experience and motivation)

2. Computer-based tests in:
   Verbal reasoning
   Numerical reasoning
   Abstract reasoning
   Situational judgment
   Field tests are added for specific profiles (e.g., translators, scientists). Job-specific skills test are added for AST profiles.

3. Full day Assessment Centre at AD level; half day at AST level, comprising a battery of competency-based exercises developed by selection board in conjunction with HR contractor, e.g.:
   Case study, based on practical scenario
   Group exercise
   Oral presentations
   Structured interview

4. All candidates receive a detailed "competency passport" detailing their performance against the competency framework. Laureates placed on a reserve list.

Fig. 3.3 Steps in the competition

differentiated and adapted, in terms of content and difficulty level, to the type of selection and profile. In addition, the new tests on abstract reasoning do not have to be translated, thereby minimising costs and sources of error. In parallel, EPSO has proceeded with the introduction of 23 language testing at the preselection stage, whereby each candidate can sit the reasoning tests in his or her mother tongue. A database of nearly 100,000 test items has been constructed and pretested to ensure a robust implementation of our policy of multilingualism.

With the introduction of the new competition model, EPSO has removed the multiple-choice test on EU knowledge from the preselection phase. It had been much criticised in the past as rote learning of declarative knowledge, more a test of

memory than a valid predictor of job performance in general assessment environments. It was also clear that demanding specific EU knowledge, as an eliminatory element in preselection testing, had significant adverse impact as it was heavily biased in favour of those in and/or around the Institutions or with access to preparatory material and may even have had a deterrent effect on potential candidates. EU knowledge in all events continues to be assessed at the assessment stage, in the guise of applied rather than declarative knowledge, in close relation with professional skills testing, such as within the structured interview and case study. Instead of declarative knowledge testing, EPSO has introduced a situational judgement test, based on job-relevant scenarios. Behavioural tests have proven to be good indicators for future job performance and are widely used in selection procedures at an early stage in national administrations. Therefore, EPSO trialled an item bank of behavioural questions in multiple-choice format for general use in AD and higher AST selections. These items map onto the general competency set, in particular delivering results, organising work; problem solving and judgement; working with people and adapting and coping. The results of the trials confirmed that situational judgement testing would improve the quality of tests as a predicator of on-the-job performance and as an additional eliminatory element in the preselection phase.

Candidates who achieve the highest performance in the preselection tests used to have two further hurdles to overcome – a knowledge-based written test, generally an academic-style essay, followed by a short, nonstructured oral examination heavily focussed on specific qualifications and knowledge. Under the new model, there is a more intensive single stage, an Assessment Centre held on EPSO premises and run by qualified assessors drawn from EU officials. This assessment phase enables all key competencies to be properly and reliably tested. For the general profiles, the emphasis is on career-related competency-based testing. The exercises have been created to evaluate the desired skills, each of which is assessed – in accordance with industry-wide good practice – at least twice and by two separate assessors. This stage comprises a full day of tests depending on the type of competition. The assessment is conducted in the candidate's second language (of the three working languages, English, French or German), except for profiles requiring specific language skills.

Depending on the competition, the assessment phase includes the following mix of elements:

- A comprehensive case study related to the field for which the candidates have registered and which closely mirrors real situations in an EU context
- A group exercise, requiring the participants to come to a consensus based on the individual elements they have been supplied
- An oral presentation, requiring the individual candidate to make a job-specific presentation, based on an EU-related file, followed by a question-and-answer session
- A structured interview, during which the candidate is probed on behavioural indicators derived from the competencies being assessed

Through this combination of exercises, candidates have multiple opportunities to give of their best. The assessors, for their part, have similar multiple opportunities to observe the candidates' behaviours, evaluate the derived competencies and arrive at an objective conclusion. The sessions are meant to be rigorous and challenging and to be appropriate to a target population of young, dynamic graduates, for many of whom job simulations, multinational placements and case studies are as routine as old-style academic essays in the context of their education and life experience. The results of the Assessment Centre provide a specific and detailed insight into the job-relevant strengths and weaknesses of the participants; the ensuing report, an individual 'competency passport', is supplied to the hiring services within the Institutions (along with each laureate's detailed CV) and to every candidate passing through an Assessment Centre, successful or otherwise.

3.7 Implementing the Programme: Opening for Business

Speeding up the process has opened up the opportunity for closer synchronisation with each Institution's recruitment schedule. Schedules for competitions are now underpinned by a standardised strategic planning process, designed to reduce long lags between the identification of staffing needs and the availability of laureates, as demonstrated in the timeline for the previous model (Fig. 3.1). Beginning with the 2010 competitions and for the three generic groups (AD, AST, linguists), categories in which the Institutions need a permanent supply of new staff, competitions are run on an annual basis (Fig. 3.4). This offers, for the first time, certainty to all those involved: to stakeholders in their workforce planning and to applicants in clearly timetabling their participation at each stage of the procedure.

Furthermore, in line with our efforts to achieve greater engagement with candidates and potential candidates, EPSO has launched major initiatives in the area of communications. They include developing our presence on social media sites and completing a major rebranding exercise to promote the attractiveness of and opportunities for EU careers. After all, EPSO is not in the business of selling itself, but of marketing EU careers. Consequently, the new EU Careers visual identity has been rolled out across promotional materials in all media, including on the side of the EPSO building in the European Quarter of Brussels, newly fitted out to house the assessment centres.

3.8 Conclusion

The EU's new selection strategy maintains the tried-and-tested values of fairness and equality of treatment and impartial evaluation, whilst delivering a root-and-branch reform of the structure of the selection process as well as the nature and content of testing. The changes are significant in the context of EU public sector reform and

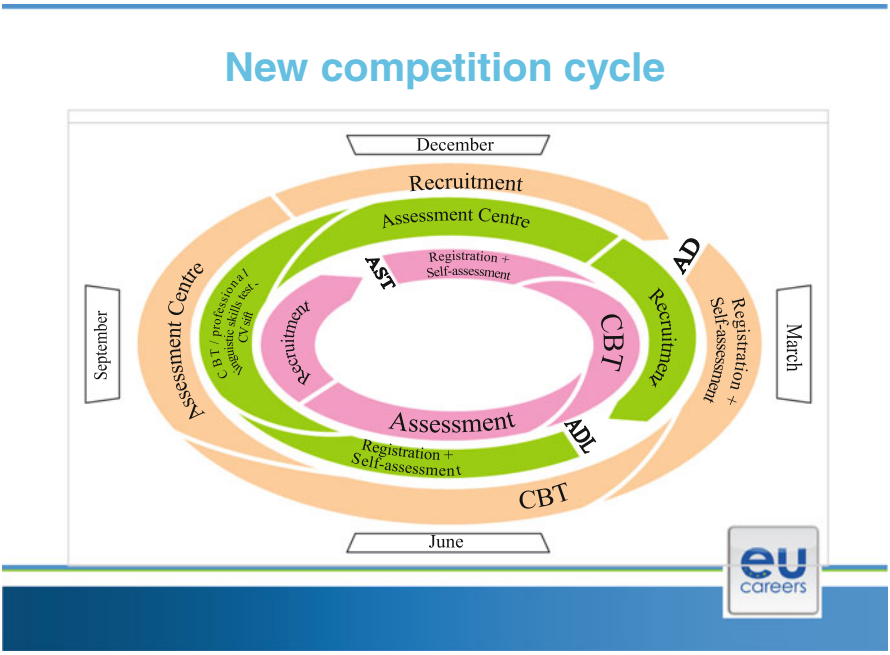

Fig. 3.4 New competition cycle

testify to the speed and scale of innovation at all levels of the administration, from the identification of key issues to the implementation of appropriate solutions. The new HR selection strategy aims to offer a streamlined procedure and a better service to our Institutional stakeholders and our candidates. Whilst it is premature to fully measure the impact of this reform until it has been in place for several years, reactions from both the candidates and the Institutions' HR services have been most encouraging.

Chapter 4
Educating for EU Citizenship and Civic Engagement Through Active Learning

Gretchen J. Van Dyke

4.1 Introduction

Today's European Union (EU) is a dynamic, multifaceted, multipurpose polity, representing nearly half a billion people across 28 distinct member states, each of which celebrates its own government, history, and social and cultural traditions. Surely, this embodiment profoundly differs from the six member states that joined together in the European Coal and Steel Community in 1952 and subsequently built the European Economic Community in 1957. With the largest GDP in the world, the EU exerts significant influence in the global economic system; its consistent commitment to democracy and human rights increases its capacity to exercise political sway in international diplomatic circles as well. Nonetheless, one cannot presume a single European Identity or a united European voice in all instances. In fact, rather than always sounding like a well-rehearsed orchestra producing symphonic beauty, the EU at times generates the noise of the individual instruments and sections as the musicians warm up before the start of the concert. With the deepening and widening of European integration in recent decades, one might anticipate a discernable European Identity emerging as part of European integration. Yet, this integration faces significant anti-European challenges, especially from far-right nationalist parties across Europe; by their very nature, these nationalist parties defy the notion of a common European Identity. Even so, complex, integrated European policies as well as the impact of globalization on the European member states and their citizens often demand European-level responses, based on the needs and interests of Europeans and the European Union. Yet it is not always easy to determine what one means by "European" or what it means to be a "good" European citizen, especially if one considers the diversity comprising today's European citizenry. Furthermore, if developing a European Identity, so as

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_4,

to encourage active European citizenship, becomes a goal among governmental elites and/or other interested parties, how exactly does one accomplish that goal? This latter question is the focus of this chapter.

As this chapter will suggest, European Studies is an appropriate and natural academic discipline in which to explore the challenges of this question, as well as the capacity of academic curriculum to nurture the growth of a European Identity among European students, so as to inspire EU citizenship and encourage civic engagement. The chapter allows one to examine the call for civic engagement, the need for civic education, and the capacity of active and experiential learning to foster skill development, which thus underscores the value of such strategies for faculty, students, and citizens alike. It is divided into three sections. The first section reviews various articulations of political elites at the EU level and in the Council of Europe regarding the need for civic education so as to encourage a greater sense of "being European" among the citizenry, for long-term active citizenship. In so doing, one realizes that certain sectors within the EU have gone as far as suggesting actual strategies and programming to support active citizen education, in which educational institutions can participate. Interestingly, one will also see that these efforts within the EU are similar to those undertaken in American higher education circles in general, and among American political scientists in particular, to help reengage particularly younger American citizens. Such efforts are designed to encourage a greater sense of political efficacy through civic education, which may then lead to greater political activism among younger Americans.

The second section of this chapter highlights the array of literature, in both European and American circles, that not only assesses but also promotes the need for civic education, including the development of civic skills and competences, in order to ignite civic engagement. The last section considers the use of active and experiential learning pedagogies in promoting skill development that experts argue is necessary for good citizenship education. Among these pedagogies are American-based EU simulations (such as the Mid-Atlantic EU Simulation Consortium's program), which may be valuable additions to European Studies curriculum, as means to assist students in translating academic learning to active European citizenship.

4.2 A Call for Civic Engagement: A Need for Civic Education

In an action that indicated an ever deepening movement of European integration, 29 European Education Ministers in June 1999 launched the Bologna Process and created the European Higher Education Area. In their joint declaration, the European Ministers stressed the relationship between education and the development of a European Identity:

> A Europe of Knowledge is now widely recognized as an irreplaceable factor for social and human growth and as an indispensable component to consolidate and enrich the European citizenship, capable of giving its citizens the necessary competences to face the challenges

> of the new millennium, together with an awareness of shared values and belonging to a common social and cultural space. (European Commission-Education and Training 2010: The Bologna Declaration)

One can assume that the Education Ministers looked to ensure the effective preparation of students as citizens of Europe and as European citizens in a highly integrated international community (European Commission 2010: Citizenship Overview). Similarly, the Council of Europe, from 1999 to 2001, implemented its Education for Democratic Citizenship project, including its 2001–2002 pilot project on the "University as Site of Citizenship." In 2005, it issued its "European Year of Citizenship through Education." In 2006, the Council of Europe held a joint forum with American educators, the outcome of which was the Council's declaration on "Higher Education and Democratic Culture: Citizenship, Human Rights and Civic Responsibility" (Council of Europe 2010). Among other things, that declaration underscored the importance of education and schooling in "shaping the democratic development of societies" and the particular role of universities as "strategic institutions for democratic development of schooling and societies" www.aacu.org/civic_engagement/CouncilofEurope.cfm (Association of American Colleges and Universities 2010).

Other actions have been undertaken within the EU as well. Subsequent to the March 2000 Lisbon European Council commitment to make the EU "the most competitive market and dynamic knowledge economy in the world," the EU Commission set "learning for active citizenship" as a major pillar of the Lisbon program (de Weerd et al. 2005: 1). Further, a 2004 EU Council decision created a Community action program "to promote active European citizenship" and civic participation, while in 2006 the European Parliament and Council established a "Europe for Citizens" program for 2007–2013, from which educational institutions could apply for funding for civic engagement projects (Kostakopoulou 2008: 293). The program encouraged citizens to become actively involved in the European integration process, empowering them to develop a sense of European Identity and enhancing mutual understanding among Europeans (ibidem: 286, 293; European Commission Citizenship Overview). The actions of both the Council of Europe and the EU underline the connection between education and citizenship development. Universities not only train teachers and help in curriculum development but also are critical venues for ongoing research, discussions, and debates about democratic socialization and what "good citizenship" essentially means for any society, including Europe.

The European conversation about the relationship between civic engagement and civic education actually runs parallel to a similar, albeit longer standing and more advanced, conversation among American educators, aimed especially toward Political Science. Early on in his pathbreaking work on civic education and engagement in the American context, Thomas Ehrlich suggested that educators employ pedagogical methods that train students in collaborative problem solving. The foundation of Ehrlich's conclusion was John Dewey's vision of education, one "that prepares students to develop and enter interactive, collaborative societies in which the process of deciding how to solve a problem is understood to be as important as acting to solve the problem itself" (Ehrlich 1999: 246). Dewey, he argued, "was adamant that the overarching goal of education should be no less than

fostering and maintaining democracy; he believed that schools themselves must be real communities, and that learning in school should be continuous with learning out of schools." If the "health of democracy" demands "a strong citizenry," then political science instructors, he says, must help students "integrate classroom learning with experiential learning in the larger world where practical political decision making and democratic deliberations occur" (ibidem).

In addition to Ehrlich, an array of scholarly research in the 1990s and 2000s has also highlighted the critical role higher education should and does play in student citizenship development. For example, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, CIRCLE (Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement), the University of Minnesota's Center for Democracy and Citizenship, the Pew Research Center, and the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) at the University of California at Los Angeles are among multiple institutes and non-profit organizations that since the 1990s have routinely published fact sheets, reports, working papers, and literature reviews to assist educators and researchers alike in meeting this challenging task (see, e.g., Talcott 2005; Longo and Meyer 2006; Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and CIRCLE (The Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement) 2006; Cooperative Institutional Research Program 2006; Kiesa et al. 2007; The Pew Research Center for The People & The Press 2007). In 1996, the American Political Science Association (APSA), the premier association of political scientists in the United States, responded to the concerns being raised by prominent members regarding evidence of significant civic disengagement especially among younger Americans and the potential negative implications for the long-term health of American democracy. Specifically, APSA formed a Civic Education Task Force, which, from 1996 to 2000, examined the connection between political science education and civic engagement.

In its 1997 Statement of Purpose, the APSA Task Force explained why it thought the disengagement likely had occurred:

> This Task Force…believes that a very significant failure in basic political education lies behind much of today's political apathy, ignorance, and fear about politics. Political education, we believe, does not effectively teach central truths about the nature of political life. It seems unable to counter the belief that, in politics, one either wins or loses, and to win means getting everything at once, now! The sense that politics can always bring another day, another chance to be heard, to persuade, and perhaps to gain part of what one wants, is lost. Political education today seems unable to teach the lessons of our political history: Persistent civic engagement-the slow and patient building of first coalitions and then majorities-can generate social change…Perhaps political education fails to teach that politics is not a form of economics. The market allows consumers to buy what they want when they want it, but politics does not work that way. Our impatience with political compromises, with the half-measures and imperfect solutions that are the stuff of politics, may be at an all-time low. (Carter and Elshtain 1997: 745)

The Task Force thus developed a Civic Education Mission, in which it articulated its three-pronged approach to address the problem of civic disengagement. Its first task would be to describe and disseminate the problem, in empirical and analytical terms, to broaden understanding of the problem. Second, it would provide educators

at every level with clear, specific descriptions of "how, at every level of political education, we teach or fail to teach the craft and practice of politics." Third, it would provide "concrete curricular and extracurricular steps" that should be implemented to correct the problem so as to "successfully reinvigorate the motivation and skill to engage effectively in political life" (ibidem). Subsequent to the completion of the Task Force's work in 2002, the APSA added a standing committee on Civic Education and Engagement to its organizational structure to ensure that the work of the Task Force would be continued. What most American experts typically suggest about the American civic disengagement challenge is that colleges and universities must provide in their education both the content and skills necessary for engaged citizenship. In 2004 APSA launched its first conference on Teaching and Learning, an annual event that has consistently included a working group on civic education and engagement. Such a working group enables teachers in higher education to share research and practical experiences regarding civic disengagement and to explore the value of various pedagogical techniques, including experiential and active learning, in an attempt to reengage younger American citizens through educational processes.

4.3 How Does One Prepare for Civic Engagement?

Studies in both the American and European spheres, in the late 1990s and the first decade of the twenty-first century, seemingly supported the arguments coming from European-level agencies as well as European and American think tanks and academics regarding civic engagement and civic education. Specifically, prominent survey research uncovered important details about what good and active citizenship means—or may not mean—in the European context (Torney-Purta 2002; Torney-Purta 2003). Torney-Purta observed that the second phase of the 1999 IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) Civic Education Study indicated that European adolescents saw "voting as a hallmark of the good adult citizen"; yet other activities, such as community action, social movements, political discussions, and party membership, were unimportant (Torney-Purta 2003: 367). In his analysis of survey data collected about ordinary citizens (in contrast to EU Policy Makers, and Civil Society Organizations), van Deth concludes that "for the majority of respondents, a 'good citizen' is someone who visits the ballot box—not someone who is engaged in public and political affairs beyond voting" (van Deth 2009: 183). Menezes (2003), Magnette (2003), Kostakopoulou (2008), Hoskins et al. (2008), Dunne (2008), and Hoskins and Deakin Crick (2010) are among countless scholars who also have contributed to the rich discussion regarding the connections among civic engagement, civic education, active citizenship, and the development of a European Identity. This discussion is often rooted in the goals of the Lisbon Strategy and the current European Commission civic engagement programs, in which there is clear emphasis on the connection between lifelong learning and civic competences as precursors to a European Identity.

Similarly, American-based research exposed the lack of engagement in politics and political activities among American youth. In 2001, Bennett and Bennett maintained that the "low interest in politics is consistent with research on declining civic engagement in America" (Bennett and Bennett 2001: 298). HERI and other surveys, in fact, continued to document the relatively low level of political engagement and activities particularly among American 18–25-year-olds (Cooperative Institutional Research Program 2006; Kiesa et al. 2007). The 2006 National Conference on Citizenship noted that while "youth volunteerism and voting" had increased since the 9/11 terrorist attacks, "9/11 does not appear to have triggered a broader civic transformation [among youth]" (4). A 2008 CIRCLE report on the then recently completed presidential election pointed out that young voter turnout in that election had increased 4–5 % over 2004 and 11 % over 2000 (CIRCLE 2008, 1) although a 2007 Pew Research Center study (in the year prior to the election) had suggested that "Generation Next" remained relatively disconnected from politics, in comparison to earlier generations (The Pew Research Center for The People & The Press 2007, 2).

On both sides of the Atlantic, academics suggest that classrooms be utilized more effectively to encourage students to become owners of politically related knowledge so as to grow in their capacities as informed, engaged citizens. Experts explain that students need both content and skill development for civic engagement. It is not hard particularly for Political Science teachers to understand the emphasis in the literature on "content"—in other words, the governing structures, policies, processes, and organizations of politics and government. Identifying the actual "skills" and "competences" of citizenship and infusing our students with those capacities are much less clear, especially in terms of actual class outcomes. In comparing the European and American experts involved in this simultaneous analysis, the parallel discussions and relative agreement regarding civic skill development are truly remarkable, regardless of the fact that these assessments were being conducted in two very different spheres, with very different audiences in mind.

When the European Council in Barcelona in March 2002 agreed to its "Education and Training 2010" (a detailed work program for education and training), it opened the door to an EU-level conversation about competences for civic engagement and lifelong learning. In its 2003 Staff Working Document on the Implementation of the "Education and Training 2010 Programme," the European Commission reported that a significant portion of work thus far had been devoted to the "matter of key competences," meaning a range of skills "that all people, particularly the most vulnerable, should henceforth have in order to live and work in the knowledge-driven society and economy…" (Commission of the European Communities 2003, 17). The Commission, thus, identified eight specific competences: communication in one's mother tongue; communication in a foreign language; mathematical literacy and basic competences in science and technology; digital (ITC) competence; learning to learn, interpersonal skills, and civics; entrepreneurship; and cultural expression (Ibid, 18). In each subsequent joint progress report of the Council and the Commission on the implementation of the 2010 program, progress on key competences remained an essential element of analysis (see, e.g., Council of the European Union 2004;

Commission of the European Communities 2003; Commission of the European Communities 2009; de Weerd et al. 2005; GHK 2007).

Particularly important for the EU Commission's work on this issue is the Center for Research on Lifelong Learning (CRELL), which was established as a collaborative enterprise between the EU Commission's Directorate General for Education and Culture and the Directorate General Joint Research Center. In its 2006 project on "Active Citizenship for Democracy," CRELL offered specific indicators of active citizenship, all of which fell into one of the three categories pertaining to knowledge, skills, or attitudes. Added to these three categories are two others, values and identity, both of which are also considered important in assessing personal-level civic engagement outcomes (Josef and Veldhuis 2006: 7–9). As Hoskins and Deakin Crick maintain, "civic competence is a complex mix of knowledge, skills, understanding, values and attitudes and dispositions and require a sense of identity and agency" (Hoskins and Deakin Crick 2010: 126).

Within the American sphere and just prior to the European Commission's 2003 assessment on civic competences, Mary Kirlin argued that "cognitive understanding of democracy is not sufficient" for engaging young adults in active citizenship. She, thus, provided both the basic civic skills and the underlying skills that must be mastered to ensure the former can be met (Kirlin 2002: 573–574).

Active civic engagement relies upon a process of skill development that is, itself, multilayered. In her subsequent CIRCLE working paper on civic engagement skills, Kirlin articulated four specific categories of civic skills: organization skills, communications skills, collective decision-making skills, and critical thinking skills (Kirlin 2003: 14). Organization skills include such activities as planning and running political meetings and organizing others to take political actions. Communication skills include "writing letters, being proficient in English vocabulary, and making oral presentations and speeches" so that one can contact public officials, make public presentations, and persuade others to do the same. Collective decision-making includes "expressing your own opinion [in a group], hearing other's opinions, and working towards consensus (usually involving some type of individual compromise) for the common good." Critical thinking skills typically include "identifying and describing, analyzing and explaining, synthesizing, thinking critically and constructively and formulating positions on public issues" (ibidem: 20–22). Clearly, a range of college-level active and experiential learning activities would help to refine and enhance this multilayered skill set, thus preparing students for potential civic engagement beyond the classroom door.

Interestingly, scholars assessing the impact of civic skill development, in either the American or European context, reached similar conclusions as well. J. Cherie Strachan argues that American political science faculty should "formally [teach] deliberative communication and collective action skills" to help "address self-described shortcomings of current young people's political socialization," which seemingly leads them to "a lack of internal efficacy." Deliberative civic education, Strachan maintains, may help younger citizens move from an academic interest in and understanding of politics to "an attractive model for wielding political influence" (Strachan 2006: 912). In reflecting on the EU Commission's civic

competences and capacities for lifelong learning, Hoskins and Deakin Crick maintain that "civic competence and learning to learn enable or facilitate citizens into action." Moreover, "once these competences are learned, individuals have the tools to create positive change" for themselves and their communities (Hoskins and Deakin Crick 2010: 134–135). Although the circumstances leading to the discussions about civic engagement, civic education, and active citizenship were unique, the concerns about statistical trends and the potentially negative effect of disengagement for the health of democracy, either in the American or European realm, were comparable. So, too, has been the clarion call to educators at various levels, and especially those in such disciplines as Political Science and European Studies, to structure classroom learning to support the goal of active citizenship and lifelong civic engagement.

4.4 A Case for Active and Experiential Learning

As Michael Fowler implies, the classic college classroom typically finds the professor standing behind a lectern "imposing knowledge …via a lecture format" to students assembled quietly in the classroom (Fowler 2005: 156). In contrast, "active learning…shifts pedagogy from 'instructor-focused' teaching to a student-focused 'learning paradigm' by abandoning traditional and more passive modes of information delivery in favor of active and experiential approaches centered on the learning needs of students" (Krain and Shadle 2006: 51). In this latter context, the traditional classroom "explodes," as the professor "literally step[s] out from behind the lectern to 'open a space' in which students can speak and learn from one another" (Fowler 2005: 156). Support for active and experiential learning pedagogies is rooted in the Kolb's Experiential Learning Model (1984), which presents the four consecutive modes of student learning: concrete experience, which leads to reflective observation, then to abstract conceptualization, and finally to active experimentation. Scholarly literature, specifically that which has examined pedagogy in Political Science, discusses the applicability of the Kolb model in multiple classroom settings (see, e.g., Fox and Ronkowski 1997; Rosenthal 1999; Brock and Cameron 1999). As Fox and Ronkowski suggested, a range of active and experiential learning techniques help advance Kolb's concrete experience and active experimentation stages, including (but not limited to) fieldwork, trigger films, case studies, laboratory projects, problems sets, and simulations (Fox and Ronkowski 1997: 736). Are some of these same techniques valuable instructional tools for engaging students in the question of citizenship and civic engagement, both in theory and in practice, whether at the state level, at the European level, or at the global level? The literature on active and experiential learning, particularly scholarship that examines the value of simulations, provides an affirmative answer to that question.

In fact, the academic literature is rich in its discussion of specific simulations being used across the field of Political Science, as well as those utilized as part of

International Studies programs and in other interdisciplinary curriculum examining specific regions of the world, such as European Studies (see, e.g., Josefson and Casey 2000; Lantis 2004; Shaw 2004; Galatas 2006; Krain and Lantis 2006; Omelicheva 2006). Simulations can be small, classroom-based exercises, or large, multi-institutional enterprises, such as countless Model United Nations programs worldwide or the Model European Union programs that have grown in popularity particularly at the university level in the United States. In their pathbreaking article, Smith and Boyer stressed the positive learning outcome that well-conceived simulations can produce: that students gain "a deeper level of insight into the political process"; that students' attentiveness and activity in learning tends to increase; that students' retention of information improves over the long term; that students' critical thinking and analytical capacities are improved through collaborative work; and that students' speaking and presentations skills are improved, "simultaneously building their confidence" (Smith and Boyer 1996: 690–691). Professors who utilize simulations argue persuasively that the world of politics comes alive for their students, as the simulation exposes the students to the realities of politics, especially the "countervailing interests, pressures, and constraints" of real-world politics that actors across the political spectrum face daily (Dougherty 2003: 240). Fowler notes that an analytical discussion that should necessarily follow a simulation "encourages students to become engaged in international issues by interacting with one another and grappling with problems as a practitioner might" (Fowler 2005: 156). Such discussions would be considered part of the "reflective observation" stage of Kolb's model and would likely be enhanced further by "abstract conceptualization" performed by students in formal written work or by the professor in a more traditional summary lecture (Fox and Ronkowski 1997: 736).

European Studies faculty may find Model EU simulations of particular interest, especially when considering how innovative, active learning techniques may help develop the knowledge and skills called for in the discussions about civic engagement and civic education.[1] Formed in 1993 and held in Washington, D.C., each fall, the Mid-Atlantic European Union Simulation Consortium (MEUSC) experiential learning program is one of several intercollegiate Model EU programs developed by American faculty who teach various elements of today's European Union (EU) as part of Political Science and related academic disciplines. This particular program comprises a 3-day simulation of the EU policy-making organs and decision-making processes, including the European Commission, European Parliament, Council of Ministers, and the European Council. The Transatlantic Consortium for European Union Studies and Simulations (TACEUSS, also known as "EuroSim") brings together various New York State and European institutions in a similar program, rotating its location between an American host and European host in alternating

[1] In "Assessing EU Simulations: Evidence from the Transatlantic EuroSim", which is found in this volume (Chap. 10), Rebecca Jones and Peter Bursens utilize empirical data to evaluate the value of simulations as part of European Studies curriculum.

years. A somewhat less comprehensive EU simulation occurs each spring at Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, allowing students to explore EU decision-making through a simulated European Commission, European Council, and various formulations of the Council of Ministers. Several EU Centers of Excellence at American universities, as well as a group of State University of New York (SUNY) schools, offer annual European Council simulations. Some American professors also have employed small-scale, in-class simulations to underscore particular aspects of EU governance and decision-making (Van Dyke 2010: 5184–5189). MEUSC and other American-based EU simulation programs consistently endeavor to connect American university students to EU policy makers and policy making in a unique way, utilizing the simulation experience to help bridge the gap between the academic study of the EU and the actual political practices of the European Union. A continual goal of the many faculty who incorporate EU simulations into their curriculum has been to engage students in discussions and debates about the EU that are both current and topical in EU decision-making circles (see Van Dyke et al. 2000: 146, 149; Van Dyke 2010: 5187–5189).

In that light, MEUSC faculty advisors in particular have, in the past several years, chosen such specific topics as Economic Monetary Union, terrorism, food safety and genetically modified organisms, the proposed EU Constitutional Treaty, the protection of minorities and asylum seekers, the trafficking of women and children, climate change, the impact of agriculture on the environment, and EU-Russian relations to illuminate and underscore broader EU debates about European Monetary Policy; Common Foreign and Security Policy; EU-US bilateral trade relations; EU immigration and human rights policy; EU Agricultural, Environmental, and Climate Change policies; the EU Neighborhood Policy; and the deepening of the EU integration movement. In framing its experiential learning exercise, MEUSC remains committed to teaching students about the realities of EU decision-making.[2] As Van Dyke et al. suggest in their discussion of the MEUSC program, these EU simulations (like experiential learning pedagogies in general) also encourage the development of important "life skill": leadership, analytical and critical thinking, public speaking and oral debate, small group cooperation, and consensus building (Van Dyke et al. 2000: 146). Further, students who engage in an EU simulation may also garner greater cultural sensitivity, global awareness, and a broader understanding of global interdependence as result of their participation in this Model EU program (ibidem: 155; Van Dyke 2010: 5190–5191) . This pedagogical approach clearly lends itself to the kind of cognitive development that the political scientists and other have deemed essential to civic engagement. Moreover, it places equal emphasis on the development of the civic skills and competences that Kirlin, the EU Commission, CRELL, Strachan, Hoskins, and Deakin Crick—and many others—have argued for in high-quality civic education and engagement programming.

[2]This author has been a MEUSC faculty advisor since 1996 and has been active in choosing these topics as part of the planning process for the MEUSC simulation program each year.

4.5 Should Active Learning Be Utilized in European Studies Curriculum?

If one observes the American-based EU simulation programs carefully, one will see evidence to support the European argument regarding competences for active, lifelong EU citizenship. The civic skills and several key competences, which the European Commission and others have argued for as part of academic curriculum, permeate these pedagogical innovations, in the drafting of proposed directives, in student preparations, and in the simulations themselves. Students monitored EU public events and issues, deliberated about EU public policy issues, interacted with other "citizens" (their fellow Commissioners, Members of the European Parliament and party group members, Ministers, Heads of Government/State) to promote common interests, and influenced final (simulated!) policy decisions. Students inevitably hone their organizational, communication, collective decision-making and critical thinking skills. They improve their communication skills in their first language (in American simulations, English is the primary language), their digital competences, their capacity in learning to learn, interpersonal and civic competences, and their entrepreneurial ability. Fulfilling their specific alter egos causes students to confront the problems, pressures, concerns, and questions that EU policy makers routinely tackle as part of their respective institutional duties. In the MEUSC program in particular, when students visit their EU member state embassy as part of their final preparations for the simulation, students meet and converse with individuals actively involved in important issue areas and current policy dilemmas. They inevitably receive advice on how various representatives from that country would respond to issues being debated at the EU level.

Advocates of such innovated pedagogical techniques have begun serious assessment programs to support their positive anecdotal evidence with empirical data (see, e.g., Jones 2008). Educators, too, are trying to address the call from governmental elites for learning opportunities that enhance civic education and engagement, so as to produce lifelong, active citizens. Again, anecdotal evidence supports the argument coming from multiple sources (educators, scholars, and government elites alike) for such tools: that active and experiential learning nurtures cognitive and skill development necessary for an active and engaged citizenship. Students involved in the educational experiences offered by the MEUSC, TACEUSS/EuroSim, and other American EU simulation programs seemingly move beyond their parochial understanding of citizenship; they begin to appreciate a European and perhaps global perspective, in contrast to the usual American one.

As Van Dyke et al. noted, the MEUSC program has typically attracted multiple student participants who themselves are studying abroad at MEUSC institutions, exposing American MEUSC participants to a global perspective by way of the students with whom they are sharing the simulation preparations (Van Dyke et al. 2000: 148). As mentioned, TACEUSS/EuroSim includes students from European schools, and European schools host the program in alternating years. Again, American students gain a unique perspective on what it means to think globally and to be European by sharing an educational experience with European students and traveling to various European

locations as participants in this particular simulation program. Thus, their understanding of Europe and the world is broadened as they connect their academic knowledge to global realities through practical experience. One would anticipate that their capacities as global citizens would be enhanced and advanced in the process. Measuring the impact of simulations and other active learning techniques on citizenship development is, of course, a complicated process and likely demands following participants for multiple years—a difficult task to be sure. Yet the lack of such studies should not deter educators in Europe and around the world from incorporating such active learning techniques into their classrooms and into European Studies curriculum.

Active learning does not have to be as elaborate as the American intercollegiate EU simulation programs, which typically comprises 150–200 students from multiple American colleges and universities. Instead, European educators who are engaged in European Studies curriculum may be able to awaken a European Identity in their students by utilizing less complex active learning techniques, starting with something as simple as in-class discussions and debates that focus specifically on EU news and current questions at the EU policy level. Students' understanding of EU policy makers and policy making, of EU governing institutions, and of current policy debates can be improved by incorporating small-scale, classroom-based simulation, which could focus specifically on the European Council, for example. Community-based learning projects may help students connect local concerns with EU-level issues. Faculty can encourage the use of *Europa*, which, as the EU's website, provides a wealth of material (background information, official documents, reports and studies, publications, video links, etc.) to support various aspects of EU Studies curriculum. Further, EU officials, lobbyists, activists, and EU academic experts make excellent guest speakers, either for a particular class or campus-wide discussion. Traveling to EU institutions may also help students connect academic knowledge to practical reality, at a level that typical classroom experiences often fall to meet. Certainly EU Studies faculty can continue to look for European Commission grant opportunities to support civic engagement, civic education, and EU citizenship projects in their classrooms, on their campuses, and in their communities. Clearly no single active learning technique would be considered the "magic pill" for fostering a greater sense of European citizenship among European students. Yet, a willingness on the part of faculty to embrace active learning as a valuable part of European Studies curriculum may be the key for unlocking a European consciousness and developing civic skills among European students, both of which seem necessary for becoming an engaged, lifelong European citizen.

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Chapter 5
Multilingual Universities: Policies and Practices

Rita Franceschini and Daniela Veronesi

5.1 Language Policies in the European Framework

The general theme of the book *Teaching European Studies* gives the opportunity to take a look at the linguistic behaviour in contexts where students of different countries study together. We can ask ourselves what conversations and didactic discourse are about in European classes of higher education, how students with a European orientation act in their everyday life and talk together, how teachers interact with their students etc. European Studies can be tackled from a content point of view – what to teach – and from a point of view of the linguistic forms chosen to be taught.

Our aim is anchored in the last point. We would like to give an insight in the forms of talk in a university, where several languages are used. In European Studies this is often the case. Students are asked to follow lessons in more than one language as to become competent in several languages of the European Union.

In this chapter we are concerned with multilingual practices teachers and students find together to fulfil the task to communicate in a multilingual environment. These practices in classrooms not only are monolingual in the sense of the formula 'OLAT' (One Language at a Time) but are often characterised by a practice which involves more than one language, following the formula 'ALAT' (All Languages at a Time).

We are convinced that European Studies should be 'European' also in their forms, which signifies that the diversity, which characterises the European space, has its counterpart in the awareness of the multilingual backgrounds of the students. Students should not only have the opportunity to understand Europe through different

The chapter, in its final form, is the result of a collaboration between the two authors. Daniela Veronesi is directly responsible for Sects. 5.2 and 5.2.1.

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_5,

scientific disciplines, they should also be able to recognise the richness of languages. Students of European Studies should have the opportunity to acquire abilities in communicating in these complex cultural situations.

In order to understand Europe, the rich new communication practices taking place today and in the past can be taken as a starting point. A long history, back to the Middle Ages and beyond (Adams 2003), depicts multilingualism as one of the major cultural characteristics of Europe. Europe appears as a communicative space based on diversity, and like biodiversity, multilingualism makes a contribution to guaranteeing a richness in encoding knowledge in (linguistically) different ways. Therefore, taking into account the diversity of languages with their cultural conceptual heritage prevents the formation of a uniform – and thus homogenised – cultural space. Multilingualism is a fact of life in Europe today, and EU policies are taking this fact seriously.

5.1.1 The EU and Multilingualism: Historical Background and Today's Challenges

Today, we can rethink this historical long-term heritage and take advantage of a particular capacity to deal with different languages, together with the new languages brought to Europe through different types of mobility in the last decades.

For the individual who lives actively within a space where several languages are used, the capacity to understand others is fostered, but conceptual thinking is enriched too (Genesee and Nicoladis 2006). These are points where institutions of (higher) education should be attentive: to educate people who have enriched thinking and are aware of subtle differences in how people express concepts in many possible ways constitutes a major achievement in education. To enhance these capacities through active participation in different communication cultures in different languages should be at the core of each European-based study.

Current language policies at a European level take into account these advantages and are explicit in their willingness not to adopt a practice of using only one language – as a *lingua franca* – between Europeans. The actions undertaken by the European Union and the Council of the Europe highlight multilingualism as an intrinsic characteristic of Europe in terms of cultural heritage, personal enrichment and as an economic opportunity. Although a series of initiatives are being undertaken today, the well-known – cognitive and communicative – advantages of multilingualism (first findings reported in Lambert 1977) have found a place in European policy-making processes since the Treaty of Rome in the 1950s, and definitively in the Maastricht Treaty of 1992, where the promotion of language learning and of individual multilingualism was explicitly put forward.

An important step was taken in including the formula 'mother tongue + 2', in the so-called Barcelona Objectives of the EU in 2002, which means that each European citizen should, besides the language(s) he/she grows up with (commonly, but imprecisely, referred to as 'mother tongue'), master two other languages. Since then, the promotion of multilingualism – initially mainly under the heading of enhanced language

learning – became a fixed cornerstone of the EU's educational policy and was considerably enlarged in the following years.

From the first decade of the new century, we can see that an *inclusive language education policy* is on the way, seeking to promote the learning of all languages, including regional or minority, migrant and major world languages. Being then further included in the Lisbon Agenda (2000–2010), multilingualism received a supplementary importance: language competencies were associated with economic growth and social cohesion. Finally, from 2006 on, the European Parliament decided to pursue a comprehensive 'Framework Strategy for Multilingualism'[1] and appointed a Group of Experts to make suggestions and concretise this framework; the conclusive report was delivered in 2007 (HLGM – High Level Group on Multilingualism 2007). This document sets out initial steps to depict the conditions under which a comprehensive view on multilingualism, and related activities, should be foreseen:

> As a result of enlargement, the Single Market and increased mobility within the EU, the revival of the regions, the advent of the knowledge society, migration into the EU, and globalisation, this multilingual challenge has reached a completely new dimension – in terms of size, complexity, and policy relevance. (HLGM 2007, p. 6)

More precisely, today several developments on the societal level increase language contact and thus multilingual phenomena. The importance of knowing more languages is enhanced mainly through the following developments (see HLGM 2007, p. 7):

- The enlargements of the EU in 2004 and 2007 (from 15 to 27 member states)
- The increasing recognition and seizure of opportunities provided by transnational and trans-European markets, alongside increased mobility of workers
- The globalisation processes which affect many fields of human activity
- The revitalisation of regions within member states of the EU and of cross-border regions
- Migration into the Union (practically all the member states are now migration countries)
- The rampant developments in ICT (facilitating instant and long-reaching communication)
- The establishment of a European higher education and research area, including student mobility
- The changes in job profiles, followed by an increasing mobility between jobs
- The advent of global tourism

As a result of some of these developments, the linguistic landscape of the Union and of Europe as a whole is changing dramatically. But with respect to other parts of the world, where multilingualism is seen and practised as a more natural phenomenon than in Europe and language diversity is high (see, e.g. Papua New Guinea, Indonesia, Nigeria, the Indian Subcontinent, Cameroon, Mexico), Europe still has to overcome the mental and factual barriers inherited from the nation-state building process of the

[1] See http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/archive/languages_en.html

last centuries: 'one nation-one language' ideologies are still driving and dividing forces and are alive against the evidence of a more pluralistic and mobile society. With respect to the fact that more than 50 % of the world's population uses more than one language daily in everyday life (Grosjean 1982), Europe does not figure among the most multilingual regions of the world at all: from the last comprehensive survey of the Eurobarometer in 2006 (EB 64.3), apparently 44 % of the interviewees in the EU member states say they speak one language other than their 'mother tongue'. As we can see, more needs to be done.

5.1.2 A Realistic and Functional Definition of Multilingualism

This above analysis should suffice to see the consequences for a scientific conceptualization of the term multilingualism itself: what should the term comprise today? How can the term best fit the ongoing picture of a fluid society, where mobility, migration and minorities – the 'three Ms' – are challenging our societies? What kind of language practices and resulting competences should be expected? As we know that (foreign) languages are not only learnt at school, how can we take into account other learning spaces such as playgrounds, workplaces and friendship networks?

As linguists we abandoned long ago – because of its unrealistic status – the notion of the 'perfectly balanced bilingual speaker' who perfectly masters two languages and speaks them indistinguishably from a native speaker. The crude and realistic truth is that bilingual speakers like that exist, but they are very rare. The normal case of a bi- or multilingual speaker is a person mastering a second, third or fourth language with selective competencies, often depending on the circumstances in which these languages are used: e.g. one language is used only for professional purposes, another for formal writing or only for speaking in particular encounters, etc. The normal case is thus a *functional mastering* of several languages. And a theoretical concept, if it helps to explain anything, should capture first of all the normal cases in the field of investigation. Exceptions can be kept as particular cases, although the reference to the 'perfect bilingual' is in most ordinary discourses an ideologically based assumption. Think of the fact that even if not all the students in a violin class reach the level of mastery of Anne-Sophie Mutter, they are all called violin players nevertheless. In analogy, you can be bilingual without being perfect in both your languages. Even if we adopt a functional and not a perfectionist approach to bi- or multilingualism, it is not forbidden to make all efforts to bring students to perfection; we only have to keep in mind that this objective gives a direction, not an end result. To be bilingual signifies mastering the languages of one's repertoire to different degrees and to be able to act with them successfully.

This was about multilingualism in the individual. In fact, we distinguish multilingualism as a social phenomenon too, a phenomenon (or characteristic) of institutions and groups. We can then have multilingual societies in two extreme forms: in a society several languages are spoken, but each language is spoken by a group of

monolingual speakers. Speakers of the same language then would live side by side, with little contact. (The question immediately arises as to whether this would be called one society or two because of the difficulties based on a shared common ground of beliefs and exchanges.) The other extreme case could be a society which is multilingual, because all speakers master all languages (and share them to an equal extent). Both extreme cases cannot be found, the first because contact to a certain extent happens and is socially normal, and the second because competencies are habitually not fully balanced in all members of a society.

On these lines a renewed definition of what is meant today by the term multilingualism was formulated in the HLGM and further adapted (for more details of the definition, see Franceschini 2009, pp. 33–34):

> Multilingualism is understood as the ability of societies, institutions, groups and individuals to engage, on a regular basis, with more than one language in their day-to-day lives. In this context, a language is defined neutrally as a variant which a group ascribes to itself for use as its habitual code of communication. This includes regional languages, dialects, and sign languages. In addition, the term multilingualism is used for referring to the co-existence of different language communities in one geographical or geo-political area or political entity. (HLGM 2007, p. 6)

As regards individual multilingualism, competence in a given other language can range from partial skills competence to full literacy. This needs to be borne in mind in view of the above-mentioned Commission's long-term objective 'to increase individual multilingualism until every citizen has practical skills in at least two languages in addition to his or her mother tongue' (Commission of the European Communities 2005, p. 4). The Council and Parliament were, therefore, right in stating that 'an individual's level of proficiency will vary […] according to that individual's social and cultural background, environment, needs and/or interests' (European Parliament and Council of the European Union 2006, p. 14) (HLGM 2007, p. 6).

5.1.3 The Latest Developments in Language Policy Matters

On the 18th of September 2008, the Communication 'Multilingualism: an asset for Europe and a shared commitment' was adopted by the European Commission. This contains the major points put forward by the High Level Group on Multilingualism and the Group of Intellectuals (headed by the writer Amin Maalouf), taking, as a starting point, the fact that a series of enlargements, globalisation and diffused mobility have made the language issue increasingly important. The EU today counts 23 official languages, some 60 minority and regional languages and about 200 other languages brought to Europe through new migrants. The objective remains that every citizen should have an opportunity to learn the languages he/she needs to participate fully in society.

This important communication went beyond education. Explicitly, the intention was addressed to enhance awareness of linguistic diversity as a precious asset that

removes barriers to intercultural dialogue and thus promotes mutual understanding. The idea was to 'mainstream' multilingualism across EU policies: in lifelong learning, employment, social inclusion, competitiveness, culture, research and media. The document states clearly that the above-mentioned Barcelona objective – to learn two other languages – should be maintained. This seems to remain a clear cornerstone for the strategy of multilingualism.

But the document addresses new fields too:

- The necessity to address this issue is clearly spelt out for people outside the school system too, people in vocational training and adult learners.
- The document speaks about the integration of immigrants. Migrants should be given the opportunity to learn the language of the host country.
- The economic factor is also addressed: knowing more languages enables people to be more mobile for study and career opportunities. Thus, multilingualism is not only an advantage for individuals: 'It can boost the competitiveness of companies, giving them the edge in securing contracts abroad and keeping their ear to the ground in foreign markets'.

As one can see, this strategy perfectly fits the Lisbon Strategy for Growth and Employment (2000) and the Social Agenda's (2005) three key principles of opportunity, access and solidarity:

1. Everybody should have the opportunity to communicate appropriately in order to realise his or her potential and make the most of the opportunities offered by the modern and innovative EU.
2. Everybody should have access to appropriate language training or to other means of facilitating communication so that there is no undue linguistic obstacle to living, working or communicating in the EU.
3. In the spirit of solidarity, even those who may not be able to learn other languages should be provided with appropriate means of communication, allowing them access to the multilingual environment.

In 2006, two EU Research initiatives in the 6th Framework programme was founded: the Network of Excellence LINEE ('Languages in a Network of European Excellence') and the "Project"; "Integrated" DYLAN ('Dynamics and the Management of Diversity').[2] The aim of these was to explore the new conditions of managing diversity in a multilingual and knowledge-based society. Also devoted to multilingualism, and more precisely to the preservation of minority languages of the Finno-Ugrian linguistic minorities, is the ELDIA project ('European Linguistic Diversity for All'), in the 7th Framework programme.

The above-mentioned DYLAN project (2006–2011) had the explicit objective to analyse the conditions under which multilingualism is a challenge or even a trump card in contemporary Europe. The aim was to describe how different ways of

[2] See the homepages LINEE: Languages in a Network of European Excellence: http://www.linee.info (Network of Excellence) and DYLAN: Dynamik und Handhabung der Sprachenvielfalt: http://www.dylan-project.org/Dylan_en/ (Integrated Project).

thinking, arguing and acting contribute to the construction and transfer of knowledge, by examining in detail companies, EU institutions and educational systems. Within this latter subtopic, multilingual practices in institutions of higher education have been examined, as will be discussed in the following section.

5.2 Multilingual Practices in Higher Education

As outlined above, a specific emphasis on multilingualism as a goal to be reached by all European citizens has informed language policies of the European Union since its very institution more than 60 years ago. Although much still needs to be done in this respect, latest developments in language policy matters show how the European Union is clearly oriented towards enhancing multilingualism as a key element in sustaining its rich and diverse cultural heritage, fostering communication well beyond the adoption of one single language as lingua franca as well as in terms of career opportunities and economic success.

Against this background, a first question related to higher education arises: how do universities orient themselves to such policies and how do they contribute to the development of multilingual skills?

If we take a look at the higher educational panorama in Europe, a clear reconfiguration towards multilingualism indeed emerges: the use of more than one language for subject-matter instruction, rather than being an exception, represents more and more the rule (see, for instance, Veronesi and Nickenig 2009). As a response to internationalisation trends as well as to the establishment of a European higher education and research area, universities are increasingly offering PhD and master's but also bachelor courses in English, which thus integrate teaching activities in a national language; what is more, a number of well-established and more recently founded universities provide study programmes in three languages (national, regional or minority languages *and* English) and, as officially bi- or trilingual institutions, make use of such languages in their daily educational, organisational and administrative activities.

In order to consider such a reconfiguration in detail, a number of universities within the EU have been the object of examination within the above-mentioned DYLAN project.

In particular, by looking at the interplay between institutional policies (e.g. universities' profiles and regulations concerning language matters), actual communicative practices (language use) within and outside the classroom and social actors' conceptions of multilingualism and multilingual communication, the aim was to describe how linguistic and cultural diversity characterising European tertiary education is managed in such contexts and what conditions can make such diversity an advantage rather than an obstacle. Specific attention was thereby devoted to the ways in which multilingual communication can enhance learning processes, participation and knowledge construction in the classroom.

With the aim of providing insights into how EU language policies, as illustrated in the first part of the chapter, are 'translated' into actual communicative practices

in higher education, the following section draws upon results from the DYLAN project and illustrates some examples of language use in such bi- and multilingual institutions of higher education, focusing in particular on the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano (FUB).

5.2.1 From Monolingual to Multilingual Communication

As observed by several teams within the DYLAN project,[3] multilingualism in higher education can take place at various levels: first of all, at a 'macro', institutional level, different subject matters are taught in different languages. Examples are thereby provided by the educational programmes of universities like, to mention a few, the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona and the University of the Basque Country in Spain, the University of Helsinki and Vaasa University in Finland, Babeş-Bolyai University and Sapientia University in Romania, the University of Fribourg/Freiburg and the Università della Svizzera Italiana in Switzerland, the University of Luxembourg, the European University Viadrina in Germany and Narva College in Estonia.[4] This is also the case of the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano (FUB), which offers trilingual courses (German, Italian and English) across its five faculties.[5]

[3] See the working papers delivered within WP3 ('Educational Systems'), provided under http://www.dylan-project.org/Dylan_en/dissemination/page102/page102.php; see also Berthoud et al. (2013).

[4] For a detailed picture on existing bi- and multilingual universities, see Wilkinson (2004) and Veronesi and Nickenig (2009). Further information on CLIL experiences can be found in Breidbach et al. (2002), Eurydice (2006), Marsh and Wolff (2007), Dalton-Puffer et al. (2010), and Maljers et al. (2011); for the use of English in European higher education, see also Maiworm and Wächter (2002). Details on CLIL in primary, secondary and tertiary education across Europe are also provided in Maggipinto et al. (2003).

[5] Trilingualism strongly characterises the School of Economics and Management, the Faculty of Design and Art and the Faculty of Science and Technology. While training school teachers in Italian or German, the Faculty of Education also offers trilingual (Italian, German, English; Italian, German, Ladin) and bilingual (Italian, German) bachelor and degree courses, while the Faculty of Computer Science is oriented more towards English as the main language of instruction. For details on the distribution of languages across faculties, see Veronesi (2009, p. 208). It shall be mentioned here that subject-matter classes are held in one language only, as are exams, while instructors are granted the right to use further languages in their teaching activity when deemed useful.

As for student language proficiency, until academic year 2010–2011 bachelor students were required to certify the knowledge of one/two (depending on the study programme) FUB official languages in order to enrol and needed to prove knowledge of all the three languages by the end of the first study year, with the exception of the Faculty of Computer Science. Language proficiency could be documented through internationally recognised language certificates or by passing a language exam administered by the Language Centre (B1–B2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, see Council of Europe 2001). In the first year of study, students who needed to certify language knowledge for one or two languages attended compulsory language classes. See the study manifestos available under http://www.unibz.it/en/prospective/apply/application/manifestos.html

Attending subject-matter classes in different languages, though, is not the only way in which students in bi- and multilingual universities are confronted with multilingualism in the context of pedagogical activities: at a 'meso' level, which regards language management within the same communicative event, that is, the same lecture or seminar session, a 'bilingual' mode can be established, for instance, in that lecturers provide oral explanations in one language while resorting to multimedia presentations in another. This way, key concepts and the thematic progression of the lecture are visually highlighted, possibly enhancing students' comprehension in the context of instruction in a second language (L2), as can be the case in linguistically heterogeneous classes in universities across Europe.

This practice was observed at the FUB in a law class for economics master's students (from German-speaking countries, Italy and Russia) at the School of Economics and Management: the lecture, focusing on legal regulations for financial markets, was in Italian (the official language of the class) but was complemented, in its final part devoted to the illustration of a case study, by a PowerPoint presentation in English, which provided students with a written tool of orientation to follow the lecturer's extended storytelling in Italian.

The use of more than one language within the same event can also be connected to the type of activity carried out at a particular stage of the event itself as well as to individual speakers' language preferences and to participants' orientation to such preferences. In the above-mentioned class, for instance, the lecturer clearly orients towards Italian as the official language of the class; nevertheless, he repeatedly uses English terminology (20 terms, for a total of 70 occurrences), thereby displaying his conceptualization of English as 'the' language of economics and financial markets. In this context it is interesting to note that he introduces new terms in a bilingual way, as shown in the following example[6]:

New regulations in effect from 2011 to 2012 establish higher levels of proficiency for enrolment (B2 knowledge of two languages of instruction for Bachelor studies and C1 level in the first language and B2 level in the second for master's studies). Furthermore, students are now required to certify language proficiency in Italian, German and English also before the end of their studies (exit levels are C1 proficiency for the L1, B2+ for the L2 and B2 for the L3 for Bachelor studies; C1 in the L1 and L2 and B2 in the L3 for master's studies).

[6] Transcription conventions are adapted from Jefferson (2004). Intonation is signalled as follows: comma (,) for slightly rising intonation, question mark (?) for rising intonation as in questions and full stop (.) for falling, conclusive intonation. Semicolon (:) indicates sound prolongation; underlined segments (as in 'text') are uttered with emphasis; especially soft sound is transcribed within degree signs (°text°); '.h' indicates inbreath, 'h' outbreath. Faster speech is signalled as in '>text <' and slower speech as in '<text>'. The equals sign (=) indicates continuity of sound production or latching between two speakers. Square brackets ([…]) show overlapping between two speakers; 'x' within single brackets signals incomprehensible sound (each x represents a syllable); double brackets delimit transcription comments or omitted speech. Very short pauses are indicated with a full stop within brackets, as in (.); for longer pauses, duration in tenth of seconds and in seconds is given in brackets, as in (0.2) and (32). The use of English is signalled through **bold**, the use of German through *italics*. 'LEC' stands for 'lecturer', 'TUT' for tutor and 'ST' for 'student'. In examples, each line is numbered. An English approximate translation is provided following every example.

(1) (School of Economics, lecture, "noisy litigation")

```
1  LEC    se il con- i: soldi li pagasse comunque la società,
2         a quel punto gli azionisti potrebbero avere un incentivo
3         a fare >quella che viene chiamata< .h noisy litigation,
4         cioè (0.25) a litigare su ogni cosa
```

(Translation)

```
1  LEC    if the bi- ((bill?)) the: money was paid by the company,
2         at this point shareholders could have an incentive
3         to pursue >what is called< .h noisy litigation,
4         that is (0.25) quarrelling on everything
```

As can be seen at line 3, the lecturer uses the English term 'noisy litigation' in the midst of an utterance in Italian and subsequently provides an explanation of its meaning ('litigare su ogni cosa', 'quarrelling on everything', line 4). Both the introduction of the term and the explanation are carefully designed by the lecturer for his student audience: he first announces metalinguistically the upcoming term by saying 'quella che viene chiamata' ('what is called', line 3); after mentioning the term, he introduces the gloss in Italian with the discourse marker 'cioè' ('that is', 'which means', line 4) and formulates such gloss using a nonspecialised lexicon, thus not only switching from English to Italian, but also from legal language to ordinary language.

A further illustration of this bilingual practice is shown in example (2), taken from the lecturer's introduction to the case study, supported, as mentioned above, by a PowerPoint presentation:

(2) (School of Economics, lecture, "dominating shareholder")

```
1   LEC   allora. che cosa vediamo in ((COMPANY NAME))? innanzitutto,
((8 lines omitted))
9         e soprattutto, >ecco la cosa che interessa di più
10        ai fini di questa lezione finale,<
11        è il dominating shareholder.
12        uno: un azionista che controllava la società.
```

(Translation)

```
1   LEC   so. what do we see in ((COMPANY NAME))? first of all,
((8 lines omitted))
9         and most of all >here is the thing that is mostly relevant
10        for the purposes of this final class,<
11        it is the dominating shareholder.
12        one: a shareholder who controlled the company.
```

The use of the English term 'dominating shareholder', which is listed on the first slide of the English PowerPoint presentation, is followed in the lecturer's talk by a definition of the term in Italian (line 12); this way the lecturer not only refers to the terminology shown as written item in the slide text, but also provides students with a brief explanation of the term, once again expressed in a colloquial style, thus facilitating understanding and possibly reinforcing the learning process itself.

Insertions of single words or phrases within an utterance, or turn-at-talk, by the same speaker, as those illustrated in examples (1) and (2), are a way in which multilingualism can take place at a 'microlinguistic' level and in which lecturers can

take advantage of the official languages of a university in order to deal with the specific task of introducing new terminology. How can the contextual availability of more languages in the classroom, though, turn into a resource to deal with a further issue that is central in education, namely, enhancing student participation?

An answer to this question is provided by the analysis of a series of seminars, carried out within the DYLAN project by the FUB research team, which shows how language alternation can be exploited not only by lecturers and tutors but also by students, in that seminar activities might be led by the tutor in the official language, while students' presentations – one of the typical activities performed in seminars – might be delivered in a different language. A first example thereof is provided by a seminar held in German at the Faculty of Education to a group of German speakers and an Italian-speaking student from South Tyrol, all of them skilled in both languages. In this context the Italian native speaker gives her presentation in her first language; such code-choice, which potentially allows her to manage the task better, is not rejected by the tutor, who thus orients himself to the student's preferred code. When the presentation is closed, nevertheless, the tutor as the chairperson of classroom interaction re-establishes German as means of communication to open the floor for discussion (see Veronesi and Spreafico 2009, pp. 214–217).

As a conspicuous body of research on bilingual communication has shown (see, for instance, Auer 1984, 1998; Heller 1988, 2007; Milroy and Muysken 1995; Mondada 2007; Gafaranga 2007), the alternation between languages within the same communicative event, far from being random, can fulfil specific functions related to discourse (such as signalling change of topic or activity, reported speech, asides) and to interlocutors (change of addressee). The tutor's behaviour in the above-mentioned episode, as well as the fact that he sometimes switches between German and Italian during explanatory contributions (Spreafico 2009, pp. 197–200), is thus in itself not surprising; given the existence of institutional language policies, though, in settings like universities, code-choices can lead to much more intricate and complex patterns of multilingual communication which are worthwhile examining in detail.

A case in point is the so-called interdisciplinary project works at the FUB Faculty of Design and Art, which consist of three modules (lectures and two workshops) held by a lecturer and two tutors possibly in a different language and meant to lead to the production of design artefacts. While attending lectures, students are asked to work on selected topics over a period of 1 or 2 weeks, with the help of the tutors; afterwards they present their projects and discuss them with the lecturer, the tutor(s) and fellow students. The objective of the faculty, as stated in the study manifesto (see footnote 5), to ensure that 'the three languages are used in as balanced a way as possible', is pursued, among other things, by integrating within the same 'umbrella' lectures and practical work in more languages, thus providing students with the possibility of tackling related issues in different linguistic, professional and cultural terms. This, together with the design of such pedagogical activities, which foresees presentations and discussions among all involved social actors, seems to create specific conditions leading to the emergence of multilingual communicative practices.

As a matter of fact, in the observed seminar sessions (three weekly meetings) German, Italian and English are used by the lecturer (LEC) when opening the floor and providing comments, while students (ST) present their project 'monolingually' in one or other language. Discussions, instead, take place with a constant alternation between codes. The following example (3), taken from the first observed seminar session – which shows a recurrent pattern found throughout the three events – might illustrate the 'logic' which is behind such an intricate picture:

(3) (Faculty of Design and Art, seminar 1, "Deutsch italiano English")

```
1   LEC   ((ST6 NAME)) sta a te per primo. (.) ah!
2         (32) ((student displays written materials on a desk))
3   ST6   so in English:?
4   LEC   c[ome vuoi.
5   ST6    [italiano?
6   LEC   Deutsch eh: italiano English. (xx) ((laughs))
7   ST6   italiano?
8   LEC   mh mh ((laughs)) °sì°
9   ST6   eh:m allora il compito (.) die Aufgabe (.) il compito era:
10        (1)
11  ST6   quello di analizare il sedersi nella comunicazione
((ST6 continues in Italian))
```

(Translation)

```
1   LEC   ((ST6 NAME)) it's you first (.) ah!
2         (32) ((student displays written materials on a desk))
3   ST6   so in English:?
4   LEC   a[s you like.
5   ST6    [Italian?
6   LEC   German uh: Italian English. (xx) ((laughs))
7   ST6   Italian?
8   LEC   mh mh ((laughs)) °yes°
9   ST6   uh:m  so the task (.) the task (.) the task was:
10        (1)
11  ST6   to analyse ways of sitting in communication
((ST6 continues in Italian))
```

As pointed out by Lorenzo Spreafico (Veronesi and Spreafico 2009, p. 219), the lecturer selects the first presenter of the session, a Spanish-speaking student, by calling him by name and soliciting his contribution in Italian (line 1). After the student has displayed his materials on a desk (line 2), a brief sequence of language negotiation takes place between the two interlocutors (lines 3–8), whereby the lecturer explicitly offers the option of choosing between German, Italian and English. The student eventually goes for Italian, a choice which he keeps constant for the whole presentation.

It shall be noted here that students attending the seminar sessions come from very different cultural backgrounds and do not share the same linguistic repertories[7]; in such an exolingual context, thus, the lecturer seems to orient himself both

[7] Students (14 in total) come from Germany, Austria, South Tyrol and other regions of Italy, Portugal, South America and the USA. Given FUB language policies (see footnote 5), some of the students in the group were attending compulsory language classes at the time of data collection.

to the faculty official trilingualism and to students' first language (L1) or (assumed) preferred language, possibly to enhance their participation. Similarly, he often translates his own contributions from one language to the other, so that comprehension by everybody is ensured (Veronesi and Spreafico 2009, p. 221). Furthermore, during discussion phases, he solicits students' contributions in more than one language, as can be seen in example (4), which illustrates part of a discussion following an English presentation by a bilingual English-German student from the USA:

(4) (Faculty of Design and Art, seminar 2, "what do you think?")[8]

```
1   LEC   *what do you think? cosa ne pensate, was denkt ihr?*
          *GAZES AT STUDENTS SITTING AROUND IN THE CLASSROOM*
2         (2)
3   LEC   fi- wie findet ihr das,
4         (2)
5   ST20  esteticamente è: (un po' xx).
6   ST6   (xx) non riesco a veder la scritta: vedi la bellezza.
7         (2)
8   ST6   (xx) cioè si confonde un po' con la s- con la (sua xx)
9         (13)
10  TUT   *is it a good poster?*
          *GAZES AT STUDENTS SITTING AROUND IN THE CLASSROOM*
11  ST20  *perché: hai usato il rosso?*
          *LOOKS AT ST34*
12  ST34  mh! .h perché no?
13  ST20  hh
14  ST34  non lo so. (0.8) primo era: giallo,
15  ST20  ah.
16  ST34  poi verde, adesso rosso,
17  ST20  mh.
18  LEC   tomorrow black and whi[te=
19  ST20                       [è solo:
20  ST34                       [(xx)
21  TUT   = (x) magenta=
22  ST20  =è solo una cosa [di gusto,
23  ST34                   [uhm,
24  ST20  non: non ha significato per,
25        cioè. è una cosa di: che hai messo tu perché
26        ti piace, perché è il tuo gusto o: [(xxx)]
27  ST34                                     [non lo so]
28  ST34  è veramente, attenzione.
29  ST20  ah.
30  ST34  vedi la bellezza.
31  ST33  why did you: used typography to: to make, (xx)?
32  ST34  I like the idea!
((10 lines omitted))
43        (5.7)
```

[8] When useful, speakers' visual orientation is described (in small caps) below numbered lines. Overlapping between speech and gaze is indicated by a star (*). An arrow (→) indicates continuation of the described visual orientation in the following line.

```
44  ST34  *aber was denkt ihr, sollte ich eine: Serie daraus machen
          *GAZES AT LEC AND TUT ->
45        oder einfach lassen?
```

(Translation)

```
1   LEC   *what do you think? what do you think, what do you think?*
          *GAZES AT STUDENTS SITTING AROUND IN THE CLASSROOM*
2         (2)
3   LEC   fi- how do you find it,
4         (2)
5   ST20  esthetically it's: (a little xx).
6   ST6   (xx) I can't see the line: see the beauty
7         (2)
8   ST6   (xx) I mean it gets a little blurred with the- with (xx)
9         (13)
10  TUT   *is it a good poster?*
          *LOOKS AT STUDENTS SITTING AROUND IN THE CLASSROOM*
11  ST20  *why: did you use red?*
          *GAZES AT ST34*
12  ST34  mh!  .h why not?
13  ST20  hh
14  ST34  I don't know. (0.8) earlier it was: yellow,
15  ST20  ah.
16  ST34  then green, now red,
17  ST20  mh.
18  LEC   tomorrow black and whi[te
19  ST20                       [is it only:
20  ST34                       [(xx)
21  TUT   (x) magenta=
22  ST20  =is it only something [you like,
23  ST34                       [uhm,
24  ST20  it doesn't: it doesn't have a meaning for
25        I mean. it's something of: that you put 'cause
26        you like it, 'cause it's your taste or: [(xxx)]
27  ST34                                          [I don't know]
28  ST34  it's really, pay attention.
29  ST20  ah.
30  ST34  see the beauty
31  ST33  why did you: used typography to: to make, (xx)?
32  ST34  I like the idea!
((10 lines omitted))
43        (5.7)
44  ST34  *but what do you think, should I make a series out of it
          *GAZES AT LEC AND TUT ->
45        or just leave it like that?
```

In opening the floor for students' comments (line 1), "the" lecturer makes the three official languages of the workshop explicitly available: this way, in spite of participants' asymmetric linguistic competences, all students are given the opportunity to participate in the discussion. The availability of English, which could assume the role of a lingua franca within the seminar sessions, does not lead to the exclusion of German or Italian: the first student to take the floor after LEC's invitation, ST20, provides a comment in Italian, her L1 (line 5), and her remark is followed by a contribution in Italian by a Spanish-speaking fellow student (ST6, lines 6–8). After quite a long silence (13 s, line 9), the tutor (TUT), who has a good command of English and German but does not display an active competence in Italian, reformulates the

initial lecturer's question in English ('is it a good poster?', line 10), thus opening the floor again for evaluations. At this point ST20 addresses ST34, the poster presenter, in Italian: her question is answered by her interlocutor in the same language, and a brief exchange in Italian between ST20 and ST34, in which LEC and TUT also ironically participate with side comments in English, takes place (lines 11–30). Italian is then abandoned in student-student interaction when a Portuguese-speaking student (ST33) asks the presenter a question in English (line 31), giving rise to a question-answer series between the two. A long silence (5.7 s, line 43) marks the end of this sequence, and a new code alternation takes place when ST34 takes the floor again and addresses the lecturer and the tutor in German, asking for suggestions on how to move on (lines 44–45). A new conversational phase in German thus unfolds, to which further fellow students contribute, converging on German.

Against the background of a general preference for convergence on the same language which is also typical in bilingual interaction (see Auer 1984), the constant alternation between codes which characterises the examined seminar sessions seems to be governed by individual language preferences and competences, orientation to interlocutors' (assumed) preferred languages as well as orientation to different phases of interaction (opening the floor for discussions, engaging in a question-answer sequence, soliciting suggestions from specific interlocutors). As suggested by analysis, in a pedagogical exolingual context such a rich texture of practices can be a way to enhance comprehension and participation and to take advantage of linguistic diversity in the classroom without using only one language as a lingua franca; furthermore, it can have positive effects on proficiency in a foreign language, and, last but not least, it provides students with experiences of specific types of communication which might be useful for their future professional career in European multilingual work settings.[98]

Studies by further DYLAN research teams have similarly highlighted the role of multilingual practices in enhancing students' participation in classroom activities (see Moore and Dooly 2010). Furthermore, dealing with definitions, demonstrations and problem-solving activities in more languages is not only a way for lecturers to ensure comprehension in linguistically heterogeneous classes, but it leads to intensive work on subject matter and language which can stabilise the acquisition of new knowledge (see Müller and Pantet 2008; Gajo et al. 2008; see also Gajo 2007).

5.3 Final Remarks

The European language policy is currently very determined to enhance the language competencies of European citizens. Trilingualism is envisaged as a goal: it can be reached through early language learning (naturally at home, in a formal way at

[9] Multilingual practices in workplace settings have been analysed, among others, in Cigada et al. (2001), Ten Thije and Zeevaert (2007), Poncini (2007), Kameyama and Meyer (2007), Lüdi et al. (2009), Lavric et al. (2009), Markaki et al. (2012).

school) to higher education. Exchanges (e.g. Erasmus) and mobility (also immigration) – due to globalisation – are other contexts which improve language skills. Multilingualism has a social dimension, insofar as it allows us to have insights into different communication cultures. Being involved in experiences with a high multicultural impact deepens the capacity of understanding the interlocutor's communicative *habitus*; and this is facilitated by knowing the language of the other.

To build a common space, Europe needs reciprocal understanding between individuals and groups. It is on communication and on shared values that a society is built. And one language is definitely not enough to embrace the richness in diversity that Europe has to offer. To build this new sense of community, only knowing about Europe's structures, history, economy, legal framework, etc. is not enough: one has to also know how to act appropriately in it. Knowing about Europe is a starting point, acting as a European is the next step. And this step should include multilingual skills. In this enlarged sense, higher education cannot limit itself to transmitting only knowledge about Europe, but should be devoted to offering a space for communicating as Europeans. And this implies to be able to interact in several languages. Different forms allowing the emergence of such a '*multilingual acting space'* in higher education can be envisioned, for example, trilingually organised institutions like the ones mentioned in this chapter. Higher education was in the past – and will be in the future – an important *locus* of cultural contact. It can only be enriched if it pens up to a diversified language policy allowing and enhancing multilingual communicative practices.

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Chapter 6
Thinking Europe: A Canadian Academic Immersion Inside the European Institutions—EU Study Tour and Internship Programme

Eduard M. Lavalle and Alexandre Berlin

6.1 Introduction

The European Commission promotes EU-related studies in the European Union and the rest of the world, by sponsoring Jean Monnet professorships, EU Centres of Excellence and EU modules. Outside the European Union, Canada is at the top (per capita) of the list of countries which have Jean Monnet professorships. There are at present eight Jean Monnet chairs in Canada, out of 160 such chairs in the world outside the European Union (5 % of all the Jean Monnet Chairs). This fact, as well as the opportunity to make the programme known through the activities of the European Community Studies Association of Canada (ECSA-C),[1] another beneficiary of EU support, provides an excellent academic environment for the promotion of the European Study Tour and Internship Programme. The *EU Study Tour and Internship Programme* ("*EUST&IP"*) is organized by a consortium of Canadian universities (Table 6.1) through the Network for European Studies-Canada (Network).

The *European Union Study Tour and Internship Programme* offers the opportunities associated with study abroad programmes and with internship, service or cooperative education programmes.[2] The importance of international or global study abroad and internship educational activity has been recently stressed by Mamdouh Shoukri, President and Vice-Chancellor of York University, who wrote:

http://www.capilanou.ca/europa

[1] http://web.uvic.ca/ecsac/index.html

[2] For an overview of the different pedagogies employed in experiential learning, see Moore (2010).

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_6, © Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2014

Table 6.1 Canadian universities participating in the Study Tour 2004–2011

University	Province
Bishop's University	Quebec
Capilano University	British Columbia
Carleton University	Ontario
Dalhousie University	Nova Scotia
McGill University	Québec
Memorial University	Newfoundland
Queen's University	Ontario
Ryerson University	Ontario
Simon Fraser University	British Columbia
Université d'Ottawa	Ontario
Université de Montréal	Québec
University of Alberta	Alberta
University of British Columbia	British Columbia
University of Calgary	Alberta
University of Toronto	Ontario
University of Victoria	British Columbia
York University	Ontario

"Equally important is a broad international curriculum that brings world perspectives into the classroom, which would offer international content combined with language study, and encourage student mobility with study and/or work terms abroad" (Shoukri 2010).

This programme is also within a minority of "study abroad" programmes which are not recruited from a single institution, but is multi-institutional. It is a non-profit university-based activity. The European Union Study Tour and Internship Programme (EUST&IP) is characterized by a diversity of disciplines among its participating students, multi-institutional responsiveness and a broad multidisciplinary approach to the study of the European Union. Most institutions treat the Study Tour as a course enhancement activity and a course in itself. Additionally, it is a unique programme in that the study abroad/study tour is also preparatory and a prerequisite for participation in the associated internship programme.

With the completion of the 2011 Study Tour and Internship Programme, the Network for European Studies, sponsors of the *EUST&IP*, concluded its ninth successful Study Tour and Internship Programme. Over the past 9 years, almost 300 students from universities across Canada have participated in the Study Tour, and approximately 130 have successfully completed internship terms of 2–16 months within various European Union and related institutions, notably positions within the European Commission, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee, a number of European Agencies (European Environmental Agency and the European Agency on Fundamental Rights) as well as the Council of Europe, the International Organization for Migrations, prominent European think tanks and NGOs. Furthermore a variety of geographic locations and countries are offered: Austria (Vienna), Belgium (Antwerp, Bruges and Brussels), France (Paris and Strasbourg), Germany (Berlin, Frankfurt, Hachenburg and Nuremberg), Latvia (Riga) and Luxembourg (Luxembourg).

Table 6.2 Internship participant numbers by universities, students and interns, 2004–2011

Number	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	
Institutions	3	8	10	11	11	11	13	13	
Study Tour participants	24	43	39	46	48	45	53	42	340
Internships	0	5	10	23	23	26	42	32	340

The Study Tour provides the opportunity for Canadian students to pursue an intense academic and experiential immersion within the European institutions. The participants gain first-hand knowledge of the functioning of the European institutions from officials and political representatives. Students are thus introduced to the processes involved in the development and implementation of diverse institutional policies.

The Internship Programme has experienced continuous expansion and growth (c.f. Table 6.2) and is an integral part of the Study Tour, providing an opportunity for the students to put into practice the knowledge acquired during the Study Tour. The continued support by the Canadian Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade for the transatlantic travel of interns is an essential contribution to facilitate the development of the internship part of the programme. While the Study Tour has been opened to both graduates and undergraduates, the internship programme has been preferentially available to graduate student applicants. The *EUST&IP* has received the formal endorsement of Jerzy Buzek, President of the European Parliament, and of Commissioner Androulla Vassiliou, European Commissioner responsible for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth. It has the formal support of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Speaker of the House of Commons. The continued endorsement of and involvement in the Study Tour by the Bank of Canada and the European Commission Delegation to Ottawa has been an important aspect of the success of the programme. The direct support and involvement of the Canadian Mission to the European Union in Brussels is an indispensible resource. Many academics from Canada's leading European Studies programmes and centres have contributed to making the activity recognized and valued as an opportunity. Although Canada is officially bilingual (French and English), the language of the Study Tour is English for logistic and financial reasons. However, for some internships, full competency in French is a prerequisite.

All students participating in the Study Tour obtain credit in their respective academic institutions for completion of the Study Tour, and interns are also strongly encouraged to arrange for academic credit for successful completion of their internship positions, granted by most of the partner universities in the Network. Priority is also given to applicants who seek internships and will receive credit for their internships. This credit requirement helps distinguish the EUST&IP from many study abroad projects which sometimes resemble more a "grand tour", an issue raised within the literature on study abroad programmes.

> One of the challenges that many US colleges and universities face is how to support serious, academic specialization alongside the grand tours and other faculty-led study abroad models that lend themselves to tourism more than they do academics (Williamson 2010).

On completion of the Study Tour, each faculty supervisor or sponsor at the participating universities is provided with an assessment of the participation and attendance of their respective students participating in the Study Tour. Also, each intern provides a self-assessment report on his or her participation in an internship position, complementing an evaluation by the host institution internship supervisor. These completion reports are provided to all sponsoring faculty. Furthermore, the participating universities require their respective students to write papers based on experience in the study tour and, where appropriate, internship-related papers, which together with the above-mentioned evaluations qualifies the student for academic credit. In some cases the student papers are published.

6.2 Organization and Study Tour Programme

The EU Study Tour and Internship Programme are organized jointly by the Network's Academic Coordinating Committee and the Directors of the Study Tour. Also, one or more of the sponsoring faculty members visit and participate in the Study Tour each year. These visits and participation are much appreciated by the students as the visiting faculty members participate actively in the discussions, give special lectures and interact actively with the students outside the formal sessions. Visiting faculty assist in stimulating student reflection, considered by experiential learning experts to be an important aspect of the learning process (Moore et al. 2010). Additionally, the more teaching faculty who can experience the tour, especially those participating in governance of the project, the more academic oversight and facilitation can be provided for the project.

Typically, students participate in more than 80 sessions with some 35 organizations in Antwerp, Bruges, Brussels, Frankfurt, Hachenburg, Luxembourg and Strasbourg. The core academic programme of the tour consists of 16 full days of seminars with and presentations from staff and political representatives of the different institutions. In a typical programme, students have access to the European Parliament, the Council of Ministers of the European Union, the European Commission, the European Court of Justice, the European Central Bank, the European Investment Bank, the European Economic and Social Committee, the Mission of Canada to the EU, the Missions to the EU of both Turkey and the Russian Federation, the Council of Europe, the European Court of Human Rights as well as many intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations, such as the International Organization for Migrations, NATO, the Centre for European Policy Studies, the European Trade Union Research Institute, PAYOKE (an NGO dealing with human trafficking issues) and think tanks linked with the political parties of the European Parliament—just to name a few. Within the Commission, the students meet with many of the Directorates-General including External Relations, Justice and Home Affairs, Trade, Regional Policy, Environment, Education and Culture, Enlargement and the Statistical Office of the European

Union (Eurostat). The unparalleled access to these institutions is well received by the participants and provides an extraordinary opportunity for the students to meet with officials and experts and to have their detailed questions answered. In addition a 3-day stay in Hachenburg, at the Technical University of the German Federal Bank, provides a special opportunity for the students: interacting, formally and informally, with the German students of the Technical University, through joint seminars, and participating in presentations from the German Federal Bank, the faculty of the Technical University and the Bank of Canada.

Finally, it must be stressed that each year the Study Tour programme is adapted to the European and global realities and priorities, and that some flexibility in programming to introduce "urgent" topics, as was recently the case with the global economic crisis, is envisaged. Being current is an important criterion in programme planning.

The seminars are also planned to maximize the opportunity to understand diversity in views. For example, when the Study Tour deals with energy or other issues involving the European Union and the Russian Federation, every effort is made to ensure that the seminars represent the views of the different parties; hence, sessions with representatives of DG RELEX, the Russian Federation Mission to the EU and with independent think tanks, such as the Centre for European Policy Studies, are included in the programme.

In this way, students understand and assess the different perspectives on the issues raised. The same approach is taken when dealing with other "controversial" issues, for example, with the issue of Turkey's accession to the EU.

The seminars are intended to allow for interaction between students and presenters. Students are aware that passive attendance is not satisfactory. In advance, they are made aware that the participation assessment of each student will be the basis of a report by the Directors to the sponsoring faculty. An attempt is made to ensure that at least one quarter to one third of the time allocated to each speaker is devoted to the interaction between the speakers and the students. The overall programme of the Study Tour, as well as each presentation, is discussed in advance and in depth by the organizers with each speaker to ensure comprehensive coverage of each topic and to minimize overlaps.

As an illustration, the paragraph below is a typical comment from a participant on his/her experience in the Study Tour and Internship Programme:

> The 2010 EU study tour was an incredible and invaluable experience on many aspects. Learning about the EU while enjoying the actual environment of the institutions makes the experience more concrete. In addition, meeting with people working at the different institutions gives you a firsthand perspective of the functioning of the EU, which you could never have in a classroom. It is an intense experience in which we learn an impressive amount of information while enjoying Europe. The EU study tour is also a good occasion to draw comparisons and differences between the Canadian and the European structures and contexts. Furthermore, being in Europe itself is an incredible experience. Learning about new cultures, exchanging with so many different people, all at the same time, is incredible. Finally, it is also a great opportunity to meet other Canadians and exchange with them. Learning about the EU gives us the occasion to reflect on our own perspective. It is an unforgettable experience.

6.3 The Learning Experience

The comments on introduction and organization have provided some insight into how the learning activities of the Study Tour are conducted. The methodology is one of exposing students to primary sources, that is, the officials, politicians, diplomats and civil society advocates from the EU and other institutions and organizations. The heterogeneous academic backgrounds of the students require that students apply the Study Tour experience to self-learning and application to the diverse range of assignments given to them by their faculty sponsors. Three categories of students can be identified:

1. Graduate and senior students in European (including EU) Studies. These students have substantial backgrounds in the EU and use the Study Tour to enhance their studies acquired in previous courses and seminars. The value added for them is that they have the opportunity to enhance course and academic-centred learning with interaction with "practitioners" adding a valuable experiential dimension. Students in this category often define or sharpen research and thesis topics which they plan to develop.
2. Graduate and senior students in disciplines other than European Studies, including but not limited to other disciplines, business, journalism and other professional schools. These students are often the most grounded in relevant topics (business, media, health sciences, etc.) but have knowledge of the EU, its institutions and policies. With preparation followed by Study Tour participation, these students have the opportunity to apply their areas of generic expertise to the European Union. For example, a business student whose studies are focused on international trade will utilize an EU presentation on trade agreements differently than students in other disciplines and areas of expertise.
3. Undergraduates with a minimum of an introductory course in the EU. Although a relatively smaller group, these students experience a direct enhancement of their knowledge of the EU. That experience may encourage a specialization in the subject as the students continue with their studies, having added an extra dimension to what was learned in the classroom.

Our initial apprehension was that heterogeneity in background and focus might have the effect of diluting the experience to meet the needs of all the students. Based on two surveys and informal discussions, our experience is that the heterogeneity in background and purpose provides a certain synergy which has added value for most of the students, both in formal and informal learning. The source of the synergy is rooted in the interactive character of the sessions, especially in the question and dialogue between speakers and the students. Additionally, our discussions and surveys indicate that interaction among the students themselves produces a substantial learning opportunity.

6.4 Internship Programme

The Internship Programme plays an important role in the enhancement of European Studies in the participating Canadian universities. In North America and Europe, internship, cooperative and service learning opportunities have expanded greatly in

the last several decades (Hurst and Good 2010).[3] The Study Tour and Internship Programme are very closely integrated. Participation in the Study Tour is a precondition for being offered an unpaid internship in various European Union and related institutions. These internships do not go through the regular host institution's selection process. Most of the internship hosts consider that a sufficient guarantee of the quality of the interns placed in their institutions comes from prior participation in the Study Tour and from the integrity of the internal selection process, carried out by a subcommittee of the Academic Coordinating Committee.

The internship locations in Europe are selected by the Director (Programme in Europe) in consultation with the ACC. Following preliminary contacts, in all cases, site visits to host institutions are made to clearly explain the nature of these internships and the expectations of the programme as well as ensure a necessary mutual benefit of the internship for the student and host organization. A subcommittee of the ACC selects interns based on the student applications, including a curriculum vitae, a statement by the student of why the internship applicant is choosing the institutions and internships selected; each student applicant's academic advisor makes recommendations on competency, motivation and suitability. To help the prospective intern present an application, the Director (Programme in Europe) solicits from each internship location a brief note to be made available to the candidates defining the general tasks to be assigned and what will be the expectations of the intern. Examples of such a "note" are given below:

> The [host institution].... is in essence a catalyst, bringing together inspirational individuals and groundbreaking research to create an environment from which new ideas and relationships emerge. By engaging the active participants in research, communication and political policy formulation of [the host institution] it makes a real contribution to public awareness of European citizens and decision-makers alike.
>
> The internship programme is intended to provide the [interns]with the opportunity to deepen their knowledge of European affairs and to have close insights into the daily work of the European institutions in Brussels. The interns will have the possibility to get involved in political activities and in the creation of new policy concepts at the European level. The internship is focused on immersing the successful candidates in the short-term and long-term policy research and other activities of the [host institution], …: organizing meetings and conferences, preparing reports and analysis, editing publications including the "European View", updating the website, blog and databases, communicating with the [host institution]… in policy research and other activities, and liaising with officials from the European Institutions.
>
> The internship programme … is open to all young graduates with an academic background in European affairs and related fields holding a university degree, fluent in English, fully computer and internet literate and with good knowledge of European politics. Additional educational qualifications, experience in policy research in policy research and

[3] Most internship programmes are designed to facilitate the transition from education to work, and this process is extensively reviewed and assessed in the literature. The EUST&IP has a different primary objective—to enhance the student's academic knowledge with an exposure to the practical reality of the European Union, an integrated multidisciplinary academic programme in nonacademic settings. However, our information indicates that participation enhances career development as well; a number of interns have been employed by the agencies or organizations with which they served as interns, and approximately 10 % (estimate) of interns have found employment in a field related to their internship experience.

adequate knowledge of one or two more languages are considered assets. Prior participation in the European Union Study Tour (Canada) is a prerequisite in the context of this internship program. There is no possibility of remunerating these internships.

Throughout the duration of their internship programme, from 2 to 6 months, the interns are supported by scheduled meetings convened by the Director (Programme in Europe), with the assistance of a Canadian Mission to the European Union intern, assigned specifically to the EUST&IP to assist with the work in Europe. In Brussels, all interns participate in periodic meetings; the interns provided feedback and exchanged views on their respective internships. As well, the meetings provide interns with the opportunity to raise issues and find solutions to any problems encountered with their host institutions. Where necessary, the Director (Programme in Europe) will meet with individual interns and their supervisors (as well as in a couple of cases with their academic supervisor, by teleconference) to solve specific problems. For interns outside Brussels, contact is maintained electronically and by phone; if there is a concentration of interns, or serious issues to be solved, the Director may arrange visits.

To promote a high level of performance by the interns during their internship, the intern and the host institution supervisor submit completion reports. It is obligatory for the intern and his/her supervisor to complete the report and a precondition for the final payment of the travel grant provided to interns. Recently, the Academic Coordinating Committee adopted action to ensure that all interns have the same basic understanding of the organization, obligations and entitlements of the internship programme. Beginning in 2011, a student intern submits, at the time of their acceptance of the internship or earlier, a letter of committal stating that he or she is familiar with and accepts the basic rules and procedures of the internship programme.

Normally the internships immediately follow the conclusion of the Study Tour so as to minimize the travel cost to students; but a growing number of Study Tour participants are requesting internships one or more years after the Study Tour, as their interest in the EU grows after the Study Tour or they use the additional time to prepare themselves academically or financially.

Internships have evolved as an integral and essential part of the programme, as reflected by the comments received from the students who participated in this component of the programme. The supervisors of the internships have also expressed their satisfaction with the performance of the interns and their willingness to continue receiving Canadian interns from the Study Tour.

A significant objective of the organizers and sponsors of the Internship Programme is to ensure the internship programme has integrity; the student, faculty sponsor, EUST&IP administration and host institution must understand their roles in the internship experience. Those assessing the growth of internships in general have focussed on this issue of integrity as a major challenge for programmes (Sides and Mrvica 2007).

A number of interns have indicated an additional outcome of the internships by their presence in the various European host institutions; they have conveyed the Canadian point of view, usually not known and often highly appreciated. They have also expressed the diversity of views in public debate in Canada. Thus, the

internships serve also to make Canadian public discourse better known among the European institutions. The briefing which the interns receive during the Study Tour from the Canadian Mission to the European Union and from the Canadian Mission to NATO helps them to formulate and convey the government's view as well as other views found in Canadian civil society and politics.

6.5 Governance, Planning and Oversight

On behalf of the Network, the Academic Coordinating Committee oversees the planning and development of the Study Tour and Internship Programme. The ACC is comprised of university faculty with expertise in the European Union and includes the Study Tour and Internship Programme directors.

The Academic Coordinating Committee:

- Defines the topics to be highlighted during the Study Tour
- Establishes the internship criteria and selects the candidates for the internship programme
- Provides selected reading material for the participants in the Study Tour
- Organizes the themes of internal seminars and the student presentations at these seminars
- Approves the mode of evaluation of participants
- Oversees the quality and coherence of the seminar programme

The EUST&IP Directors, who accompany the Study Tour for its entire duration, provide each of the sponsoring faculty in the respective institutions with an individual appraisal of the performance of each of the participants in the Study Tour.

For future planning, the Academic Coordinating Committee will conduct a comprehensive survey of student participants in 2011 and prior years of the EUST&IP, the results of which will be shared with members of the Network and participating faculty at the universities. Although not the first survey, the 2011 survey will be utilized to a greater extent in planning and development.

6.6 Administration and Finance

The financial and administrative support services needed by the Study Tour and Internship Programme are effectively and efficiently provided by Capilano University Continuing Education, assisted by a local agent in Brussels. The excellent working relationship which has been established with the local agent in Brussels brings added value to resolving the many challenges associated with the coordination of a large Pan-Canadian Tour visiting five or more European cities. Also, having a local agent in Brussels has been of significant importance when student health, security, family, and personal emergencies require local assistance or resolution.

The greatest challenges facing the Study Tour are from cost pressures due to inflation and the volatile exchange rate, always a potential problem in budgeting, aggravated by multiple funding sources and the need to achieve budget targets such as cost recovery. Also, students did not escape the recession, and the Study Tour and Internship Programme continue to face the problem of making participation affordable and accessible. Additional financial pressures have resulted from the greatly expanded Internship Programme which is now a substantial feature of the Study Tour.

The EUST&IP, a Canadian programme, is saddled with the substantial cost of transatlantic travel. Attempts have thus been made to have the internships immediately follow the Study Tour. Financial contributions from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT) specifically targeted to the transatlantic travel costs related to the internships and fees paid by Network member institutions assist in reducing the impact of some of the cost pressures experienced by the Study Tour and Internship Programme. Diplomats and staff of the Canadian Mission to the EU contribute to a number of academic and physical resources to make the Study Tour and Internship Programme a success. Support has also been given by the Strategic Knowledge Cluster: Canada-Europe Transatlantic Dialogue,[4] a research consortium. Additionally, some of the participating universities and some provincial governments grant financial support to their participants in the Study Tour and the internship programme. This level of support varies considerably, and the Study Tour and Internship Programme administration are not involved in this funding relationship.

Communication with the Network, students and others is mainly through electronic medium: a website (www.capilanou.ca/europa), ad hoc bulletins for faculty and for students and periodic memos. The Director (Programme in Europe) also conducts on site visits and orientation sessions at various institutions associated with the Network.

6.7 Observations and Summary

In conclusion, based on surveys, consultations and other forms of feedback employed by the Directors, the following observations may be made:

- The selection process of participants in the EU Study Tour, driven by local faculty sponsors, has consistently produced a high quality of student participation. Most students are well prepared for further study of the European Union, especially those who have been in undergraduate and graduate level academic courses focussing on the European Union. The addition of students in other disciplines—particularly the social sciences, business administration and journalism and communications—has been a positive experience. Those not in EU-oriented studies acquire the necessary information and understanding in the preparatory period,

[4] See http://www.carleton.ca/europecluster/

necessary to participate in seminars and presentations rooted in the assumption of a fairly high level of awareness of the EU, especially its structure, evolution and operations. The practice of providing direction using thematic assignments and providing designated readings, done in the months prior the tour, plus the assignment of a comprehensive text, may contribute further to providing a common foundation of knowledge for Study Tour participants.

- The fact that students come from a diverse range of disciplines and that there is a broad diversity of programme topics provides an opportunity for students to move beyond the focus of their particular disciplines. For example, students well versed in European Union politics or social policy may not be well acquainted with the intricacies of European Union monetary, trade or investment policies. Likewise, the business student who understands the language and concepts of trade, investment and monetary policy can relate to seminars dealing with these topics while not being familiar with European Union social policy or foreign policy initiatives. The diversity of students and presentations broadens the intellectual horizons of all students, and their interrelationships provide a certain synergy to their learning.
- Most speakers and presenters have commented favourably on the level of knowledge in the students and have been profuse in their appreciation of the comprehensiveness of the Study Tour programme. A frequently heard comment is that the speaker wishes that he or she had the opportunity (similar to that provided by the Study Tour) to learn about the European Union prior to beginning their career with it! The quality of the students and the positive experience of speakers have also facilitated the process of having the host institutions provide internship placements.
- The speakers generally favour an interactive approach; only occasionally does a speaker resort to "lecture style"—this will be mitigated in the future by offering speakers and presenters an even more detailed guide on the purposes and objectives of the Study Tour and the expectations the EUST&IP administration have of speakers and presenters.
- An additional positive result of the Study Tour experience is the interactive factor among the students themselves. The students come from many different provinces, and for some it is their first Pan-Canadian experience. As well, focusing on Canada-EU relations has given students an opportunity to deepen their understanding of Canada's identity as a global actor, a federal state, official bilingualism and the diversity of its society as a consequence of the intercultural experience of relating to Europeans and their institutions.
- A high number of students of the EU Study Tour proceed to the Internship Programme. What was once a peripheral activity is now a core feature of the EUST&IP, with close to two thirds of the 2010 students doing both Study Tour and taking up internship positions. From the student's point of view, this has been a great success; surveys and reports on participation indicate a high degree of satisfaction with the assignments during the internship, the support of the host institution and a positive assessment of the "cost-benefit" analysis prominent in each student's thinking when electing to take up an internship. Note the comments contributed by students summarizing their experience with the Internship Programme:

> Furthermore, while the tour was a great success, my internship at the [host institution] exposed me to the inner workings of European political affairs and business. I was presented with unique challenges and opportunities in my role, including the chance to write position papers for high-profile …. politicians and officials, as well as to represent the [host institution]at meetings and conferences with European business leaders. As an MBA student I feel my two months with the [host institution] both immersed me in European business and political affairs, but also contributed to preparing me for a post-MBA career. I highly recommend the EU Study Tour and Internship program and I sincerely feel there is no replacement for the first-hand cultural, political and business knowledge I gained through my participation.
>
> While most students take part in the European Union Study Tour and its internship component in the same year my experience was a little unconventional. After participating in the Study Tour in the summer of 2009 I went back to school …and completed another year of studies. Then, in the summer of 2010, I interned at [host institution]… Taking a year in between the Study Tour and the Internship was extremely beneficial for me. The Study Tour peaked my interest in specific areas which I later explored further in my studies.... I was then able to apply for internships based on the interest and knowledge I had accumulated over the past year. Had I not taken a year between the two components I would not have had the same insight into which internships were best for me. Therefore I highly recommend taking a year between the Study Tour and the internship to develop interest and knowledge in specific areas.
>
> *L'EU Study Tour a été déterminant pour mon acquisition de connaissances autant générales que pointues sur la « machine » Union européenne.* This activity also gave me the unique opportunity to work with highly experienced and motivated people..... These two work experiences truly helped me to further appreciate the complexities, differences and subtleties that reside in Europe. *Sans conteste, mon expérience au sein du Study Tour a été un tremplin vers ma jeune carrière au sein du gouvernement canadien.*

- Host institution satisfaction is high. This conclusion is supported by the number of institutions who repeatedly elect to take internships in the following years. Every institution writes a supervisory report on the contribution of the intern to their organization, and a tally of satisfaction levels results in a near-unanimous high positive score. While there have been one or two poor experiences, these have been exceptions. Some aspects of the internships would fit into the category of "service learning", where the recent work of Bringle et al. provides new approaches to evaluate both student and host institution satisfaction (Bringle et al. 2011).
- In the literature on internships, the discussion often focuses on whether the internship position is a true learning experience or a form of unpaid labour (Sides and Mrvica 2007). Great care is taken to maintain the learning content of the internship. The Director (Programme in Europe) supervises each placement, and monitoring of serving interns helps expose any issues which would lessen the learning experience which the internship is assumed to be. Based on surveys conducted at various times over the past few years and on group meetings with interns during their internship period, it can be said there have not surfaced any significant complaints on internship work abuse or misdirection of effort.
- The EUST&IP is also an exercise in "student mobility", which is a high priority for the European Commission (2008). Its serious academic approach and intercultural experience in part realizes the objectives the European Union has set out

in its programmes: Many studies show that a period spent abroad not only enriches students' lives in the academic and professional fields but can also improve language learning, intercultural skills, self-reliance and self-awareness. Although the EUST&IP has academic enhancement as its main objective, it rates high on the criteria established by Dwyer and Peters, Institute for the International Education of Students: personal development, academic commitment, intercultural development and career development (Dwyer and Peters 2004). Although the European Commission has addressed the issue of student mobility in the European context, it applies as well to developing relationships between the EU and Canada. While the European Commission had addressed extensively the issue of student mobility, in both the EU context and from countries outside the EU to the EU through the various ERASMUS programmes, the present programme has an additional objective, that of enhancing the relationships between the EU and Canada.

- The Study Tour was also valuable in promoting Canada in Europe; the students represented Canada well with their understanding of Canada-EU relations and through well-articulated questions and comments. The students also communicated important Canadian points of view in their statements and their exchanges throughout the Study Tour.
- The Study Tour's comprehensive programmes and the proactive role of the participants during the Study Tour presentations have lead to relations of mutual interest and trust between the Study Tour organizers and the visited institutions and organizations. The academic level of speakers, many of whom are very high officials, has been excellent, enhanced by the fact that a number of the public servants of the EU also hold part-time academic positions.
- The Study Tour and Internship Programme have become a substantial and valuable opportunity for Canadian students to complement their academic courses with an integrated experience in European organizations and in working with the representatives of those organizations, an experience which most of the students would not otherwise have and which provides substantial opportunities to meet and exchange points of view with practitioners, allowing students to better understand Europe and how it functions compared to Canada.

6.8 Postscript

Based on the very positive experience of the EU Study Tour and Internship Programme, a twin activity was initiated and financed in 2010 by the European Commission: a Study Tour and Internship Programme to Canada for European students. The programme was organized by the European Network of Canadian Studies and the Central European Association of Canadian Studies in partnership with the organizers of the programme described in this paper. This, the first of its kind, was of 3 weeks' duration and involved 27 participants from 18 EU member states. It also produced a trial internship programme. One specifically relevant feature of this twin

Study Tour was the preliminary very intense briefing of the students in Brussels on the EU and EU-Canada relations. This briefing not only created a more homogeneous group, it was very much appreciated by the students, who felt that they "gained a European identity" which they conveyed in Canada. Thirty-two students, mostly in graduate programmes, participated in the second Study Tour and Internship Programme in 2011.

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Part II
Mapping Innovations in Teaching and Learning

Chapter 7
Mapping Innovative Teaching Methods and Tools in European Studies: Results from a Comprehensive Study

Stefania Baroncelli, Fabio Fonti, and Gordana Stevancevic

7.1 Introduction

The European Union (EU) is a major driving force behind the process of reform of the educational systems in the European Higher Education Area. Although the EU's role and its decisions are not binding for EU member states, given its lack of full competence in this area, it is still central to this process, operating mostly through intergovernmental arrangements such as the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Strategy. EU member states have decided to embark on conspicuous reforms, in order to render their educational systems more responsive to the demands of the labour market and more comparable and compatible, with the aim to promote students' and researchers' physical mobility across Europe. This transformation implies the reassessment of the pedagogic methods and tools traditionally applied by lecturers, considering the growing international dimension of the classes and the new skills required from students in such a context.

This chapter is the result of the joint research efforts of the three authors. Stefania Baroncelli is directly responsible for §7.1, §7.2, §7.3, and §7.4; Fabio Fonti for §7.6, §7.8, and §7.9; and Gordana Stevancevic for §7.5 and §7.7. The authors benefitted from feedback obtained at the Twelfth Biennial International Conference of the European Union Studies Association (EUSA), Boston, MA, March 3–5, 2011. All errors remain our own.

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_7,

After discussing the new skills required of students in the new knowledge society, this chapter considers the innovative pedagogic methods and tools which best suit their development. Amongst the innovative methods we identify teamwork, fieldwork, special expert sessions, simulations, learning games, project-based learning, work-based learning, role-plays, distance learning, peer tutoring, internships, students' volunteering, and exchange programmes. As for innovative tools, we focus on the use of Internet, educational software, movies, e-learning and social networks. Then, we go on to evaluate the extent to which such innovative pedagogy is used in European Studies, using an online survey conducted on lecturers active in the 27 EU member states, plus Iceland, Turkey and Norway. Included in the survey are Jean Monnet professors, whose teaching activities are partially financed by the EU, as well as members of SENT (Thematic Network of European Studies). We close the chapter with an overall view of the survey's result, with a specific focus on the different use of teaching methods and tools.

7.2 Education Policy and the EU

Higher education serves multiple purposes. While imparting a broad knowledge base, education has always been the core task of university institutions, although the preparation for the labour market has recently acquired a strong momentum and can be defined as the driving force behind the contemporary reform of the education systems in Western countries. Such a component is mostly associated with the need to boost economic growth by creating a connection between higher education, employment, productivity and trade and by enhancing student outcomes in employment-related skills and competencies (Ball 1998: 122). Although this "new orthodoxy" (Carter and O'Neill 1995: 9) has spread around the world, being the result of developments which occur at a global level, in Europe it has acquired a specific feature. Already in 1995 the EU in the White Paper on Education and Training (European Commission 1995: 23) announced the end of the debate on educational principles. The top priority envisaged by the Commission as a consequence of the emergence of the learning society consisted in the encouragement of the acquisition of new types of knowledge and skills by students. Such a result might be reached through different tools, such as the recognition of skills via a European accreditation system, increased student mobility (to be enhanced by the system of credit transfers, ECTS – European Credit Transfer System – and the establishment of new Master level courses in cooperation with higher education institutions), and the use of multimedia educational software (European Commission 1995: 33).

These objectives have been consequently put into practice through the Bologna Process, an intergovernmental mechanism on the restructuring of the education systems which extends well beyond the EU, and the Lisbon Strategy, which is part of the larger economic policy of the EU (Keeling 2006: 204). The Bologna Process started in 1999, when the ministers of higher education of 47 European

states (all the 27 EU member states plus many others) met in Italy and adopted the so-called Bologna Declaration. This document confirmed the cross-border and formal dimension of educational reform, based on the ECTS system and student and researcher mobility, and aimed at the formation of a new system of European higher institutions (Papatsiba 2006: 93). In addition to that, it introduced a content-based aspect, identifiable in the need to add a "European dimension" to higher education. This requirement was meant to serve as a useful tool in order to set up new cooperation programmes amongst institutions, the drafting of new integrated programmes of study and to build a European identity (Savvides 2006: 114).[1]

The second development took place through the parallel Lisbon Strategy, a nonbinding working method adopted by the EU in 2000 and implemented by the member states along year-long cycles over a 10-year period (2000–2010). This procedure was aimed at prioritising some policies, like education and social inclusion, which were deemed crucial in the attainment of a competitive knowledge society (European Commission 2007), and for which the traditional EU method was not conceivable, given the lack of the EU's legal competence in these fields. The modernisation of education, considered as an essential prerequisite to enhance competitiveness and innovation, was to be reached through different sub-goals, such as training of teachers and trainers; building key competences; providing access to ICT; active citizenship, equal opportunities and social cohesion; creating links with the world of work, research and society; development of the spirit of entrepreneurship; mobility exchanges; knowledge of foreign languages; and reinforcement of the European cooperation (Pépin 2011: 26).[2]

The Lisbon Strategy had the advantage of upgrading educational issues to a higher rank, building on the competences conferred by the Amsterdam Treaty and afterwards confirmed by the Treaty of Lisbon.[3] By linking educational policy reforms in the EU member states to the attainment of some strategic objectives

[1] Notwithstanding the difficulty of identifying the "European dimension" in education, the EU has become increasingly interested in developing a European identity at the school and university level. An interesting example of this are the European schools, created for the families of EU officials and politicians, whose curriculum has been developed in order to promote and stimulate a sense of common identity amongst pupils.

[2] Other sub-objectives were identified as increase in the number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology; decrease in the gender imbalance; effective use of resources; development of an open learning environment; and increase in the attractiveness of education and training.

[3] See art. 165 and art. 166 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (Treaty of Lisbon). Art. 165, para. 1: "The Union shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity". Art. 166, para. 1: "The Union shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content and organisation of vocational training".

whose implementation was measured through benchmarks and peer review, the EU managed to bring education from the periphery to the centre of policy debates and to link it with more general objectives, such as social reforms.

One of the attainments of the Lisbon Strategy has been the approval of the Recommendation on European Key Competences, which was adopted in 2006 by the EU after 5 years of work by pedagogical experts and civil servants, and which marks the evolution towards a competence-based curriculum (Michel and Tiana 2011: 285). This document enshrines a series of competences which play an important role in the preparation of students for a successful life in the knowledge society, such as communication in the mother tongue, communication in a foreign language, mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology, digital competence, learning to learn, social and civil competences, sense of initiative and entrepreneurship, and cultural awareness and expression (Halász and Michel 2011: 291). These skills are deemed to apply to all levels of education, including primary, secondary, vocational, higher, and continuing education.

Notwithstanding the weak impact of the Lisbon Strategy on national reform plans, almost all member states have changed their domestic curricula to render teaching and learning more appropriate to developing competences. In fact, although the national budgets are shrinking due to the economic crisis, the objectives and mechanisms of the Lisbon Strategy have been confirmed in the new "EU 2020" plan, where more emphasis has been put on employment and citizenship.

7.3 EU-Driven Innovative Pedagogy

The prominence given to students' skills and the knowledge society by the EU had important implications on the teaching methodologies adopted by lecturers (Shapiro et al. 2011).[4] Criticism towards traditional forms of pedagogy has emerged notwithstanding the different conceptions of what is a good European teacher in the member states (Sayer 2006: 67). Professors have increasingly been questioned on

[4]Research on key competences required in the new multicultural and international environment is blossoming at the academic and policy level. For an example of a cooperative study driven by the European Commission and comparing the European and US education policies and labour skills, see Shapiro et al. (2011). This study advocates for a change in "teaching and learning environments if education is going to play a more systemic role in furthering an entrepreneurial mind-set in students" (p. 14). In particular, it identifies the following as major features of learning environments: "Research-informed teaching uses action-based research models in multi-disciplinary learning; processes to help solve complex, comprehensive, and interconnected problems; learning beyond the campus walls and in new partnership models; discovery which is useful beyond the academic community and service that directly benefits the public; students working on projects with real clients, applying their specialist subject skills and receiving course credits for their work. The community becomes part of the teaching process and benefits from the students' work; new boundary crossing organisations and structures are developed as part of the learning environment; ICT is an integrated feature in teaching and learning processes" (pp. 14–15).

the utility of the traditional teaching methods in classes more and more formed by EU students and financed by the EU through the Erasmus/Socrates programme or similar schemes.[5] International students in fact do not always have the language skills or competences which make them capable of fully profiting from the learning experience in another EU country (Vecchi 2004: 39). This implies that instructors should dedicate more attention to guiding students via the careful drafting of their syllabi and evaluation methods, which might differ greatly from those to which these students are used.

Another aspect which has to be taken into account by lecturers is the use of the language. In this respect, normally the choice offered to schools is between organising special classes for foreign students, typically taught in English, and, alternatively, having Erasmus students integrate with local ones and attend classes in the official state language. Both choices have their pros and cons (see Baroncelli 2013). In this respect, distance learning and technology-driven teaching and learning tools can be useful devices in order to accommodate the needs of groups of students coming from different countries. For example, distance learning has been used in international universities to build a trans-European or transcontinental learning community, as it removes the distance between institutions located in often far-reaching regions and incentivises active participation from both sides through the use of multimedia. More in general, technological tools can be useful to bridge theory and real world gaps and to reduce exclusion of disadvantaged groups – both objectives pursued by the EU (Mazzucelli 2009: 27). In addition to that, such devices can help in building a more cohesive international classroom, considering that ICT tool usage relies on increasingly similar worldwide patterns.

More in general, the EU focuses on the necessity to bring business experiences into the classroom, on communicative and social skills, and on flexibility, which are needed in the multilingual and flexible European labour market, and imposes far-reaching changes in the pedagogy used by university professors. Traditional lecture methods applied to large classrooms seem in this light more and more inadequate to our fast-changing societies, as they do not promote discussion and are adverse to problem-solving attitudes (Cowan 1999: 33). As a consequence, the inclination of some teachers to link core concepts and theoretical notions taught in classroom with practical experiences – such as fieldwork, special expert sessions, and work-based learning – can be welcomed and encouraged as a way to connect academia with business. More in general, since the Bologna process and the European Commission focus more on learning outcomes than on teaching content, the way is opened towards alternative methodologies of active learning whose goal is to enhance students' participation and to create a more collaborative classroom environment, such as problem-based learning, problem-solving, peer teaching, role-playing, and simulation games (Van Dyke and Loedel 2009: 6).

[5] Due to the lack of a specific competence in the field of education, the EU has resorted to financing several programmes as a way of encouraging exchanges amongst students and lecturers, such as the Erasmus/Socrates programme.

Research on active learning in higher education is growing, mostly driven by US scholars, foundations, and teachers (Sullivan et al. 2007; Van Dyke et al. 2000: 145). In fact, US universities have been particularly active in promoting alternative methods to traditional teaching, as they are already used to the Socratic Method, which develops communication between students and faculty and focuses more on cases than on theory (Gardner 1983; Kolb 1984; Chickering and Gamson 1987). In this sense, apart from a few isolated exceptions, European states seem more traditional in their teaching approach, accepting from students a more passive behaviour, thus lagging behind the US, where top universities dedicate time and resources to find alternative ways to lecture.

7.4 Innovation Applied to European Studies: The Role of the Jean Monnet Programme

But how are these innovative pedagogical ideas translated into practice in the EU countries, if they are? Are they policy driven by the EU or are they accomplished only thanks to few motivated instructors who dedicate time and passion to promote them? Is the EU really encouraging innovative learning or does it focus simply on improving the knowledge of subjects with a European content? A great obstacle encountered by the EU in innovating in the education field consists in the obligation to respect different cultures, teachers' freedom, and universities' autonomy. As mentioned earlier, even after the Lisbon Treaty the EU lacks the exclusive and shared legal competence in the education field (Garben 2011: 57). Even where it had a shared competence, it should respect the subsidiarity principle, which puts the EU after the decisions taken at the local and state level.

However, the EU can behave proactively by competitively allocating incentives to virtuous lecturers. For a long time the EU has been financing students' and teachers' exchanges across the member countries through the Erasmus/Socrates programme as well as traineeships of students abroad with the Leonardo Action. Amongst the EU-funded projects, the Jean Monnet Action has a special place. Since 2007 such a project has been part of the EU's Lifelong Learning Programme and aims at promoting worldwide didactic activities and courses on European integration within university curricula (so-called Jean Monnet modules). This means supporting teaching activities in mandatory or elective courses, promoting teaching materials (including multimedia), the spreading of activities on the EU integration process such as roundtables or conferences, and encouraging research on the EU. This programme especially promotes teaching activities of those professors who distinguished themselves for their teaching or research activity on the EU. They acquire the title of "Jean Monnet Chairs" and are invited to participate in various Brussels-centred activities promoted by the European Commission, combining academic presentations and civil servants interventions. Jean Monnet Chairs, who distinguish themselves for their high-level international teaching and publication

records (accomplished at least partially outside their country of origin), and/or have a "distinguished background" as high-level practitioners, can be granted the title of "ad personam Jean Monnet Chairs". Finally, the programme can support university centres and award them the label of "Jean Monnet Centre of Excellence" for their pedagogy and research activities on subjects related to the EU.

In the first period of the programme's existence, which was launched in 1989, teaching was promoted in the disciplines where EU developments were increasingly becoming part of the subject studied, i.e. law, economics, political science, and history. This meant the encouragement and promotion of courses on "EU Law", "EU Economic Studies", "EU Political and Administrative Studies" and "European Historical Studies". More recently, the focus of the programme has expanded to other disciplines, which concentrate less on the EU's role and structure and rely more on the EU's role in the encouragement of the dialogue between peoples and cultures. It is the case of the new disciplines labelled as "EU Communication and Information Studies", "EU and Comparative Regionalism Studies", "EU Intercultural Dialogue Studies", "EU Interdisciplinary Studies", and "EU International Relations and Diplomacy Studies".

Considering the size of the programme, which involves 1,500 professors and about 500,000 students every year, we embarked in the investigation of the policy role of the EU in promoting the innovativeness of teaching tools via the Jean Monnet Programme.[6] The role of the European Commission in this context is not obvious nor straightforward, because funds are allocated on the basis of various factors, which change every year and are partly substantial (i.e. experience of the lecturer on EU integration studies), partly formal (i.e. creation of new teaching activities, such as the development of new courses and/or new programmes of study), and partly exogenous (i.e. request coming from a country not yet covered by Jean Monnet projects; disciplines different from traditional European Studies, such as science, engineering, medicine, education, arts and language; openness to civil society). Innovative teaching methodologies are one of the specific criteria considered for the acknowledgement of Jean Monnet Excellence Centres status. Here, priority consideration is given to activities aimed at developing contents and pedagogical methods and tools contributing to European integration teaching (limited however to primary and secondary school education) and to vocational education and training. However, in practical terms, teaching quality and innovation are both critical also for the selection of Jean Monnet professors. For these reasons, we decided to evaluate whether there is a relationship between the Jean Monnet Action and the use of innovative pedagogical tools.

[6]See the Jean Monnet Action website: http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/llp/jean_monnet/jean_monnet_en.php. According to these data the programme spans 72 countries worldwide. During the period 1990–2011, the Action Jean Monnet contributed to establish 162 Jean Monnet Centres of Excellence, 875 Jean Monnet Chairs, and 1,001 Jean Monnet Modules.

7.5 Aims of the Research

We implemented a large-scale study whose main goal was to map the use of teaching methods and tools in European Studies classes in the European countries. Specifically, by assessing how frequently the various teaching methods and tools were used, we were interested in evaluating what drives pedagogic innovation in European Studies courses. The centrepiece of the study was a survey developed building on the work of Backer and Watts (1998, 2001; Backer 2000), who examined in detail the teaching methods used in the United States in economics classes. This work is relevant to us as the authors analysed the process in which economics is taught, illustrating innovative teaching methods, such as simulations, experiments, and cooperative learning. Additional developments, such as the emergence of Web 2.0, were also taken into consideration, as they introduced additional innovative teaching tools that facilitate even more the learning process of students, such as e-learning practices and social networks.

The goal of this chapter is to illustrate the rationale and the contents of the international survey, which was administered to lecturers active in teaching European Studies classes in European countries, and to provide an overall view of the survey's results, with a specific focus on its most crucial components such as the different use of teaching methods and tools. Other chapters in this book instead focus on analysing data obtained from the survey to answer specific research questions.

7.6 Survey Methodology: Sample and Data

In our research, we availed ourselves of the SENT, a project financed by the European Commission whose main goal has been to map European Studies in order to understand their development across different disciplines and European countries. Considering that the SENT project brings together 66 partner universities from EU member states, candidate countries and a number of associated ones, we regarded it as the ideal context for our study.

Thus, between 2009 and 2010 we contacted lecturers teaching courses on the EU at the undergraduate and graduate level, inviting them to complete a questionnaire aimed at assessing the use of different teaching tools and methods in delivering their classes. The survey was sent to lecturers located in 30 different European countries (i.e. the 27 EU member states, plus three non-EU member states – Iceland, Norway and Turkey) and touched upon seven different disciplines chosen on the basis of the Jean Monnet Action classification, i.e. the traditional European Studies disciplines (Economics, History, Legal Studies and Political, and Administrative Science) and the more recent ones (Intercultural Dialogue Studies, Interdisciplinary Studies, and International Relations Studies).

The invitation to the survey and the actual questionnaire were posted on the SENT website,[7] as well as on a few other websites related to European Studies. SENT members were asked what methods and tools they were using in delivering courses on European Studies. From SENT lecturers we obtained 151 complete answers.[8] To extend our sample, we also sent personal email invitations to 1,323 Jean Monnet lecturers (including Jean Monnet modules, chairs, ad hoc professors and centres of excellence)[9] active as of 2010.[10] Out of these, 204 individuals completed the questionnaire, thus yielding a response rate of 15.42 %. Therefore, our sample consisted of 355 questionnaires (151 coming from SENT member lecturers and 204 from Jean Monnet lecturers).

The response rate varied across countries. Italy, Spain, Poland, the United Kingdom, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, and Germany had relatively high response rates (all above 7 %). On the other hand, response rates for Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Latvia, Luxemburg, Slovenia, and Sweden were relatively low. Thus, we kept these cases (which, all together, account for less than 5 % of our total sample) out of our overview analysis, as such low numbers may entail poor representativeness of the survey's answers for such countries as a whole. Finally, no answers were received from Cyprus, Estonia, and Malta.

7.7 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of three major parts. In the first part, we collected general information about the lecturer. Respondents were asked to provide personal demographic and background information, such as their name, age, education, university where they were teaching, academic position, and teaching experience.

[7] For the questionnaire, see http://www.sent-net.uniroma2.it/?page_id=41

[8] The return rate for this part of the sample is not known, as there is no way to determine how many people saw the invitation to participate in the questionnaire posted on web pages which deal with European Studies classes, such as the SENT website and the Jean Monnet web page of the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano.

[9] Information on Jean Monnet lecturers (professors and researchers) for all 30 countries included in the sample was obtained via the European Union Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency database. Also, the questionnaire sent to Jean Monnet professors was slightly different from the one targeting the European Studies lecturers from SENT, as it included a small section devoted to the use of social networks for teaching purposes.

[10] The web-based survey was administered via the Unipark website, which provides an online research tool that sends a personal email invitation to all the survey participants and automatically exports the collected data in a format suitable for statistical analysis. Survey respondents were asked to provide information about their teaching method for at least one of the courses they had taught covering European Studies.

The second part of the survey was dedicated to the lecturer's course and contained questions on the composition and characteristics of the class (discipline, course degree, attendance, teaching language, course length, presence of a tutor's service, number of hours per week, average number of students, number of non-native language students, and number of working or part-time students). Finally, in the third part of the questionnaire we gathered information on the pedagogy used, with a particular focus on teaching methods and tools and their innovativeness. More specifically, we collected information on the basic features of the course taught, the teaching methods, the teaching tools and the methodological approach used by lecturers, the presence of possible constraints in the application of teaching methods, and the availability and type of students' assessment.

Teaching methods are the pedagogical principles and activities used by teachers to promote active learning, as described above. The following innovative teaching methods (Hannan and Silver 2000) were identified:

- Teamwork;
- Fieldwork;
- Special expert sessions;
- Student-led discover;
- Simulation and learning games;[11]
- Project-based learning;[12]
- Work-based learning, i.e. use of workplace skills or/and collaboration with companies;
- Role-plays;[13]
- Distance learning;
- Peer tutoring;[14]
- Internships and student's volunteering;
- Exchange programmes.

Teaching tools are devices that can be used by lecturers for delivering a course. Instructors were asked to list the tools they used in their lectures (Hannan and Silver 2000; Backer and Watts 2001). Answers ranged from the most traditional devices, such as textbooks, blackboard, transparencies, and presentations with

[11] Often based on software, a simulation is a dynamic artificial environment where certain conditions are created to study or experience something that (might) exist in reality. Examples are computer simulations or management games. On the other hand, learning games are used to learn about a given subject or to gain certain skills through play: Examples are strategic games or Jeopardy-like games, which test knowledge via recall and application.

[12] Project-based learning is based on situations where students learn through a guided exploration of a research problem, under the supervision of a tutor.

[13] In role-plays participants play roles and are supposed to solve problems in the context of a dynamic social framework; an example is represented by EuMUN, the European Model on United Nations.

[14] In peer tutoring, a student, under the supervision of a professor acting as peer tutor, teaches to other students of the same grade level.

overhead projector (i.e. PowerPoint presentations), to the most innovative ones, such as movies, Internet, educational software, e-learning,[15] and social networks (i.e. Facebook and Twitter).

7.8 Results

In the remaining part of this chapter, we will provide a general overview of the results of the survey, with specific reference to the demographic characteristics and personal background of the European Studies lecturers who participated in the study, their course profiles, the teaching methods and teaching tools they used, and the presence of students' assessment.

7.8.1 Demographic Characteristics and Personal Background of Respondents

In our sample, 60 % of lecturers active in European Studies were male and 40 % female. The average age was 53 years old, with a peak between 55 and 65 years old. As for their academic position, most were tenured professors (70 %), followed by contract professors (12 %) and untenured professors (7 %); individuals with other academic positions such as researchers and teaching assistants completed our sample (11 %).

The predominance of tenured professors as teachers of EU courses might have two very different implications as to the level of innovation adopted in teaching. On the one hand, tenured professors could be less likely to enact teaching innovations due to their status, which guarantees them both academic freedom and a lifelong contract with the university, making the continuation of their employment independent of their (in)activity in the classroom. As there are no incentives for them to improve their teaching curriculum, tenured professors may be more reluctant to change the teaching methods and tools they have been using for a long time. On the other hand, tenured professors have lots of experience in teaching and have been with the university quite a while. In our sample, this is confirmed by the high levels of teaching experience of our respondents: almost 50 % of lecturers had more than 10 years of teaching experience, followed by professors with 6–10 and 3–5 years of teaching experience (21 % each), while professors with less than 2 years of teaching experience were the minority (less than 10 %). This may lead us to expect that

[15]E-learning stands for the use of information and communication technologies to enable virtual learning environments, such as online lecture notes, virtual classrooms, online discussion forums, video conferencing, and media files.

tenured professors are more innovative in the application of teaching methods and tools as, due to their long-term relationship with their institution, they have the financial support and the possibility to experiment with new teaching methodologies without being penalised in terms of their employment contract. This freedom is not enjoyed by untenured and contract professors, whose students' negative feedback might lead to termination of their academic or teaching contract, thus prompting them to adopt a more conservative behaviour when it comes to the implementation of innovative teaching methodologies.

There may be other reasons typical of the EU academic environment which support the hypothesis that tenured or more experienced professors are more inclined to use innovative teaching tools. In most EU member states, investing intensively in teaching is not interesting for young researchers, who are on tenure track or are contract-based, considering that their performance will be evaluated especially on the robustness of their research record. In some countries – such as Italy – young researchers have even law provisions shielding them from teaching, as it is assumed they should dedicate their time to academic research. Also in EU countries young researchers are not usually involved in the administrative and organisational choices within their school. This means that decisions relating to teaching processes and standards are made by senior department members. Considering the large amount of time and energy which is needed in order to organise modules and courses using innovative teaching tools, it is more than normal that only academics who know they will be working for the same school for years will invest in quality teaching. In fact, innovative teaching will be more important for the school's reputation than for the researchers' curriculum. Finally, we should add that the choice of innovative practices in teaching is often the result of the school policy, as it requires some basic and sometimes expensive tools, such as computers, databases, electronic devices, knowledgeable administrative personnel, and special rooms. This means that the decision to be innovative is not only individual but also part of the general policy of the school with regard to students' job placement.

The relationship between professors' status and experience and their usage of innovative teaching methods has been the focus of another chapter of this book (Fonti and Stevancevic 2014), where the authors found a negative relationship between these two variables.

7.8.2 Course Profile

European Studies courses are taught across a variety of disciplines, as Fig. 7.1 shows. According to our survey the majority of the courses taught on the EU are in the fields of EU Interdisciplinary Studies and EU Legal Studies (24 % each), followed by EU Political and Administrative Studies and EU Economics Studies (19 % each). Other disciplines, such as EU International Relations Studies, EU Historical Studies and EU Intercultural Studies are less represented, although some of them (especially EU International Relation Studies) have shown increasing diffusion in recent years.

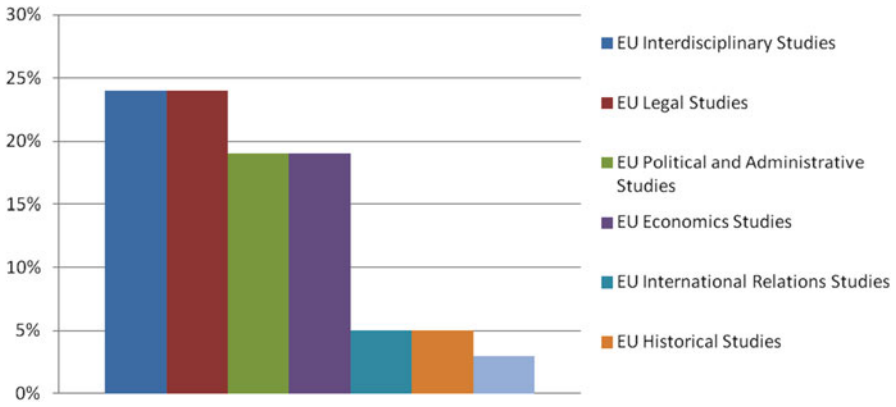

Fig. 7.1 European Studies courses by academic discipline

As for the type of degrees in which classes on the EU are taught, in our sample degrees in political science offer the most European Studies courses (30 %), followed by economics degrees (25 %) and law degrees (22 %). The disciplines offering the smallest number of EU courses are history and social and cultural studies. As for the level at which these courses are taught, almost half (49 %) are taught at master's level, followed closely by the undergraduate level (44 %); only a few are offered at the doctoral level (7 %). Course attendance was mandatory for 61 % of the European Studies courses, a result which indicates the importance of students' class participation and that might signal lecturers' preference towards a more innovative pedagogy which privileges a more active involvement of students. Finally, more than two-thirds of the courses were not curricular, meaning they were not dictated by the national legislation for obtaining bachelor, master or doctoral degrees, and that their presence reflected the free choice of higher educational institutions.

Most of the classes dealing with the EU (67 %) were taught using the official language spoken in the country where the course was offered (official state language), even though the use of English is largely widespread across Europe, covering about one-third of the European Studies classes. Figure 7.2 shows the use of either English or the official state language for European Studies courses, in each of the countries included in the sample (ordered by the % of use of English in each country).[16] As shown in this figure, in the Netherlands almost all European Studies courses were taught in English (96 %), followed by Turkey, Belgium, and Portugal, where a large majority of these classes were conducted in English (60 % or more), and finally by Austria, Norway and the Czech Republic, where this was true for about half of such classes. On the other hand, in countries such as Italy, Romania,

[16]As English is the official language of both the United Kingdom and Ireland, we excluded these two countries from this representation.

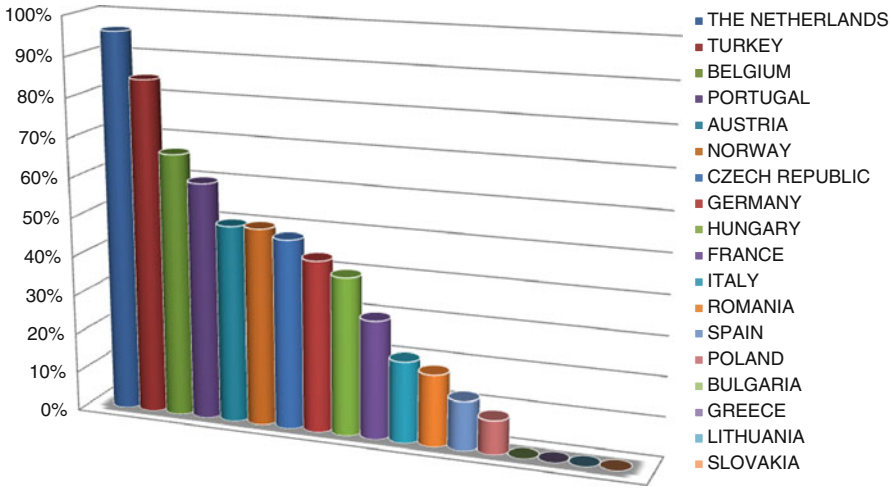

Fig. 7.2 Use of English to teach European Studies courses in the different member states

Spain, and Poland, the official state language was by far preferred in English in teaching about the EU, while in Bulgaria, Greece, Lithuania and Slovakia, no such classes were conducted in English.

Whereas the widespread use of English as a teaching language for European Studies courses in countries such as the Netherlands and Belgium might be expected, the fact that more than 80 % of Turkish European Studies courses are taught in English may come as a surprise. However, since 1959 Turkey has attempted to become an EU member and, while its candidature has been reviewed several times, it has yet to succeed in this attempt. Despite this, it has introduced many innovations in various sectors, including education, to fit better with the European system (Kilimci 2009): the presence of European Studies courses and the prominent use of English for teaching such classes is further evidence of such efforts.

The majority of European Studies courses had an average length between 21 and 50 h (63 %), with more than 20 % of such courses being even longer (between 51 and 100 h of lectures). These results show that professors and students invest a significant amount of time in teaching and learning about the EU. Most of these classes were taught with a frequency of either three to four hours per week (41 %) or one to two hours per week (36 %). Both these situations seem to represent a well-balanced workload for students and professors.

As for size, the majority of European Studies courses were taught in classes with more than 30 students (57 %) or in medium-sized classes, numbering between 15 and 30 students (31 %); only a small portion of courses were held in smaller classes, with an average number of students ranging from 5 to 15 students (12 %). The impact of class size on the quality of teaching is important, and previous studies (Hattie 2005) have shown that in large classes (between 30 and 80 students) rigid forms of

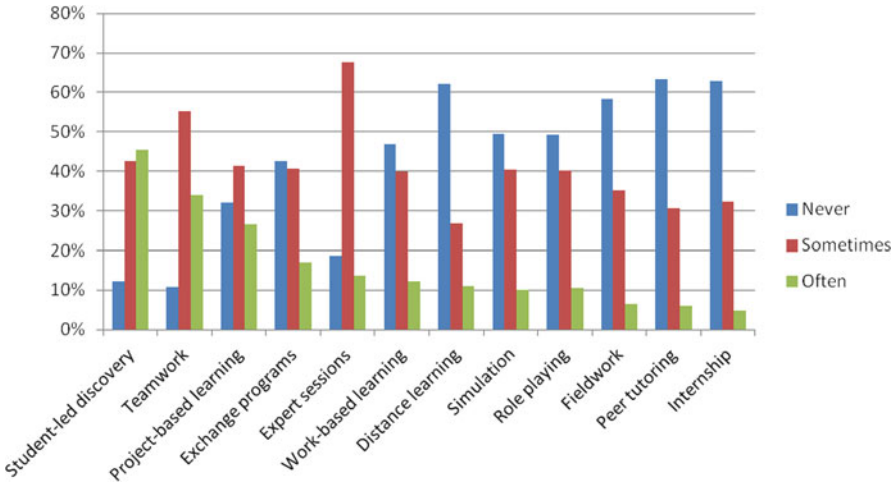

Fig. 7.3 Frequency of use of different teaching methods in European Studies courses

discipline are implemented, with little or no possibility of deviance, while in smaller classes (up to 30 students) the quality of teaching increases, due to the possibility of grouping of students which encourages peer interaction and allows to take into consideration students' personal interests in specific topics. Hence, the predominance of larger classes is somewhat disappointing, as it is traditionally associated with a lower likelihood to implement teaching innovations.

Finally, the last aspect pertaining to the course profile had to do with students' characteristics. Our data show that less than 10 % of students attending European Studies courses were non-native speakers, while working students were present in more than 57 % of the classes. This is consistent with the fact that half the courses related to the EU are taught at the graduate level (49 %), where combining work and study is less problematic than at the bachelor level. Such relevant number of graduate courses might be partly due to the positive trend of part-time graduate programmes.

7.8.3 Teaching Methods

The third part of our questionnaire included the most interesting variables we collected for our purposes, assessing the degree to which different teaching methods and teaching tools were used in European Studies classes. In order to assess lecturers' innovativeness, we asked them the frequency – the options were "never", "sometimes", or "often" – with which they used different types of innovative teaching methods (Hannan and Silver 2000). Figure 7.3 provides a summary of the results, with the various teaching methods ordered in decreasing order by how often they have been used. From the figure we can see that student-led discovery, teamwork, and project-based learning were the most popular teaching methods, being used

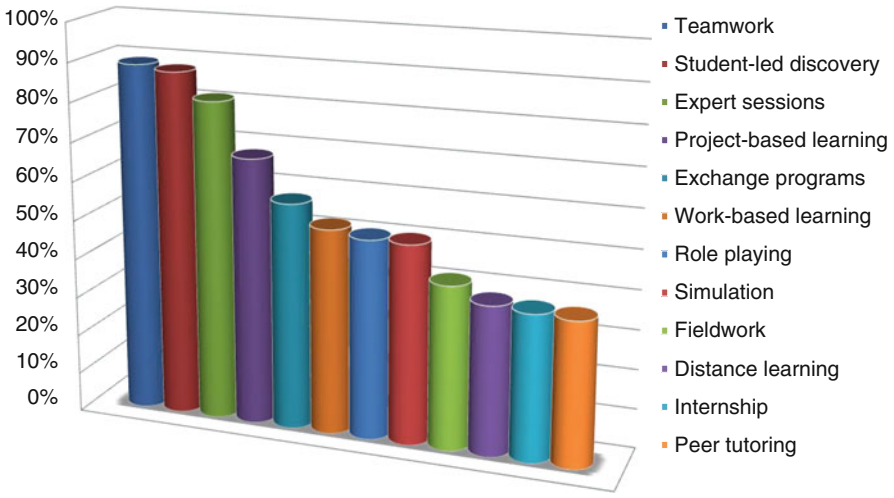

Fig. 7.4 Frequency of use of different teaching methods (at least "sometimes") in European Studies courses

"often" in more than 20 % of the classes. However, we can also see that the vast majority of innovative teaching methods were not used a lot (i.e. "often"), as only student-led discovery was used "often" in 40 % of the cases, while nine out of the twelve innovative methods we had identified were used "often" in less than 20 % of the cases. This leaves a large margin of improvement with regard to a widespread enactment of innovative teaching methods in European Studies classes.

Figure 7.4 highlights how much a given teaching method had been used either "sometimes" or "often" by lecturers, thus providing a different reading key of the usage of innovative teaching methods. Such representation is useful for possible interventions, as it allows us to identify which innovative teaching methods have the highest margin of improvement as to their use in European Studies classes. From this figure, we can see that the situation is not so dire, once we consider at least the introduction of a certain teaching method in such classes. In fact, we found a widespread use of student-led discovery and teamwork (as they were used at least "sometimes" in about 90 % of the classes), while expert sessions and project-based learning showed strong diffusion (as they had been used at least "sometimes" in 81 and 68 % of the European Studies classes, respectively). Therefore, rather than the introduction of pedagogical innovations, European Studies classes might need a more systematic use of innovative methods that, to a different extent, are already in use in such classes. However, a few of these methods are still clearly lagging behind: specifically, fieldwork, distance learning, internship, and peer tutoring were used the least – in less than 42 % of the classes. Obviously, additional efforts need to be placed to favour the introduction and diffusion of these specific teaching methods in European Studies classes.

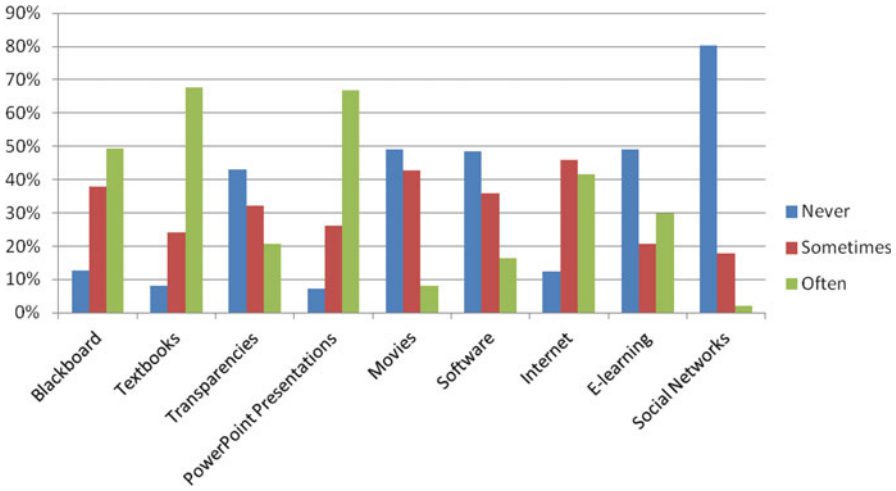

Fig. 7.5 Frequency of use of different teaching tools in European Studies courses

7.8.4 Teaching Tools

To verify the extent to which lecturers had been innovative in the delivery of European Studies courses, we asked them to identify how frequently they had been using different teaching tools. We employed the same three-point scale used to assess the innovativeness of teaching methodologies, where answers could take either the "never", "sometimes" or "often" value. Options ranged from very traditional (such as textbooks and blackboard) to highly innovative tools (such as the Internet or e-learning). Figure 7.5 summarises our results, going from the most traditional to the most innovative teaching tool. Lecturers were still privileging traditional teaching tools, with blackboard, textbooks and PowerPoint presentations being the most diffused, as they were used "often" in 50 % or more of the classes. Innovative teaching tools were lagging behind, with Internet used "often" in at least 40 % of our sample and e-learning in about 30 %. Clearly, this situation calls for strong actions aimed at incentivising a more diffused usage of the more innovative teaching tools – such as educational software, movies, and social networks – in European Studies classes.

Similarly to what we did for teaching methods, Fig. 7.6 provides a different reading key of the state of teaching tools in European Studies courses, by graphically representing the percentage of classes in which the various teaching tools were used at least "sometimes". However, differently from the teaching methods case, this representation does not improve much the situation as to the use of teaching tools in European Studies courses, confirming that the most innovative ones had been at least introduced only in half of the classes included in the sample (the one exception

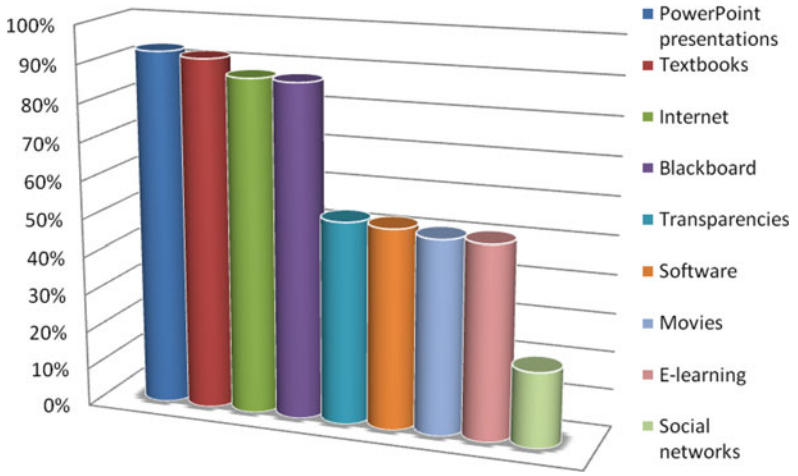

Fig. 7.6 Frequency of use of different teaching tools (at least "sometimes") in European Studies courses

being the Internet, which was used in 87 % of the classes). Hence, actions promoting more usage of innovative teaching tools already implemented in European Studies courses should be paired with initiatives aimed at introducing them for the first time.

We also verified whether there could have been obstacles that prevented lecturers from applying their preferred teaching methods and tools. The vast majority of the lecturers (87 %) did not encounter any problems in implementing teaching methods and tools, while a few (13 %) ran into problems mainly associated to scheduling constraints. These results confirm that lecturers were not constrained in the methods and tools they chose to deliver their classes, thus providing further validation for the distributions highlighted above (see Figs. 7.3 and 7.5). Additionally, this is a significant result as it underlines the freedom of professors in planning their activity and illustrates the good organisational framework of European universities.

7.8.5 Students' Assessment

The effectiveness of different teaching methods and tools can be also observed via students' assessments. In our survey, student assessment was measured through course failure rates, possibility to retake an exam, feedback on students' performance and students' evaluations on the course. Course delivery seemed to be quite effective, as a large majority of the lecturers (83 %) reported an average course failure rate lower than 20 %. Furthermore, almost all professors (92 %) provided students with feedback on their performance, mainly as periodical office hours (53 %) or by allowing inspection of examination records on students' requests (17 %). The widespread practice of providing feedback to students is a clear sign

of the developmental nature of the European Studies courses and an indication of the innovativeness of their design. Finally, students were allowed to evaluate the course and the professor in almost all courses (90 %). In these cases, half of the professors received feedback results from their institution right after the end of the course (52 %), whereas one-third (33 %) received it much later; only a small minority (16 %) did not receive any kind of feedback, either because the student evaluations were not taken into consideration by the university or were regarded as useless for the lecturers. The widespread presence of student feedback is also a positive sign, as it allows lecturers to verify the effectiveness of the teaching methods and tools they selected for the class and, if needed, to make the necessary adjustments for future courses.

7.9 Conclusions

The goal of this chapter was to investigate the demographic characteristics and personal background of European Studies lecturers active in the European higher education area, the features of their classes, and their usage of different teaching methodologies and tools. According to our sample, teaching in European Studies relies mostly on tenured professors, who have lots of experience on the subject. As for class features, courses on the EU seem to reflect the typical European Studies classes taught in other disciplines: the majority of courses are large, with more than 30 students (57 %), or of medium size (with 15–30 students). While the predominance of large classes is somewhat disappointing, as it is normally associated with a lower likelihood to implement teaching innovations, results from the Chapter 8 in this volume (Fonti and Stevancevic 2014) however show that contrary to what one may expect, class size is positively correlated with at least two different innovative teaching methods (i.e. the use of internships and distance learning).

Student-led discovery, teamwork, and project-based learning were the most popular innovative teaching methods, as they were used "often" by at least 20 % of the lecturers in the sample. However, the vast majority of such methods were not used a lot, as nine out of the twelve of those we identified were used "often" by less than 20 % of the sample. This leaves a large margin of improvement with regard to a diffused enactment of innovative teaching methods in European Studies classes. However, if we consider the extent to which innovative methodologies had been at least tried by lecturers (i.e. used at least "sometimes"), the status of innovative teaching methods emerges as less bleak. In fact, we found a widespread introduction of student-led discovery and teamwork (as they were used at least "sometimes" in about 90 % of the classes), while expert sessions and project-based learning also showed strong a strong presence (as they had been used at least "sometimes" in 81 and 68 % of the European Studies classes, respectively). Therefore, rather than the introduction of pedagogical innovations, European Studies classes might need a more systematic use of innovative methods that, to a different degree, are already in use in such classes. However, a few such methods are still clearly lagging behind: specifically, fieldwork, distance learning, internship, and peer tutoring were used

the least (in less than 42 % of the classes). Obviously, additional efforts need to be placed to favour the introduction and diffusion of these latter teaching methods.

Finally, our research confirms that the use of innovative teaching tools is lagging behind, as can be seen by the limited extent to which innovative teaching tools have been introduced – i.e. used either "sometimes" or "often" – in the context of European Studies classes. Clearly, this situation calls for strong actions aimed at incentivising a more diffused adoption of the more innovative teaching tools – such as educational software, movies, and social networks – in such classes.

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Chapter 8
Innovativeness in Teaching European Studies: An Empirical Investigation

Fabio Fonti and Gordana Stevancevic

8.1 Introduction

The goal of this chapter is to empirically analyse the results of an international research effort aiming at better understanding how European Studies are taught across the European Union (EU). The scale of the study – which is detailed in the previous chapter of this book (Baroncelli et al. 2013) – is reflected by the fact that more than 300 professors and researchers active in teaching European Studies at different degree levels and in various disciplines across Europe have taken part in a web-based survey aimed at understanding their teaching methods as well as their effectiveness. In this chapter, we tried to tease out factors which are associated with particularly innovative methods used in teaching these classes, focusing on three of these innovative methods: the use of internships, distance learning, and exchange programmes. While our use of statistical techniques might differentiate this work from the other contributions to this book, this is also a reflection of the multidisciplinary nature of this endeavour.

In particular, our goal was to investigate whether certain lecturers' characteristics – such as being Jean Monnet scholars, having a more stable (i.e. tenured) academic position, or being more experienced – and class features – the presence of a students' evaluation system and the size of the class – correlated with being more innovative in teaching European Studies. Results partially support our hypotheses across the

The authors benefitted from feedback obtained at the Twelfth Biennial International Conference of the European Union Studies Association (EUSA), Boston, MA, March 3–5, 2011. All errors remain our own.

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_8, © Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2014

three innovative teaching methods – with lecturers' experience being the only correlate holding across the different methods – while the hypothesised role for Jean Monnet status and class size was supported for two out of three methods. These findings therefore provide some back up for our initial intuitions while at the same time highlight the need for a more nuanced understanding of the possible correlates of innovation in teaching European Studies.

In the rest of the chapter, we will first highlight the importance of innovation in teaching European Studies and its possible spillover effect on university teaching at large. Then we will advance our hypotheses about lecturers' and class' correlates of innovation in teaching methods. After illustrating our data, the statistical methodology, and the results of our analysis, we will close the chapter by discussing the implications of our findings, as well as possible fruitful directions for future research.

8.2 Innovative Teaching Methods

8.2.1 The Role and Importance of Innovation in Teaching

The importance of innovation in teaching goes hand in hand with the need of the EU to make itself more competitive towards its main competitors, i.e. USA, China, and Japan, as requested by the Lisbon Strategy (Gornitzka 2010; Pépin 2011). Lifelong learning and the necessity to adapt to the new demands of a knowledge-based society have increased the pressure towards member states and, subsequently, towards their higher education institutions to abandon traditional teaching methods (the different types of principles that teachers use for their instruction activities) and move towards new ones, which leverage new multimedia technologies and utilise as well as develop problem-solving techniques. Traditional teaching methods, characterised by passive delivery of lecturers' knowledge to students, without involvement of class participants in an active, two-way discussion or with the possibility to receive any kind of feedback from them, do not satisfy the educational needs of a competitive society (Berrett 2012; Damodharan and Rengarajan 2007; Hannan and Silver 2000).

This shift is neither new nor specific to European countries. Since the late 1980s, research on pedagogy has suggested a shift from teaching content to what students learn. Active learning has thus become one of the most cited expressions in pedagogy studies in the USA, where literature suggests that students should be involved in class and do more than just listen: they must read, write, discuss, and engage with problem solving (Chickering and Gamson 1987). The move towards interactive pedagogical tools in US universities has recently received more attention from policymakers and university leaders in an attempt to contrast students' dropout rate, especially in subjects such as science, technology, engineering, and math. As a consequence, leading universities such as those in the University of Maryland system are now pushing towards non-orthodox systems of teaching, by

dividing vast classrooms into 50-student groups and 20-student seminars (de Vise 2012). This reform movement has also been encouraged by the rapid pace of development of technological tools which may be used in an academic environment which eliminate the need for personal contact with the lecturer (Dede 2009; Bjerede et al. 2010).

As a consequence, over the last decade, we have observed a transition from traditional to innovative teaching methods. Nowadays, many institutions are already moving from traditional teaching methods, configured as a one-way flow from professors to students (Berrett 2012) to a multimedia learning experience, characterised by an interactive learning process, where students are not passive learners anymore, but active participants (Damodharan and Rengarajan 2007; Hannan and Silver 2000). Innovative teaching can be seen as the enactment of active teaching processes where students are actively involved at every step of the teaching experience via the enactment of innovative teaching methods such as the use of teamwork, internships, simulation and learning games, project- and work-based learning, distance education, and exchange programmes (Hannan and Silver 2000).

In addition to better meeting the needs of a knowledge-based society, these changes in teaching methods have several positive spillover effects at the level of the individual academic institutions. Implementing innovation in teaching improves universities' responsiveness to the application of new technologies, which translates in an enhancement in universities' reputation and, consequently, in an increased ability to attract highly talented researchers and students (Laurillard 1993). However, not only professors and students might benefit from innovative teaching methods: such methods have positive repercussions also for the administrative personnel of these institutions, as much of their implementation requires the involvement of personnel also at the maintenance and administrative level, such as in the case of offering better library services (Laurillard 1993). Therefore, if innovative teaching methods are implemented properly, the entire university community will benefit and also society needs might end up taking advantage from these innovations.

8.2.2 The Relationship Between Lecturers and Class Characteristics and Teaching Innovation: Opening Up the Black Box

European Studies as academic discipline has not been immune from the wave of modernization that is transforming how education is delivered. However, while some teaching innovations have started to take root, there is still a long way to go. Initial data from a large-scale research project aiming at mapping the teaching methods and tools used in teaching EU classes in the EU member states show that the majority of lecturers have yet to routinely incorporate innovative methods and tools. In this sample (over 300 lecturers teaching about the EU within the context of different disciplines), 40 % of the respondents have never used in their classes eight of the 12 innovative

methods they were asked about,[1] while only 20 % of them claim to have often used three out of these 12 methods. With this much inroad to be made, starting to understand the correlates of teaching innovation in European Studies is critical both for scholars' better appreciation of how these processes emerge and, maybe even more importantly, for policymakers who are tasked with modernising the educational experience in the EU member states. The final goal is to capitalise on these findings and start aligning incentives with behaviours and features that may favour these types of innovations in teaching about the EU. Thus, this chapter represents an attempt to start understanding these factors via an empirical assessment of these relationships.

A good starting point to start understanding teaching innovation in European Studies may consist in focusing on the role lecturers and their classes play in this process. For this reason, we identified three different characteristics of lecturers we think are associated with the use of innovative teaching methods. First, we believe that there is a positive correlation between being a Jean Monnet lecturer and using more innovative methods. The Jean Monnet Programme was first launched in 1990, and its main goal is to promote teaching, research, and reflection in the field of European Integration Studies in higher education, that is, in Bachelor, Master, and Doctoral degrees (European Commission 2007). Currently, universities in more than 60 countries worldwide offer Jean Monnet courses as part of their teaching curricula (European Commission 2007).

The activities of professors and researchers selected by the programme are financially supported by the Jean Monnet teaching action. Such activities may take place in institutions which are either dealing with issues relating to European integration or are active at European level in the field of education and training (European Commission 2007). Individuals selected as Jean Monnet lecturers are likely to be endowed with superior skills and motivation when it comes to teaching and research, in line with the objectives of the Jean Monnet Programme which is "to stimulate excellence in teaching, research and reflection in European integration studies in higher education institutions" (European Commission 2007: 4), characteristics that we believe are important drivers in lecturers' resolve to continuously improve their teaching curriculum. Thanks to the programme; Jean Monnet scholars can also develop stronger personal and professional networks and – due to the reputation that comes with being part of the programme – also better relationships with other universities. These relational resources can be leveraged to create innovative learning opportunities for students; for example, Jean Monnet scholars could co-teach a course with colleagues at other institutions or find internship opportunities for their students in prestigious international organisations more easily. For these reasons, we expect a positive correlation between the status of Jean Monnet lecturers and the use of innovative teaching techniques. Hence:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive correlation between being Jean Monnet lecturers and using more innovative teaching methods.

[1]The innovative methods included in the survey were teamwork, fieldwork, special expert sessions, simulations and learning games, project-based learning, work-based learning, role plays, distance learning, peer tutoring, internships, students' volunteering, and exchange programmes (Baroncelli et al. 2013).

The academic position held by lecturers may also relate to their level of teaching innovation. Tenured professors enjoy a more stable professional situation which should give them more time to learn about and experiment with new teaching tools and methods, with the final goal of improving their teaching curriculum and providing an all-round better learning experience for their students. A more stable academic position that comes with tenure may also have positive repercussions on the lecturers' reputation as well as the number of financial resources available for developing their courses, which are additional reasons that would allow tenured professors to be more innovative in the application of innovative teaching methods than their untenured colleagues. Thus, we expect that:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive correlation between academic position and lecturers' teaching innovation.

Furthermore, we believe teaching experience is related to lecturers' level of teaching innovation. However, there are equally valid, conceptual reasons for expecting such a relationship to be either positive or negative. More specifically, it is reasonable to expect that more experienced lecturers will use more innovative teaching methods than their less experienced colleagues. The rationale here is that lecturers who have taught longer have both the established networks and the experience that are necessary to enact most teaching innovations in their curricula. For example, established networks are necessary to co-opt good organisations where lecturers' students may eventually hold internships. Also, experience in teaching a given subject is necessary to start a distance learning class. This is true whether the class is delivered by one lecturer – in which case, experience is necessary to put together a comprehensive package of resources, online and offline, which is as effective for class delivery as a more traditional format would be – or by a team of professors – where both experience in carving out one's niche and a good professional network to select complementary colleagues become of primary importance for the success of the initiative. However, an equally solid argument could be made for the presence of a negative link between teaching experience and innovativeness. Namely, lecturers with more teaching experience have taught for a longer time, which makes them more set in their teaching habits and, therefore, less likely to switch to newer methods. In addition to this inertial component, another factor related to teaching experience which might hinder innovation is lack of the necessary knowledge, either of specific innovative methods or of the ancillary competencies needed to implement several of them. Teachers with more experience are likely to be older, thus less aware of newer teaching methods, less competent in their implementation, as well as less skilled in newer technologies, which are necessary to implement at least some of the more advanced teaching methods, such as in the case of distance learning, whose implementation requires a certain level of knowledge of the Internet and the associated teleconferencing possibilities. Thus, we can posit two diametrical opposing sets of expectations regarding the link between teaching experience and the use of innovative teaching methods:

Hypothesis 3a: There is a positive correlation between teaching experience and level of innovation in the teaching methods used (i.e. lecturers with more experience tend to use more innovative teaching methods).

Hypothesis 3b: There is a negative correlation between teaching experience and level of innovation in the teaching methods used (i.e. lecturers with more experience tend to use less innovative teaching methods).

In addition to characteristics of the lecturer, features of the class being taught may also be associated with the innovation of the delivery methods. More specifically, the possibility for students to evaluate the professors' performance and the size of the class should be closely related to how innovatively a given class is taught.

A more active student involvement in assessing professors' performances could be linked with innovation of teaching methods for two distinct reasons, both linked to lecturers' motivation levels. First, the presence of student evaluations may act as a stimulus for lecturers to keep their class current; in order not to be penalised by their deans or academic supervisors due to bad evaluations, lecturers may be driven to incorporate various kinds of innovative elements into their curriculum. In this sense, students' evaluations act as a form of extrinsic motivator for lecturers to use innovative methods (Ryan and Deci 2000). Student assessments can also boost lecturers' intrinsic motivation, as the presence of feedback from students can elicit lecturers' critical psychological states which are conducive to more intrinsic motivation to perform their job (Hackman and Oldham 1976). Finally, the possibility for students to provide evaluations of their professors' performance could indicate universities' commitment to excellence in teaching, an additional reason why the presence of this option should be correlated with more innovative teaching methods on part of the lecturers engaged in these classrooms. Thus, we expect that:

Hypothesis 4: The presence of students' evaluation is positively associated with lecturers' levels of teaching innovation.

Finally, an additional feature of European Studies class we assume to be correlated with teaching innovation is size. However, things are not as clear-cut when it comes to the relationship between class size and innovative teaching methods. On one hand, one could reasonably expect that smaller classes may be more conducive to the introduction of innovative methods, as the flexibility and closeness characterising them allow a greater degree of experimentation. As the introduction of new teaching methods may be plagued by problems requiring real-time adjustments – for example, in the case of distance learning – such coordination problems could be much more easily overcome in smaller settings, where obtaining the cooperation of the various class participants is likely to be much easier than in larger groups. On the other hand, larger classes afford the benefit of scale, which justifies the more important investments often needed to implement some of these teaching innovations – such as in the case of distance learning. Furthermore, taking on an international experience – as the one entailed in innovative methods like international internships or exchange programmes – is not something that everybody is willing to do. Larger classes are simply more likely to have enough people interested to try these

programmes, who can then represent role models after whom other people in the class could shape their *behaviour*. Thus, we posit two opposite sets of expectations regarding the relationship between class size and teaching innovativeness:

Hypothesis 5a: Class size is negatively correlated with the innovation of teaching use of innovative teaching methods (i.e. we expect to find more innovative teaching in smaller classes).

Hypothesis 5b: Class size is positively correlated with the use of innovative teaching methods (i.e. we expect to find more innovative teaching in larger classes).

8.3 Methodology

8.3.1 Data

Our data were collected as part of an international study aimed at mapping how European Studies classes are taught across EU member states. Between 2009 and 2010, we contacted lecturers engaged in teaching classes about the EU at the undergraduate and graduate levels across several different disciplines, including Economics, History, Intercultural Dialogue Studies, Interdisciplinary Studies, Legal Studies, Political and Administrative Studies, and International Relations Studies. Potential participants in the research project were contacted using two different methods, namely by posting an invitation on the Thematic Network of European Studies (SENT) website and by sending personal e-mail invitations to Jean Monnet lecturers engaged in teaching classes about the EU. SENT is a project cofinanced by the EU, whose main goal consists in mapping European Studies in order to understand their development across different disciplines and countries. SENT brings together 66 partners from EU member states, as well as candidate and associated countries. These invitations yielded data for 355 lecturers in European Studies (151 SENT members lecturers and 204 Jean Monnet lecturers) from the 27 EU member states as well as three non-EU member states (Iceland, Norway, and Turkey), which represent our sample. Different countries ended up with a slightly different representation in the final sample, with Italy, Spain, Poland, the United Kingdom, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, and Germany having a somewhat higher representation – all above 7 % – than the rest of the countries – each one of which accounted for less than 5 % of the final sample.

Respondents were asked to provide information about their teaching methods for one of the courses they had taught in European Studies. We used the work of Backer and Watts (1998, 2001; Backer 2000), which focused on illustrating the teaching process and innovative teaching methods – such as simulations, experiments, and cooperative learning, among others – used to teach Economics in US undergraduate schools as theoretical backbone to build our survey. The actual questionnaire was divided in three main parts. In the first part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to provide some general personal information as well as information about

their academic experience. In the second part of the questionnaire, we collected more information about the European Studies classes they taught, such as – among others – course discipline, course degree, course level, course attendance, average number of students per class, and course length. Finally, in the third part of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to illustrate the methodological approaches they used in teaching EU classes, with a particular focus on teaching methods.[2] This part was the most critical for our purpose of assessing innovation in teaching European Studies: here, we asked about the basic features of the course, the teaching methods and teaching tools used, the methodological approach, the use of interdisciplinarity, the class' teaching profile, possible constraints concerning the application of the selected teaching methods, the modalities of how the students were assessed, and the presence of a student evaluation system focused on assessing the lecturer's performance.

8.3.2 Dependent Variables

We tested our hypotheses about innovation of teaching methods in European Studies focusing on three different teaching methods: internships, distance learning, and exchange programmes. We chose innovative teaching methods that were either moderately or least used in classes dealing with the EU, as their implementation is most likely to benefit from our findings. As reported By Baroncelli and her colleagues (Baroncelli et al. 2013), exchange programmes were among the moderately used innovative teaching methods, while internships and distance learning were among the least used. Additionally, these methods are particularly relevant for more substantial reasons, such as their connection to enhanced mobility in the EU (exchange programmes and, in part, internships), their implications for the job market (internships), and the use of information technology tools (distance learning).

These three teaching methods still have to become widely used in European Studies, mimicking the overall pattern we mapped in our research and justifying the choice to investigate the correlates of their adoption. More specifically, Fig. 8.1 shows the diffusion of internships, distance learning, and exchange programmes across our sample. Such numbers reflect the limited diffusion of innovative teaching methods in European Studies classes, as 60 % of the respondents have never used internships or distance learning while 40 % has never turned to exchange programmes.

Additional information about these methods could be useful to provide a more contextualised understanding of what these innovative teaching methods might mean within the context of European Studies classes. Internships can be defined as

[2]For the complete description of the content of the questionnaire used in the research project, see Baroncelli et al. 2013.

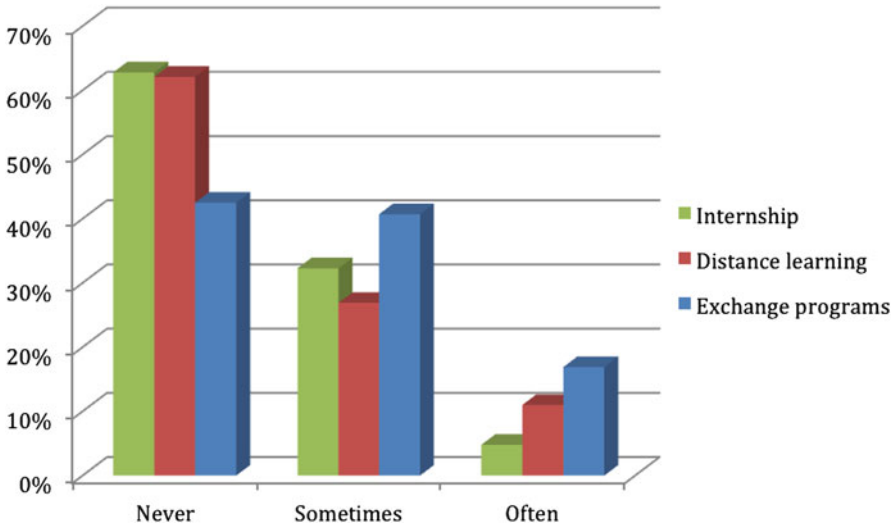

Fig. 8.1 Use of innovative teaching methods in our sample

students' working activities, which are strongly monitored by a company tutor (van't Klooster et al. 2008). Such practice can be considered an innovative way to transfer practical working knowledge to students, which they can use when entering the job market (Bainbridge et al. 2004). In this sense, internships are particularly helpful for Bachelor and Master students who lack actual work experience, as they allow them to get closer to the real working life, to build experience regarding everyday work challenges, and to socialise with their potential future working environment (van't Klooster et al. 2008). In addition, internship programmes taking place in a different country or even continent from that of the participating student enable students to learn and respect cultural diversity and customs and – particularly in Europe – to consolidate the European Area of Higher Education (European Commission 2010; van't Klooster et al. 2008; Kristensen 2004). In Europe, the importance of internships – also known as job training – has increased exponentially after the Bologna Declaration of 1999: as the European Higher Education Area decided to encourage and promote cooperation between universities and companies with the goal to create highly educated individuals and increase the international competitiveness of the EU mobility, especially with access to study and training opportunities (European Commission 2010), many countries introduced compulsory internship programmes in their Bachelor and Master degree programmes. The role of internships – especially of the international ones – received an additional boost in the frame of the Lifelong Learning Programme. The European Commission established the ERASMUS Student Mobility Programme, which includes the ERASMUS Placement, and the Leonardo da Vinci Programme, organised in order to enhance mobility in Europe and increase the chances for students to adapt to the changing environment of the EU labour market (European Commission

2008a, b). This programme allows students to undertake an internship abroad which lasts from three to 12 months, in order to improve their language skills, acquire work experience, and get exposed to new cultures.

Distance learning can be described as a process in "which a significant proportion of the teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and/or time from the learner" (Perraton 2000: 4). This teaching method represents a radical departure from the in-class, location-dependent, traditional teaching system. These and other differences are made even more salient if one analyses the five different elements that characterise distance learning (Keegan 1986)[3]:

- Permanent separation of lecturer and student for the whole length of the learning process. Distance learning does not provide any face-to-face communication between lecturer and student, which distinguishes it from other traditional teaching methods;
- Planning activity of the course, preparation of learning materials, and provision of student services supported by an educational organisation. This element distinguishes distance learning from private and self-teaching programmes;
- Teaching activity supported by the use of technical media, such as print, audio, and video contents. The goal of these media is to link lecturer and students and to carry the content of the course;
- Provision of two-way communication, which allows students to interact with the lecturer in the form of a dialogue. This factor distinguishes distance learning from the use of other types of technology in education;
- Absence of learning groups for the entire length of the course. Students approach the learning process as individuals and not as part of a group, although occasional meetings for didactic and/or socialisation purposes might occur;

Since distance learning relies heavily on information technology, it is crucial that lecturers and students master its fundamentals. Distance learning relies on technology, especially for the use of "Internet-based learning centres, online research databases, email exchanges between lecturers and students" (Becker 2004: 8) and, more recently, of videoconferencing. Of course, in addition to the technological barrier there is also a financial one, as distance learning entails a relevant financial burden in terms of technological infrastructure that has to be put in place by lecturers' educational organisations. While uploading course material online is basically cost-free, other aspects of distance learning such as setting up a videoconferencing centre may entail a substantial investment. Therefore, the role and financial resources of the educational institution offering the service have to be taken into consideration. On the other hand, a major advantage of these kinds of courses is that students can access the course material – including recorded lectures – at their own pace and according to their schedule (Becker 2004).

[3]These five elements configure an ideal-type form of distance learning; however, in reality, they are often combined with some traditional teaching methods.

Finally, higher education exchange programmes usually allow a student to spend one semester during his/her education period at another university and therefore go hand in hand with the increase in mobility promoted by the EU (Papatsiba 2006; Teichler 2009). Since 1987, the EU member states have been participating in the ERASMUS programme: as the most prominent of the programmes promoting student exchanges, it has allowed more than 2.5 million students to participate in exchange programmes abroad (European Commission 2011). With a budget of € 3.1 billion for the time span 2007–2013, it allows more than 200,000 students to study and work all over Europe each year (European Commission 2011), funding the cooperation between higher education institutions across Europe. While the programme is primarily aimed at student exchanges, it also supports teachers and business staff willing to spend a period abroad for teaching or administrative purposes. An international experience enriches students both academically and professionally by improving their language and intercultural skills, their self-reliance, and their self-awareness. Students can participate only once in this exchange programme during their higher education studies.

From the operational point of view, we captured the extent to which each one of these three innovative teaching methods was used in European Studies classes by building three different variables – internships, distance learning, and exchange programmes – which use respondents' answers to questions asking them to indicate with which frequency, on a three-point scale (1 = never, 2 = sometimes, and 3 = often), they used each of these methods when teaching their class.

8.3.3 Independent Variables

Our independent variables were operationalised as follows. To capture whether lecturers were part of the Jean Monnet Programme, we used a variable called *Jean Monnet Status*, which was coded as 1 for professors and researchers who were part of the programme and 0 otherwise. We captured the academic position of the lecturers by differentiating between tenured or untenured professors (e.g. contract professors); hence, we built the variable *Academic Position*, which was coded as 1 for lecturers who had a tenured, permanent position at their university and 0 otherwise. We measured lecturers' teaching experience using the *Experience* variable, which was coded in four progressive categories, where 1 = up to 2 years, 2 = 3–5 years, 3 = 6–10 years, and 4 = more than 10 years of teaching experience. As for the class characteristics, the *Students' Evaluations* variable measured the presence (1) or absence (0) in the European Studies class of a system which allowed students to evaluate their lecturer, while *Class Size* assessed the number of students present in each class using three categories, where 1 represented small classes (up to 15 students), 2 stood for medium-sized classes (between 16 and 30 students), and 3 denoted large classes (with more than 30 students).

To make sure that we captured the true relationship between our independent and dependent variable of interest, we included several other variables in our

models – i.e. control variables – to control for additional factors that may also affect lecturers' level of teaching innovation. As the language in which the course was taught may be related to how innovative its delivery is – and especially to whether or not students are ready to take on international experiences such as internships or exchange programmes – we controlled for this factor using a *Course Language* (*English*) variable, which was coded as 1 if the course language was English and 0 otherwise (in practical terms, classes coded as 0 were taught in the official state language of the institution where the class was offered). As the level at which the course was taught could also relate to how innovatively it was delivered, we controlled for this possibility using the *Degree Level* variable, which was coded as 1 if the course was offered at the graduate level and 0 if it was instead offered at the bachelor level. Since how innovatively a course is delivered could also be related to intrinsic differences among the different European Studies disciplines to which the course pertains, we controlled for such a possibility by including dummies for each of such disciplines, that is, EU Historical Studies, EU Intercultural Studies, EU Interdisciplinary Studies, EU Legal Studies, EU Political and Administrative Studies, and EU International Relations Studies (keeping EU Economic Studies as our referent category). Finally, we considered potential differences in teaching innovation related to the geographic area where the class was taught by controlling for different country zones in our models. To do so, we divided respondents in four different geographic areas, namely, Northern, Southern, Eastern, and Central EU Countries, and included dummy variables to control for differences related to geographical distribution (here, our referent category was Northern EU countries). More specifically, we considered Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, and Sweden as Northern EU countries; Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and Turkey as Southern EU countries; Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Slovenia as Eastern EU countries; and finally Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Ireland, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom were considered as Central EU countries. We understand that some of these choices may seem arbitrary, especially in relation to countries that are bordering two different geographical macro-areas; thus, we experimented with different configurations of these four areas as to their member states, but our results were robust to such changes.

8.3.4 Analysis

As the dependent variables selected for our analysis – internship, distance learning, and exchange programmes – are ordinal variables with more than two response categories, we decided to use ordinal logistic regression models for our analysis (Lu 1999). The ordinal logistic regression model is an extension of the logistic regression model for dichotomous-dependent variables, allowing more than two ordered

response categories, which makes it more appropriate than the classical ordinary least square (OLS) method for this type of data (Lu 1999).

8.4 Results

Table 8.1 shows the correlation matrix for the variables included in our models. As we can see in the table, there is no major relationship between our dependent and independent variables, which removes the possibility of multicollinearity in our data. In fact, no correlation is higher than 0.350 (except for that between two dependent variables, internships and exchange programmes, which – at 0.460 – is slightly higher but not yet concerning).

Table 8.2 summarises the results from our three regression models – all significant at $p<0.001$ level – which examine the correlates of three different innovative teaching methods, i.e. internships (Model 1), distance learning (Model 2), and exchange programmes (Model 3). Jean Monnet lecturers were more likely to use two out of the three innovative teaching methods we analysed (internships, $p<0.001$, and exchange programmes, $p<0.001$), which provides partial support for Hypothesis 1. Academic position was associated only with the use of internship ($p<0.01$), but in a negative fashion – i.e. tenured professors were less likely to use internships in their European Studies classes – thus disconfirming Hypothesis 2. As for teaching experience, it was negatively associated with all three teaching methods (at $p<0.05$ with internships and exchange programmes and at $p<0.001$ with distance learning), thus disconfirming Hypothesis 3a while providing full support for Hypothesis 3b, i.e. that teachers with more experience are less likely to engage in innovations in their teaching methods, possibly due to inertia in their teaching habits and/or lack of expertise with the technology necessary to enact some of these innovations (such as in the case of distance learning, where we have the most significant of the negative effects in our sample). As for class characteristics, the presence of student evaluations had no effect on teaching innovation, thus disconfirming Hypothesis 4. As for class size, it was significantly and positively associated with both internships and distance learning (both at $p<0.05$), thus disconfirming Hypothesis 5a while providing partial support for Hypothesis 5b, indicating that larger classes make more use of these innovative teaching methods. While most control variables did not show a significant correlation with teaching innovations, an interesting observation could be made about the effect of language, since European Studies classes taught in English were less likely to resort to the use of exchange programmes. Such finding is somehow counterintuitive, as the use of English may indeed prepare students in these classes to better deal with some of the difficulties – at least with those language-related – of permanence abroad, which represent an inherent part of exchange programmes. In the discussion section, we will advance some possible explanations for why our findings diverge from the relationships we hypothesised, which may also open interesting avenues of research, with potential powerful implications for policymakers.

Table 8.1 Correlation matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Internships																		
2. Distance Learning	0.227																	
3. Exchange Programmes	0.460	0.143																
4. Jean Monnet Lecturers	0.340	0.140	0.315															
5. Academic Position	−0.209	−0.017	−0.174	−0.224														
6. Experience	−0.226	−0.234	−0.248	−0.210	0.170													
7. Students' Evaluation	−0.074	−0.023	−0.061	0.039	0.100	0.019												
8. Class Size	0.057	0.123	−0.047	−0.125	0.173	−0.009	0.044											
9. Course Language (English)	0.013	0.054	−0.079	0.136	0.032	0.030	0.102	−0.153										
10. Degree Level	−0.148	−0.121	−0.150	−0.181	0.042	0.256	−0.042	−0.145	0.101									
11. EU Historical Studies	−0.059	−0.015	−0.089	0.013	0.009	0.013	0.024	−0.099	−0.053	0.003								
12. EU Intercultural Studies	0.032	−0.092	−0.022	0.009	−0.042	−0.017	−0.019	−0.134	0.080	−0.042	−0.034							
13. EU Interdisciplinary Studies	0.059	0.000	0.087	0.305	−0.176	−0.034	−0.030	0.008	0.112	−0.089	−0.125	−0.087						
14. EU Legal Studies	0.064	−0.033	0.077	−0.127	0.055	0.065	−0.066	0.081	−0.198	−0.024	−0.121	−0.084	−0.312					
15. EU Political and Administrative Studies	0.134	0.053	0.090	0.115	−0.018	−0.252	0.053	−0.047	0.067	0.007	−0.105	−0.073	−0.271	−0.261				
16. EU International Relations Studies	−0.255	−0.033	−0.188	−0.199	0.099	0.075	−0.010	0.030	0.044	0.185	−0.054	−0.037	−0.139	−0.134	−0.116			
17. Central EU Countries	0.147	0.162	0.075	0.152	0.133	−0.019	0.045	−0.064	0.156	0.014	−0.046	0.039	−0.149	−0.080	0.342	0.023		
18. Eastern EU Countries	−0.094	−0.227	−0.056	−0.032	−0.238	0.041	−0.078	0.049	−0.112	0.122	−0.029	−0.045	0.116	−0.091	−0.102	−0.021	−0.412	
19. Southern EU Countries	−0.034	0.075	0.023	−0.097	0.096	−0.040	−0.009	0.036	−0.058	−0.153	0.030	0.021	0.002	0.205	−0.218	0.025	−0.506	−0.464

Table 8.2 Ordered logistic models predicting the use of innovative teaching methods

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Variables	Internships	Distance learning	Exchange programs
Jean Monnet Lecturers	1.511***	0.321	0.956***
	(0.343)	(0.293)	(0.276)
Academic Position	−1.046**	−0.209	−0.411
	(0.335)	(0.289)	(0.274)
Experience	−0.325*	−0.555***	−0.302*
	(0.157)	(0.143)	(0.129)
Students' Evaluation	−0.734	−0.314	−0.361
	(0.462)	(0.412)	(0.377)
Class Size	0.524*	0.467*	−0.160
	(0.204)	(0.182)	(0.172)
Course Language (English)	0.0526	0.281	−0.448*
	(0.301)	(0.281)	(0.258)
Degree Level	−0.102	−0.0769	−0.128
	(0.294)	(0.271)	(0.253)
EU Historical Studies	−0.468	−0.344	−0.902
	(0.628)	(0.613)	(0.564)
EU Intercultural Studies	0.406	−2.222**	−0.570
	(0.962)	(0.844)	(0.813)
EU Interdisciplinary Studies	−0.253	−0.626	−0.113
	(0.410)	(0.391)	(0.357)
EU Legal Studies	0.356	−0.724*	0.242
	(0.393)	(0.387)	(0.337)
EU Political and Administrative Studies	0.236	−0.846*	−0.0324
	(0.468)	(0.438)	(0.390)
EU International Relations Studies	−1.443**	−0.664	−1.056*
	(0.558)	(0.561)	(0.529)
Central EU Countries	0.694	0.923*	0.754
	(0.626)	(0.556)	(0.512)
Eastern EU Countries	−0.231	−0.532	0.343
	(0.600)	(0.530)	(0.500)
Southern EU Countries	0.0807	0.530	0.620
	(0.597)	(0.533)	(0.501)
Cut 1			
Constant	−2.608**	−3.173**	−2.267**
	(1.178)	(1.062)	(0.978)
Cut 2			
Constant	0.386	−1.338	−0.0311
	(1.155)	(1.046)	(0.969)
Observations (*N*)	307	311	308

Standard errors in parentheses
One-tailed tests, except for bidirectional hypotheses (two-tailed tests)
***$p<0.001$; **$p<0.01$; *$p<0.05$

8.5 Discussion and Directions for Further Research

In a globalised, knowledge-based society like the one we are living in now, traditional one-to-many, one-way, localised teaching models are quickly losing both their appeal and their effectiveness in favour of more innovative teaching methods. This may be even truer in the context of European Studies, given their cross-cultural, cross-national, and cross-disciplinary nature. However, initial results of our research show a scarce use of these innovative methods and tools in European Studies classes. For this reason, we set out to identify possible correlates of teaching innovation in this field, with the twofold goal of reaching a better understanding of what lies behind this gap and of providing some insight for policymakers who are tasked with promoting the use of these innovative practices.

Overall, our analysis confirmed several of our expectations, as expressed in our hypotheses. First, results show that Jean Monnet professors are more innovative than other lecturers. However, this innovation seems to be concentrated on the teaching methods involving physical mobility – internships and exchange programmes. This may reflect a positive bias towards sending students to a different institution, which may derive from the lecturers' own experience of physically going abroad through the Jean Monnet Programme as well as from their ability to leverage the professional network they developed in such a role – both in terms of academic and professional contacts – for possible internships and exchange locations. In addition, the status that comes with being Jean Monnet professors may also help to get access to more organisations as possible internship locations for the lecturers' students and to establish new – and possibly long term – relationships with other universities in order to promote themselves, the university in which they are teaching, and their students. Future studies should extend to other forms of teaching innovation, both in methods and in tools, to see whether the association between Jean Monnet status and innovation in teaching goes beyond a preference for physical mobility. They should also try to unpack the advantage that, when it comes to teaching innovation, seems to be associated with these lecturers by specifically examining whether the innovation of these professors comes from their higher levels of skills and motivation, their better-developed personal and professional network, their higher status, and/or the close collaboration they are able to spur between their home institutions and other universities, including – but not limited to – the one where they may be spending their time as Jean Monnet Programme participants.

Second, lecturers with more experience are less innovative when it comes to their teaching methods. This is the most robust of our findings, as it holds across all three different types of innovative teaching methods we focused on. One thing that our study does not allow to clarify is the mechanism that drives this result. There are two possible explanations. More experienced lecturers are more set in their ways when it comes to teaching and exhibit a particularly strong inertia that disallows change towards more innovative methods. Alternatively, more experienced lecturers might be less knowledgeable when it comes to the various innovative teaching

methods and tools that may be enacted or might feel less secure about their implementation, perhaps due to their limited information technology competencies which may be necessary for putting in place these teaching innovations. Future studies should try to resolve this dilemma to provide scholars with a better understanding of this relationship and policymakers with a more actionable agenda item when it comes to promoting innovation in teaching European Studies.

Third, larger classes tend to use more innovative teaching methods – namely, distance learning and internships, but not exchange programmes – than smaller ones. This is not a straightforward relation, since it might be expected that some types of innovations such as simulations, peer tutoring, and project-based learning are more likely to emerge in smaller classes (which led us to formulate an alternative hypothesis in this case). A possible explanation that may reconcile a positive role on innovation in teaching methods for both smaller and larger classes has to do with sequencing. That is, timing of the effect may be the key. Smaller classes may be functional to introduce teaching innovations: at this point, the familiar environment and the small numbers may be optimal for test-driving several new teaching methods. As the lecturer and the institution become more familiar with the new teaching methods, larger classes may instead afford economies of scale that make the implementation of new teaching methods economically sound. For example, a small class may be a great place where to test the introduction of distance learning, as the familiar environment and the close contact with the students allow for the quick resolution of possible problems as well as for creating a course that is closer to the students' needs. However, as the lecturer and the institution move past this "beta" phase, then larger classes present distinctive advantages over smaller ones, since setting up one or more distance learning courses as part of the institution's curricula requires significant amounts of time, organisational support from the university, financial resources, as well as technology expertise (Becker 2004), which from an economic point of view makes it unsustainable in the case of a restricted number of students. Interestingly, this sequencing pattern is the same that is observed in the introduction of innovative products by software developers who, similarly, initially rely on small numbers to work the bugs out of their product as well as to customise it to the need of the users. Then, once the product seems ready, they try to attract as many customers as possible in order to make it economically viable. While we do not have the data to test this relationship, future studies should consider looking at the likelihood of a class-size effect that changes depending on the stage of the life cycle – introductory vs. consolidated – of the innovative teaching method under consideration.

Results from our analysis also led us to the outright rejection of some of our hypotheses. A few considerations as to why this may have happened are in order, especially since they might open up new avenues for research as well as have possible important implications for policy makers. Our findings show that being tenured has a negative effect on at least one type of innovative teaching method, i.e. the use of internship. This goes against our expectations that the job security, higher status, and increased availability of financial resources that come with a tenured position may instead lead to the adoption of innovative teaching practices

by lecturers holding these positions. The negative relation between academic position and teaching innovation is a fact that, when taken jointly with the negative correlation between teaching experience and use of innovative teaching methods, points to a possible role that age might play in this process, with young, less experienced, untenured lecturers more likely to adopt teaching innovations, while older, more seasoned, tenured professors less likely to do so. Future studies should try to disentangle the net effect of age, experience, and academic position on teaching innovation. But, in the meantime, what can be done to address this issue? As the roles of academic position and teaching experience on teaching innovation may have similar roots, referring back to the considerations we made regarding the negative role of teaching experience we can identify two possible causes that need to be addressed. If the problem is one of lack of competencies to enact the teaching innovations, then it is a matter of time before things start to change (namely, as the "older guard" starts to retire, things will gradually improve). In the meantime, providing help with these competencies in the form of teaching assistants specifically tasked with overcoming technological issues could be a possible solution. If, on the other hand, the issue is one of inertia and getting set in one's teaching ways, then what might help is providing specific incentives for lecturers to adopt some of these innovative methods and tools, an initiative that, to our knowledge, has yet to find widespread application. In these cases, we believe that rather than grants to jump-start some of these initiatives, incentives that are closer to the needs of most professors, such as time blocked for research or teaching relief, might be more successful. These types of incentives could be effective even if the problem leading tenured professors not to engage in innovative teaching initiatives is one rooted in extrinsic motivation, such as if the stability afforded by tenure is the reason such lecturers decide not to engage in additional teaching activities.

The other hypothesis that did not find support was the one that linked students' evaluations to innovative teaching behaviours. The lack of such effect in our findings may be due to the fact that, in making this hypothesis, we assumed that the presence of evaluations could work by either boosting teachers' extrinsic motivation (via the threat of consequences in the case of bad evaluations) or enhancing their intrinsic motivation (via the timely feedback provided to the lecturers on their performance). However, if receiving a bad evaluation bears no consequences for lecturers, or if they do not receive their feedback in a timely manner, if at all, then the link between students' evaluations and more innovative teaching behaviours might dissolve. Future studies should verify the likelihood of these possible explanations for the lack of this effect; if confirmed, these results should represent a warning bell for administrators that students' assessments are an effective tool only to the extent they carry some consequences for and/or are provided with a developmental intent to the individuals being evaluated, and support changes to the evaluation system to incorporate such insights.

One final consideration emerging from our results is that talking of factors affecting teaching innovation in general may be misleading, and that instead we should work on theories focusing on which elements influence different types of innovative teaching methods and tools. That is, factors related to one type of

teaching innovation may be inconsequential for others, i.e. different drivers underlie different innovative pedagogical methods. This is already clear in our results, which, in summary, point to the following different effects of lecturers and class characteristics on the three different innovative teaching methods evaluated:

- Internships: lecturers who are part of the Jean Monnet Programme and teach larger classes are more likely to use internships in their classes, while those holding a tenured position and having more teaching experience are less likely to do so;
- Distance learning: lecturers who teach larger classes are more likely to engage in distance learning, while those who have more teaching experience are less likely to use this teaching method;
- Exchange programmes: Jean Monnet lecturers are more likely to use exchange programmes, while those who have more teaching experience are less likely to do so.

Obviously, further research is needed on factors affecting other types of innovative teaching, such as simulation and learning games, project and work-based learning, role plays, and peer tutoring, in order to confirm or dispel our findings.

Finally, like all research, our study has limitations. Two are specifically worth mentioning, especially in view of the research directions they may open up for future research on this topic. First, our study was cross-sectional. Future studies should have a longitudinal design to allow a better explication of the causality effect between innovation in teaching methods and its drivers. Second, since the setting of our study was restricted to European Studies classes, we were limited in our ability to tell what differentiates teaching innovation in these disciplines as compared to others. By broadening their scope, future studies might determine whether what it takes to be innovative in European Studies is different from what drives teaching innovation in other academic fields.

8.6 Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to start examining which characteristics of European Studies lecturers and classes correlate with teaching innovation, especially focusing on internships, distance learning, and exchange programmes. While Jean Monnet lecturers who teach larger classes seem to be more inclined to implement more innovative teaching methods – namely, internships, distance learning, and exchange programmes – there are still barriers to their implementation, mostly associated with the stability of professors' academic position and the amount of their teaching experience. A better understanding of the factors leading to teaching innovation may require different explanations focused on the enactment of specific teaching innovations. Our findings represent one of the first steps on the road to theoretically ground and empirically test a finer-grained theory of the drivers of teaching innovation in European Studies.

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Chapter 9
Linguistic Pluralism in European Studies

Stefania Baroncelli

9.1 Introduction

Multilingualism has become a central element of the European dimension, although not specific to it, as the importance of language skills derives from the general globalisation process which is taking place at world level and from the new economic and political order (Gropas and Triandafyllidou 2012: 145). However, the European dimension offers a particular perspective on this issue: the EU, protecting the cultural identity of the different member states, is multilingual by definition and should respect and promote the use of the different languages, i.e. language pluralism. Such an approach, which in the Higher Education area implies the use of different languages in university courses, has to be accommodated with the challenge deriving from the widespread use of English as a foreign language in teaching and research, whose role has been constantly gaining ground (Commission of the European Communities, High Level Group on Multilingualism 2007: 7; Ministère de la Culture et de la Communication 2010: 79). It is not by chance that the term "internationalisation" at university level has become often associated with the use of English in countries where English is not the domestic language (Maiworm and Waechter 2002: 80).

This is so because English-language-taught degree programmes can attract more international or foreign students and prepare domestic students for global markets. This, in turn, can boost new students and faculty recruitment, attract PhD candidates from abroad, and more in general, influence positively the external image of the university (Durieux 2001: 22). Finally we should not forget the financial benefits to the university deriving from more international students. English is also the most used language in research, especially in disciplines such as engineering, medicine,

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_9,

computer science, physics or mathematics. This situation, however, is less clear in social sciences and humanities, which are more strongly bound to language. Although the use of English in this case has more to do with the diffusion of research results in the worldwide academic community than with communicating with students, the use of English in classes as a lingua franca can have an impact also on teaching content, through the influence of textbooks, casebooks, exercise books and other teaching materials, and the standardised use of the technical language.

Is a mismatch identifiable between the pluralism of languages advocated by the EU at a theoretical level and the progression towards English as lingua franca in teaching? Are there other linguae francae which are being used in the EU? How has the principle of linguistic pluralism been applied in teaching? What kind of multilingualism has been promoting the EU, if any? We try to investigate this issue focusing on European Studies, i.e. studies especially dedicated to the role of the EU or, more generally, of Europe.

The chapter is composed of five parts. In sections two and three, we detect the principles of equality of languages and language pluralism, mainly through reference to EU legal and case law texts. In the fourth section, we identify the features of courses on European Studies from the point of view of linguistic pluralism making reference to the impact of the Jean Monnet Programme, on the basis of the results of our survey. The fifth section deals with language pluralism as applied by the different member states and with the role of the Jean Monnet Programme in promoting multilingualism in European Studies in the member states. Finally, in the sixth section, we focus on some specific disciplines whose role for linguistic pluralism has been deemed particularly interesting, either because they are more multilingual (EU Interdisciplinary Studies) or because they are lagging behind in the use of English as a teaching language (EU Legal Studies, EU Historical Studies and EU Economic Studies). This will enable us to make some conclusions on the concept of linguistic pluralism as applied in European Studies and, more in general, to evaluate the role of the EU in promoting multilingualism.

9.2 The Principle of Equality of Languages

It is almost a tautology to say that linguistic pluralism is part of the EU's essence. Built as a union of nation states, each one with its own language and identity, the EU cannot be but multilingual by definition. Linguistic pluralism is also linked to the supranational nature of the EU, formally an international organisation but with the vocation to become a federal union. The EU's development from a purely economic community to a full-fledged union, with a growing number of goals and objectives, has complicated the linguistic regime which had been adopted at the beginning. This has also been influenced by the enlargement process undertaken by the Union, passing from the six founding member states in 1958 to the current 28. In fact, this evolution has meant a passage from a regime with four initial official and working

languages – i.e. Dutch, French, German and Italian[1] (no English) – to a more complex one with 24 official and working languages,[2] and others which will be added as soon as new countries accede.

This regime is based on the principle of "equality of languages", which means that all languages of the EU have equal status, and is consonant with the principle of non-discrimination by nationality, which forms the cornerstone of the European constitutional principles. We should say, however, that it is valid more in theory than in practice, considering the ample discretion recognised for the EU institutions and bodies on their working language regimes, which they can regulate by internal rules (Milian i Massana 2002: 92). It is not possible here to analyse the different arrangements adopted by EU institutions and bodies. Nonetheless, we can identify the various degrees of protection accorded by the EU legal system on the basis of the function of the language. First, only regulations and other documents of general application should be drafted in all the official languages, because they impose general duties and rights which have to be acknowledged by their recipients.[3] This obligation is an aspect of the broader concept of democracy, which would be impaired if EU citizens could not exercise their participation rights for their linguistic diversity (Maduro 2004: §43). Second, the linguistic rights of parties to administrative procedures conducted by EU institutions and bodies should be respected, and the language of communication should be that of the person, subject to certain restrictions based on administrative needs. A third type of protection is recognised for languages used only for internal communication purposes, where EU institutions and bodies have discretion in designating their working language regime (Athanassiou 2006: 12). In any case, in all these three cases, the principle of language equality seems to express a neutral conception, i.e. language is considered more as a communication vehicle and less for its content.

The concept of "equality of languages" has been developed especially by the Court of Justice of the EU, with reference to states' and individuals' linguistic rights in their relationship with the EU institutions and bodies. Thus, the principle of non-discrimination has been mainly used to justify the rights of EU citizens to use their own language in the hiring procedures for posts of civil servants within the EU institutions. As a consequence, the European Court has annulled a decision of the European Commission to publish job advertisements in the English, French

[1] Art. 1 of Regulation 1/1958 of 15.04.1958 (EEC Council: *Regulation No. 1 determining the languages to be used by the European Economic Community*): "The official languages and the working languages of the institutions of the Community shall be Dutch, French, German and Italian."

[2] Art. 1 of Regulation 1/1958 of 15.04.1958, lastly updated in 2007 (EEC Council: *Regulation No. 1 determining the languages to be used by the European Economic Community*): "The official languages and the working languages of the institutions of the Union shall be Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovenian, Spanish and Swedish since 2013 also Croatian is an official language of the EU."

[3] Art. 4 of Regulation 1/1958.

and German versions only of the Official Journal. On one hand, the court has recognised that a general principle of EU Law which "confers a right on every citizen to have a version of anything that might affect his interest drawn up in his language in all circumstances" does not exist (Court of First Instance 2008: §116). Thus, EU institutions are not under the obligation to publish job advertisements in all the official languages of the EU. This is because EU institutions can decide which language rules apply between them and a member state or a person.[4] From this point of view, candidates for posts of EU officials are considered as officials and other servants of the EU. On the other hand, according to the court, such discretion should not lead to favour candidates of particular nationalities, namely, those coming from countries where English, French and German are spoken as mother tongues. In order to achieve this aim, EU institutions should take measures to enable candidates coming from states where these three languages are not spoken to "acquaint themselves with the precise content of that notice" (Court of First Instance 2008: §152).[5] Of similar content is a recent judgement of the General Court (former Court of First Instance) enacted in 2011, which annuls a job advertisement of the European Economic and Social Committee (EESC) on the ground that it constitutes discrimination on the grounds of language between potential candidates (General Court 2011: §85).

Strictly linked to the concept of individuals' linguistic rights is the issue of the states' rights to have their linguistic regimes recognised at the EU level. This aspect is connected with the definition of "official language" acknowledged by each member state. In fact Regulation 1/1958, when referring to the "official and working languages" of the EU, can be defined as a mere "automatic translator" of member states' inner decisions. Lately, this simple mechanism has been blurred by the semi-official regime acknowledged to the Luxemburgish and Irish languages by the Union. These have been recognised as official EU languages under a special arrangement, after that Luxembourg and Ireland have decided to recognise them as state official languages notwithstanding the fact that they are spoken by a minority of their population (Fernández Vítores 2010: 193). The semi-official regime accorded to these languages derives from these member states' choices, who have preferred to accept a functional and practical system instead of pushing for the concept of integral multilingualism, which would have caused many practical problems in the implementation. A similar development can be identified in the move by Spain to have Catalan, Basque and Galician recognised as official EU languages.

[4] This range of discretion derives from Art. 6 of Regulation 1/1958, which explicitly allows the EU institutions to stipulate in their rules of procedures the language rules to be applied in specific cases.

[5] According to the court "publication in the Official Journal of a vacancy notice in the category covered by the Decision in a limited number of languages is not likely to lead to discrimination between the various candidates if it is agreed that the latter have an adequate knowledge of at least one of those languages and are thus able duly to acquaint themselves with the content of that notice" (Court of First Instance 2008: §131).

9.3 Language Pluralism in the EU: The Cultural Dimension

In the cases mentioned so far, the language is considered as a means of communication. However, language has a second meaning: it is a carrier of culture. This connotation is more difficult to identify because of the gradual process of European identity building, which is still in fieri (Felici 2010: 95). The constitutional identity of the EU is progressively building itself and relies on the richness of the different cultural, political, historical and legal traditions offered by the member states, which are then merged into new ideas and concepts with a specific European meaning. This process of "Europeanization" is clearly identifiable in the legal field, where the Court of Justice of the EU has created a whole set of new principles which, though borrowed from the legal traditions of the member states, have acquired a specific European meaning (Grilli 2009: 105).[6] Thus, it is more and more frequent to encounter courses based on European concepts, such as "EU Administrative Law", "EU Economic Law" and "EU Constitutional Law" within the curricula offered by European universities.

Notwithstanding the gradual building up of a European identity, the EU has to resort to the languages spoken in its member countries to communicate and express these new concepts because of the obvious absence of a European language which could play a unifying role, such as Esperanto or the like. Considering the tension between European identity and the more definite national identities on which the EU is based, the only principle which can regulate the use of languages in a democratic society is the one of pluralism. This implies the acknowledgement of diversity, including social, cultural and linguistic diversity. Through the motto "United in diversity", the EU has embarked upon the recognition of the principle of multilingualism, considered as respect for the various languages, cultures and traditions which are spoken in its territories and which are to be considered as a positive asset for the European area.

For a better understanding of the meaning of language protection for reasons of cultural identity and its possible negative impact on principles of free movement of persons within the EU, it suffices to cite the *Groener* case decided by the European Court of Justice in 1989.[7] In this well-known judgement, the court recognised the possibility to exclude candidates for a teaching post because they lacked a sufficient knowledge of the Gaelic (or Irish) language in Ireland even though this would amount to discrimination on the basis of nationality. Such an exception was agreed because the promotion of the Irish language was part of a plan of the state government to support the Irish culture. The result reached by the court may seem curious and eccentric at first sight if evaluated in the context of the overall case law of the

[6]One extreme example could be that of the abolition of the death penalty, which has been recognised as a general principle in the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU. Its typical European dimension gives the European states a homogeneous character and differentiates them from other regional areas, albeit with a stronger economic and political power. Art. 2 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (right to life): "1. Everyone has the right to life; 2. No one shall be condemned to the death penalty, or executed."

[7]Court of Justice of the European Communities, 28.11.1989, *Anita Groener c. Minister for Education and the City of Dublin Vocational Education Committee*, C-379/87, Rec. 1989, p. 3967.

EU Court on discrimination, which is usually very strict in allowing for exceptions. This result is a consequence of the distinctive linguistic regime adopted in Ireland, where the official language is Gaelic by constitution, though spoken by a minority of the population (Fernández Vítores 2010: 170). This judgement is relevant also because the European Court has not only shown itself sensitive to the social and cultural function of Education considered under the linguistic aspect, but it has also recognised its distinctiveness in comparison with other activities taking place within the EU, thus requiring a more complex balancing of interests in the appraisal of the principle of non-discrimination.

The emergence of the EU as a political Union and its quasi-federal status seems to have emphasised the cultural meaning of the EU language regime. The new Treaty of Lisbon has increased the promotion of linguistic pluralism as an important element relating to the cultural diversity of the EU. The Charter of Nice, which now has the status of a binding document within the EU, declares in fact that "The Union shall respect cultural, religious and linguistic diversity".[8] The fact that some member states have tried to have the minority languages spoken in some of their regions recognised as official languages can be interpreted in this way. The progress towards the recognition of Catalan, Basque or Galician at the EU level on the initiative of Spain – where such languages are studied by approximately 35 % of the school population – exemplifies this trend, which seems to replace the concept of member states' linguistic representation (where EU languages are identified as the member states' official languages), with the ampler notion of linguistic diversity representation.

The choice of the EU when it comes to deciding which languages are to be used as official languages in the EU framework is to accept the official languages of the member states as a sign of cultural respect. This does not prevent the EU from promoting multilingualism in its institutions as well as in its schools. This intent appears very clearly from the so-called Barcelona objectives adopted in 2002, with the aim of promoting knowledge of foreign languages. According to this EU policy, every European citizen should ideally master two languages, in addition to the mother tongue. Since this declaration, multilingualism has become one of the pillars of the EU educational policy (see Franceschini and Veronesi on this volume, Chap. 5) and diversity of language teaching has been promoted on the assumption that linguistic diversity is one of Europe's key advantages within the knowledge economy (Strubell et al. 2007: 7).

9.4 Language Pluralism in European Studies and the Influence of the Jean Monnet Programme

We have tried to ascertain whether multilingualism (i.e. the use of languages other than the official state language) is applied by the higher education institutions of the member states and to what extent and what is the role played by the EU in that

[8] See Art. 22 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union ("Charter of Nice").

respect. Using an online questionnaire sent to more than 2,000 university professors teaching European Studies in the 27 member states plus Iceland, Turkey and Norway and taken from the various disciplines (political science and international relations, law, economics, history and cultural studies), we have tried to ascertain the extent to which European Studies courses are being taught promoting multilingualism practices and, more specifically, if it is possible to identify a trend in classes promoted by EU programmes. For this purpose, in our survey, we included professors teaching within the Jean Monnet Programme, an action sponsored by the European Commission and aimed at promoting quality teaching European Studies in Higher Education, as well as professor members of the SENT network ("European Union Studies Network").[9] Some other chapters in this book have already focused on the results of this online survey (see Baroncelli et al. on this volume, Chap. 7; Fonti and Stevancevic on this volume, Chap. 8), with reference to different aspects of studies on the EU. Thus, we refer to these chapters for further details on the questionnaire.[10]

According to our sample, one third of courses on the EU (113 out of 347 courses) are taught in English as a foreign language (i.e. excluding courses taught in English in the UK and Ireland), while two thirds (233 out of 347 courses) are held in the official language of the state where the university institution is located (see on this volume, Baroncelli et al. Chap. 7).[11] While this result confirms the international aspiration of the courses, it comes as a surprise that almost none of them are held in a foreign language other than English; the only case is an interdisciplinary course taught in Catalan at the University of Valencia, which is likely connected to this language official status in this area. Such an outcome is consonant with the general trend towards English becoming predominantly the lingua franca of sciences and the foreign language most taught in European schools (Strubell et al. 2007: 7, 9).

While this result gives an overall picture of linguistic pluralism achieved in European Studies, we analysed further whether the status of Jean Monnet professor influenced the use of English in teaching, since our goal is comparing the EU policy on linguistic diversity in Higher Education and its actual outcomes. According to

[9]The SENT network ("*European Union Studies Network*") included almost 100 universities from the EU member states, candidate and associated countries, as well as from other parts of the world. This project was financed by the European Commission in order to map European Studies. While this book is the result of the coordinated efforts of some SENT scholars, the overall goal of the project was to have a far-reaching image of how European Union Studies have evolved in the different disciplines and member states.

[10]Other chapters in this book have already focused on the results of the online survey conducted through the network of Jean Monnet professors and the SENT network. For a general overview of the questionnaire's results with reference to teaching tools and methodologies in the framework of the Bologna process, see Baroncelli et al. in this volume, Chap. 7. For a more detailed analysis on innovative teaching tools, see Fonti and Stevancevic in this volume, Chap. 8.

[11]Since among these courses we included those taught in English speaking countries, this makes the actual number of courses taught in English much higher, at 43 % of our sample (148 out of 347 courses). More detailed information about the results of our survey can be found in Baroncelli et al. (2013), Chap. 7 in this volume.

Table 9.1 Teaching language according to lecturer type (Jean Monnet status)

	Courses taught in English	Courses taught in the official state language
Jean Monnet lecturers	52 *(26 %)*	145 *(74 %)*
Non-Jean Monnet lecturers	61 *(41 %)*	88 *(59 %)*

our sample, only 26 % of courses held by Jean Monnet lecturers are held in English – a result which is inferior to the one scored by non-Jean Monnet lecturers, who are teaching in English in 41 % of the cases (Table 9.1).

This result seems consistent with the principle of linguistic pluralism promoted by the EU, implying that linguistic preferences towards English are not playing any role in the recognition of Jean Monnet modules, chairs, "*ad personam*" chairs or Centres of Excellence. Instead, the EU seems not to interfere in the language in which courses are taught, be it the national one or a foreign language, limiting itself to stimulate the Europeanization of curricula in order to form European citizens and to give more visibility to European programmes within and outside the university (Figel 2011: 18). This is consonant with the overall priorities of the Jean Monnet Programme, which is "enhancing knowledge and awareness among academics, students and citizens' world-wide of issues relating to European integration".[12] Thus, it seems that the Jean Monnet Programme is not limited to classes attended predominantly by international students; rather, it is oriented towards the average students and/or citizens of each member state, with the aim of increasing the interest in the European integration process and multicultural cooperation.

If this were true, the implication would be that the EU is more interested in forming European citizens and to demonstrate its closeness to everyday concerns rather than promoting students' and teachers' abilities to learn and teach in a foreign (especially English) language. This neutral attitude of the EU towards the classroom use of the English language might also be interpreted as a refusal towards the standardisation in teaching and course content, which could be entailed with the use of the English language (Ammon 2001: 27). In fact, the choice of the language implies a consistent use of textbooks and teaching material, whose variety and richness in content could be impaired if English were used predominantly as a teaching language.

It remains to be seen whether the EU's neutral behaviour towards English as lingua franca can prove useful for quality teaching and for improving high-level research. In fact, since English is the language of science at a global level, EU policy choices might run counter such a global trend, and run the risk of

[12]European Commission, Lifelong Learning Programme. General call for proposals 2011–2013. Strategic priorities 2012.
See: http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/llp/funding/2012/documents/jean_monnet_ka1/ajm_priorities_2012_en.pdf

Table 9.2 Erasmus or foreign students attending EU Studies courses divided by course language

Erasmus or foreign students	Courses taught in English	Courses taught in the official state language	Total
None	6	41	*47*
	(13 %)	*(87 %)*	*(100 %)*
Less than 10 %	22	102	*124*
	(18 %)	*(82 %)*	*(100 %)*
10–30 %	26	49	*75*
	(35 %)	*(65 %)*	*(100 %)*
30–60 %	25	22	*47*
	(53 %)	*(47 %)*	*(100 %)*
More than 60 %	31	12	*43*
	(72 %)	*(28 %)*	*(100 %)*
100 %	1	0	*1*
	(100 %)	*(0 %)*	*(100 %)*
Missing information	2	7	*9*
	(22 %)	*(78 %)*	*(100 %)*

promoting courses of lecturers who might not be the best ones according to international standards. It may also impair researchers' and professors' mobility throughout Europe, as teaching in English can be a preparatory step for promoting teaching trips and exchanges. The Jean Monnet Programme could very well complement the Erasmus/Socrates programme, offering foreign students the possibility to study in English in countries where they would not have the possibility to learn a new language, considering the limited length of the stay (normally one semester), the difficulty of the language or its scarce use. Instead, member states and individual institutions are left with an ample discretion in the organisation of the Erasmus students' learning process, which might contribute to learning failures and risks to burden professors with tasks for which they are often not prepared.

Our view seems to be supported by the finding that Erasmus or foreign students are likely to attend more courses taught in English than courses in the domestic language (Table 9.2). In fact, the number of foreign students increases in classes taught in English: in the classes with more than 60 % of Erasmus or foreign students, 72 % are taught in English against 28 % taught in the domestic language, while in the classes with less than 10 % of Erasmus or foreign students, only 18 % are taught in English while 82 % are delivered in the official state language.

In conclusion, it seems that the strengthening of cultural and linguistic diversity of the EU is a value which is well respected by the Union in the field of education and that the role of the European Commission in the allocation of Jean Monnet funds is limited to supporting and supplementing the actions of member states and individual institutions. This is consonant with the need to preserve the member states' competence to establish the content of teaching, to organise education

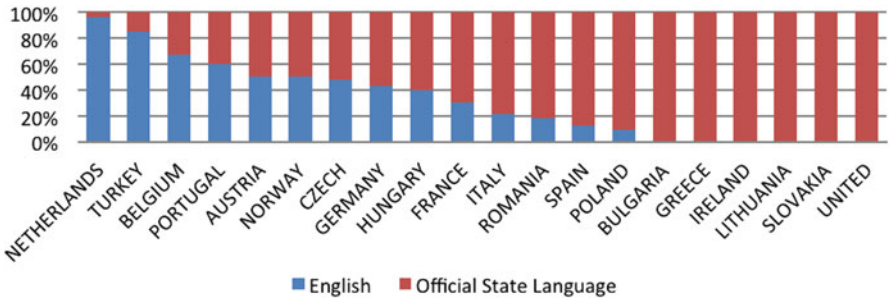

Fig. 9.1 Course language by country for all disciplines

systems and to recognise cultural and linguistic diversity in the educational field.[13] However, as our research points out, linguistic pluralism in European Studies is intended more as a (static) respect for the member states' linguistic choices than as a dynamic promotion of intercultural and linguistic learning. In our understanding, the EU should be more proactive in supporting the use of foreign languages in teaching, either through English as lingua franca or through the use of other EU languages, either alone or combined.

9.5 Language Pluralism in the Member States and the Influence of the Jean Monnet Programme

If we look at the countries where university institutions included in our sample are located (Fig. 9.1 and Table 9.3), we see that in some cases, English-taught courses outnumber courses taught in the official state language – i.e. the Netherlands (96 %), Turkey (85 %), Belgium (67 %) and Portugal (60 %). In a second cluster, we find countries where EU courses are held almost equally in English and in the official state language: in this group we have Austria (50 %), Norway (50 %), the Czech Republic (48 %), Germany (43 %) and Hungary (40 %). Finally, there is a group of countries where EU Studies courses are taught in English in less than 30 % of the classes, namely, France (30 %), Italy (21 %), Romania (18 %), Spain (13 %) and Poland (9 %), while in all other countries (Bulgaria, Greece, Ireland, Lithuania, Slovakia and the UK), courses were taught in the official state language.[14]

[13] See Art. 165 of the "Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union" (TFUE) on Education: "1. The Union shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between member states and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the member states for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity".

[14] We excluded from this analysis cases from Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Latvia, Luxemburg, Slovenia and Sweden, since they jointly account for less than 5 % of our total sample, while no answers were received from Cyprus, Estonia and Malta.

Table 9.3 Teaching language in EU Studies per country divided per Jean Monnet/non-Jean Monnet courses

	Courses taught in English		Courses taught in the official state language		
	Jean Monnet	Non-Jean Monnet	Jean Monnet	Non-Jean Monnet	Total 100 %
Turkey	8 *(62 %)*	3 *(23 %)*	1 *(8 %)*	1 *(8 %)*	13
Hungary	4 *(40 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	5 *(50 %)*	1 *(10 %)*	10
Austria	2 *(33 %)*	1 *(17 %)*	3 *(50 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	6
Germany	7 *(30 %)*	3 *(13 %)*	8 *(35 %)*	5 *(22 %)*	23
Netherlands	6 *(24 %)*	18 *(72 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	1 *(4 %)*	25
Romania	2 *(18 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	7 *(64 %)*	2 *(18 %)*	11
Belgium	2 *(17 %)*	6 *(50 %)*	1 *(8 %)*	3 *(25 %)*	12
Norway	1 *(17 %)*	2 *(33 %)*	1 *(17 %)*	2 *(33 %)*	6
Italy	9 *(14 %)*	4 *(6 %)*	33 *(52 %)*	17 *(27 %)*	63
France	1 *(10 %)*	2 *(20 %)*	7 *(70 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	10
Spain	3 *(9 %)*	1 *(3 %)*	21 *(66 %)*	7 *(22 %)*	32
Czech Republic	1 *(4 %)*	11 *(44 %)*	6 *(24 %)*	7 *(28 %)*	25
Poland	1 *(3 %)*	2 *(6 %)*	18 *(51 %)*	14 *(40 %)*	35
Bulgaria	0 *(0 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	4 *(80 %)*	1 *(20 %)*	5
Greece	0 *(0 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	3 *(75 %)*	1 *(25 %)*	4
Ireland	0 *(0 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	1 *(25 %)*	3 *(75 %)*	4
Lithuania	0 *(0 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	4 *(80 %)*	1 *(20 %)*	5
Portugal	0 *(0 %)*	6 *(60 %)*	1 *(10 %)*	3 *(30 %)*	10
Slovakia	0 *(0 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	2 *(50 %)*	2 *(50 %)*	4
United Kingdom	0 *(0 %)*	0 *(0 %)*	15 *(48 %)*	16 *(52 %)*	31
Total	52	61	145	88	346

It is interesting to note that some of the larger EU states, such as Spain, Italy, France and Poland, tend to remain monolingual, using mostly their national language. They seem more reticent in using English in teaching, because of the widespread use of their domestic languages worldwide, of cultural and linguistic protection policies, and/or because of the heavy emphasis on language as a core element of national identity. In these countries, Erasmus students often attend courses which are taught in the official state language, together with their domestic classmates. This development is even stronger in states using English as an official state language, like the UK and Ireland, where courses are held in English only. The example of Turkey is different. Notwithstanding its status of being a "big" state, this country has undergone several evaluation procedures for being admitted to the EU, and the will to show itself "European" might have had a strong impact on the presence of many EU-related courses taught in English.

A group of smaller states whose language is spoken by a minority of the EU population hold courses in their official language only; this is the case of Bulgaria, Greece, Lithuania and Slovakia. Other smaller countries however – such as the Netherlands or Portugal – are more inclined towards internationalisation and use English extensively in teaching. Finally, Belgium is a case in itself, as it consists of three language communities (Dutch, French and German) and hosts the headquarters of the EU in the bilingual Region of Brussels: here, the use of English in teaching European Studies classes is quite widespread.

The comparison of these general results with the distribution of courses taught in English by Jean Monnet professors per member state confirms the neutral role of the EU, adding at the same time a new perspective. Few states have taken the opportunity to use the Jean Monnet Programme to promote teaching in English, and only to a very small degree, as in the case of Turkey, Germany, the Netherlands and Romania. In fact in these countries, courses in EU studies taught in English by Jean Monnet professors are 4 % higher than the percentage of the total of English-taught courses in each state. The only case which differentiates itself from this neutral effect of the Jean Monnet Programme is the one of the Czech Republic, where the programme has been used to promote the use of English in teaching. This, however, does not mean an increase in the number of courses taught in English overall, as this country privileges the local language in teaching. Finally, the Jean Monnet Programme does not seem to have an impact on the language of teaching used in some countries, such as Belgium, Norway, Italy and Spain.

9.6 The Use of Languages Across the Disciplines

Table 9.4 reports the percentages of EU courses taught in English or in the official state language of the country in relation to the total number of courses taught in each of the disciplines. It shows that courses taught in English are more prominent in disciplines such as EU Intercultural Dialogue Studies (44 %), EU Political and Administrative Studies (43 %), EU International Relations

Table 9.4 Course discipline and teaching language for EU Studies classes[a]

Course discipline	English	Official state language	Total
EU Intercultural Dialogue Studies	4	5	9
	(44 %)	*(56 %)*	
EU Political and Administrative Studies	29	38	67
	(43 %)	*(57 %)*	
EU International Relations	7	10	17
	(41 %)	*(59 %)*	
EU Interdisciplinary Studies	34	50	84
	(40 %)	*(60 %)*	
EU Economic Studies	21	46	67
	(31 %)	*(69 %)*	
EU Historical Studies	3	13	16
	(19 %)	*(81 %)*	
EU Legal Studies	13	69	82
	(16 %)	*(84 %)*	

[a]Four courses did not indicate the discipline they pertained to and were not included in Table 9.4 and Fig. 9.2

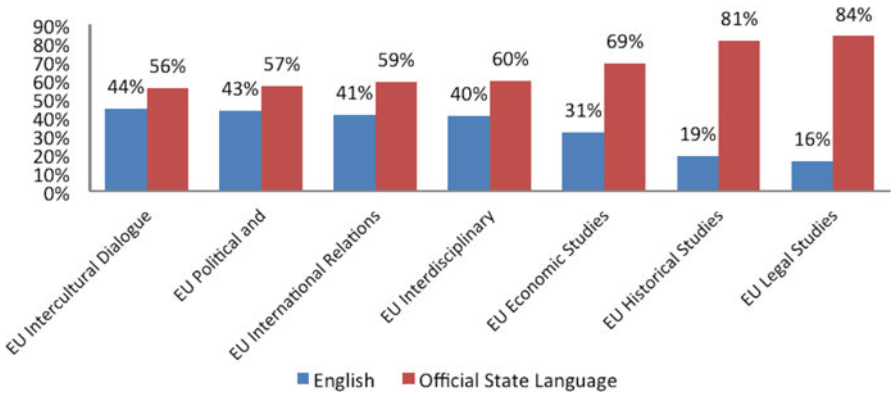

Fig. 9.2 Language of instruction according to discipline (Four courses did not indicate the discipline they pertained to and were not included in Table 9.4 and Fig. 9.2)

(41 %) and EU Interdisciplinary Studies (40 %). Disciplines where the use of English as a teaching language is lagging behind are EU Economic Studies (31 %), EU Historical Studies (19 %) and EU Legal Studies (16 %). This trend is especially visible in Fig. 9.2, where courses are ordered in decreasing use of English as a teaching language.

Figure 9.2 illustrates the results on the use of the foreign language in European Studies classes in absolute terms, in other words the percentage at which either English or the native state language have been used within each discipline. However, this might provide a slanted view of how much English is widespread across all

classes, since some of the disciplines are more represented in our sample. Therefore, to take this into account, in this section, we will also evaluate the use of English and the native state language in teaching EU studies in absolute terms, i.e. with reference to the sample as a whole.

For these purposes, we have decided to keep out of this analysis of language pluralism two of the European Studies disciplines, i.e. EU Intercultural Dialogue Studies and EU International Relations, as they represent only 3 and 5 % of our sample. A third discipline, EU Political and Administrative Studies, constitutes 19 % of our sample and is certainly one of the most important disciplines where European Studies have been developed, if we consider also its close affinity with EU International Relations. However, it does not tell us much about multilingualism, as its courses are taught almost equally in English (8.5 %) and in the official state language (11 %).

Thus, we will focus on the disciplines which are most represented in the sample in absolute terms, EU Law and EU Interdisciplinary Studies, and those that provide us with some interesting insights into the issue of linguistic pluralism, EU Historical Studies and EU Economic Studies. Such analysis will enable us to draw some conclusions on the concept of language pluralism in the EU and to appraise the role of the EU in promoting multilingualism in higher education.

9.6.1 EU Law Courses

EU Law courses represent 24 % of the entire sample. The number of courses taught in English is very limited (13) and is concentrated in the Netherlands (specifically, in the universities located in Maastricht, Twente and Groningen). Interestingly enough, two universities located in bilingual areas, such as the Basque country and the Province of Bozen-Bolzano, have some EU Law courses taught in English. The case of Bozen-Bolzano, which hosts a trilingual university, might partially explain the high rate reached by Italy in the number of courses held in English.

EU Law courses taught in English have a distribution which roughly reflects their presence in the different course degrees, with an evident over-representation in law schools (69 %), followed by schools of economics (15 %). They are present, however, also in other course degrees, such as schools of political science (8 %) or other schools (8 %). The level of courses seems not to be a factor, as EU Law courses are evenly distributed in undergraduate (46 %) and graduate degrees (46 %), with a low presence in postgraduate studies, given the scarce existence of such programmes specifically dedicated to the European Union.

The limited presence of courses taught in English in this discipline does not come as a surprise. This is due to the focus of law school curricula, which are based upon domestic law and consequently taught in the official language of the state (Heringa 2011: 11). In fact, the legal education in Europe is fragmented due to the existence of differing national legal systems (De Witte 2011: 25). Some additional obstacle may derive from the legal profession itself, which may require graduates

a curriculum based predominantly on national law in order to accede to the bar exam or the profession of judge (Kornet 2011: 114). Finally, other obstacles may derive from legal requirements. In Belgium, for instance, domestic legislation prohibits law schools from offering courses taught in English, up to a certain level (Heringa 2011: 10).

As for the content of EU Law courses taught in English, we can find an indication from the textbooks and handbooks adopted. While the textbooks reflect the subject and specialisation of the course (e.g. European Environmental Law, EU Competition Law), some of them seem to be used more often in basic courses.[15] The scarce presence of EU Law courses taught in English reflects the fragmentation of EU legal scholarship along geographical languages and disciplinary boundaries (De Witte 2011: 20). However, it is also true that the choice of English as a teaching language can have some drawbacks which are unique to the legal domain. For example, English textbooks seldom make reference to authors who are not publishing in this language, hindering de facto access to the approaches of a wider multilingual scholarship specialised on similar topics. One last difficulty derives from the British-oriented approach of English textbooks, which does not make them wholly suitable for courses taught in other member states.

9.6.2 EU Interdisciplinary Studies

EU Interdisciplinary Studies courses represent 24 % of the entire sample. Those taught in English play an important role, at 10 % of the total, while courses taught in the official state language are 14 %. This result, which represents the highest diffusion of English across the disciplines, seems to confirm that a methodological approach where different disciplines are used not only fits very well with EU studies but also incentivises the internationalisation of courses and innovativeness. This is probably due to the presence of a growing European-wide scholarship in the social sciences which uses an interdisciplinary method of research as well as to the promotion of projects which overcome traditional disciplinary divisions by the EU (Gross and Benavot 2007: 289).

If we exclude states with an overall low number of courses, we realise that only the Netherlands, Portugal and Germany organise more courses in English than in their official language. In the first two cases, this is probably due to the important role played by some universities with an international orientation, such as the University of Maastricht and the University of Twente in the Netherlands, and the *Universidade Fernando Pessoa* in Portugal. In the Netherlands it might also be affected by a cultural orientation towards the Anglo-Saxon world and the overall good knowledge of English. The case of Germany is different because teaching in English seems linked to the technological or business orientation of the school, as in the case of the *Karlsruher Institut für Technologie* (KIT) or the *Otto von Guericke Universität Magdeburg*.

[15]This is the case of Chalmers et al. (2010) and Craig and de Búrca (2008).

As for the content of such courses, we looked at the textbooks adopted in EU Interdisciplinary Studies and seemed to infer that the majority intertwine political science and international relations[16] or economics, history and political science,[17] a few other courses deal with law and politics[18] and some others are not related to the core of studies on the European Union, such as business economics[19] and sociology.[20] The presence of courses which are distant from the core area of European Studies confirms the growing importance of the European dimension in teaching and the influence of European issues in the European states' curricula.

9.6.3 EU Historical Studies Courses

While EU Historical courses represent only 5 % of the entire sample, we decided to examine it due to the under-representation of English-taught courses (less than 1 % of the total). The inclusion of some courses in history in the categories dedicated to Interdisciplinary Studies and Intercultural Dialogue can account for this overall small percentage. Looking at the state of the use of English in this discipline might help us to identify the areas where some progress towards multilingualism has been made and the rationale for future improvements. Out of the three courses taught in English, one is offered by a highly international university located in Finland, a country with a language which is little known outside its borders and whose society has invested a lot in innovation and networks (University of Jyväskylä), a second is held in Barcelona, a region with a minority language (*Universitat Pompeu Fabra*, Spain), while a third is taught in Tirol, a border region which was at the centre of historical conflicts during the twentieth century (*Universität Innsbruck*, Austria).

These results confirm that the pressure for more internationalisation coming from the university and the difficulty in learning the domestic language are important factors in the promotion of English as a teaching language. A key role in this respect seems also to be played by universities located in cross-border regions or in areas where a minority language is spoken. In these institutions, the use of English or another lingua franca can be an important vehicle to contextualise and to examine historical events in more neutral perspectives, which have been crucial for building up the concepts of state, nation or people, as confirmed by the analysis of the textbooks adopted in such courses.[21]

[16] Textbooks which are used often are, for instance, Wallace and Wallace (2010), Hix (2005), and Bulmer and Lequesne (2005).

[17] It is the case of: De Grauwe (2009), Molle (2006), Hitiris (2003), Neal (2007), and Zeff and Pirro (2006).

[18] See, for example, Craig and de Búrca (2008) and Steiner et al. (2007).

[19] It is the case of Moschandreas (1994) and Suder (2007).

[20] See Roche (2009) and Outhwaite (2008).

[21] See Sen (2009), Judt (2005), Boyce (2009), Steininger (2008), and Steininger (2003).

Future research could ascertain whether some degrees or courses in history exist where an active form of multilingualism is endorsed, such as textbooks using two or three languages simultaneously. In fact, historical studies can be considered as the key discipline to overcome cultural and conceptual barriers, which still make us identify the culture with the state (Preda 2011: 230). Such conception, which we have inherited from the nineteenth century, is in fact still present despite the clean break represented by the Second World War in the history of Europe and the progress made by the EU in the elimination of interstate barriers.

9.6.4 EU Economic Studies Courses

EU Economic Studies courses represent 19 % of the entire sample: of these, less than one third are taught in English (which accounts for 6 % of the overall sample). Such a low number comes as a surprise, given the marked international orientation of the discipline. As in most other disciplines we investigated, a leading role in using English as a teaching language is played by the Netherlands, possibly due to the influence of internationally oriented institutions such as the Erasmus University in Rotterdam and the Universities of Tilburg, Maastricht and Twente and to other factors such as the close affinity with the Anglo-Saxon world. Also, Turkey, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Denmark hold more courses in English than in their official languages. The low number of courses taught in English in France, Germany and Austria may signal the inner resistance of the educational systems of these states towards internationalisation.

It is indeed unexpected that courses on EU Economics are not taught principally in English, considering the absolute prominence given to scholarly works published in this language as well as the existence of a high number of English-written textbooks in this area. The provenance of such textbooks shows certain uniformity, as they are all published by well-known British or American publishing houses.[22] Given the implications of EU economic policy choices over other disciplines, we observe a growing number of textbooks which combine economic concepts with policy arguments and historical discussions.

We admit that it is difficult to decide whether the limited use of English in EU Economic Studies courses is a positive element or not. On the one hand, a widespread use of English in teaching could be seen as positive because it could promote the advancement of research and guarantee the update of the programmes, considering the rapidity with which new events are pre-empting old ones. This would be especially beneficial in Eastern countries, such as Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania. These countries lack a tradition of their own in teaching EU Economic Studies, having only recently joined the EU. On the other hand, we

[22] De Grauwe (2009), Molle (2006), Hitiris (2003), Neal (2007), Baldwin and Wyplosz (2009), Pelkmans (2006), Artis and Nixson (2007), Senior Nello (2005), El-Agraa (2007), McDonald and Dearden (2004), and de Haan et al. (2005).

should consider the possibility that an excessive homogeneity in courses' content is achieved, considering the exclusive provenance of textbooks and handbooks from the Anglo-Saxon world.

9.7 Conclusions

To say that the European Union promotes plurilingualism has almost become a truism. We should, however, distinguish between the different meanings of multilingualism. In a first sense, it is used as a means of communication and it has been mainly developed by the EU with reference to linguistic rights of individuals and states to have their mother tongue recognised in their relationships with the EU in hiring procedures or the like. Accordingly, on the basis of the principle of equality, all the official state languages are automatically recognised as official by the EU, although a certain degree of flexibility has been maintained for purposes of internal communication in the EU institutions. In a second sense, linguistic pluralism is often associated with cultural, religious and linguistic diversity: a binding obligation for the EU. This dimension is more problematic, because it is related to the identity of the EU, which is still in fieri. More in general, linguistic pluralism is promoted by the EU internally and in the educational field, on the assumption that linguistic diversity is one of the European key advantages in the knowledge society.

But how is linguistic pluralism achieved and promoted in higher education? What is the role of the EU? According to our survey, one third of EU Studies courses included in our sample are taught in English, while two thirds are held in the domestic language of the country in question. While this result confirms the international approach of such courses, it comes as a surprise that no cases are counted where the language used is different from English. As a consequence, the general trend towards English as lingua franca in academia is confirmed.

As a further step, we investigated to see whether an active role of the EU towards language pluralism was discernible. Thus, we considered the teaching language used by Jean Monnet professors only and we discovered that only 26 % of them use English – a result which is inferior to the percentage of courses held by non-Jean Monnet professors, who teach in English in 41 % of the cases. An explanation for such a low percentage can be found in the need for the EU to respect the member states' competence to decide on teaching content and the organisation of the higher educational system. However, we consider that such a neutral role of the EU is more compatible with a concept of linguistic pluralism limited to the static respect for the member states' linguistic choices than with a dynamic promotion of intercultural and language learning. In this sense, we argue that a more proactive approach taken by the Union through its Jean Monnet Programme to promote English and other EU languages in teaching, especially those which are more widespread within the EU, could have a positive effect. In fact, it could bring forward the internationalisation of the university systems and support professors' and students' exchanges, matching well the Erasmus programme.

We further examined how language pluralism is applied in the member states. The picture that we received is complex, with some states favouring English as a teaching language – such as the Netherlands, Turkey, Belgium and Portugal. They are followed by a group of countries where EU Studies courses are held equally in English and in the official state language, as in the case of Austria, Norway, the Czech Republic, Germany and Hungary. Some other states, especially the bigger ones, tend to remain monolingual. This is the case in Poland, Spain, Romania, Italy and France, where EU courses are taught in English in less than 30 % of the classes.

Interestingly enough, only a few states seem to have taken the opportunity to avail themselves of the Jean Monnet Programme for promoting the use of English as a language of teaching, even so to a very small degree. The only country which differentiates itself is the Czech Republic, which, however, does not mean a promotion of teaching in English overall.

The analysis conducted on the use of languages across the disciplines confirms the limited use of English in EU Law Studies, EU Historical Studies and EU Economic Studies. This result does not come as a surprise in the case of the first two disciplines. As for EU Law courses, we should in fact consider the fragmentation of legal education across Europe and the focus on domestic law of law schools curricula, while EU Historical Studies are still influenced by the conceptual and cultural barriers which make us identify the culture with the state. Such an outcome is, however, puzzling for EU Economic Studies, given the international orientation of the discipline and the availability of good standard textbooks written in English. An explanation may be found in the inner resistance towards internationalisation of some educational systems. The low percentage of English-taught courses in France, Germany and Austria can be a signal in this sense. Classes taught in English are instead more frequent in EU Interdisciplinary Studies courses. This result seems to confirm that a methodological approach which blends different disciplines not only fits well with EU studies, but that it also promotes internationalisation of courses, probably due to a growing interdisciplinary scholarship in the social sciences.

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Part III
Innovative Teaching and Learning in European Studies

Chapter 10
Assessing EU Simulations: Evidence from the Trans-Atlantic EuroSim

Rebecca Jones and Peter Bursens

10.1 Introduction and Outline

Over the last decades, mainstream higher education pedagogy has evolved from a focus on teaching toward a focus on learning. While the traditional approach to higher education reduced the instruction of students to passively absorbing knowledge provided by the teacher, the more recent paradigm argues that learning must be seen as an "active process in which learners construct their own meaning, and build internal and personal representations of knowledge" (Vermetten et al. 2002: 265). The new perspective evolved from an increasing interest in the quality of higher education due to both changes in job market demands on graduates and the global knowledge society (Tynjälä 1999; Tynjälä et al. 2003): it is argued that this era – the "information age" – can be characterized by an "infinite, dynamic and changing mass of information" (Dochy and McDowell 1997: 280) and requires both cognitive, metacognitive, and social competencies of its citizens. Hence, students need to achieve not only a sound base of discipline-specific knowledge and skills but also a number of "higher order" skills and attitudes. In short, students should become able to cope with ever-changing environments and complex work processes.

The learning paradigm is inspired by the constructivist perspective, arguing that learning is actively constructed by the learner (Birenbaum 2003). Active learning requires active involvement of students rather than being passive with regard to their learning process (Snyder 2003). It is suggested that active learning methods contribute to deeper student learning beyond the levels of reproduction and rote learning (Struyven et al. 2006: 279–280). "For learning and transfer of knowledge to succeed, the teacher must design a constructivist learning environment"

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_10, © Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2014

(Brown and King 2000). It results in greater retention of subject matter, fosters problem-solving skills, and has a positive influence on motivation for future learning (Snyder 2003). Active learning must be seen as a "constructive, cumulative, self-regulated, goal-oriented, situated, collaborative and individually different process of knowledge building and meaning construction" (De Corte 2000: 254). Such effective learning can be achieved by creating powerful learning environments. According to De Corte (2000) and Snyder (2003), these environments must (1) allow for a balance between personal exploration and systematic instruction, (2) stimulate students to become organizers of their own learning process, and (3) use authentic contexts. These criteria can be fairly easily assessed by an analytical description of a particular learning tool. However, the introduction of a state-of-the-art tool does not say anything about the effectiveness of the tool. Are cognitive and affective goals also accomplished? Do students indeed make progress on both the cognitive and affective level by using a particular learning tool, even when the method is rigorously applied according to the criteria of the learning environment? Cognitive learning is enhanced through the factual information gained, putting into use concepts such as negotiation, organization, and power, and, through learning, also the actual processes and "real world" structures that must be navigated in order to successfully complete the simulation. In addition, cognitive learning is supported through an increased ability to identify elements of a problem, learning decision-making skills, and employing winning strategies. Affective learning is best described as the emotional growth or maturation of students. They also show an increased self-awareness and a greater sense of their own capabilities and efficacy (Greenblat 1973).

This chapter aims at answering these questions by means of an evaluation of EuroSim, a large-scale trans-Atlantic simulation of EU decision-making. The following section elaborates on the use of simulations as a learning tool, with a focus on EU studies. After a brief presentation of EuroSim, we turn to the assessment of EuroSim as a powerful learning environment and as a tool that fosters affective learning.

10.2 Simulations as Powerful Learning Environments

The rise of constructivist theories of learning and the subsequent development of the idea of powerful learning environments have both triggered a variety of new teaching methods and learning environments (Struyven et al. 2006). Traditional lectures, which were very common in the instruction paradigm (Barr and Tagg 1995), seem to be gradually disappearing in favor of active teaching methods such as project-based learning, computer-based instruction, problem-based assignment tasks, and simulations. All these methods promote active learning, defined as "anything that involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing" (Bonwell 1991: 2). Simulations of decision-making environments are textbook examples of such powerful learning environments.

Of course, simulations have been used in all sorts of classes before the constructivist turn in higher education pedagogy (Cruickshank and Telfer 1980). Sociology and political science faculty have been particularly receptive to the idea of using simulations in the classroom as the subject matter in those classes tends to be more suited for simulations. Especially political science classes are ripe for simulations, because they allow faculty to demonstrate the concepts and theories on which they are lecturing and are "predicated on pedagogy that long-term retention and use of learning are better achieved through experiential learning" (Ip and Linser 2001). Clearly, using simulations has been increasingly legitimated by constructivist-oriented arguments. A simulation confronts students with both facts and theories and requires them "to analyze specific situations, reflect on their observations, confront problems, and develop their own ideas" (Shellman 2001: 827). Simulations are viewed as encompassing "a number of broad practical and pedagogical goals" (Dougherty 2003: 240) and according to Greenblat allow students to experience "environments similar to those they might not face until much later in life or might never directly experience" (Greenblat 1973: 65).

Simulations currently in use in political science classes include everything from "Fantasy Congress" which is based on fantasy football or baseball games, to making political and policy decisions in the town of Camelot (Woodworth et al. 2005), to playing the role of a Congressional representative marking up a bill in committee, to writing and passing legislation for the European Union (Zeff 2003). One example of the latter is EuroSim, to which we turn in the next section.

10.3 The EuroSim Simulation

EuroSim is a cross-national simulation of the decision-making processes of the EU. It is organized by the Trans-Atlantic Consortium for European Union Studies and Simulations (TACEUSS) on a yearly basis. The simulation originated in the USA and now switches venues between European and American locations every other year, hosted and organized by one of the TACEUSS member institutions. While EuroSim is probably the oldest annual intercollegiate simulation of the European Union, it was certainly the first trans-Atlantic event of its kind. The first event was organized in 1988, involving only 35 students from a small number of NY State universities. Already at the second edition, European students from the University of Luxembourg joined the simulation. The event continued annually throughout the early 1990s, with the students from Luxembourg joined by other Europeans studying in New York State. In 1992, the simulation was held for the first time in Europe (Luxembourg) and has since rotated between host sites on both sides of the Atlantic. Each year another theme is chosen. By 2010 EuroSim had covered institutional reform, enlargement, financial perspectives, and a wide range of policy domains, including agriculture, environment, justice and internal security, and several aspects of foreign policy. EuroSim has also grown in numbers: the 2010 edition in Antwerp involved 200 students and 30 staff coming from 9 European and 11 American

institutions (see the Annex for an overview of the editions up to 2010 and http://www.eusimulations.org/ for more recent details on TACEUSS and EuroSim).

10.4 EuroSim as a Powerful Learning Environment: Assessing the Organizational Setup

Powerful learning environments presuppose (1) a balance between personal exploration and systematic instruction, (2) students as organizers of their own learning process, and (3) authentic contexts. This section examines the extent to which the EuroSim events live up to these conditions.

EuroSim aims to simulate EU politics as close to "real life" as possible. The topics are determined on yearly basis and reflect the ongoing EU agenda. In the preparatory documents for the students, it is clearly stipulated how the simulation theme fits in the EU agenda. Obviously, some concessions have to be made. Although EuroSim lasts for four consecutive days, this period is much shorter than in the real EU setting. Also, to ensure that all students are kept more or less equally busy, both before and during the event, some roles or alter egos have been upgraded, while others have been downgraded. In order to allow students coming from different levels to participate, some of the most technical intricacies of the issue at stake may be left aside. Students are encouraged to prepare their roles carefully. In order to make the simulation realistic, they need to check the background and preferences of their alter egos and act accordingly. The meeting rooms are arranged as much as possible according to real-life settings. Students even adopt a more formal dressing code throughout the 4 days and are stimulated to speak and behave in a diplomatic way. In real EU politics, a large number of actors are involved in the decision-making process: politicians, diplomats and officials from the member states, MEPs, commissioners, administrators from the Council, the Commission and the Parliament, and a wide range of stakeholders at various governance levels. A game with approximately 200 students enables most of these positions to be covered: diplomats and bureaucrats are included, next to elected politicians, both at the European and the national level. Experiments including press and lobby groups have so far delivered mixed results. Especially the latter are more difficult to involve intensively throughout the simulation process, but they enhance real-life resemblance significantly. In addition, preparatory documents that are distributed use the official EU templates, while students are encouraged to use EU jargon as much as possible. The host institution invites practitioners from the European institutions who in the end compare the result of the game with the real outcome. EU decisions are prepared and even sometimes de facto agreed in informal settings, bringing together coalitions of actors or the main stakeholders. The EuroSim scenario takes these crucial real-life settings seriously by providing time for meetings with compositions other than the formal Council, Commission, or EP meetings. Participants are also encouraged to make use of breaks, social events, and free time to network and forge coalitions.

Concluding, EuroSim puts much effort in placing students in realistic settings. Themes are carefully chosen so as reflect recent real-life cases of EU decision-making; alter egos are meticulously selected, the scenario allows for formal and informal negotiations, and the setting is organized in such a way that it resembles EU life as closely as possible. All these elements contribute to a high level of authenticity, which is crucial to live up to the conditions of a powerful learning environment.

EuroSim events leave as much as possible to the students themselves. Of course, preparations are done by the staff. For each event European and American directors and vice directors are appointed. These faculty members are responsible for creating the scenario, drafting the alter ego list, and allocating the students to the alter egos. The host institution is responsible for the logistics and usually also sets up an interactive electronic platform that is used for the distribution of content related and practical information and for facilitating contacts among the participants. Among the materials provided is a document discussing in detail the theme of the simulation, the institutional setting and decision-making procedures, the scenario, and the expected outputs of the different meetings. The input of the faculty is, however, largely limited to the weeks and months before the event takes place. During the 4 days of the simulation, staff members disappear to the background and leave the organization in charge of the two appointed student directors. Staff interventions are kept to an absolute minimum and are only undertaken in case of severe conflicts or deadlocks.

In addition to the common preparations, each participating institution is responsible for the preparation of its delegation. Preparations obviously vary among the institutions, but may include having students drafting and presenting papers concerning the contents and the institutional issues regarding the theme and training of skills such as debating, speaking in public, drafting reports, and negotiating. The overall picture is that students take their preparation in their own hands while teachers function as facilitators. For most students, participation in EuroSim is part of a course, meaning that they receive grades based on the quality of their preparatory papers and their performance during the event. This often entails that EuroSim is embedded in a seminar, which takes place in their home institution during the weeks and months preceding the simulation. Such seminars typically involve introductory lectures, discussions, writing papers, giving presentations, and skills exercises. Hence, also during the preparations, students are actively engaged: they only receive a concise list of sources and are expected to collect all necessary information from the library, from the World Wide Web, and even from interviews to draw up the position and strategy of their alter ego. After the simulation, and back home, the lecturers take over again by organizing debriefing sessions, tackling issues such as a comparison between the simulation outcome and the real-life outcome, and organizing individual feedback on students' performance. Some use a system of peer evaluation and let students comment on each other's behavior and achievements.

In short, EuroSim is largely based on the input of the students themselves. Staff members essentially act as facilitators of the learning process and only intervene during the simulation when absolutely necessary. Teaching activities such as lectures

are kept to a minimum and are limited to the early stages of the preparations. Even the daily management of the simulation is in the hands of the students. They are simply forced to make the event work themselves. We can therefore conclude that EuroSim strikes an appropriate balance between teaching and learning and hence fits within the framework of the powerful learning environment.

10.5 EuroSim as an Affective Learning Tool: Assessing the Learning Outcomes

As a means of assessing EuroSim for both pedagogical purposes and for helping faculty gain support for participation from administrators, a series of pre- and post-simulation surveys were conducted. Our goal was to quantify the learning outcomes of EuroSim. The current data set consists of 4 years of survey data gathered from 2007 to 2010. The surveys were administered in a pretest/posttest pattern with the pretest distributed with registration materials and filled out at the opening banquet of EuroSim. The posttest was distributed at the closing plenary session on the last day of the simulation. The 4 years were combined in order to get as clear a picture as possible of the existence and possible impact of affective learning. It is anticipated that this survey will continue to be carried out at future EuroSims.

Both the pre-simulation and post-simulation surveys had consistent questions for year in school, university, age, and gender. Both surveys also contained questions designed to assess any increase in cognitive learning that takes place as a result of participation in EuroSim. The pre-simulation asked students to perform a self-assessment on their perceived level of preparation, their confidence with regard to working without faculty, and their perceptions regarding any external or future benefits to participation in the simulation. The post-simulation surveys are designed to measure any changes in the students' original perceptions of their level of preparation, self-confidence, and ability to self-assess. The literature argues that improvements in self-assessment are a sign of affective learning and increased accuracy in assessment skills in students (Topping 1998). Questions also asked students if they experienced any change in perceptions with regard to the actual work done by government officials and any increase in their appreciation for the stresses faced by lawmakers trying to write and pass policies. All of the questions in both the pre- and post-simulation surveys were designed to elicit information regarding the presence or success of affective learning via EuroSim.

10.5.1 Pretest and Posttest Survey Descriptive Statistics

The pretest survey has a valid $N = 339$. With the exception of EuroSim 2008 which experienced a mix-up in distribution of the pretest survey, each year has

an *N* of about 100.[1] EuroSim 2008 had only 23 responses; however, despite the low response rate, the distribution of answers to the questions approximates the surveys with larger response rates. In total, the participants were 47 % male and 53 % female. First year students make up 11.8 % of the total, second year students are 24.2 %, third years are 28.2 %, fourth years are 19.1 %, and graduate students are 16.7 % of the total. Just over one-third (39.1 %) participated in EuroSim through a university club, while 60.9 % participated through a class. The students are fairly evenly divided between European participants (45.4 %) and American participants (54.6 %). The average age was just over 21 years (21.6).

The posttest surveys were administered at the closing plenary session. The total $N = 386$; 2007 = 100, 2008 = 74, 2009 = 54,[2] and 2010 = 158. The sample was 48.1 % male and 51.9 % female. Third year students were the largest group at 26.5 % of the total, followed by second year students at 24.3 %, fourth years at 20.3 %, graduate students at 19.7 %, and first year students were 9.2 % of the total. The division between European and American students was about the same as seen in the pretest survey; American students made up 55.7 % of the total while Europeans were 44.3 %. The average age of participants was the same as in the pretest survey, 21.6 years.

10.5.2 Hypotheses

Based on the literature and on the affective learning goals outlined by Greenblat (1973), Greenblatt and Duke (1975) and Szafran and Mandolini (1980), we developed three hypotheses to be tested:

H_1: Younger students (sorted by age and year in school) will show greater gains in affective learning than older students.

H_2: Students who gave higher ratings to the simulation are more likely to recognize benefits gained from participation.

H_3: Students who claim that the simulation met or exceeded their expectations are more likely to recognize the benefits gained from participation.

The initial analysis ran analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests and cross tabulations on the pretest survey. These tests were followed by tests on the posttest survey, and then finally, the differences between the pre- and posttest surveys were compared. As with previous research (Jones 2008), we could not run crosstabs between pre- and posttest surveys due to the anonymous nature of the surveys.

[1] See the Annex for complete descriptive statistics.

[2] Due to an approaching snow storm, several schools left early to avoid any travel problems.

10.5.3 Age and Affective Learning

Pretest Analysis

In order to test the first hypothesis, ANOVAs were run with age as the dependent variable and all the affective learning questions as the grouping variables. The first test run analyzed the age differences in responses to the question asking if the participant was worried that others would be more prepared. The results showed the ANOVA to be significant at the 0.05 level with $p=0.000$; younger students were more worried that others in the simulation would be more prepared than they were. Scheffé post hoc tests showed significant difference between those that strongly disagreed with the statement and those that strongly agreed ($p=0.003$), significant difference between those that disagreed and those that strongly agreed ($p=0.001$) and significant difference between those that were undecided on the question and those that strongly agreed ($p=0.026$). The age differences between the groups were striking in that it shows how much can be learned in just one or two short years. The students who strongly agreed with the statement "I am worried others are more prepared than me" were on average over two and a half (2.59) years younger than those who indicated they strongly disagreed with the statement; those same students were just over 2 years (2.25) younger than those who disagreed with the statement and over one and a half years (1.52) younger than those who were undecided. Younger students were more likely to assess their abilities at a lower level relative to what they perceived to be a level of preparation by others (Table 10.1).

In feeling adequately prepared on the topic, once again, younger students were more inclined to disagree with the statement "I feel adequately prepared regarding the topic of EuroSim." The ANOVA was significant at $p=0.000$, with a significant difference at the 0.05 level between those that disagreed with the statement and those that strongly agreed ($p=0.011$); a significant difference at the 90 % confidence level (0.10) was found between those that strongly disagreed and those that strongly agreed with $p=0.063$; and a significant difference at the 0.10 level between those who were undecided and those who strongly agreed with $p=0.088$. A further significant difference at the 0.10 level was found between those who agreed and those who disagreed at $p=0.091$ confidence level. Those students who strongly agreed with the statement that they felt prepared on the topic were almost 3 years (2.769) older than those indicating they disagreed with the statement. Younger students were not as confident regarding their overall level of preparation with regard to the general topic of EuroSim (Table 10.2).

There were no significant differences between age and feeling adequately prepared for the individual roles. It appears that younger students are more worried about their level of preparation in terms of larger picture items, e.g., the topic, and that others are better prepared. No significant differences were found between age and feeling that others would be *less* prepared.

In terms of personal interactions and viewing participation in EuroSim as beneficial to them outside of the school and the classroom, younger students were more

Table 10.1 ANOVA: Worried others will be more prepared (MOREPREP) and AGE

Pre-simulation analysis					
Age					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
Between groups	174.020	4	43.505	6.766	0.000
Within groups	2141.068	333	6.430		
Total	2315.089	337			

Scheffé post hoc test				
(*I*) Worried others will be more prepared	(*J*) Worried others will be more prepared	Mean difference (*I*–*J*)	Std. error	Sig.
Strongly disagree	Disagree	0.337	0.643	0.991
	Undecided	1.074	0.581	0.491
	Agree	1.565	0.563	0.105
	Strongly agree	2.595*	0.636	0.003
Disagree	Strongly disagree	–0.337	0.643	0.991
	Undecided	0.737	0.464	0.641
	Agree	1.228	0.442	0.106
	Strongly agree	2.258*	0.532	0.001
Undecided	Strongly disagree	–1.074	0.581	0.491
	Disagree	–0.737	0.464	0.641
	Agree	0.491	0.344	0.730
	Strongly agree	1.521*	0.454	0.026
Agree	Strongly disagree	–1.565	0.563	0.105
	Disagree	–1.228	0.442	0.106
	Undecided	–0.491	0.344	0.730
	Strongly agree	1.030	0.432	0.226
Strongly agree	**Strongly disagree**	**–2.595****	**0.636**	**0.003**
	Disagree	**–2.258****	**0.532**	**0.001**
	Undecided	**–1.521****	**0.454**	**0.026**
	Agree	–1.030	0.432	0.226

*Significant at the 0.10 level; **Significant at the 0.05 level or better

likely to agree that participation would help them to broaden their horizons at their own university. The ANOVA was significant at the 0.05 level with $p = 0.012$. There was a significant difference ($p = 0.042$) between those who were undecided regarding the benefits of the simulation and those who strongly agreed that participation would broaden their horizons at their own universities. Those who strongly agreed were, on average, just over a year younger than the undecided. None of the remaining ANOVA tests showed significant results (Table 10.3).

Crosstabs were run with those variables that did not result in significant outcomes in the ANOVA analyses, to determine if any level of relationship between the variables could be seen. Crosstabs between year in school and feeling prepared for the individual role were significant. The Kendall's tau-b (testing relationships between ordinal variables) was 0.120 and significant at the 0.05 level with $p = 0.015$. Almost half (43.6 %) of the first year students either disagreed (18 %)

Table 10.2 ANOVA: Prepared for topic (TOPIC) and AGE

Age					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
Between groups	136.487	4	34.122	5.193	0.000
Within groups	2175.010	331	6.571		
Total	2311.497	335			

Scheffé post hoc test

(*I*) Felt prepared for topic	(*J*) Felt prepared for topic	Mean difference (*I*–*J*)	Std. error	Sig.
Strongly disagree	Disagree	–0.452	1.142	0.997
	Undecided	–1.725	1.000	0.563
	Agree	–2.257	0.988	0.268
	Strongly agree	–3.221	1.073	0.063
Disagree	Strongly disagree	0.452	1.142	0.997
	Undecided	–1.273	0.653	0.436
	Agree	–1.804	0.635	0.091
	Strongly agree	–2.769*	0.760	0.011
Undecided	Strongly disagree	1.725	1.000	0.563
	Disagree	1.273	0.653	0.436
	Agree	–0.532	0.315	0.585
	Strongly agree	–1.496	0.523	0.088
Agree	Strongly disagree	2.257	0.988	0.268
	Disagree	**1.804***	**0.635**	**0.091**
	Undecided	0.532	0.315	0.585
	Strongly agree	–0.964	0.500	0.446
Strongly agree	**Strongly disagree**	**3.221***	**1.073**	**0.063**
	Disagree	**2.769****	**0.760**	**0.011**
	Undecided	**1.496***	**0.523**	**0.088**
	Agree	0.964	0.500	0.446

*Significant at the 0.10 level; **Significant at the 0.05 level or better

with the statement or were undecided (25.6 %) regarding their preparation levels for their individual roles versus fourth year students where 64 % agreed or strongly agreed that they felt prepared for their individual role. Crosstabs between year in school and other affective learning questions did not yield any significant results (Table 10.4).

Posttest Analysis

ANOVAs were again run between age and the affective learning questions. When examining the differences between ages with regard to level of preparation, there was no significant difference between age and feeling prepared regarding the overall topic. However, there was a significant difference in age between those who disagreed that they felt prepared for their individual role and those who strongly agreed.

Table 10.3 ANOVA: Participation will broaden my horizons (BROADEN) and AGE

Age					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
Between groups	87.467	4	21.867	3.279	0.012
Within groups	2193.818	329	6.668		
Total	2281.284	333			
Scheffé post hoc test					
(*I*) Broaden horizons at own university	(*J*) Broaden horizons at own university		Mean difference (*I*−*J*)	Std. error	Sig.
Strongly disagree	Disagree		1.060	1.898	0.989
	Undecided		1.167	1.851	0.983
	Agree		1.801	1.838	0.916
	Strongly agree		2.488	1.848	0.770
Disagree	Strongly disagree		−1.060	1.898	0.989
	Undecided		0.107	0.599	1.000
	Agree		0.741	0.557	0.778
	Strongly agree		1.428	0.590	0.213
Undecided	Strongly disagree		−1.167	1.851	0.983
	Disagree		−0.107	0.599	1.000
	Agree		0.634	0.369	0.567
	Strongly agree		**1.321****	**0.417**	**0.042**
Agree	Strongly disagree		−1.801	1.838	0.916
	Disagree		−0.741	0.557	0.778
	Undecided		−0.634	0.369	0.567
	Strongly agree		0.687	0.353	0.438
Strongly agree	Strongly disagree		−2.488	1.848	0.770
	Disagree		−1.428	0.590	0.213
	Undecided		−1.321*	0.417	0.042
	Agree		−0.687	0.353	0.438

*Significant at the 0.10 level; **Significant at the 0.05 level or better

The ANOVA was significant at $p = 0.002$ and the Scheffé test showed that the significance between groups was $p = 0.025$ and in a negative direction, meaning that students who disagreed with the statement were younger than those that strongly agreed. In fact, those who strongly agreed were almost 2 years older (1.7). The difference between those who indicated they were undecided regarding their level of preparation and those feeling they were adequately prepared was significant at the 0.10 level with $p = 0.067$; again, those falling into the undecided category were just over a year younger than those who felt prepared. In contrast, the pre-simulation survey analysis found no age difference with regard to feeling prepared for an individual role. Hindsight seems to have shown some students otherwise (Table 10.5).

Both Greenblat (1973), Greenblatt and Duke (1975), and Szafran and Mandolini (1980) suggest that affective learning will result in increased appreciation of the stress and pressure faced by lawmakers or business people or teachers, and in addition students will experience a change in perspective regarding how others

Table 10.4 Cross tabulations: Year in school (YEAR) and feeling prepared for role (ROLE)

			Year in school					
			Freshman/1st year	Sophomore/2nd year	Junior/3rd year	Senior/4th year	Grad student	Total
Felt prepared for individual role	Strongly disagree	Count	3	1	3	0	1	8
		% within felt prepared for individual role	37.5 %	12.5 %	37.5 %	0.0 %	12.5 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	4	7	3	1	3	18
		% within felt prepared for individual role	22.2 %	38.9 %	16.7 %	5.6 %	16.7 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	10	32	32	21	15	110
		% within felt prepared for individual role	9.1 %	29.1 %	29.1 %	19.1 %	13.6 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	19	34	48	32	26	159
		% within felt prepared for individual role	11.9 %	21.4 %	30.2 %	20.1 %	16.4 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	3	6	5	7	10	31
		% within felt prepared for individual role	9.7 %	19.4 %	16.1 %	22.6 %	32.3 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	39	80	91	61	55	326
		% within felt prepared for individual role	12.0 %	24.5 %	27.9 %	18.7 %	16.9 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.120	**0.049**	**0.015**

Table 10.5 ANOVA: Feel prepared for individual role (ROLE) and AGE

Post-simulation analysis					
Age					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
Between groups	98.581	4	24.645	4.350	0.002
Within groups	2090.424	369	5.665		
Total	2189.005	373			

(*I*) Feel prepared for individual role	(*J*) Feel prepared for individual role	Mean difference (*I*–*J*)	Std. error	Sig.
Strongly disagree	Disagree	–0.271	0.999	0.999
	Undecided	–0.738	0.956	0.963
	Agree	–1.142	0.915	0.816
	Strongly agree	–1.971	0.936	0.352
Disagree	Strongly disagree	0.271	0.999	0.999
	Undecided	–0.467	0.542	0.946
	Agree	–0.871	0.466	0.481
	Strongly agree	–1.700*	0.505	0.025
Undecided	Strongly disagree	0.738	0.956	0.963
	Disagree	0.467	0.542	0.946
	Agree	–0.404	0.365	0.874
	Strongly agree	**–1.233***	**0.414**	**0.067**
Agree	Strongly disagree	1.142	0.915	0.816
	Disagree	0.871	0.466	0.481
	Undecided	0.404	0.365	0.874
	Strongly agree	–0.829	0.309	0.127
Strongly agree	Strongly disagree	1.971	0.936	0.352
	Disagree	**1.700****	**0.505**	**0.025**
	Undecided	1.233	0.414	0.067
	Agree	0.829	0.309	0.127

*Significant at the 0.10 level; **Significant at the 0.05 level or better

deal with situations (such as the compromise involved in making laws). The ANOVA analysis between age and the level of agreement with the statement "I gained a better perspective on how governments work" was significant at the 0.05 level with $p = 0.008$. The Scheffé test indicated that the significant differences are found between those who disagreed and those who strongly disagreed ($p = 0.030$); those who strongly disagreed were about a year and a half (1.57) younger than those who merely disagreed. The second significant difference between the groups was found between those who disagreed (felt they had not gained a better perspective) and those who agreed ($p = 0.024$). Those who disagreed were just a bit over a year (1.363) older than those who agreed. This means that younger students were more likely than older students to say that participation in EuroSim had changed their perspective on how governments work. The ANOVA between age and gaining an appreciation for the stresses faced by lawmakers showed no significant results (Table 10.6).

Table 10.6 ANOVA: Changed my perspective on governments (PERSPECTIVE) and AGE

Age					
	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
Between groups	82.065	4	20.516	3.546	0.008
Within groups	1909.117	330	5.785		
Total	1991.182	334			

(*I*) Changed my perspective on how govts. work	(*J*) Changed my perspective on how govts. work	Mean difference (*I*−*J*)	Std. error	Sig.
Strongly disagree	Disagree	−1.570*	0.477	0.030
	Undecided	−0.654	0.432	0.682
	Agree	−0.207	0.393	0.991
	Strongly agree	−0.451	0.544	0.953
Disagree	**Strongly disagree**	**1.570****	**0.477**	**0.030**
	Undecided	0.916	0.442	0.369
	Agree	**1.363****	**0.404**	**0.024**
	Strongly agree	1.118	0.552	0.394
Undecided	Strongly disagree	0.654	0.432	0.682
	Disagree	−0.916	0.442	0.369
	Agree	0.447	0.350	0.804
	Strongly agree	0.203	0.514	0.997
Agree	Strongly disagree	0.207	0.393	0.991
	Disagree	−1.363*	0.404	0.024
	Undecided	−0.447	0.350	0.804
	Strongly agree	−0.244	0.482	0.992
Strongly agree	Strongly disagree	0.451	0.544	0.953
	Disagree	−1.118	0.552	0.394
	Undecided	−0.203	0.514	0.997
	Agree	0.244	0.482	0.992

*Significant at the 0.10 level; **Significant at the 0.05 level or better

As with the pretest survey, cross tabulations were run between those variables that had not shown a significant result in the ANOVA testing in order to determine if there was some level of relationship between the variables. The crosstabs analysis between year in school and feeling prepared for the overall topic showed that first year students were more likely to disagree with the statement "I felt adequately prepared on the overall topic." The Kendall's tau-b value was 0.170 with $p = 0.000$. Among first year students, 38.2 % agreed that they felt adequately prepared on the topic, and almost one-third (29.4 %) were undecided, while 57.5 % of graduate (law and master's) students agreed that they felt adequately prepared. By the end of the simulation, it appears that while younger students still felt that they were not adequately prepared with regard to the overall topic, they felt somewhat better about it than they had at the beginning of the simulation (Table 10.7).

The crosstabs between year in school and the question regarding future use of skills gained from the simulation resulted in a Kendall's tau-b that was small in value (−0.090) but significant at the 0.05 level with $p = 0.036$. The negative value for the tau-b indicates that as year in school increases, agreement decreases, but we get

Table 10.7 Cross tabulations: Year in school (YEAR) and feeling prepared for topic (TOPIC)

			Year in school					
			Freshman/1st year	Sophomore/2nd year	Junior/3rd year	Senior/4th year	Graduate student	Total
Feel prepared for topic	Strongly disagree	Count	1	1	0	1	0	3
		% within feel prepared for topic	33.3 %	33.3 %	0.0 %	33.3 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	5	3	6	9	2	25
		% within feel prepared for topic	20.0 %	12.0 %	24.0 %	36.0 %	8.0 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	10	17	11	6	4	48
		% within feel prepared for topic	20.8 %	35.4 %	22.9 %	12.5 %	8.3 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	13	52	51	35	42	193
		% within feel prepared for topic	6.7 %	26.9 %	26.4 %	18.1 %	21.8 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	5	17	30	24	25	101
		% within feel prepared for topic	5.0 %	16.8 %	29.7 %	23.8 %	24.8 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	34	90	98	75	73	370
		% within feel prepared for topic	9.2 %	24.3 %	26.5 %	20.3 %	19.7 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.170	**0.042**	**0.000**

mixed results when we examine the cells. Among first year students, 76.5 % agreed or strongly agreed that participation in EuroSim would help them in the future. Third year students were not far behind with 75.2 % agreeing or strongly agreeing while 68.9 % of second years, 63.0 % of graduate students, and 61.4 % of fourth year students agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. The crosstabs between year in school and greater appreciation of the stresses faced by lawmakers did not show any significant results. It would appear that students understand that there are stresses involved in making laws and participation in EuroSim does not change that (Table 10.8).

10.5.4 Ratings and Affective Learning

The second and third hypotheses suggested that students who went into the simulation with high expectations and/or rated the simulation highly were more likely to recognize the "extras" they had gained from participation (e.g., improved ability to work with others). To test these hypotheses, crosstabs were run between the question that asked students to give an overall rating to the simulation and the question regarding whether it met their expectations and the questions regarding affective learning on the posttest survey.

Crosstabs between rating and the statement that skills gained through participation would help in the future resulted in a Kendall's tau-b of 0.375 with $p = 0.000$. Of the students who rated the simulation "very good," 79.4 % of them agreed or strongly agreed that participation would help them in the future; 87.7 % of those rating the simulation "excellent" agreed or strongly agreed that participation would help in the future. Testing rating against broadening their horizons at their own university showed that 77.6 % of students who gave the simulation a rating of "very good" agreed or strongly agreed that participation had broadened their horizons at their own university, while 91.1 % of those rating the simulation as "excellent" agreed or strongly agreed. The Kendall's tau-b value was 0.391 and significant at the 0.001 level with $p = 0.000$ (Table 10.9).

Those students who rated the simulation "very good" also agreed or strongly agreed at a high rate (80.5 %) that participation in the simulation would help them deal with new situations they might encounter. Of those giving the simulation an "excellent" rating, 92.9 % agreed or strongly agreed that participation would help them deal with new situations. When it came to gaining a greater appreciation for the pressures and stresses faced by lawmakers, 61.6 % of the students rating the simulation as "very good" indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that participation had increased their appreciation. An additional 58.9 % who rated the simulation "excellent" agreed or strongly agreed. The Kendall's tau-b value was 0.146 with $p = 0.001$ (Table 10.10).

Simulations are also designed to help students improve their ability to work with others in groups. Of those students who rated the simulation "very good," 59.2 % agreed or strongly agreed that this was the case; 58 % of those rating the simulation

Table 10.8 Cross tabulations: Year in school (YEAR) and help in the future (FUTURE)

			Year in school					
			Freshman/1st year	Sophomore/2nd year	Junior/3rd year	Senior/4th year	Graduate student	Total
Participation will help in the future	Strongly disagree	Count	1	2	2	2	2	9
		% within participation will help in the future	11.1 %	22.2 %	22.2 %	22.2 %	22.2 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	2	4	2	9	6	23
		% within participation will help in the future	8.7 %	17.4 %	8.7 %	39.1 %	26.1 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	5	22	20	18	19	84
		% within participation will help in the future	6.0 %	26.2 %	23.8 %	21.4 %	22.6 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	12	38	33	29	29	141
		% within participation will help in the future	8.5 %	27.0 %	23.4 %	20.6 %	20.6 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	14	24	40	17	17	112
		% within participation will help in the future	12.5 %	21.4 %	35.7 %	15.2 %	15.2 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	34	90	97	75	73	369
		% within participation will help in the future	9.2 %	24.4 %	26.3 %	20.3 %	19.8 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	–0.090	**0.043**	**0.036**

Table 10.9 Cross tabulations: Rating of simulation (RATE) and help in the future (FUTURE)

			Rate simulation					
			Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent	Total
Participation will help in the future	Strongly disagree	Count	1	3	3	0	0	7
		% within participation will help in the future	14.3 %	42.9 %	42.9 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	1	6	17	3	0	27
		% within participation will help in the future	3.7 %	22.2 %	63.0 %	11.1 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	0	9	40	32	7	88
		% within participation will help in the future	0.0 %	10.2 %	45.5 %	36.4 %	8.0 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	1	8	44	76	18	147
		% within participation will help in the future	0.7 %	5.4 %	29.9 %	51.7 %	12.2 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	0	3	18	59	32	112
		% within participation will help in the future	0.0 %	2.7 %	16.1 %	52.7 %	28.6 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	3	29	122	170	57	381
		% within participation will help in the future	0.8 %	7.6 %	32.0 %	44.6 %	15.0 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.375	**0.039**	**0.000**

Table 10.10 Cross tabulations: Rating of simulation (RATE) and help with other new situations (NEWSITUA)

			Rate simulation					
			Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent	Total
Participation will help with other new situations	Strongly disagree	Count	1	1	2	1	1	6
		% within participation will help with other new situations	16.7 %	16.7 %	33.3 %	16.7 %	16.7 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	1	3	9	3	0	16
		% within participation will help with other new situations	6.3 %	18.8 %	56.3 %	18.8 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	0	15	25	29	3	72
		% within participation will help with other new situations	0.0 %	20.8 %	34.7 %	40.3 %	4.2 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	1	7	68	88	31	195
		% within participation will help with other new situations	0.5 %	3.6 %	34.9 %	45.1 %	15.9 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	0	3	16	48	21	88
		% within participation will help with other new situations	0.0 %	3.4 %	18.2 %	54.5 %	23.9 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	3	29	120	169	56	377
		% within participation will help with other new situations	0.8 %	7.7 %	31.8 %	44.8 %	14.9 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.287	**0.041**	**0.000**

"excellent" noted that they had improved their ability to work with others. The Kendall's tau-b value of 0.092 was significant at the 0.10 level with $p = 0.051$. None of the other crosstabs showed a significant relationship (Table 10.11).

10.5.5 Expectations and Affective Learning

The third hypothesis argued that those students who indicated that the simulation had met or exceeded their expectations were more likely to recognize the benefits of participation beyond the cognitive learning gained. Crosstabs between expectations and whether participation would help in the future resulted in a Kendall's tau-b value of 0.277, which was significant at the 0.001 level with $p = 0.000$. Among students stating that the simulation had met their expectations, 72.6 % agreed or strongly agreed that they had gained practiced skills that would help them in the future, while 84.9 % of those who stated EuroSim had exceeded their expectations agreed or strongly agreed with that statement. Crosstabs between expectations and broadening horizons at one's own university yielded similar results. Of those students stating that the simulation had met their expectations, 72.5 % agreed or strongly agreed that they had broadened their horizons at their own university; 84.4 % of those who indicated that participation had exceeded their expectations agreed or strongly agreed. The Kendall's tau-b value was 0.296 and significant at the 0.001 level with $p = 0.000$ (Table 10.12).

Examining the relationship between expectations and the ability to cope with other new situations in life, we find that 81.6 % of the students who said that participation in the simulation had met their expectations agreed or strongly agreed that participation would help them with other new situations; 83.1 % of those who stated that EuroSim had exceeded their expectations agreed (46.2 %) or strongly agreed (36.9 %) with the statement. Additionally, gaining empathy for others is a part of affective learning, and 60.6 % of students who noted that the simulation had met their expectations agreed or strongly agreed that participation gave them a greater appreciation for the stresses and pressures faced by lawmakers, while 53.5 % of those stating that the simulation had exceeded their expectations did so. The Kendall's tau-b value of 0.085 was significant at the 0.10 level with $p = 0.073$ (Table 10.13).

Crosstabs between expectations and improving the ability to work with others shows that of those students for whom the simulation met expectations, 62.5 % agreed or strongly agreed that they had improved their ability to work with others; 57.1 % of those who said the simulation exceeded expectations agreed (33.9 %) or strongly agreed (23.2 %) that participation had improved their ability to work in groups. The Kendall's tau-b value was 0.104 and significant at the 0.05 level with $p = 0.030$. It appears that those students who rated the simulation highly and/or felt that it met or exceeded expectations recognized the benefits (beyond cognitive learning) of participation in EuroSim (Table 10.14).

Table 10.11 Cross tabulations: Rating of simulation (RATE) and improved ability to work with others (WORKOTHERS)

			Rate simulation					
			Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent	Total
Improved ability to work w/others	Strongly disagree	Count	0	2	5	11	1	19
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	0.0 %	10.5 %	26.3 %	57.9 %	5.3 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	1	3	10	7	4	25
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	4.0 %	12.0 %	40.0 %	28.0 %	16.0 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	1	6	37	44	16	104
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	1.0 %	5.8 %	35.6 %	42.3 %	15.4 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	1	10	46	65	18	140
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	0.7 %	7.1 %	32.9 %	46.4 %	12.9 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	0	2	11	25	11	49
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	0.0 %	4.1 %	22.4 %	51.0 %	22.4 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	3	23	109	152	50	337
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	0.9 %	6.8 %	32.3 %	45.1 %	14.8 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.092	**0.047**	**0.051**

Table 10.12 Cross tabulations: Expectations for simulation (EXPECT) and help in the future (FUTURE)

			Expectations					
			Failed to meet	Met some	Undecided	Met expectations	Exceeded expectations	Total
Participation will help in the future	Strongly disagree	Count	2	5	0	0	1	8
		% within participation will help in the future	25.0 %	62.5 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	12.5 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	3	8	9	7	0	27
		% within participation will help in the future	11.1 %	29.6 %	33.3 %	25.9 %	0.0 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	0	22	13	43	9	87
		% within participation will help in the future	0.0 %	25.3 %	14.9 %	49.4 %	10.3 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	3	26	17	76	24	146
		% within participation will help in the future	2.1 %	17.8 %	11.6 %	52.1 %	16.4 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	1	10	11	56	32	110
		% within participation will help in the future	0.9 %	9.1 %	10.0 %	50.9 %	29.1 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	9	71	50	182	66	378
		% within participation will help in the future	2.4 %	18.8 %	13.2 %	48.1 %	17.5 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.277	**0.041**	**0.000**

Table 10.13 Cross tabulations: Expectations for simulation (EXPECT) and help with other new situations (NEWSITUA)

			Expectations					
			Failed to meet	Met some	Undecided	Met expectations	Exceeded expectations	Total
Participation will help with other new situations	Strongly disagree	Count	1	3	0	1	1	6
		% within participation will help with other new situations	16.7 %	50.0 %	.0 %	16.7 %	16.7 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	2	8	1	3	1	15
		% within participation will help with other new situations	13.3 %	53.3 %	6.7 %	20.0 %	6.7 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	4	19	11	29	9	72
		% within participation will help with other new situations	5.6 %	26.4 %	15.3 %	40.3 %	12.5 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	1	31	30	103	30	195
		% within participation will help with other new situations	0.5 %	15.9 %	15.4 %	52.8 %	15.4 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	1	9	8	44	24	86
		% within participation will help with other new situations	1.2 %	10.5 %	9.3 %	51.2 %	27.9 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	9	70	50	180	65	374
		% within participation will help with other new situations	2.4 %	18.7 %	13.4 %	48.1 %	17.4 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.238	**0.046**	**0.000**

Table 10.14 Cross tabulations: Expectations for simulation (EXPECT) and improve ability to work with others (WORKOTHERS)

			Expectations					
			Failed to meet	Met some	Undecided	Met expectations	Exceeded expectations	Total
Improved ability to work w/ others	Strongly disagree	Count	0	4	1	10	4	19
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	0.0 %	21.1 %	5.3 %	52.6 %	21.1 %	100.0 %
	Disagree	Count	3	5	2	12	2	24
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	12.5 %	20.8 %	8.3 %	50.0 %	8.3 %	100.0 %
	Undecided	Count	2	22	20	40	18	102
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	2.0 %	21.6 %	19.6 %	39.2 %	17.6 %	100.0 %
	Agree	Count	2	24	18	77	19	140
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	1.4 %	17.1 %	12.9 %	55.0 %	13.6 %	100.0 %
	Strongly agree	Count	1	6	3	26	13	49
		% within improved ability to work w/ others	2.0 %	12.2 %	6.1 %	53.1 %	26.5 %	100.0 %
Total		Count	8	61	44	165	56	334
		% within improved ability to work w/others	2.4 %	18.3 %	13.2 %	49.4 %	16.8 %	100.0 %

Kendall's tau-b	Value	Error	Approx. sig.
	0.104	**0.048**	**0.030**

10.5.6 What Happened Between the Beginning and End of the Simulation?

In an earlier iteration of this research (Jones 2008), a comparison of cell counts and percentages between the pre- and posttest surveys demonstrated that an increase in affective learning did indeed take place as a result of participation in EuroSim. While simply comparing the crosstab results is not the most sophisticated means of analysis, it is the only one available at this point since the survey responses are anonymous. When we compare the crosstab results on the question regarding simulation participation allowing students to practice and build skills that would help them in the future, we find mixed results. Among first year students, 65.7 % agreed or strongly agreed with that sentiment in the pretest survey. By the end of the simulation, 76.5 % of first year students agreed or strongly agreed. Second year students showed a negative change, however, with 74.7 % agreeing or strongly agreeing prior to the start of the simulation, but that number dropped to 68.9 % by the end of the simulation. Third year students and graduate students remained at the same level in the pre- and posttest surveys (75 %), while fourth year students also showed a drop in numbers from 74.6 % agreeing or strongly agreeing in the pretest survey to only 61.4 % in the posttest survey. First year students do appear to make greater gains in affective learning than do older students.

When we compare the pre- and posttest ANOVA results from the question of feeling prepared for the individual role, we can see that younger students did indeed make greater gains in the ability to accurately judge the quality of their own work. More of them disagreed with the statement "I felt adequately prepared for my individual role" after the simulation than had before the start of the simulation. This suggests that over the course of the 4 days, students realized that relative to others they perhaps were not as prepared as they thought. When it came to the overall topic, which was a source of greater worry for most students prior to the start of the simulation, at the conclusion of the simulation, more students felt that they were adequately prepared there than had indicated in the pretest survey. These results do suggest that through participation in EuroSim, students become better able to accurately assess their own levels of preparation.

Our results confirm other assessments of cognitive and affective learning results of simulations. Frederking (2005), using a control group, found that "a simulation positively influences student performance in other aspects of the course (391)," hence "providing quantitative evidence of the teaching effectiveness of simulations (392)." Brown and King (2000) conducted similar pre- and posttests with respect to the ICONS simulations. They equally report increased knowledge and motivation of students. In addition, they also asked teachers to evaluate students' progress. Apparently, "teachers report gains in knowledge, an improved understanding of foreign policy and negotiation and diplomacy skills, gains in computer skills, working with groups, and seeing the perspectives of others" (Brown and King 2000: 252). Likewise, Shellman and Kürşad (2006) found empirical evidence that a simulation enhances knowledge of substantive course material, hence confirming cognitive

learning results. But they also found that "more than 90 % of the students stated that the simulation enhanced knowledge of their assigned country or organization at a level four or above on a five point scale" and that the simulation "aids in the development of critical and analytical thinking skills" (Shellman and Kürşad 2006: 28).

Clearly, participation in simulations increases affective learning and it appears that this is more than just a beneficial side effect to the use of simulations in and out of the classroom. EuroSim data reveal that older students showed a greater ability to accurately judge their own levels of preparation while younger students demonstrated an increased ability to judge their level of work. These findings also support Topping's (1998) argument that older students are better at self-assessment and that this is a skill that is learned as students progress through university.

10.6 Conclusion

Pedagogical literature suggests that students benefit more in terms of affective learning when they are confronted by a modern learning paradigm instead of by a traditional teaching paradigm. Such powerful learning environments are characterized by a balance between personal exploration and systematic instruction, by students as organizers of their own learning process, and by authentic contexts.

In the first part of this paper, we assessed EuroSim as an effective implementation of such a modern learning paradigm. We showed, among other things, that EuroSim is explicitly designed as an extended simulation with students largely in charge of the event, that faculty members function as facilitators rather than teachers, and that both the theme and the setting are presented as realistically as possible. Hence, we concluded that EuroSim lives up to the required criteria put forward in the literature to establish a powerful learning environment.

However, designing a simulation along the lines of the learning paradigm is one thing, whereas producing the results that the paradigm predicts is another. In order to provide empirical evidence, we conducted pre- and post-simulation surveys during the past four editions of EuroSim. We hypothesized that younger students, students who gave higher ratings to the simulation, and students who claimed that the simulation met or exceeded their expectations would be more likely to recognize the benefits gained from participation in an event like EuroSim. All three hypotheses were confirmed. The comparison of crosstab results between the pre- and posttest surveys indicates that students gained in the areas of affective learning as suggested by Greenblat (1973), Greenblatt and Duke (1975), and Szafran and Mandolini (1980). More in particular we found that first year students make greater gains in affective learning than older students, and that participation makes (older) students better able to accurately assess their own level of participation.

We agree that utilizing crosstabs *between* the pre- and posttests would have been preferable. As our data unfortunately precluded this, we nevertheless found that the comparison of results between pre- and posttest surveys shows that simulations do indeed promote affective learning along with cognitive learning.

Annex: Overview EuroSim 2007–2010

	EuroSim 2007	EuroSim 2008	EuroSim 2009	EuroSim 2010
Venue	Buffalo, NY, USA	Otzenhausen, Germany	Buffalo, NY, USA	Antwerp, Belgium
Host institution	Canisius College	Trier University/ Saarland University	Canisius College	Antwerp University
Simulation theme	Energy policy	CFSP/Kosovo	Fighting crime and terrorism under the Lisbon Treaty	EU-Russia relations
Number of participating students	157	176	217	201
Number of participating institutions (EU/US)	6/11	6/12	9/13	9/11
Participating institutions	Babes-Bolyai University	Canisius College	Alfred University	Alfred University
	Canisius College	Cluj University	Canisius College	Canisius College
	Colgate University	Colgate University	Cornell University	Colgate University
	Cornell University	Cornell University	East Stroudsburg University	Cornell University
	East Stroudsburg University	East Stroudsburg University	Hamilton College	East Stroudsburg University Hamilton College
	Hamilton College	Hamilton College	Hanze University Groningen	Hanze University Groningen
	Niagara University	New York University	London Metropolitan University	Maastricht University
	Skidmore College	Niagara University	Maastricht University	New York University
	St. John Fisher College	Skidmore College	New York University	Niagara University
	SUNY Brockport	St. John Fisher College	Niagara University	Skidmore College
	SUNY Geneseo	SUNY Brockport	Northeastern Illinois Univ.	St. John Fisher College

(continued)

(continued)

	EuroSim 2007	EuroSim 2008	EuroSim 2009	EuroSim 2010
	University of Antwerp	SUNY Geneseo	Skidmore College	SUNY Brockport
	University of Lower Silesia	University of Antwerp	St. John Fisher College	University of Antwerp
	University of Saarland	University of Lower Silesia	SUNY Brockport	University of Bremen
	University of Trier	University of Saarland	SUNY Geneseo	University of Salford University of Lower Silesia University of Saarland University of Trier
	University of Twente	University of Trier	University of Antwerp	University of Twente
	Widener University	University of Twente	University of Bremen	Widener University
		Widener University	University of Lower Silesia	
			University of Saarland	
			University of Trier	
			University of Twente	
			Widener University	

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Chapter 11
Distance Learning as an Alternative Method of Teaching European Studies

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11.1 Introduction

Despite its increasing importance, e-learning has been more widespread in natural sciences than in social sciences (Budka and Mader 2006). A major reason for this is the more precise information and empirical results in the former case, which makes it easier to transfer them into an online environment. In social sciences, however, the knowledge and the empirical findings are of a more subjective nature and often debatable, which results in a more troublesome application of e-learning tools.

The field of European Studies is characterised by its multidisciplinary character, which calls for a variety of approaches and the openness for different interpretations and debates. This feature requires an amalgam of materials and teaching methods for serving the growing diversification in theoretical and analytical approaches (see Cini 2006). Moreover, the constantly evolving nature of the EU political system creates the need for a frequent update of the teaching material and for balancing the academic knowledge and the practical insights into the EU policymaking.

The ES field has been expanding significantly over the last decades, and there has been an increase in the demand for European Studies from a broader audience, going beyond the traditional classroom students. The specific multidisciplinary character and the openness of EU studies for nontraditional groups, such as professionals, call for the revision of the teaching methods to tackle the major ES challenges.

Last, but not least, the present challenges of the European regional integration and the globalisation process raise further challenges. The internationalisation of modern education systems and the EU education strategy ET 2020 (European Commission 2010) ask for innovative teaching tools that can offer a higher degree

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_11, © Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2014

of flexibility and the exchange of best practices among universities worldwide. Also, the growing competitiveness of ES programmes requires the adoption of an innovative culture and an interactive learning environment that provide practical skills to both students and the teaching staff to enhance their competitiveness on the job market (Timus 2010).

This study examines to what extent distance learning (DL), as an innovative teaching tool, tackles the needs of the ES field. The study investigates the pedagogically sound techniques of online learning by focusing on the blended DL through the case study of a master course on 'EU-Turkey relations'. It shows that DL is a suitable tool for teaching ES because it is able to incorporate a variety of theoretical frameworks, practical experiences, and models of teaching. It provides space for innovation in learning and makes the learning process more accessible.

The chapter is structured as follows. It starts with a literature review on the online learning environment and discusses the DL method within the framework of the modern socio-constructive education, highlighting its advantages and limitations as compared to traditional teaching tools. Then it moves to the analysis of the interplay between pedagogy and ICT through the case study of the DL course on 'EU-Turkey relations', taught within the master programme 'Analyzing Europe' at Maastricht University. This section is followed by student and instructor evaluations of the use of blended DL method, analysing both the strengths and the weaknesses of this approach and suggesting some ways of further improvement. The conclusion summarises the major findings and provides some further reflections on the role of DL in teaching ES and achieving the goals of the Bologna Process.

11.2 Distance Learning and the Modern Socio-constructive Education

E-learning has emerged as a new paradigm of the modern educational system, which moved from traditional teaching towards learning facilitated and supported by ICT in a complex knowledge-based society (Baturay and Bay 2010: 43). It can be shortly defined as a medium for delivering the instruction and achieving specific learning goals through an electronic environment. The e-learning can take different forms, as the choice of pedagogical tools is left to the educators and depends on the type of educational institution and the learning objectives (Govindasamy 2002). This can vary from traditional classrooms using electronic-supported learning, to a hybrid or blended learning, comprising both face-to-face and online learning, to a fully online learning.

DL represents one specific mode of e-learning. According to Holmberg (1986: 26), the main feature of DL is the education that is not under the 'continuous, immediate supervision of tutors' in classrooms or on the same premises; yet, the learners 'benefit from the planning, guidance and tuition of a tutorial organisation'.

The notion of *distance* is a core feature of this type of education. The early forms of DL – external studies[1] and correspondence education – have evolved with the advances of the ICT tools, making more use of computer-based instruction, such as emails and asynchronous online interaction (e.g. discussion forums), to incorporating Web 2.0 technologies that support synchronous interaction, such as social networking, instant chatting, and collaborative learning. The focus on self-regulated and collaborative learning together with the use of asynchronous and synchronous types of interaction makes DL an innovative socio-constructive pedagogical paradigm (Jonassen 1999: 158).

The advances in ICT tools and the use of virtual classrooms make learning possible at any time and any place (Stigmar and Sundberg 2001). With the recent ICT developments, the boundary between the traditional, on-campus teaching, and distance education is becoming blurred, with many learning environments combining both face-to-face and distance education (Spector 2009: 158).

By facilitating a diverse and more intense interaction between learners and instructors, DL enables the shift from the notion of *learning as transmission* of information to *learning as interaction* and *networked learning*, core features of modern education (Kennedy and Duffy 2004; Rico 2003). Also, the characteristics of the DL environment accommodate the demands of the contemporary knowledge-intensive society by offering learners greater flexibility and access to education and various lifelong learning skills.

Yet, the academic debate also emphasises the limitations of DL. A major criticism relates to the 'isolation' concern and 'the loneliness of the long distance learner' (Eastmond 1995: 46). However, as in the case of traditional classrooms, distance education can be both isolating for some learners and highly interactive for others. The key to success is to ensure the design of an interactive DL programme that would motivate students to participate in online activities.

Another field of criticism is the absence of the 'human factor' in distance education, particularly in asynchronous learning environments. However, the recent advances in ICT can ensure a greater degree of social interaction through DL facilitated by synchronous learning tools, such as videoconferencing, instant chatting, or streaming videos (Dickey 2004). Moreover, a vast number of studies found no significant difference between traditional and distance education (see Russell 2001) and stressed the advantages of DL over traditional face-to-face instruction (Piccoli et al. 2001).

Last, but not least, while a DL programme is economic overall, compared to traditional teaching methods, the start-up stage requires relatively high costs regarding material resources, labour, and time. The start-up and the running of sophisticated e-learning environments can be prohibitively expensive, particularly taking into account the 'digital divide', referring to socio-economic inequalities between academic communities and different groups of learners (Larreamendy-Joerns and

[1] Outside the university confines.

Leinhardt 2006: 593). Thus, faculty management and academic staff have to consider carefully the relevance of a DL programme for their educational curriculum, taking into account their budgetary constraints, the advantages of DL for their field of study, as well as their audience.

The current literature on distance education presents many conflicting findings and unanswered questions regarding the interplay between pedagogy and the ICT tools within the DL. There is a lot of literature on the online environment and administrative planning and designing (Porto and Aje 2004; Bates 2000; Fain 2007; Moore and Kearsley 2000; Pisel 2008). Less has been written, however, on pedagogical sound techniques for administering, designing, and implementing online courses (Grandzol and Grandzol 2010).

Scholars agree that interaction plays a key role in the success of the learning process in online courses (Moore 1989; Rourke et al. 2001; Garrison 2003; Grandzol and Grandzol 2010). Following Moore's typology (1989), three major types of interaction in online courses have been largely examined in the existing literature: *learner-learner*, *learner-content*, and *learner-instruction*. Despite the vast number of scholarly research, it still remains unclear which form of interaction is most important for online courses or whether they are equally important (Arbaugh and Rau 2007). The major reason is that the type and the level of interaction required in the online courses primarily depend on context-specific factors, such as the discipline requirements, the purpose of the course, or student individual needs. This also makes it difficult to understand what are the best mechanisms responsible for learning in the online environment. More interaction in online learning environments is not always better for the learning outcome (Grandzol and Grandzol 2010). It is important, therefore, to adopt a 'tailor-made' approach to course design and to find a perfect balance between the three major types of interaction.

11.3 The Interplay Between Pedagogy and ICT: Case Study

Trying to live up to its ambition to be 'leading in learning', Maastricht University (UM) has been characterised by its openness to experiment with new teaching tools. A major objective of its strategic programme is the introduction of 'new and attractive elements' in all of its curricula (Maastricht University 2006). In that light, it has implemented the 'problem-based learning online' project. It was aimed at promoting e-learning initiatives within the UM master programmes, such as blended learning courses or online courses for postgraduate students but also for new target groups, e.g. professionals. The DL MA course on 'EU-Turkey relations' was one of the pilots of the 'problem-based learning online' project. The course was implemented in March–April 2009 in the framework of the master Analyzing Europe, organised at FASOS,[2] UM. It had two major aims. The first one was to stimulate the

[2] Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences.

online application of the problem-based learning (PBL) – the central teaching method of Maastricht University, based on a student-centred pedagogy.[3] The second aim was to contribute to a further internationalisation of the UM network by organising a pilot videoconference between the lecturers and students from the UM and Bilkent University, Ankara.

The topic of the course was chosen in a way that it was of interest for both parties. It covered all the aspects of EU-Turkey relations, starting with the historical evolution and diplomatic relations, but also paying a particular attention to the pros and cons for Turkish-EU accession within EU member states.

The pilot project used a blended DL approach. Blended learning is considered by many as one of the most successful methods of modern pedagogy. Its main advantage is the fact that it is both innovative but also provides continuity in the learning paradigm as it makes use of traditional face-to-face and the online teaching methods. Compared to early versions of DL that were primarily asynchronous (emails, discussion threads), blended DL allows for a hybrid learning approach that combines face-to-face, asynchronous, and synchronous (chats, videoconferences) elements. It facilitates a greater degree of interaction and a greater reflection on the course content, increasing the success of student learning thanks to the long-term retention and use of the acquired knowledge and skills (Salmon 2000).

The course had two coordinators: one academic coordinator, responsible for the course content and the pedagogical tools, as well as an ICT coordinator, in charge of the technical support. The course designers at FASOS took into account both the advantages but also the concerns of blended DL for teaching the ES. The selection of pedagogical and technological tools followed the goal of finding a suitable balance between the three main types of interaction of Moore's typology (1989): *learner-learner*, *learner-content*, and *learner-instruction*. Being aware of the importance of balancing the theoretical and the practical knowledge when teaching ES, particular attention was paid to the combination of the academic knowledge on EU-Turkey relations and the practical skills that the students could develop and apply later in real-world settings (Derntl and Motschnig-Pitril 2004). The first week was based on peer interaction in the form of a group research. At the beginning of the week, students (in total 16) were divided randomly in three groups and received the assignment of presenting an overview of public and political opinions and debates on Turkish accession in three EU member states: Germany, France, and the United Kingdom. The organisation of meetings and group communication and the division of work were the responsibility of each group. Students had to be quick and efficient in their individual research and also creative in overcoming potential language barriers. The study of the three selected countries also required the knowledge of French, German, and English, which is usually not a problem for the students from Maastricht University. At the end of the week, each group presented its findings online in the form of a PowerPoint presentation and a written report. The course made use of Polaris software, which was designed to facilitate the PBL

[3] See for a more in-depth analysis Maurer and Neuhold (2014), Chap. 12 in this volume.

approach and collaborative learning. The students could choose between the different types of contributions, such as an 'answer', a 'question', a 'comment for discussion', or a 'supplement to another contribution'. It offered the possibility of interlinking the contributions to the discussion forum and engaging into critical discussion, as well as stimulating interaction in the process of online learning.

The second week started with a video-lecture, available online for students, together with the PowerPoint slideshow. The lecture was given by an official of the Turkish Permanent Representation to the EU and provided a comprehensive overview of EU-Turkey relations. The video-lecture combined the presence of the 'human factor' in the form of the instructor providing the video-lecture with the flexibility of accessing the PowerPoint presentation and other course material at any time and any place.

One of the most interesting elements of the course was the videoconference organised together with the students and faculty staff from Bilkent University. It was the only element of the course that was combining face-to-face and synchronous online learning. The timing of the videoconference was accurately chosen. It was aimed to represent a bridge between the self-study phase and the video-lecture, on the one hand, and the PBL online tutorial and the final assignment, on the other hand. After the students gathered sufficient knowledge about the historical evolution and the current state of affairs of Turkish-EU accession, they had the opportunity to engage into critical discussion during the videoconference. The first hour of video-conferencing was opened by a Turkish diplomat and was followed by Bilkent faculty presentations in the form of a lecture and a discussion. The second part of the videoconference was an interactive discussion between the students and staff of both universities. Students engaged into argumentative practices, which helped them to identify some of the salient issues of Turkish-EU relations as viewed from Brussels, Maastricht, and Ankara and to think in advance about potential questions that they could discuss during the upcoming tutorial.

The online tutorial used the PBL method. E-learning research has shown that the use of PBL online complemented by asynchronous and/or synchronous learning provides a unique opportunity for students to engage in argumentative practices and encourages reflective learning (Larreamendy-Joerns and Leinhardt 2006: 590–591). The tutorial was split into two parts: pre-discussion and post-discussion. Each part was implemented during a 24-h period of time,[4] when students had the freedom of contributing to the discussion forum with their ideas. During the first day, students had the pre-discussion session, when, as in the traditional PBL method, the aim was to go through the first five steps of PBL: *examination of the subject* based on the selected readings from the course material, *identification of the problem* that is of common interest for the students, *brainstorming* on the identified problem, *structural analysis* of the brainstorming ideas, and the *formulation of learning goals* for the next tutorial section. The second day was devoted to post-discussion, when students

[4] As opposed to the traditional 2-h classroom time frame of the PBL session, including both pre- and post-discussion.

equipped with the newly acquired knowledge met again online to explain the major learning objectives. Although the post-discussion lacked the face-to-face contact, it had its own advantages compared to a traditional PBL tutorial. Students could engage into solving real-world problems regarding Turkish-EU accession by using written contributions and posting links to external course material (e.g. videos) in the discussion forum. The opportunity of having traceable records of ongoing conversation, clustered according to their defined learning objectives, provided students with some 'wait-time' and encouraged reflective learning during on-task and post-task interactions (Tolmie and Boyle 2000).

The final assessment of the course was based on a position paper in which students had the freedom to choose and reflect critically upon one of the main issues of EU-Turkey relations. In this case, again, student individual needs and preferences were taken into account. While having the complete freedom of choosing the subject of their essay, most of them have reflected on similar subjects, yet from different (personal) perspectives.

11.4 Evaluation of the Use of Blended Learning Within a DL Course

Overall, the blended learning approach met the needs of the master DL course and of the diverse learners. The evaluation process[5] highlighted several advantages of the course that met the initial expectations of the course designers regarding the suitability of DL in teaching. Students considered the use of a software like Polaris as an indispensable tool for the course. They stressed the advantage of hearing and seeing the information as well as sharing more links, data, videos, etc. available online as compared to traditional classrooms. One student even suggested that the exchange of information among learners 'is more effective as they tend to be more careful in the use of figures, quotes, and data'.

There was a divided opinion about the role of the tutor in structuring and moderating the asynchronous learning via discussion forums. On the one hand, some students evaluated the use of discussion forums as worse than the face-to-face discussion because of the higher chance that the conversation will deviate from the original subject. Therefore, they welcomed a more structured discussion, divided into more specific threads and discussion groups, as well as the tutor's evaluation of student contributions to avoid irrelevant remarks. On the other hand, however, when asked if the active moderation of the discussion by a tutor would be of an added value, only 43 % of the respondents agreed, while the remaining responses were equally split between 'neither agree nor disagree' and 'disagree'. Overall, the students seemed to value the freedom of structuring their asynchronous communication via discussion forums.

[5] A total number of 7 out of 16 students participated in the evaluation process. The evaluation was designed and conducted by Sjoerd Stoffels, ICT and education coordinator.

The video-lecture was evaluated by the students as a positive contribution to the course, stressing particularly the advantage of accessing its content (video and PowerPoint slides) at any time and from any place and 'saving time'. But the respondents highlighted the technical problems of accessing the video recording from home, due to the limited speed of the Internet connection. Another disadvantage was the 'distance' between the learners and the lecturer, which made the *learner-instructor* interaction harder.

One of the highest scores of evaluations was given to the videoconference. Students welcomed the interuniversity cooperation with Bilkent counterparts and characterised as innovative the fact that this e-learning tool allowed having external lecturers and interacting with Turkish students. The questions and answers session at the end of the live lecture was considered an important course contribution. One of the respondents valued particularly the interactive side of the videoconference and the opportunity to engage in debates on controversial issues and exchanging views of different issues. In his view, this e-learning tool would be particularly useful at the end of the course, when the learners would be more familiar with the topic and able to contribute better to the discussion. However, some students also indicated that the sensitivity of the subject discussed, in this case Turkish-EU accession, can decrease the quality of interaction and lead to a more subjective approach. What emerged as an important lesson from the evaluation process is that students felt they needed more explanation on the expectations of their participation in the videoconference. Since most of them participated for the first time in a live videoconferencing session, there was a higher degree of uncertainty regarding their contribution in such a framework as compared to the traditional lecture.

The use of the blended learning approach, together with the small scale of the pilot course, allowed the incorporation of the constructive student feedback and remodelling of the course while it was still running. For example, during the PBL tutorial, students were confronted with the problem that some colleagues were rather passive and did not contribute sufficiently to the online discussion or were not present online. As a result, the (student) 'chair' of the PBL tutorial came up with the initiative of creating the rule of 'hot hours'. The idea was to have mandatory online meetings for all the course participants: 1 h in the first part and 1 h in the second part of the day. This was a strategy of fighting the free rider problem and ensured a more lively online discussion, resulting in a more efficient learning process. This example illustrates the fact that students felt the freedom of orchestrating the online interaction according to their own preferences and following the aim of improving the learning outcome.

The evaluation of the course by the academic and ICT coordinators was highlighting the same major points as those raised by the students. The use of blended learning helped to find an optimal mix of the three major types of interactions within the learning process. The combination of asynchronous and synchronous learning increased the efficiency of the knowledge transfer and student ability to process the new information by hearing, seeing, but also 'teaching' the colleagues while engaging in argumentative practices and clarifying the subject matter in the online discussions. As a result, students were able not only to acquire theoretical and practical knowledge but also to develop valuable skills, such as organisational and leadership abilities, as well as digital and language skills.

We also witnessed that students require more detailed information provided in the coursebook. Because blended learning makes use of different teaching methods, a thorough explanation of tasks (of instructors and learners) and of learning goals is crucial, particularly in the case of using innovative e-learning tools (e.g. videoconference, discussion forums). While both students and instructors agree that flexibility and broader access to course participation are the advantages of DL, the course designers have to find a specific borderline that separates students' freedom of interaction and course participation, on the one side, and the course requirements, on the other side.

In the case of our pilot project, we followed the PBL method and allowed the students to organise their online discussions. They were asked to follow the seven steps approach and choose their own 'chair' and 'secretary' that were responsible for setting the learning objectives and moderating the discussion. From our experience, we identified two major limitations of the approach we have taken. Firstly, the longer time period for student contributions to the discussion forums does not increase the quality and the efficiency of *learner-learner* interaction. Although initially students were allowed to participate in the online discussions the whole day (24 h), some of them made their first contributions only in a later stage, when the active participants already clarified some major issues and, for example, agreed on their learning objectives. In this case, the late contributions to the discussion forums were detrimental to the group productivity and to the sequence of PBL steps. Following students' recommendation, we limited the time period for online discussions to the 'hot hours', when all the students were expected to be online and actively contribute to the group discussions. As a result, we noticed a significant improvement in the quality and efficiency of student online interactions, and this opinion was also shared by the students.

Secondly, when using more online tutorials, it is advisable that the instructor names the chair and the secretary for the online discussion and gives them a more detailed explanation about their roles. This will lead to a better time management and structure of online discussions, resulting in a more efficient learning process.

Another potential limitation of the blended DL refers to the use of e-learning tools. As it is often the case when working with technology, things might go wrong in the last moment, and course coordinators and instructors have to be ready for a prompt action and change of plans. In our case, we had to change the location for the videoconferencing session, which also required changing the multiparty videoconferencing software (Adobe Connect) with two-party software (Polycom), which implied that we could not grant access to the videoconference to 3 out of 16 students that were outside the university campus at that moment.

11.5 Conclusion

In this contribution, we have discussed the advantages but also the limitations of using blended DL in teaching ES. Our findings show that the combination of asynchronous and synchronous means of interaction with the PBL method represents an innovative and efficient way of teaching ES. A blended DL approach answers the

specificities of the ES field by allowing the combination of a variety of theoretical frameworks, practical experiences, and models of teaching, as well as the exchange of best practices across universities and countries.

However, the freedom of blending different pedagogical methods and teaching tools comes together with a greater degree of responsibility not only on the side of the course designers and instructors but also the learners. There is no 'ideal recipe' for a combination of the three major types of interaction (as defined by Moore 1989), which would ensure the success of the online learning process based on the socio-constructive pedagogical paradigm. Therefore, academic and ICT staff need to undergo a careful consideration of the type and the level of interaction, as well as the best mechanisms for successful online learning, taking into account the course objectives, the specificities of the field of study, and learners' individual needs.

There is a need to increase the awareness about the advantages of DL in addressing the major challenges of the ES field, particularly in the light of Bologna Process as well as the processes of European regional integration and globalisation. The ES programmes would benefit significantly from the DL opportunities of making learning more accessible to students and professionals and encouraging the acquisition of a variety of skills, including the e-skills, in order to make their graduates more competitive on the job market. Also, DL represents an innovative and relatively low-cost teaching tool for making mobility accessible for faculty and students. It contributes to the exchange of best practices and brings more synergy in teaching the multidisciplinary field of European Studies.

Acknowledgement The author would like to express a special thanks to Sjoerd Stoffels (ICT and education coordinator of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, Maastricht University) for his support in designing and implementing the analysed Distance Learning Course and the information provided for writing this paper.

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Chapter 12
Problem-Based Learning in European Studies

Heidi Maurer and Christine Neuhold

12.1 Introduction

Problem-based learning (PBL) is a teaching approach that was originally established to come to terms with complex problems in the domain of medical studies and is now firmly established in the teaching curriculum of European Studies at Maastricht University. While the approach of PBL has been successfully used in a range of other disciplines such as medicine, nursing and law, it is used less widely in the field of politics or social sciences, and its application in the field of European Studies has been very limited (Craig and Hale 2008: 165). In a similar vein, there is hardly any literature on the use of PBL in the social sciences that reflects on the peculiarities of using this teaching method in this area.

Maastricht University is a pioneer when it comes to applying the method in the field of European Studies. The Bachelor programme of European Studies (BA-ES) welcomed its first cohort of students in 2002, and its curriculum is fully taught by way of PBL, in contrast to other programmes or universities that might use PBL just for single modules or courses. The BA-ES is a 3-year programme, where around 800 students are enrolled at a given time and which is structured around modules that last 4 or 8 weeks. The interdisciplinary curriculum focuses on European integration from a plethora of angles and brings together the disciplines of law, politics, history, philosophy and economics. European integration is thus considered as a broader process than the European Union (EU) as such and is conceived for students

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_12,

with a broad interest in the political, historical, social and cultural aspects of the European endeavour.[1]

The scope of the European Studies content is almost as large as Europe itself. It stretches from the feudal system of the Middle Ages to the present-day challenges of economic and fiscal integration of the European Union. In fact, the possibilities for study can be overwhelming. It goes beyond the scope of this chapter to probe into a comparative analysis of different European Studies programmes in Europe and to probe into the *ideal* design of European Studies programmes at bachelor level.

A different approach is thus taken in so far as we reflect on how to apply PBL as an alternative teaching and learning method in the field of European Studies (ES). In its ideal form, PBL is supposed to enable the study of real-life problems in their complexity by way of an interdisciplinary approach. We reflect on this method by referring to practical examples and experiences of staff members within the BA-ES and by discussing opportunities and challenges when implementing PBL in the classroom. This focus is closely linked to the question of the prerequisites that teaching material but also staff and students have to fulfil to allow for a fruitful use of PBL.

In this quest the chapter is set up as follows: First, the rationale of PBL as an alternative way of learning is presented, reflecting also on the psychological aspects that are underlying this alternative approach. In a next step, the set-up of a PBL teaching environment as used in Maastricht provides an insight of how PBL can be used in practice, elaborating in detail the seven-step approach and the different role of students and academic staff members. This more general account about PBL builds the starting point for the subsequent reflection on the main challenges that are inherent when using PBL as a teaching method: the crucial role of assignments as a starting point for self-directed learning, as well as the challenges that tutors (might) face when teaching ES by way of the PBL method. The methodological approach applied in this contribution builds on insights of tutors within the Basic Teaching Qualification project at Maastricht University, during which staff members are asked to reflect on their teaching experiences during the last years.[2] Additionally, reflections and insights are presented that have been identified within a current project entitled *Update PBL* at the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences.

12.2 The Rationale Behind Problem-Based Learning (PBL)

PBL is an interactive process of learning that developed during the late 1960s and was mainly applied in medical studies. It was first established in the field of medicine at McMaster University in Hamilton, Ontario, as well as in medical schools at

[1] For more background information on the structure of the BA-ES curriculum, see http://www.maastrichtuniversity.nl/web/Faculties/FASoS/TargetGroups/ProspectiveStudents/BachelorsProgrammes/EuropeanStudies2.htm

[2] This project 'Basiskwalificatie Onderwijs' (BKO) is a larger project conducted in the Netherlands where teaching staff are evaluated when it comes to their teaching experiences but at the same time have to reflect on different methods and experiences in this quest.

Case Western Reserve University in the USA (Albanese and Mitchell 1993: 52; Kaunert 2009: 255). In 1976, Maastricht University started its first training of medical students by way of PBL. Students were to work on problems together with their peers and under the guidance of a tutor. The number of lectures was restricted to one or two per week, while the starting point for the process of learning were assignments that had been designed by academic staff members. This student-centred approach has been described as promoting collaborative learning on the one hand, while at the same time enhancing the student's responsibility for the results achieved (Schmidt et al. 2009: 227).

The *pedagogical innovation* of PBL (ibidem: 227; Barrows 1996: 5–7) is based on the following characteristics:

1. Problems are used as point of departure for the learning process that allows discovering a certain topic within a real-time background. Different kinds of PBL problems are presented in assignments developed by academic staff.
2. Learning is student centred, based on student agency and initiation. The seven-step approach (see infra under 12.3.1) supports students in structuring their ideas and their approach and strongly mimics the academic research process.
3. Students cooperate in small groups to enhance collaborative learning. While in the original set-up the tutorial group was limited to 5–6 students, the tutorial groups at Maastricht University consist of 15 students. The underlying idea of these tutorial groups inspired by *collaborate learning* (Bruffee 1987) assumes that students learn better in the collaborative setting of the PBL tutorials instead of the competitive and highly individualised traditional classroom. Through this collaborative learning exercise, students train and increase their ability to judge information provided by others, relate it to their own learning success and critically assess compatibility or conflicting judgement.
4. Flexible facilitation by a tutor who is present at group meetings to help students with the learning process and to act as a facilitator rather than a teacher. The tutor, hence, supports the learning process of students by providing guidance and reflection and not per se to transfer expert knowledge by way of lecturing to students.
5. Limitation of the number of frontal lectures in order to present and clarify information that will feed into the debates of tutor groups (van Berkel and Schmidt 2005).
6. Ample time for self-study and reflection of the material.

These characteristics of PBL relate to research findings of cognitive psychology, suggesting that students learn better if the following *three conditions* are met during the learning process (Bridges 1992: 22–23; Gijselaers 1996; Schmidt et al. 2009; Albanese and Mitchell 1993: 53).

First, within a sustainable learning process, which is assumed to prevail in a PBL framework, students *activate previous knowledge* during the pre-discussion. Discussing the assignment in the tutorial group not only leads to a common understanding of the learning objectives for the respective assignment, but students are also prompted to rely on and discuss knowledge during the brainstorming that they have already gained and that they are familiar with. The underlying psychological

logic is that students apply knowledge to understand new information, which makes it easier to memorise and to mentally store the new information (Bridges 1992: 22; see also Gijselaers 1996: 15).

Secondly, PBL is based on psychological research that shows that for knowledge to be recalled and applied later, it is best if the PBL assignments and the context of learning mimic the future professional problems that students might encounter as closely as possible. This *importance of social and contextual factors* is also highlighted by Gijselaers (1996: 14–16) who criticises that in traditional learning environments students are just left with the acquired knowledge without any explanations of how the learnt could now be applicable in the real work or in a future job. This shortcoming of a mental distance between the acquired knowledge and its translation into a real-work context is overcome by PBL (Gijselaers 1996: 16).

Last, PBL rests on the quite common observation that most people learn best by doing and acting and by way of repeating or writing down issues rather than by just listening to lectures. Within the post-discussion meetings in a tutorial group, students have to *elaborate on the information that they collected* (Bridges 1992), discuss with peers and exchange views and arguments. This way students not only memorise what they have read, but this exchange with fellow students also helps them to understand and question the learnt material much better than if they would just read it or hear it in a lecture. Gijselaers takes this idea even further, when he emphasises that students learn to *question their acquired knowledge during self study in a meaningful way* (Gijselaers 1996: 14–16), because they are confronted with the elaborations of their peers in the tutorials. Students not only have to formulate the acquired knowledge in own words when presenting it to their peers, but ideally, this also leads to deeper understanding and questioning of inconsistent interpretations of the learnt material. Additionally, in this regard, the effect of students repeating the learnt knowledge yet another time also helps them to memorise and retain information.

Next to these psychological insights into the best ways to gain and retrieve new information, PBL is also strongly based on the idea of integrated learning and the development of team skills. The rationale underlying some of the characteristics of PBL is deducted *from the theory that learning is a process in which the learner actively constructs knowledge* (Gijselaers 1996: 13; for more background about learning theories underlying PBL, see Glaser 1991). The student-centred characteristic of PBL directly derives from this assumption that *students learn best when they set their own goals*, i.e. when the learners define themselves what they find interesting about a certain assignment and what they want to discover in their self-study. This assumption also strongly shapes the role of the tutor, who is not responsible anymore to transfer knowledge in the traditional sense, but facilitates students in developing and improving their *self-directed learning skills* (Gijselaers 1996: 13).

This way of learning becomes an *active and constructive process* (Gijselaers 1996: 15), especially when compared to the more receptive nature of the traditional learning when passively listening to lectures. As best shown by the seven-step approach, students mimic the normal process of academic research by elaborating on a problem and by way of developing a research plan and formulating clear research questions for each assignment. The advantage of this approach is that

students feel ownership for their own learning, and by being able to select themselves how exactly they want to approach certain problems, they show a higher interest and more engagement in their learning process.

Additionally, reflection and self-monitoring skills allow students to learn about their learning process, to identify shortcomings which they then can improve next time. This way of fostering awareness and reflection about the learning process makes PBL, according to Gijselaers (1996: 15), also more effective in the long run, as it equips students with the necessary metacognitive skills to learn quicker and better also in the future, after finishing the respective course or even their studies.

The underlying psychological rationale for better ways of learning follows a *paradigm change* in learning theory, as Birenbaum (2003) argues. She shows convincingly that the traditional learning approach follows an *empiricist (positivist) epistemological stance* (Birenbaum 2003) where knowledge transmission and memorisation are considered as the central elements. In the current knowledge age, however, this traditional approach has been replaced by a constructivist stance, which emphasises the importance of the reconstruction of expertise and knowledge in a life-long learning process (ibidem). Knowledge is not considered as objective content, but the process of knowledge construction makes learning an active process and social phenomenon that is highly dependent on the context in which learning is taking place.

PBL and its underlying logics, hence, can also be considered as a very strong response to the discontent with traditional learning approaches that were often criticised insofar as students are seen to retain very little information from what they have heard during lectures, or are not being able to link what they have learnt with their future job profiles, inside and outside academia. At the same time, PBL strongly points at the process dimension of learning, emphasising that the main focus should not be *what is learnt* but *how it is learnt*. Educating students towards independent, reflective and sustainable learners is the ultimate goal of PBL.

12.3 Applying Problem-Based Learning in European Studies

The rationale of PBL is to a lesser extent also used in situations where academic staff engages students with project work or where, for example, current newspaper articles are used to trigger interest about a certain topic. This seems to follow the quite common understanding that people just learn better when they do and apply certain things rather when they just read about them or listen to a respective lecture. But it makes the use of PBL at Maastricht University special that it is applied in a holistic and structured way for all teaching activities.

In European Studies at Maastricht University, PBL is used as the main underlying learning logic, where within a structured framework of modules that last 4 or 8 weeks, different ways of learning with PBL are applied in each module. Generally the set-up of each course evolves around two tutorials per week plus one lecture. Additionally, next to most courses, there is a skills training that puts the learnt knowledge even stronger into practical application.

Tutorials are constructed around the seven-step approach as developed at Maastricht University that supports students to follow their inquiry into the specific topics in a more structured manner. This approach is elaborated in more detail below, followed by outlining the different role of students and tutors in a PBL environment.

12.3.1 Seven Steps to Wisdom

The seven-step approach, also called *seven jump* approach, was developed at Maastricht University to facilitate and structure students' learning processes within a PBL framework. Each tutorial meeting is thereby divided into two parts: The tutorial session starts with the post-discussion of the assignment that students prepared in their self-study before the tutorial, and after a short break, the pre-discussion of the next assignment follows that students prepare until the next tutorial meeting. Ideally both parts together should take a bit less than 2 h.

In the pre-discussion of an assignment, students follow the first five steps of the seven-step approach (for an overview, see Table 12.1): (1) clarification of terms and concepts, (2) formulation of a problem statement, (3) brainstorming, (4) classification and structuring of brainstorming and finally (5) formulation of learning objectives (van Til and van der Heijden 2009: 9–11; see also Schmidt et al. 2009: 228–229; Schmidt 1983).

To get students started on a certain topic, they are confronted with an assignment that provides a picture, some quotes, or few text passages outlining the problem or asking for a specific task to complete. These assignments are developed by scientific staff and are part of the course book that students receive at the beginning of each module. Students are supposed to have read and looked at this assignment already before their tutorial (or during the break), so that they can start of with *clarifying terms and concepts*. This first step guides students mentally into the topic, and by discussing unknown words or concepts, it is ensured that all students understand the text as it stands and that the group shares ideas about illustrations that might be part of the assignment. This first step provides a common starting point and leads the group into the topic. In the next step, the whole group agrees on the *formulation of the problem statement* that frames the whole assignment, provides a title for the session and makes the group agree on what the general impetus of the assignment is about. Problem statements can take the form of more traditional titles but are sometimes also formulated as broader research questions or provoking statements.

The problem statement should trigger the next step of the *brainstorming*. The rationale behind this step is that students collect potential interests that they might have, activate prior knowledge and share certain expectations. Everything is allowed during this step, and ideas are collected unquestioned at the whiteboard (i.e. there are no wrong ideas; everyone should be allowed to follow her/his own ideas). Just in case a group member does not understand how a certain intervention of a peer is connected to the problem statement and if the relevant student did not explain why

Table 12.1 The seven-step approach and its underlying logic

Step	What to do?	What to do in detail	Why?
1	Clarification of terms and concepts	Ask for explanation of words or concepts that are not understood If illustration: discuss what picture shows Any sentences/passages that are difficult to understand?	Provide common starting point, i.e. every group member should understand the assignment text as it stands
2	Formulation of problem statement	Provide *title* for the session or formulate wider research question, i.e. *what is it about*	Students dive into topic and grasp the *underlying problem* of the assignment By discussing in the group, students establish a common ground of the problem – they not only name it but discuss it and also examine its wider relevance
3	Brainstorming	Everything is allowed: collection of ideas, potential explanations in regard of problem statement, etc.	To establish and contrast: what does the group already know – what does the group want to find out Students spontaneously name aspects that they consider as interesting and relevant Activation of prior knowledge and real-world experiences – students should link the problem statement to existing knowledge
4	Categorising and structuring of Brainstorming	Keywords from Brainstorming are put into similar categories (according to question type: why, how, what consequences, etc.)	Structuring first creative collection of ideas to find patterns and facilitate the formulation of *few* learning objectives
5	Formulation of learning objectives	Use categories of structured brainstorming to formulate single questions or research task (e.g. *look for x*)	Provide clear focus in reading the literature by having smaller research questions guiding the learning process Clear and guided assessment of what is needed to answer the posed questions
6	Self-study	Students read literature, look for additional sources, prepare answers to the formulated learning objectives	Student as self-directed and responsible learner

(continued)

Table 12.1 (continued)

Step	What to do?	What to do in detail	Why?
7	Post-discussion and reflection on learning process	Students report back on how they answered the learning objectives, compare results but also exchange arguments	By formulating acquired knowledge in own words and by exchanging arguments with peers, deeper understanding is facilitated in contrast to pure memorising
			Students become aware of potential misinterpretations of (empirical) material in being confronted with reports from other peers
		Self-assessment of students in learning process and peer assessment, especially in roles of chair and discussant	By becoming aware of what works well and what could be improved, first step to improve learning process
			Not all experiences students have to make themselves, but they can learn tremendously by observing and providing feedback to each other

a certain keyword should be taken into account in regard of the problem statement, clarification questions can be asked by the group. The outcome of the brainstorming is noted on the whiteboard by the secretary that during the next (fourth) step should be *categorised and structured* by the students. This is the most challenging step for inexperienced students, but by structuring the brainstorming, students categorise keywords that fit together, and in this way, they find common patterns that in the next step will allow for the formulation of specific questions. As last step of the pre-discussion, students agree on the *formulation of common learning objectives*, by referring to the brainstorming and the now structured collection of ideas that they have noted on the whiteboard. This way of formulating learning objectives in the ideal case reflects the different approaches to the wider topic that students have agreed to research upon, because they consider them to be the most relevant to the specific topic and because they are interested in exploring exactly these questions. Additionally, by agreeing on common learning objectives in a group, experience showed that students also get acquainted to formulate learning objectives clearly and to the point, as otherwise the post-discussion in the tutorial group goes into too many different directions.

After these five steps of the pre-discussion, students leave the group again to engage in the *self-study*, which takes a central position in the PBL framework and emphasises the self-responsibility of the learner for knowledge acquisition. During this self-study, students should work on their individual answers to the formulated learning objectives. Especially for students in their first year of study, the key literature is provided after each assignment, while this should not discourage students to

look for additional sources and other literature that they might find interesting. For more advanced students, sometimes just a general reading list for the whole course is provided, and it is up to themselves to decide in their self-study which of the literature provided is relevant for their respective learning objective. Students thereby also learn how to select relevant material and literature in a relatively short period of time. The following tutorial, normally taking place two or three working days later, starts with the *post-discussion* where students report back, exchange their answers, discuss problems and try to come to common conclusions of how to answer the learning objectives. While students should be able to come to a common understanding of some relevant factual knowledge during this post-discussion, it is especially the more normative and not-straightforward answers that then allow for a more profound discussion and exchange of arguments. By experiencing different perceptions of a question by their peers, by listening to different lines of argumentation and by being confronted by different perceptions of perhaps the same reading, students are acquainted to report, listen, discuss and debate.

While the formal seven-step approach ends here, students are in practice often also encouraged by their tutors to *reflect* in their post-discussion about their selected learning objectives and potential aspects of the topic that they did not cover originally but found interesting while engaging with the literature. It is, however, mostly more experienced students in their second year of study who are able to show that kind of reflexivity in the post-discussion and provide guidance for improving the next pre-discussion. This way of improving the process of learning is, at the same time, identified as one of the most important aspects of the PBL cycle (see, e.g. Albanese and Mitchell 1993: 53), as otherwise students repeat their mistakes and imprecision every time they engage in an assignment. In addition, students are also encouraged to provide peer feedback on their performance as chair, participant and secretary. This way they ideally not only advance on the discussed topic but are also able to improve their learning process and communicative skills.

12.3.2 The Roles of Students and Tutors in PBL

Next to the cognitive-psychological logics underlying PBL described above, PBL also strongly emphasises team development and working skills. PBL is not only student centred in terms of its inquiry-based set-up, but in practice it is also students themselves who organise their tutorial meetings, by fulfilling the roles of chair, secretary and, of course, active participants (for a more elaborated discussion of the role of students and tutors in PBL, see Savin-Baden and Major 2004: 81–104).

Each assignment session is chaired by a student chair who is responsible for convening the meeting, keeping track of the post-discussion to cover all learning objectives, engaging all participants in the discussion and making sure of the keeping within a reasonable time limit. By summarising the discussion from time to time, the student chair should also facilitate the understanding of the participants and provide concise overviews, especially in case some students get lost in details

during the post-discussion. It is important to note that the student chair her/himself is not supposed to provide the answers to all questions and lecture his colleagues, but the role is mainly aimed at chairing the meeting in an orderly and inspiring manner. The student chair is supported by the role of the secretary, who takes note on the whiteboard, especially during the pre-discussion. Depending on the prior details of agreement between group members, the secretary can also be asked to post the learning objectives electronically or to send other collected material around per email. The roles of student chair and secretary alternate with every assignment, so that as many students of the group as possible get the possibility to try and succeed in these roles. By fulfilling these roles, students also are meant to improve their leadership skills as chairs, as well as their note-taking skills. A skilled secretary can make a huge impact on how the brainstorming takes shape on the whiteboard, and students this way also learn from each other of how to best organise work in a team. The rest of the tutorial group members are fulfilling the role of active participants, engaging in dialogue to determine the learning objectives or to respectively exchange answers and arguments in regard of their prior formulated learning objectives during the post-discussion.

Each tutorial group is supported by an academic staff member, called a *tutor* who is meant to facilitate the learning process of the group (Schmidt and Moust 1998: 5–11; Moust and Nuy 1987), by asking provocative questions, providing assistance with the seven-step approach or providing feedback to the chair/secretary or the overall learning process of the group. At no point in time, the tutor should lecture the group, but in case of problems, she/he should support the group in identifying what went wrong and what could be improved to get to a more successful learning process in the next assignment. However, as many colleagues often highlight, it is also extremely important especially when tutoring PBL-inexperienced students that the tutor is able to react to potentially distracting group dynamics and stops the group in case they are *going off the track*.

Research into the use of PBL in disciplines such as medicine, nursing and law has shown that students have taken away benefits from PBL as they have acquired transferable skills and have engaged with concepts and principles in such a way that processes are internalised rather than being conveyed by a top-down approach (Craig and Hale 2008: 165). Until now only limited research has been done into the application of PBL to ES curricula or to Politics courses. The aim of this contribution is to start this debate by also reflecting on how the above ideal PBL approach can be practically transferred and adapted to the specific needs of a European Studies curriculum.

12.4 Challenges in Applying PBL in European Studies

The academic literature on PBL emphasises two elements in particular as essential features impacting on students' learning success with PBL: the role of the tutor as facilitator and the set-up of the problems as presented in assignments (see, e.g. Gijselaers 1996: 20, Sockalingam 2010). Various factors are considered as having

an impact on the PBL process, such as the amount of prior knowledge, group functioning, time spent on individual study or the interest in the subject matter, but it is the performance of the tutor on the one hand and the quality of problems/assignments that appear to have the highest relevance for a functioning PBL model (for a path-dependency model of PBL, see Norman and Schmidt 2000: 726). This part of the chapter, hence, considers those two aspects more closely, discussing what the main practical pitfalls of those two elements are but also how their shortcomings can be tackled in an effective manner.

12.4.1 Assignments as Crucial Starting Point in European Studies

Problems as presented in the assignments that students get at the start of each new PBL cycle are the starting point for the student-centred inquiry within the PBL framework. *Problem* in this context relates to a puzzle of the social sciences, a specific question that arises curiosity and needs investigation. Kaunert (2009) highlights the importance to catch students' interest and engagement with the respective assignment right from the start. Only when students really want to solve the puzzle that the assignment is providing for them, they will engage actively and learn effectively in the self-study and the subsequent post-discussion.

PBL always departs from a problem and therefore its attributes and the way it is set up is of crucial importance (Sockalingam et al. 2010). Prior studies in the field of medicine have identified nine attributes of a *good* problem, as it should be set up in order to:

(a) Stimulate thinking, analysis and reasoning
(b) Ensure self-directed learning
(c) Activate prior knowledge
(d) Be set in a realistic context
(e) Lead to the appropriate formulation of learning goals
(f) Arouse curiosity
(g) Include topics relevant for the discipline
(h) Assure contextual breadth
(i) Build on an appropriate vocabulary (Des Marchais 1999, referred in Sockalingam et al. 2010)

It is furthermore stressed in the scholarly literature that a problem is usually a description of different phenomena or events taken from the real world (Schmidt et al. 2009: 227).

These characteristics and observations are very useful to set out general criteria, and we assume that they generally also apply to assignments in European Studies. But these characteristics do not give us any insights into the views of tutors and students of how a problem or assignment should be designed in order to meet the needs of the target group and the curriculum of a European Studies Programme at bachelor level.

As already mentioned above, the most important starting point of a good assignment is that it triggers interest with the students and that the student can relate to the problem presented. Hence it is not sufficient to just describe the problem at hand, but in an ideal case, the assignment presents a real-life scenario, a certain puzzle that can only be solved by learning the required facts and by engaging with suitable concepts and the respective literature. Especially when students do not have any specific prior knowledge of the presented puzzle, it is crucial to create a link to issues that they are familiar with, i.e. that they, for example, have discussed in school, read in the newspaper or discussed in an earlier course. This way they are able to understand what the assignment is about, and that ensures that in the next step they formulate learning objectives that they are really interested in, rather than just coming up with some very abstract questions that they think are necessary to complete the task.

It is important to trigger students' interest, while at the same time experience has shown that it is also indispensable not to frustrate students already at this early stage of the PBL cycle by presenting the puzzle in a too complex manner. While it is desirable to challenge students, a group can become highly frustrated if they cannot relate to the assignment or understand at all what the presented problem is about or, even worse, why it is relevant.

An example of an assignment that works well in this regard is a task about the institutional framework of the EU that has been designed for the first-year ES course on EU politics. This assignment is especially targeted towards students without a profound knowledge about the EU institutional framework and EU policymaking, and the assignment itself is designed as a puzzle. All EU institutions are marked on separate sheets of paper, and students – in the pre-discussion – are asked to tape the institutions to the wall, in the logical order of how they might work together in the policymaking process. This leads to a very interactive way of pre-discussing and activation of prior knowledge. Students that only have very rudimentary insights into what the EU institutions are and how they work are immediately intrigued and try to figure out with others how this might be solved. This method also prevents that students feel isolated when not knowing the details of the processes at stake as the answers have to be found in a common effort. In the post-discussion, students compare the results of their self-study and post-discussion with their original assumptions that they have come up with in the pre-discussion. This raises awareness of their original misperceptions and of what they have learnt, but at the same time, this contrast also leads to interesting follow-up questions about why they might have had different assumptions of the involvement of certain EU institutions in the first place.

Another important aspect to consider when designing assignments for a PBL module is variation. Especially during an 8-week course, it is advisable to vary the nature of the assignments: ranging from problem tasks (aimed at better understanding of underlying mechanisms) to discussion tasks (aimed at gaining insight into different lines of argumentation and fostering critical thinking), study tasks and strategy tasks (aimed at assessing different possibilities to react in a certain situation) to application tasks (aimed at applying already gained knowledge) (for more information about

the variations of PBL problems, see Dolmans and Snellen-Balendong 1995; Schmidt and Moust 2000). If the same kind of assignment and the same style of problem were applied in every assignment, students get bored and the idea of pre-discussing mostly falls prey to the mechanic deconstruction of students of the assignment text to reveal the *hidden* questions that the staff member constructing the task had in mind. In a similar vein, it makes the process of PBL more interesting if assignments not only consist of text but also incorporate visualisations or even electronic media (e.g. video clips that students are asked to watch before the session or that can be watched together at the beginning of the pre-discussion).

Allowing for variation is not a very easy task as the assignment constructor has to find the right balance between allowing students to pursue their own interests when trying to solve the puzzle, while at the same time ensuring that the different tutorial groups cover the same main aspects of the curriculum. In this respect it has also to be taken into consideration that students are often presented with required readings, and this literature should support the quest of answering the learning objectives that the students formulate. Another obstacle in this regard is the fact that all students have to master the same exam, what often leads to anxieties of students to follow their own interests, as they fear to miss out on important aspects if they do not cover the same questions like their peers.

An additional important aspect to consider when designing a PBL assignment is the specific target group. An assignment for first-year students has to be differently structured than an assignment about the same puzzle for more senior students. An interesting example from the BA-ES in this context is a *kick-off assignment* that is used as introduction to a course in the second year, where students investigate the EU policy processes. The assignment is quite openly formulated, confronting students with a couple of different definitions of what *policy, public policy* and *policy making* are. When starting this module, students always think they know what 'policy' is, but when they are challenged to formulate their own ideas and to provide their own definitions while at the same time being confronted with the definitions provided in the assignment, they realise it is not that easy. This assignment also manages to trigger a lot of discussion among students about (the need of clear) definitions. How formal is 'policy'? Can unwritten rules also be policy? The definitions from the assignment help them, for example, to discover that there are differences between policy, politics and polity and stimulate their reflections about when policy actually becomes 'public' policy. The method of contrasting different definitions leads to a reflection of concepts and to critical thinking and can of course be applied in any course within the domain of ES.

The need to keep the targeted student group in mind becomes especially visible when confronted with students that are not acquainted with PBL or when the group is very heterogeneous (e.g. when teaching exchange students from different countries). Under these conditions, assignments have to be set up more straightforward and often also need more *pre-cooking*. Having a more diverse group of students provides an extra challenge to set up an assignment in an appropriate way to fit the needs of the whole group, while at the same time, when done in a good way, the pre-discussion can become a very interesting endeavour, as the prior

knowledge of the students as well as their interests might differ, and they have a very fruitful exchange already at this early stage of the PBL cycle.

It also showed indispensable when drawing up all kind of assignments to have clear objectives in mind, especially in regard of the content, i.e. what one wants students to learn and to process when doing this specific assignment. At the same time, it is also useful to think about the objectives of the respective course in regard of skills development, as different types of assignments can foster different kind of skills. It thus can be very helpful to make these different objectives explicit and to put these goals or questions one wants students to answer into instructions for tutors teaching the course. This way one can ensure cohesion when interpreting the same material across different tutor groups.

12.4.2 From Lecturer to Facilitator: Challenges for Tutors When Teaching ES by Way of PBL

Besides a general reflection on the role of tutor as discussed briefly above, PBL also brings specific challenges for those teaching within the field of ES. Whereas tutors used to the PBL system – as either teachers or students – find that this method comes rather naturally, new teaching staff recruited from abroad need to undergo a process of adaptation and training. It is in the nature of a specialised but also interdisciplinary programme such as European Studies that teaching staff from different countries with different backgrounds have to be recruited. According to the experience at Maastricht University, interdisciplinarity works if tutors with specific backgrounds teach within their own domain. Courses of European law are thus taught by lawyers and courses on European economics by economists. A specific expertise within the field is thus seen as crucial. There are issues within European Studies such as the EU decision-making process or the history of EU integration, however, that ask for cross-cutting expertise. This demands a certain flexibility and openness from teaching staff. It has proven to be helpful for newcomers to sit in PBL tutorials with more experienced tutors, to gain a practical insight of how tutorials work.

Moreover, teaching European Studies by way of PBL demands that new teaching staff receives training on how to work with PBL. Not only do they have to be acquainted to the seven-step approach, but they also have to be able to reflect on how this method can be applied within the field of European Studies. For those that have been used to teaching by way of giving frontal lectures, this implies that they have to learn how to *take themselves back* and not always give answers to questions but ask students to reflect themselves. The secret is to become a facilitator by way of asking open-ended questions and steering students towards possible answers. As Craig and Hale put it, this process requires the *tutor to let go of the learning process* to a larger degree than some of the delivery approaches such as lectures and seminars (Craig and Hale 2008: 173).

One has to point out that there is a lot of debate if PBL needs a tutor with expertise knowledge in subject matter or if it is sufficient if the tutor knows the ins and outs of facilitation. Eagle et al. (1992) demonstrated that students guided by content-expert tutors produced more than twice as many learning issues for self-directed learning and spent almost twice the amount of time on self-study. Schmidt et al. (1993) found similar effects of subject-matter expertise on achievement.

One hypothesis explaining this discrepancy is that the subject-matter expertise of the tutor seems to play a role predominantly when the *scaffold provided by the learning environment itself: the problems, the resources, do not contain sufficient cues as to what is important to study* (Schmidt et al. 2009: 238). Within the ES programme, a special focus is thus put on training of tutors and guiding students towards the formulation of focused problem statements and learning goals where it is clear (to the tutor) that the answers can be found in the literature provided.

Generally, it is however not only a training at the beginning when teaching with PBL that is indispensable, but how to react to certain social situations or how to improve the group dynamics in a tutorial group also seems reoccurring issues and concerns of staff members that are best dealt with in follow-up workshops and exchange possibilities.

12.5 Concluding Remarks

Problem-based learning is a method initially developed in the field of medicine several decades ago. It is based on the notion that learning should be structured around students' activity, in terms of formulating the learning objectives but also in regard of organising their learning process. Furthermore, learning is perceived as a process and knowledge as a construction. Its effectiveness can be increased through collaboration in small groups, and the starting points are real-world problems that link the learning process to existing knowledge. The focus in a PBL environment and the role of academic staff are not about teaching, but about facilitating the learning process and supporting students in their knowledge construction.

The question at stake addressed in this chapter was how this alternative instruction method can be applied practically within the field of European Studies. We discussed the seven-step approach that structures students' activity in an effective manner and discussed the implications of PBL for the roles of students but also staff members. Last but not least, we reflected on the challenges that learning with PBL can be confronted with, focusing on the crucial role of well-suited assignment construction and the role of tutors as facilitators.

PBL is a very resource-intensive instruction mode, asking for a well-equipped administrative support but also a comparably high number of staff members acting as facilitators. Moreover, the experience at Maastricht University has shown that PBL assignments have to be updated regularly and PBL cannot be taken as a given. Not only does one have to review assignments regularly but one also has to reflect on teaching methods at regular intervals. The question has to be asked

as regards to which method is appropriate for which subject matter. PBL can thus be seen as reflecting the content of European Studies itself, a dynamic and ever-changing process.

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Chapter 13
Finding the Right Mix? Teaching European Studies Through Blended Learning

Alexandra Mihai

13.1 The Context: Blended Learning and Social Science

Throughout the last decade, blended learning has become one of the learning approaches embraced by many higher education institutions. The reason for its increased use can be found in the very nature of this pedagogical approach: 'blended learning is the effective combination of different modes of delivery, models of teaching and styles of learning' (Procter 2003). Various definitions have been developed, all having as a starting point the idea of mixing various approaches and techniques; however, for the purpose of this contribution, Procter's definition was chosen as it underlines three important aspects: blended learning is not only about using different methods of delivery but also, equally, about various teaching methods and learning styles.

The motivation behind opening up traditional teaching and learning and enriching it by means of integrating technology was largely the need to accommodate students' geographical and temporal challenges. Thus, e-learning started being used either as a self-standing approach or in combination with traditional, face-to-face, teaching. It brought about the advantage of delocalisation and flexibility, allowing a departure from the 'classroom paradigm' and using the virtual space as a facilitator of knowledge and information exchange (Mihai 2009). However, the drawbacks of online learning became quickly apparent: the lack of social interaction and immediate feedback can lead to a decrease in the level of motivation. Moreover, the 'reduced non-verbal social cues, such as the absence of facial expressions and voice inflections, can generate misunderstandings that adversely affect learning' (Rovai and Jordan 2004: 3). These shortcomings are nevertheless not inherent to e-learning; they can

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_13,

be overcome by including motivational mechanisms in the online course design, through what Keller describes as the 'motivational design process' (Keller 2010: 311). This implies a thorough pedagogical assessment of the motivation level of the students, constantly updated, representing the background for an 'adaptive approach' in which motivational tactics are increased or decreased in order to match the fluctuations in learners' motivation (Keller 2010: 313).

It is in this context that blended learning emerged, with the aim of balancing these disadvantages by combining traditional and online learning in a way that preserves the added value of both methods, adding to it the benefit of flexibility.

Blended learning is usually understood as a combination of various components. Singh distinguishes three main learning approaches that can be blended: synchronous physical formats (classroom lectures), synchronous online formats (also known as live e-learning, including virtual classrooms, webinars, web conferencing) and self-paced, asynchronous formats (online training modules, simulations, recorded live events) (Singh 2003). Even though the most common case of blended learning is the mix of online and offline forms of learning, the 'blend' can be seen as taking place at various levels, going beyond the method of delivery. Thus, it can refer to the combination of self-paced and collaborative online learning, but it can also designate a mix of structured and unstructured learning, acknowledging the fact that the learning process does not only occur in an institutionalised, formal environment but also throughout day-to-day activities and contacts. Moreover, off-the-shelf and customised content can also be blended in order to better address the users' needs (Singh 2003).

The underlying aspect that points towards blended learning as a viable option is the fact that learning cannot be confined in space and time, nor can it be assigned a single specific method or delivery mode. Learning is a 'continuous process' (Singh 2003), an 'interactive dialogue' that renders each medium insufficient by itself, hence the need for blending the various media (Heinze and Procter 2004: 2). The benefits of this mix can be manifold: from optimising the cost and time, by mixing existing resources, to being able to reach out to a larger and more diverse audience. Flexibility is one of the biggest advantages, allowing the teaching and learning process to be fully adaptable to the time schedule, previous knowledge and learning style of the user. Nevertheless, this 'unbounded educational discourse' (Garrison and Kanuka 2004: 96) can only be successful if the main components of the mix are effectively integrated, following a logical and pedagogically sound structure.

By combining online and offline components, blended learning encourages the development of both equally important forms of communication: written, demanding structure and coherence, and oral, requiring spontaneity and rhetoric skills. Furthermore, it adds an extra dimension, by facilitating the creation of a 'community of inquiry' (Garrison and Kanuka 2004: 98) that brings about a reflective element as well as a sense of belonging to a community. However, a very relevant aspect in a blended environment is the teaching presence that has the role of facilitating the learning experience. This can prove to be a real challenge for higher-education institutions, as the teaching process within blended learning differs from the traditional teaching methods. The role of the teacher is no longer confined to conveying

information and assessing the way it is assimilated by the students; in an online and blended environment, the teacher becomes a mediator, a facilitator, encouraging dialogue and reflective thinking rather than information storage and reproduction. This is why, in order to ensure the success of a blended-learning approach, support has to be offered to both educators and students in order to understand and apply the pedagogical underpinnings of this approach (Garrison and Kanuka 2004: 102).

Even though online learning methods have been continuously spreading in the last years in the academic community, one can still find relatively few successful examples in the area of social sciences. This can be explained by the type of knowledge involved as well as the specific skills necessary. Although e-learning systems have been addressing these issues throughout their development, allowing for a closer teacher-student and student-student cooperation, the social sciences students and professors are still not entirely familiarised with the online environment and tend not to use it to its full potential. Thus, e-learning spaces, even though usually highly developed, are used mainly as support material or reference tools, alongside university courses (Budka and Mader 2006).

This is why a blended-learning approach appears to be suitable in the field of social sciences, as it combines the online component with the more traditional face-to-face teaching and assessment methods, allowing and even facilitating the creation of a 'space of learning' (Oliver and Trigwell 2005: 24) that can benefit both the educator and the student by addressing their specific needs.

13.2 Blended Learning and European Studies

In the past decade, a multitude of academic programmes with a focus on European Studies have been created, both at undergraduate and postgraduate level. Furthermore, due to the relevance of EU legislation for business but also for the non-profit sector, an impressive number of seminars and training courses have been developed, having as their main target the corporate world as well as non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and other organisations whose activities have a European component.

European Studies can be described as a 'fluid, complex, and constantly evolving discipline' (Korosteleva 2010: 37). In fact, the mere fact of calling it a discipline can be called into question, as its interdisciplinary character has been widely asserted and, indeed, contested; most of the research on EU issues is rooted within at least one discipline, while using other disciplines in parallel to address one research question (Cini 2006: 44). This approach can be seen as closer to multidisciplinarity. Leaving the terminology dilemmas aside, it is apparent that the teaching and learning of European Studies requires a mix of pedagogical approaches, as well as openness to innovative tools and methods that encourage interactivity while offering a sound conceptual background for understanding the complexity of the EU mechanism (Korosteleva 2010).

This is the background against which the Institute of European Studies (IES), an autonomous department of the Vrije Universiteit Brussel (VUB), developed in 2006

its innovative e-learning platform, the E-modules, designed to complement and enhance the academic offer of the Institute. Initially the E-modules were aimed towards students, but later on the target group was enlarged to encompass professionals working in EU affairs. Gradually, a blended-learning approach has been embraced by drawing on the various resources available and developing a strategic outlook on how they can best be combined. By adding the face-to-face element, the on-site training, in 2008, the course attracted more and more professionals, such as representatives of NGOs, multinationals, trade associations but also civil servants from the European, national and regional level as well as diplomats. The main aim is to transfer essential and constantly updated information about the European Union in a user-friendly manner that brings together thorough academic knowledge and accessible and flexible modes of delivery.

With the number of users from both categories (students and professionals) steadily increasing every year, the student administration became more and more challenging, with a special need to focus on the specific needs of each category as well as putting in place an efficient users management system that can work with both individual and group users and the consequent learning and assessment requirements.

13.2.1 Why Blended Learning? Concept and Components

In a rather uncommon sequence of events, the starting point was not the traditional 'classroom method', but the E-modules, the online learning platform. Initially conceived as an independent learning tool, the E-modules profiled themselves as a provider of essential and concise information on the various aspects of the European Union, compiled in a clear way and accessible at any time and from anywhere. The challenges faced by the platform were linked to both the technological developments and the constantly changing environment of the European Union that require continuous updates of content and interface. The 'learning objects' (LO) are not static and have a short 'shelf life' (Govindasamy 2002: 293); they have to be constantly reviewed and updated in order to stay relevant. Moreover, one of the main issues that had to be taken into account was ensuring the interactive component in order to maintain the users' level of motivation.

Gradually, the idea of complementing the online courses with face-to-face sessions became one of the most obvious and viable ways of enhancing interactivity. Short 'classroom sessions' at the beginning of the course were perceived as a means of creating a 'learning community' feeling, a very important aspect for the efficiency of online learning. In time, the rather ad hoc face-to-face sessions were transformed into 1- to 3-day training seminars, strategically designed to complement the use of the e-learning platform.

Furthermore, while striving to reach out to a geographically and professionally diverse audience, it appeared relevant to develop means of synchronous interaction that are not confined to a physical space and can benefit the users in a

very flexible manner. The use of 'virtual office hours' (VO), online (video) chat sessions and online seminars (webinars) came as a welcome addition to the E-modules and the traditional training seminars, enhancing the interactivity factor and combining it with the advantages of the virtual environment. However, special attention needs to be paid to ensure that the blending takes place in a well-structured manner, where each teaching and learning approach is used to respond to specific needs.

13.2.2 E-modules: The e-Learning Platform

The E-modules are the first and main component of the blended-learning approach of the IES. The idea behind the E-modules is to present relevant information about the European Union in a well-structured, clear and concise manner, avoiding the specific jargon and making it, thus, accessible to every citizen. However, within the main idea also lies the main challenge: keeping a balance between the academic nature and the need to provide easily understandable content for various target groups. This is what the designers of the E-modules had in mind when creating the online learning system. Acknowledging the fact that information on the European Union can be found in a multitude of sources, claiming a monopoly in the field was not regarded as an option. Instead, the E-modules tried to build on the advantage of the flexibility provided by the virtual environment and profile themselves as a provider of essential and concise information on the various aspects of the European Union, compiled in a clear and user-friendly way and accessible at any time and from anywhere. Moreover, the E-modules can also be used as a reference tool and a practical guide to the many existing information sources on the topic.

The concept behind the E-modules is structured in two pillars: knowledge acquisition and skills acquisition. While 'knowledge acquisition' leads us to think of classical learning methods, whereby the student is acquiring knowledge at various levels and in various fields, 'skills acquisition' is a concept with practical connotations. It involves 'learning to do something', rather than 'learning something', bringing thus to the front the idea of skills development as a vital feature of the learning process. More precisely, what the E-modules are trying to achieve is, along with transferring essential knowledge in the field to their users, helping them acquire and practise important skills such as targeted information search, linking various aspects of an issue in a coherent reasoning and problem-solving. These skills are very relevant for the field of European Studies, characterised by references to various disciplines, combined with a multitude of information sources, with various disciplinary biases and jargons. The two pillars are equally important and they complement each other to create a complete learning experience. The important factor is 'not the mere access to knowledge, but timely access to relevant and useful knowledge' (Govindasamy 2002: 288).

E-modules currently consist of three modules: the module on European history, institutions and decision-making, the module on European Union law and the module on European information sources. Nevertheless, the Institute currently

works on expanding the areas covered by the e-learning tool by creating new modules that deal in a more in-depth manner with specific policies of the European Union. The European History, Institutions and Decision-making module provides a historical overview of the major events in the European integration process. It analyses in detail the different European institutions, explaining their background, role, structure and working practices. The module also offers an in-depth discussion of the decision-making methods, according to policy fields. Moreover, the content includes an up-to-date account of the current and future developments of the European Union, helping the users put in perspective the studied material. The European Law module studies the nature and scope of European law. The main principles and characteristics of community law are outlined and discussed. Furthermore, the different EU policy fields are analysed in detail, with a focus on their objectives and their current developments. References to the relevant case law and treaty articles are systematically provided throughout the module, with the aim of increasing the understanding of complex legal concepts. The module on European information aims at developing the necessary skills for finding the right information about the European Union and its policies and being able to process it independently. Finding the relevant information in the labyrinth of EU documents and databases is often a major challenge. The module offers an overview of the Europa server (the Internet website of the European Union), useful tools to identify EU documents and monitor different policy initiatives as well as a practical guide for keeping up-to-date with the developments in the European arena, using a variety of sources (Internet, paper-based media, audio-visual media, databases, libraries, information centres, etc.).

It is acknowledged that a learning tool, in order to be successful, needs a knowledge/ theory component, as well as a practical component. The latter can come in the form of case studies, examples or exercises. Addressing a topic that has an impact on everyday life, like European policies, the E-modules contain a series of examples and real-life scenarios that help users understand better the issues discussed. Moreover, the practical exercises included in the chapter are aimed at testing the skills of information retrieval and use acquired throughout the modules. In order to better illustrate the complex EU legal framework, the E-modules (and especially the one module dealing with EU law) include references to case law, explaining the essential implications of cases decided by the European Court of Justice. In addition to the main pages, the modules also contain so-called nice-to-know pages which complement the main pages by providing additional, more in-depth information on certain aspects of the topics covered, such as relevant articles from the treaties, tables, pictures, graphics, maps and biographical notes.

Last, but not least, an online learning system, lacking the natural interaction between teacher and students and among students, has to develop other interactive components in order to keep the users connected and interested in the content. The E-modules were designed to have a user-friendly interface that allows the user to control the learning process. As the users are studying at their own pace, an individualised tracking system was developed where they can see what pages have already been studied as well as what new content was added. This proves to be

a very efficient tool to systematise the learning process, allowing the users to pick up studying exactly from where they left it, even after a longer period.

Another relevant aspect is the self-evaluation throughout the study process, and here online functionalities can play a very important role. The E-modules have a system of tests that allow the student to assess the progress made in a quick and interactive way. The tests are present on every page and chapter and consist of multiple-choice questions (MCQs) as well as open-answer questions. After submitting the answers, the student immediately gets back the assessment, with the percentage of correctly answered questions and the correct answers (or suggestions for the open questions) in the case of questions answered wrongly. Establishing a comprehensive database of questions and answers is a thorough and time-consuming work, but the result is worthwhile: a simple and straightforward system, considered very useful by the users in their studying process.

Moreover, other interactive applications have been created with the aim of engaging the readers and giving them an incentive to navigate further through the content. Visual elements, such as interactive charts and timelines, as well as a glossary of useful terms are important tools for fulfilling this aim. In addition, the students can choose to complete the modules with an on-site exam in Brussels and receive a respective certificate. As preparation for this final exam, the students have the possibility to complete comprehensive online tests on every module, which simulate the on-site exam in Brussels.

13.2.3 Face-to-Face Training

The second component of the blended-learning approach of the IES is face-to-face training, which takes place in the form of 1- to 3-day intensive training sessions explaining the essentials of the European Union and providing an advanced understanding of the EU institutions and the decision-making process. Moreover, some of the training sessions touch upon specialised EU policy areas, like climate policy, migration and integration, foreign policy or focus on communication-related aspects (from institutional communication to traditional media and the use of social media channels).

The face-to-face training sessions cover the most important topics of the E-modules, but in a more intense and in-depth manner, and are used to complement the online learning process. Moreover, the in-house training contains further topics not addressed at length in the modules, like the comitology procedures, interest representation and lobbying or alternatives to the so-called Community method. The training concept promotes a balanced approach, where theory and practice complement each other to facilitate the learning experience. The training sessions are conducted by a mix of academics and practitioners; every topic is covered in a comprehensive manner, with the use of practical examples and case studies. The presentations on every topic are supplemented by additional study materials. Besides the individual lectures, the training sessions often offer an open debate with

a panel of experts on the topic(s) discussed. This gives the participants the possibility to interact with the speakers and with each other, sharing their own opinions and experiences. Moreover, to thoroughly cover the practical aspects of the issues being taught, part of the training sessions (the exact duration depending on the length of the training) is dedicated to simulation exercises, where participants have to work in groups and negotiate a given policy dossier. All these methods are used in order to achieve the theory/practice balance and to ensure the added value of the face-to-face training.

In order to create a 'learning community' feeling and to facilitate interaction and debate between the group members, on the one hand, and the students and the teacher, on the other hand, the number of participants for each training session is limited to 10–15. Experience shows that small groups are much more effective in pedagogical terms regarding the learning outcome and the creation of a group identity (Korosteleva 2010: 40). Moreover, the main rationale behind the training sessions is the idea of motivating the students, who otherwise work on their own and are in danger of feeling increasingly isolated in the virtual environment (Hara and Kling 2001). The face-to-face environment is the opportunity for all students to take part actively in the debate, a crucial element for teaching social sciences, and to receive answers to questions they have encountered while studying the subject matter.

13.2.4 Webinars: Online Synchronous Interaction

The latest addition to the European Studies 'blend' is the use of synchronous online interaction tools. As the courses evolved from a simple online platform, with few elements of interactivity, to a mix between online and face-to-face methods, it became apparent that the missing link was an online interactive component. That was thought to enhance the engagement of the learners and to keep their motivation at a high level in between (or in the absence of) face-to-face sessions. Moreover, it makes it possible to enlarge the audience the courses are addressed to, rendering interaction independent of location and flexible in terms of timing.

The synchronous online interaction takes place at various levels and fulfils specific pedagogical goals. First of all, 'virtual office hours' (VO in Fig. 13.1) are made available to the users on a regular basis throughout the duration of the course.

Here the frequency depends on the course, the default being once a week, but the main aim is to keep it as flexible as possible to address the needs of the students. The VOs are aimed at facilitating communication between the learners and the educators, complementing the email exchange with real-time conversation in the form of written chat or video/audio conferencing. The 'virtual office hours' are used for providing an introduction to and support with both the technical issues of using the online platform and the content. Moreover, they can take the shape of 'feedback sessions', either on an individual basis or for specific student groups; in these sessions, the instructors can evaluate the students' progress in studying the material

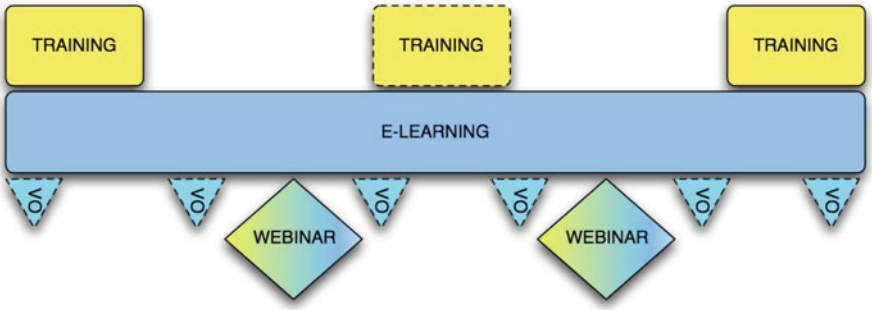

Fig. 13.1 The European Studies blended-learning continuum

offered through the online learning platform and during the webinars. Keeping a versatile format is the key to maximising the use of the tool. Thus, interaction taking place through one-to-one or group discussions is structured around a predetermined topic or is of a rather unstructured, spontaneous nature. Whichever the form, the essential idea behind having a 'virtual office' is offering the users, teachers and learners a space for direct communication. Whereas in the case of traditional education, direct contact is a given, in the case of online or blended learning, special efforts have to be made to create and maintain a sense of community, including constantly available support, which is very important for the learning process to fulfil its goals.

Secondly, the online-conferencing facilities are used to organise short seminars (2–3 h) on specific institutional or policy aspects of the European Union. These webinars (Fig. 13.1) are designed to complement the material available on the online platform, of a rather general, overarching nature, going into more detail in specialised areas. They are also meant to focus on certain issues that are not covered in-depth in the face-to-face training sessions, due to time constraints. The main benefit of the webinars is flexibility. They can be customised to fit the specific needs and interests of the learners, allowing them to take part from wherever they are and therefore being easier to integrate in their daily schedule. Moreover, alongside the regular tutors, external speakers, academics as well as policy makers, specialised in the topics being discussed, are able to participate and give their input, irrespective of their location and without the costs and time involved by travelling. This is important as it allows for a variety of different subject-specific experts to contribute to the seminars in a very flexible manner. This is a vital aspect for a course in European Studies, in an environment where an overwhelming amount of information is freely available, as it brings added value and at the same time creates an 'event' element by offering a forum of debate and experience sharing for people studying and/or working in the same field in various locations. Webinars make knowledge and expertise more easily accessible, with geographical borders, disciplinary borders, but also the traditional teacher/student border becoming irrelevant within a common 'learning space'.

Both the 'virtual office hours' and the webinars are organised using Elluminate vOffice™. This web-conferencing tool is designed for educational purposes and has in-built various functions that facilitate an interactive learning process. Meetings are set up and can be joined through a single click on a link sent by the instructor to the students; no additional software is necessary and there is increased focus on accessibility, the virtual classroom being compatible cross platform and optimised for low bandwidth. Up to 50 students can attend the online sessions, but the set-up is very flexible and can be customised for individual, one-to-one sessions, also allowing for 'breakout rooms', which are very useful for small group assignments. The technical support needed on both sides is very limited; both students and instructors can easily initiate and/or take part in webinars and 'virtual office hours' anytime and from everywhere, with the only condition of having a computer with an Internet connection. As for interactivity, it can take place both in an audio (and video) format and in a written format. Instructors and students can thus have a written and/or oral dialogue; can share applications, files and documents; give presentations; and so on. The online sessions are not one-way lectures where students can only give written feedback at the end, but a debate where all actors involved are standing on equal positions throughout the session, collaborating, creating and sharing knowledge in an open and user-friendly manner. Moreover, all sessions, including all materials and forms of input (written, oral, visual), can be recorded and sent to the students that could not attend, allowing them to be up-to-date concerning the content, but also to the students who did attend, as support for the revision of the course.

With the advantages of flexibility and versatility, the use of online synchronous interaction has brought the overall course to a higher level, by improving the communication among all actors involved, enriching the content as well as making it more accessible to a larger audience. However, it soon became apparent that the use of such tools, even more than the e-learning platform, requires specific skills from the side of the educators, skills that are not necessary in the traditional educational process. The absence of physical contact with the audience and the need for more clarity in the written and verbal discourse all require a special effort and a high level of openness towards the benefits of using technology in education. The problems encountered so far stem mainly from the resistance of academics to use the new tools and are addressed by ad hoc in-house training sessions, testing the tool ahead of the seminars as well as live support during the delivery of the content. However, a more coordinated and consistent training approach is necessary in order to ensure that the majority of academics reach a level when they can conduct webinars independently and confidently, alongside developing content for the e-learning platform. It is important to provide constant encouragement and even 'rewards' to convince the faculty staff that contributing to online education is not just a collateral activity, or even a punishment, but an important aspect of their work (Govindasamy 2002: 292).

Understanding and embracing the different pedagogical aspects on synchronous online interaction may require specific training, but in the long run, to reach the aims and the target audience of the courses in European Studies, webinars as well as 'virtual office hours' are two of the key elements that need to be developed.

13.3 Conclusions: Finding the Right Blend

After looking into the three main components of the blended-learning approach used in the IES European Studies programme, it is important to analyse the way they work together and what the main challenges are for the future. The gradual approach, in which the 'blend' came into being, implies, on the one hand, that the development was driven by the needs identified on the relevant market, as the newly added elements were designed to complement the existing ones, by addressing their shortcomings. On the other hand, the step-by-step basis also reveals the fact that an overall strategy for the blended-learning approach as such had not been created from the start, but has been augmented in the course of creation priority being given to each specific method used at the time. One of the most important aspects, and indeed one of the main challenges, is to define the place of each medium according to its specific functionalities. Blended learning involves bringing together pre-existing resources as well as creating new ones, but the crucial underlying goal is that the final product represents more than the sum of its parts. The added value in the case of European Studies is that by using the blend of online and face-to-face methods the course can reach a larger target audience, from various locations. At the same time, access to knowledge and expertise in the field (general European issues and different policy areas) is facilitated by using a virtual learning and interaction platform. The blending of different teaching methods has so far enhanced the pedagogical results of the course, by trying to reduce the shortcomings of each method used separately.

Given the specificities of the European Studies area and its multidisciplinary character, and taking into account the broad audience spectrum the course is addressing (from students to professionals working with European Union related issues), a mix of delivery methods as well as teaching modes and learning styles appears to be the most suitable approach. The multifaceted nature of the subject area, in conjunction with the diversity of backgrounds and interest of the learners, makes the case for a personalisation of the learning experience. This translates into a learner-centred approach (Barr and Tagg 1995), providing flexibility to choose the most relevant parts of the content and the most suitable delivery mode. However, this points towards a self-pace learning style, which, in its turn, has to be balanced with the interactive element. Allowing learners to be in charge of creating their own 'blend' while, at the same time, trying to build a 'learning community' that goes beyond (and can do without) the classroom is a challenge that has to be addressed in order to ensure the success of blended learning (Rovai and Jordan 2004: 9).

Embracing a new pedagogical approach involves a process of rethinking of priorities at various levels, from the management and administrative level to the delivery of the course content. Blended learning implies a mix of methods and, therefore, a departure from traditional teaching. This requires first and foremost a thorough structure and strategic planning (Barr and Tagg 1995). Clear organisation is a key element for ensuring that the various educational activities are pursued coherently; more flexibility for the learners translates into a more complex student

administration system and its efficient management is vital for the success of this approach. Moreover, especially in the case of online methods, both synchronous and self-paced educators need specific skills to manage the pedagogical activities in a virtual environment. A 'train the trainer' policy alongside constant technical support is of crucial importance for maintaining a high level of academic content in a smoothly running online/offline environment.

The use of the blended-learning approach in the European Studies course has proved to be beneficial for both educators and learners. The flexibility it offers, together with the aim of creating a 'learning community', appears to be suitable to the complexity of the subject matter and the diversity of the audience. Bringing together educational resources of different nature in a logical and strategic manner, the resulting 'blend' is more valuable from a pedagogical point of view than each of the composing methods by itself. The main added value rests in designing a learning experience that puts the learners in control while offering them the opportunity to interact with their pairs and educators in a flexible yet meaningful way, irrespective of their background and location.

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Chapter 14
The Network Is the Message: Social Networks as Teaching Tools

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14.1 Introduction

Few would dispute that there is something exciting about politics, something that strikes our fancy, that unsettles us, that sometimes even creates harsh divisions among us. Any person minimally familiar with such daily practices as reading newspapers and talking to one's fellow citizens about anything barely more complex than the weather knows how pervasive and ubiquitous politics is. Social networks, to be sure, are forums in which the interests, passions and expertise of people allow for forms of political aggregation that are redefining the boundary of what we call the public sphere. And it is politics at stake here, namely, the patterns and meanings of those forms of aggregation that the new social media are redesigning from scratch.

The aim of this chapter is to bring the idea of a social network to bear on higher educational settings, on the assumptions that such networks are, and provide for, elective sites for democratic discussion and critique. The idea of an 'electronic forum' of discussion was meant to create a situation in which the debate on a variety of political issues enabled students to engage in the *normative* task of evaluating the moral and political standards with currency in contemporary political discourse

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0_14,

and practice. The forum was designed along the lines of a 'newsgroup', where both students and instructors contributed entries on the more sensitive topics in current EU politics: the legitimacy and democratic outlook of EU institutions, the 'democratic deficit' of the EU, the EU politics of enlargement and its involvement in sensitive areas over and beyond its borders were the principal topics that we discussed in our forum. The idea was to mimic the functioning of social networks, whose role in aggregating consensus and providing discussion forums is, again, critical for streamlining democratic processes.

This chapter reviews the electronic forum set up for one 30-h course held in the winter semester 2009/2010 at the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano (FUB) in northern Italy.[1] Most students were students of the Degree in Economics and Social Sciences (PPE—Politics, Philosophy and Economics—for short), and the course was mandatory. Both lectures and discussion (including the electronic forum) were held in English, one of the three official languages of the FUB. The type of network we used was Facebook, and the size of the class was 28 students. The Facebook forum had a double rationale. On the one hand, it helped students figure out the normative implications of the study of politics. By means of debate and discussion, students engaged in testing and checking the scope and validity of political concepts. On the other hand, students were reminded that social networks, outside the classroom, are not neutral media, but rather *political* tools. They engaged in the practice of debating on an equal footing over a number of issues, and *simulated*, so to speak, the political dialectics explored in our lectures on the use of social networks. A relatively informal exchange, combined with a classroom simulation of political debate, was an ingredient of this experiment in innovative teaching methods. Students were given the chance to prepare for the exam but also to practise the basics of democratic citizenship.

Educators in academia are facing the pressing challenge of designing, or redesigning, both curricula and teaching methods in order 'to nurture the growth of a European identity among European students, so as to inspire EU citizenship and encourage civic engagement' (see van Dyke in this volume, Chap. 4). The 'democratic deficit' of the EU, namely, a general lack of interest, commitment and democratic accountability, detaches people from EU institutions and challenges the political rationale of the EU. Attempts to repair the deficit have been suggested by many, and a number of scholars have indicated the classroom, at all levels, as the elective site in which this deficit should be addressed and repaired. The challenge for both teachers and academics consists in the ability to 'integrate classroom learning with experiential learning in the larger world where practical political decision making and democratic deliberations occur' (Ehrlich 1999: 246).[2]

[1]Two of us, Irene Bianchi and Roberto Farneti, attended the 12th Biennial Conference of the European Union Studies Association (EUSA) in Boston, in March 2011, where we presented an earlier draft of this chapter. We profited immensely from panel discussion and insights from a number of attendees and owe special thanks to Stefania Baroncelli and Sophie Vanhoonacker for their commentary.

The Free University of Bolzano-Bozen, founded in 1997, it is a multilingual and international-oriented institution, with courses offered in Italian, German and English.

[2]Cited in van Dyke in this volume, Chap. 4.

The deficit in civic commitment to EU institutions—over and beyond the mere 'falling off in voter interest' in European elections—owes less to political ennui than to the lack of powerful elements of civic orientation at the EU level (Judt 2006: 764). And it is not via a certain kind of 'affirmative action' aimed at making EU citizens aware that a new transnational polity has emerged that the deficit will be overcome. This chapter identifies (a) a specific medium, the social network, as a workable means to enhance democratic dialogue among EU citizens and (b) a possible domain for its application: the classroom, where students learn and practise the basics of what van Dyke has called 'long-term active citizenship' (van Dyke 2013).

In the following we shall review the discussion threads on both the use and rationale of social networks in the classroom. In the first part, we shall connect the impact of modern social networks with the notion of the public sphere. In the second part, we will focus on the particular case of the Facebook forum that we set up in Bozen-Bolzano and will illustrate the technicalities of the setting, the difficulties we encountered and the educational advantages involved. We will conclude by stressing the continuity between the classroom and the real world. Social networks are relevant and critical in higher educational settings for they reproduce and simulate the mechanisms of aggregation and disaggregation of opinion in the democratic public sphere.

14.2 Social Networks and the Public Sphere

Jürgen Habermas has provided a sweeping genealogy of the notion of 'public sphere', detailing all phases that contributed to its 'structural transformation'. Habermas describes the process of progressive contamination of the public sphere (notably in Germany and France) with power technologies, a process whereby 'institutions of social-convivial interchange, which secured the coherence of the public making use of its reason, lost their power or utterly collapsed' (Habermas 1991: 202).

Today, the exposure of democratic dialogue to a new medium less permeable to power technologies may help restore the ability of 'institutions of social-convivial interchange' to produce a more rational and inclusive political discourse. The emergence of Web 2.0 tools, such as blogs, wikis and social networks, has brought about a dramatic change in the design of the traditional public sphere, blurring national boundaries and empowering whole segments of population with no representation in traditional media.

Those tools are playing a key role in shaping a democratic public sphere in non-democratic societies. The Berkman Center for Internet and Society (http://cyber.law.harvard.edu) has stressed the emergence in Iran of 'one of the world's richest and most varied blogospheres'. The OpenNet Initiative (http://opennet.net) monitors the dialectic between 'institutions of social-convivial interchange' and the policies adopted to counter these institutions. Iran, for one thing, possesses one of the world's most extensive Net-filtering systems, on a par with China's. One of the effects of the circulation and exchange of information in the blogosphere is

to frame the grievances of the people and give the pervasive sense of discontent, indignation and longing for more democracy a firmer structure.[3] In the western hemisphere, the so-called blogosphere is free, but its potential to further compound democratic processes is still not fully realised.

New interactive tools that have emerged within the framework of Web 2.0 feature the ability to 'support collaboration and communication in virtually any instructional environment' (Brooks-Young 2010: 45). Social networks, for example, are suitable to promote active learning: students are allowed to 'develop and apply key skills for social studies understanding, interpretation, evaluation and analysis' (Halcomb and Beal 2010: 29). Social network sites (SNS), which are characterised by 'no-cost, collaborative, user-centric content production and interactive content access' (Halcomb and Beal 2010: 28), can be profitably used in higher-education programmes, for they allow 'students to develop social capital and social support networks […] by contributing to cognitive stimulation, relational exchange and facilitating the learning process' (Schroeder et al. 2010: 160–161).

The educational purpose of Web 2.0 tools has been stressed a number of times (Hall and Davison 2007: 164). However, empirical findings about their use in higher education are limited. Only a few experiences on the use of blogs, SNS and online discussion groups within the academic field have been reported. And studies and surveys assessing these new educational dimensions are also scarce (Goldman et al. 2008; Hall and Davison 2007). There are, though, reports about the educational advantages involved in bringing these tools within the classroom (Trudeau 2005; Oros 2007), but the purpose of this chapter is, more specifically, to explore the overall rationale involved in using electronic forums as appendices of the EU public sphere and what benefits are expected in educational terms.

In the following we shall explain why we value the use of interactive tools for classroom purposes. In analysing the educational results of the Facebook (FB) forum, we start from the presupposition that they are 'precisely in tune with the discipline of political science to engage students in something at the core of politics: debate, discussion and active listening in order to make reasoned decisions' (Oros

[3]Web 2.0 has led to the emergence of different tools, characterised by a high degree of interactivity. Social networks sites (SNS) are 'web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection and (3) view their list of connection and those made by others within the system' (Boyd and Ellison 2007: 4). A peculiar type of social network, particularly relevant in our experience, is represented by newsgroups, i.e., locations in the 'cyberspace where anyone may read and reply to other's messages' (Amarell 2000: 154). This definition fits our understanding of the newsgroup as a mean to foster intersubjective communication and to structure a potentially amorphous public sphere.

The term blog refers to 'a website that contains an online personal journal with reflections, comments, and often hyperlinks provided by the writer' (Merriam-Webster 2004) [REF.: MERRIAM-WEBSTER 2004, *COLLEGIATE DICTIONARY*, *ELEVENTH EDITION*]. A set of interconnected blogs constitute a blogosphere. Finally, a further typology of interactive tools is the wiki. Unlike blogs, where people are only allowed to add comments to the original posts, wikis are collaborative tools as they rely on the collective work of several authors. Anyone is allowed to edit, delete or modify content that was placed on the website using a browser interface.

2007: 295). Social networks reflect the open-ended, normative and discussion-based nature of the subject (Trudeau 2005: 290); newsgroups in particular promote discussions among peers within a virtual environment, where learning becomes an 'interactive, integrative, and collaborative enterprise' (Ammarell 2000: 153). Within cyberspace students are encouraged to analyse and debate basic concepts and problems in political science. Discussion forums help students understand that such notions as regime change and democratic elections could be part of the stock in trade of their everyday exchanges. Plus, these forums require them to take responsibility for their views and opinions.

Discussion forums are especially suitable for undergraduate students as they give them time to mull over their entries; also, 'poor English may be more readily tolerated, and difficulties associated with strong accents or poor pronunciation are irrelevant' (see Kirkpatrick 2005; Hall and Davison 2007: 170). Furthermore, discussion forums can serve as preparatory instruments for upcoming face-to-face discussions in class. Interactions within the forum promote the students' active involvement with the subject. Students involved in electronic forums participate more intensively; they come more regularly to class, they keep up with the progress made by the instructor, and they do readings and class assignments more readily. A major factor

> is the level of student preparation. Combining the use of thought questions with Internet-based discussion forums, structured as a graded and required assignment, raises the probability that more students would be more well prepared more of the time (Trudeau 2005: 301).

An important pedagogic feature of the forum is its interactive format. As suggested by Hall and Davison, the educational potential of blog technology consists precisely in facilitating peer learning: 'allowing learner's opportunities to give one another comments and feedback further enhances the possibilities around a subject area' (Hall and Davison 2007: 168). Students become part of a creative and interactive learning process through the different channels offered to them. Individual comments are subject to a sort of peer review and become incentives to respond. In this way, students learn from the information provided by other participants. They do not just *consume* knowledge, they rather acquire skills through critical reflection. And the role of the instructor changes accordingly, from one where the teacher legislated criteria for learning to an open role of coordination and supervision where 'student input becomes a major factor in class preparation' (Trudeau 2005: 290).

In a survey on the application of social softwares in UK universities, Schroeder et al. identified some possible weaknesses of Web 2.0 technologies applied to the classroom. Electronic forums are seen by students as an extra source of workload, as an unnecessary 'extra task in addition to work requirements' (Schroeder et al. 2010: 165). Furthermore, students are inclined to perceive social networks as recreational devices and not as vehicles of academic contents. For this reason, it has been recommended that 'teachers using Facebook […] should do so with caution, as from the student perspective it was important that staff should only self-disclose appropriate information' (Madge et al. 2009: 149).

14.3 Social Networks as Teaching Utilities

Our forum of discussion was run through Facebook,[4] where most students of the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano have a personal page. It was the University itself, in 2008, that set up an account on FB to provide students and teachers with a forum for informal discussion on issues pertaining to academic life.

A teaching assistant (TA) set up class groups on a Facebook group page. Access to the newsgroup was restricted to students enrolled in the 'Comparative Politics' class, a course for second- and third-year students. Each newsgroup had three sections: discussion forum, a section where all participants could post information and comments and a section for nonpublic correspondence between students and administrators (instructor and TA).

Students were divided in four groups of seven, and each group had its own forum of discussion. Students were allowed to choose their group, even though some restrictions applied, mainly to preserve a certain degree of diversity. Each week at the end of the second day of class, the instructor circulated a prompt related to the topic for that week. The prompt consisted, as we shall see, in a short (about 100 words) comment with a relatively strong normative rationale, concerning either the 'negative' or 'positive' qualities and features of EU institutional frameworks, statements by officials or policies concerning the democratic outlook of the EU. Each student was to contribute three nonconsecutive entries (one short paragraph each) to the forum, and the ensuing exchange was further discussed in class the week after. The instructor emailed the prompt, monitored the discussion and occasionally provided comments to the students' entries. He abstained, in principle, from directly criticizing or reproaching individual students, but he could decide to drop entries that violated the spirit of the forum. Students were invited to maintain professional courtesy but not to avoid an honest, critical analysis of comments by other members. The forum was designed to allow students to share expertise and ideas and get to know one another better. The general policy was to handle matters of improper behaviour privately, between students and instructor. Admittedly, what defines the role of the instructor is the fact that he or she grades the work of the students so that their interest in topics addressed via the forum 'can be effectively stimulated by making use of the tool as a part of a graded assignment' (Schroeder et al. 2010: 165).

In the following we shall detail, very much in outline, the discussion of one of the four groups. Students responded to a prompt based on a set of lectures on the process of democratisation in Southeastern Europe, notably Bosnia-Herzegovina (BiH). The two readings mandatory for all students were the eighth chapter of Harald Wydra's *Communism and the Emergence of Democracy* (2007), 'The Collapse of Communism', and an article by Roberto Belloni (2001) on civil society and peace building in BiH.

[4]Founded in 2004 by Harvard student Mark Zuckerberg, Facebook is now one of the world's top social networks, with more than 500 million accounts. According to the founders, it is 'a social utility that helps people to communicate more efficiently' (www.facebook.com: accessed on 11/10/10).

The lectures on democratisation in Southeastern Europe aimed at explaining the fundamental relationship between political ideologies and European political regimes and at looking at European political systems from the perspective of their ability to respond to such challenges as institutional crises and external threats. These lectures took into account a number of theories of conflict resolution and aimed at testing the ways in which both European governments and international agencies responded to ethnic conflict in the former Yugoslavia. We argued in class that current theories of international justice, conflict resolution and peacemaking rest on the assumption that sources of grievance should in principle be associated with structural injustice. These lectures examined some alternative approaches to conflict resolution and focused on typical attitudes, responses and recipes offered by international actors throughout the Yugoslav wars.

The approach of the course was both comparative *and* historical, for it brought the theoretical achievements of earlier lectures on key institutions, political cultures and interest groups to bear on a comparative analysis of different political systems.

Discussion of BiH concluded a set of lectures on the political 'theory' of the EU—on the assumption that the general attitude of the EU in the Balkans is highly suggestive of both the political outlook and the ideological leaning of the European Council. We watched a clip from the website of the Office of the High Representative for BiH (OHR). The clip showed Paddy Ashdown, former High Representative, announcing on 29 March 2005 the removal of Dragan Covic, the Croatian member of the Bosnian Presidency. Ashdown's announcement raised fundamental questions about the future and role of EU involvement in BiH.

This was the prompt:

> Harald Wydra has detailed four distinct 'democratization roads' (or 'discourses of democracy'): the liberal, the republican, the participatory, and the statist. If we look at the case of BiH, we see that Roberto Belloni's paper supports a strongly participatory approach, whereas Peter Burnell illustrates comparatively the advantages (and disadvantages) of the participatory vs. the statist approach. As a matter of fact, BiH is undergoing a process of 'external constitutionalization' that resembles the kind of 'authoritarian transition' advocated by such writers as Francis Fukuyama and Fareed Zakaria. According to Belloni 'the focus on civil society is meant to overcome the limits of external regulation', it stresses what Wydra describes in terms of 'self-management' of local communities, it presupposes the ability of local constituencies to assume direct political responsibilities. However, this focus on civil society seems at odds with the office of the High Representative.

Students clustered around two main positions, namely, those who supported the involvement of the EU in BiH as an adequate response for its plea for accession and those who, quoting Belloni, insisted that EU programmes aimed at enhancing accountability are 'bizarre and alien efforts that do not take into account Bosnian history and society' (Belloni 2001: 169).

Some students argued for a redefinition of the role of the international community in the democratisation process. The EU is expected to walk the thin line between implementing a legal framework in which all actors involved are bound to operate on the one hand and 'humanitarian interventionism' on the other. Students brought into the discussion not only the literature we read in class but also other relevant sources such as magazines and newspapers. One student cited Mary Kaldor's book

New and Old Wars (1999), presenting the argument that the Dayton Agreement was 'born of the realpolitik approach of high-level negotiators who perceived the world as divided into primordial nations' (Kaldor 2007: 69). As the discussion moved along, students came to agree on the advantages of incentives given to local actors to participate in the political process. Other students illustrated the advantages of the 'participatory' versus the statist approach and argued that only the promotion of democratic values and practices (notably, the rule of law and the accountability of public officials) would lead to democracy. Students referred consistently to the role of the High Representative and discussed at length Kaldor's notion of 'humanitarian imperialism' (Kaldor 2007: 70). One student blamed the interventionist outlook of the EU, arguing that the chances for democracy to emerge have fallen through and disappeared into the gap that opened up between the political leaders and the people of BiH.

The Dayton Agreement seemed to have led to a fragmentation of ethnic conflict; it divided BiH into semi-independent entities along ethnic lines, undermining the ability to build peace (and democracy) through participation. Some students stressed the danger of historically unaware approaches to the political problems of BiH by external governments and international NGOs. They raised doubts on the efficacy of a democratic process prompted by exogenous factors and expressed concerns for the apparent lack of democratic legitimacy of the OHR. In the end, most students came to agree that the participatory approach is the only way to bring BiH within the scope of democracy.

Some students hinted at other factors that could contribute to democracy. This included both the role played by the private sector in the economy of BiH to promote a functioning market economy and the role of education as a means to overcome ethnic differences and foster a sense of common civic belonging.

At the end of the discussion, after each student had contributed the mandatory three entries, the group seemed to have gained a broader insight into the attitudes and outlook of the EU and could test a number of allegations made by political commentators about its rationales for enlargement. Imperialism and humanitarianism were the two polar extremes where scholars have sought to locate the agency of this 'unidentified political object'.[5] But what was at stake in these attempts at definition was not so much a more accurate *description* of the 'object', but rather the normative discourse of both scholars and policymakers on what the EU *should* be.

Each student's performance was assessed and graded on the basis of the ability to engage in a fruitful discussion with one's peers, to contribute original ideas and insights and to present informed and adequate knowledge of the subject addressed by the prompt. Students' entries to the forum, in-class discussions and forum-related presentations (4–6 min) counted for 30 % of the final grade, the same share that had been envisaged for the assignment previously given in this course, which consisted of a midterm paper a little longer than the three entries put together.

[5] In Jacques Delors' words, cited in Zielonka (2006: 3).

The ability to contribute entries, though, entails the ability to engage with others in an argument on a given subject. It is a method 'precisely in tune with the discipline of political science' that stimulates the students' ability to discuss and debate and to grasp the specific element inherent in the rationale of the discipline.

14.4 From the Classroom to the Public Sphere: Bridging a Gap in Democratic Literacy

We believe that the electronic forum was not so much 'in tune' with political science, as it rather appears to fulfil its rationale, the fact that most topics debated by political scientists can hardly be addressed in purely empirical terms. It is the normative element, the fact that when it comes to politics something ought to be the case that makes it inherently contentious, so that 'debate, discussion and active listening' (Oros 2007: 295) add up to the general method that 'ought' to be adopted in the classroom.

For this reason we have come to the conclusion that social networking and multimedia technology could become useful teaching utilities in political science classes especially at the undergraduate level, where students have limited information and even less personal experience, where subjects and language are not overspecialised and where civic identity is still relatively tentative.

Besides improving formal skills and the transmission of specific knowledge, an interactive approach via social networks can help structure normative contents. The overcoming of the traditional teaching dimension, namely, the teacher-led lesson, through the promotion of a proactive approach, allows to 'empower students' with 'epistemic' authority (Trudeau 2005: 291). Students are given the chance to experience directly the open-endedness of normative arguments in political discourse.

The general pedagogic significance of interactive and internet-based applications is, as we saw, widely recognised in academia. The UK-based research on social softwares in higher education to which we have already referred has found that such softwares 'can contribute to cognitive stimulation, relational exchanges and facilitation of the learning process, all of which are critical for the educational experience of a student' (Schroeder et al. 2010: 161). Thus, the advantages of using social networks in class are the building of social relationships, improving learning abilities and enhancing communication between students and educators. Interactive discussion in political science classes finds a suitable means in electronic newsgroups, a *medium* through which the 'message' is released with minimal distortions.

Through discussion forums, students develop language and 'teaming' skills. The instructor receives feedback on whether they understood the topics treated in the course; 'a dynamic collaborative environment' (Schroeder et al. 2010: 165) arises out of this mutual, dialectic interaction among students as well as between students and instructor. Social networks, to be sure, are suitable media for the purpose of teaching and learning *political science* inasmuch as here the medium *reflects*

the normative structure of the message; the medium is open ended, unrestricted, free to expand and to include. *Just like the message*, namely, the normatively loaded message that democratic citizens exchange within a transparent medium.

The medium is the message, the motto coined by Marshall McLuhan, may help explain the impact of such media as Facebook. 'What we are considering here, however, are the psychic and social consequences of the designs or patterns as they amplify or accelerate existing processes' (McLuhan 1995: 152). Where amplifying and accelerating is not the same as remaining neutral, which is what a medium, a vehicle, should be. New patterns in the diffusion of messages affect the direction and degree of democratic inclusiveness of current political processes. New media, though, have their own message attached, 'for the "message" of any medium or technology *is the change of scale or pace or pattern that it introduces into human affairs*' (McLuhan 1995: 152, italics added). Social networks are carving a new pattern within the amorphous realm of what McLuhan called, in a different essay, the 'public collective mind' (McLuhan 1995: 21). They empower people to network across national and linguistic boundaries and to produce what looks like a new form of social covenant on an unprecedented scale.

A 'world public sphere' (Noël and Thérien 2008: 8) would be the ultimate scale of political integration of a borderless humankind, but the *intensity* of the integration at this level is likely to remain low and spasmodic. A *structured* public opinion is indeed the unfinished project of modernity, a by-product of its flawed philosophical discourse, and social networks are means that we, their users, could use to structure opinion, to turn it from amorphous into a well-organised space in which messages be clear and effective. Alternatively, we may conspire towards the final destructuring of this space, put an end to the age-old project of modernity and reach a neo-medieval condition in which countless media adapt and customise the messages that suit us best.[6]

After McLuhan we are left with an important piece of information, which may help us figure things out *before* we set about 'spreading messages': *that media are never innocent*.[7] So that the risk is not so much connected with the ever-possible seizure of the medium by undemocratic agencies. The risk is that the medium is seen by democratic audiences as innocent and neutral, a sterile milieu that does not affect the substance of the message.[8] Whereas the message is always affected and framed by the constituting power of the medium.

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[6] Jürgen Habermas has pointed out how in western democracies (*im Kontext liberaler Regime*) 'the worldwide emergence of millions dispersed *chat rooms* and *issue publics* networked together has caused the fragmentation… of global mass-audiences. These audiences have disintegrated, within the virtual space, in countless dispersed discussion groups (*Zufallsgruppen*) held together by particular interests' (Habermas 2008: 162).

[7] We certainly do not want, facing the new challenge posed by social networks, to be like those who have remained 'innocent of any understanding of media as they have shaped history' (McLuhan 1995: 159).

[8] We do want to understand the power of the medium: 'Subliminal and docile acceptance of media impact has made them prisons without walls for their human users' (McLuhan 1995: 160).

Educating democratic citizens to become involved in the political process entails improving their ability to articulate messages and frame them through the new media. The medium is *not* innocent inasmuch as it can propagate racist and sexist views and messages, and it is up to its users to draw normative distinctions and develop appropriate arguments. And educators should provide both technical know-how and normative expertise on *how* to frame messages, thereby helping students develop *a new form of literacy* involving the ability to master new rhetorical strategies, even new patterns of logical thinking.

The assumption we made—which we tried to test in class through the electronic forum—is that the classroom should be seen as the elective site in which students sharpen their normative expertise as democratic citizens. More than mere 'technical expertise' on how to set up a forum, we wanted to share the sense that the forum consisted in exchanging messages through a medium that was transparent and democratic, but also vulnerable to manipulation and a variety of nondemocratic uses.

What is remarkable about the new digital media is that they 'allow the re-entry of interactive and deliberative elements in the unregulated exchange between partners who, although operating in a virtual environment, communicate with one another face-to-face on an equal footing' (*die virtuell, aber auf gleicher Augenhöhe miteinander kommunizieren*) (Habermas 2008: 161). This seems to suit new political entities in which traditional forms of aggregating people's consensus are superseded by more fluid patterns, where the political process 'is diffused, open to outside influences' (Fabbrini 2007: 209), where the points of access of the public to the political process are remote and therefore accessible through special media. It is indeed the 'world public sphere' to be affected and ultimately framed by the digital revolution, but the challenges vary depending on the background and the democratic outlook of each polity. Under this respect, the EU and, for one thing, the USA are very different cases. Building and framing a new and effective European public sphere is a remarkably compelling task, for the extent of our 'deficit' in democratic commitment seems per se the most difficult challenge faced by the EU for the time being. A possible way to make up for the deficit and reorient the commitment of EU citizens could be to reframe the message by adopting new media and to develop new patterns of literacy in our daily democratic exchange, thereby reducing the gap between people and their institutions.

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S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods,* Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0, © Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2014

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Index

S. Baroncelli et al. (eds.), *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*, Innovation and Change in Professional Education 9,
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-7043-0, © Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2014