



LUND UNIVERSITY

From Knowing the Canon to Developing Skills

Engaging with the Decoding the Disciplines Approach

Brink Pinto, Andrés; Larsson Heidenblad, David; Severinsson, Emma

Published in:

Interdisciplinary pedagogy in higher education

2020

Document Version:

Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

[Link to publication](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Brink Pinto, A., Larsson Heidenblad, D., & Severinsson, E. (2020). From Knowing the Canon to Developing Skills: Engaging with the Decoding the Disciplines Approach. In J. Bergqvist Rydén, A. Jerneck, J. Luth Richter, & K. Steen (Eds.), *Interdisciplinary pedagogy in higher education: Proceedings from Lund University's Teaching and Learning Conference 2019* (pp. 75-84).

Total number of authors:

3

Creative Commons License:

CC BY-NC-ND

General rights

Unless other specific re-use rights are stated the following general rights apply:

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

Read more about Creative commons licenses: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

LUND UNIVERSITY

PO Box 117
221 00 Lund
+46 46-222 00 00



Interdisciplinary pedagogy in higher education

Proceedings from Lund University's Teaching and
Learning Conference 2019

EDITORS: JOHANNA BERGQVIST RYDÉN, ANNE JERNECK, JESSIKA LUTH RICHTER & KARIN STEEN
LUND UNIVERSITY



Interdisciplinary pedagogy in higher education

Proceedings from Lund University's Teaching and
Learning Conference 2019



LUND
UNIVERSITY

Editors:

Johanna Bergqvist Rydén, Division for Higher Education Development (AHU),

Anne Jerneck, Lund University Centre for Sustainability Studies (LUCSUS),

Jessika Luth Richter, The International Institute for Industrial Environmental
Economics (IIIEE) &

Karin Steen, Lund University Centre for Sustainability Studies (LUCSUS) &
Division for Higher Education Development (AHU), Lund University

Coverphoto by Håkan Røjder

Lunds universitet

Humanistiska och teologiska fakulteterna

Institutionen för utbildningsvetenskap

Avdelningen för högskolepedagogisk utveckling

Samhällsvetenskapliga fakulteten

ISBN 978-91-89213-40-1

Printed in Sweden by Media-Tryck, Lund University

Lund 2020



Media-Tryck is a Nordic Swan Ecolabel certified provider of printed material. Read more about our environmental work at www.mediatryck.lu.se

MADE IN SWEDEN 

Table of Contents

Preface	5
Johanna Bergqvist Rydén, Anne Jerneck, Jessika Luth Richter & Karin Steen	
Approaches to teaching and learning as an educational challenge and opportunity	13
Björn Badersten & Åsa Thelander,	
Tactical avoidance of statistics? – How students choose methods in writing theses in interdisciplinary higher education programmes.....	21
Christer Eldh	
The Interbeing of Law and Economics: Building Bridges, Not Walls – Interdisciplinary Scholarship and Dialectic Pedagogy.....	31
Anna Tzanaki	
Gender Studies for Law Students – Legal Studies for Gender Students Analysing experiences of interdisciplinary teaching at two university departments	48
Niklas Selberg & Linnea Wegerstad	
How interdisciplinary are Master’s programmes in sustainability education?.....	61
Katharina Reindl, Steven Kane Curtis & Nora Smedby	
From Knowing the Canon to Developing Skills: Engaging with the Decoding the Disciplines Approach	75
Andrés Brink Pinto, David Larsson Heidenblad & Emma Severinsson	
Reflecting on critical awareness and integration of knowledge in interdisciplinary education: exploring the potential of learning portfolios.....	85
Jessika Luth Richter & Jagdeep Singh	

Case discussions as a way of integrating psychology into social work education.... 96

Nataliya Thell & Lotta Jägervi

Communities of Learning in Times of Student Solitude..... 105

Devrim Umut Aslan

The workshop “Classroom as a contested space”. An analysis of the collaborative work towards a reflexive pedagogical practice 118

Arlette Garduño, Andrea Tock & Marta Kolankiewicz

Preface

Johanna Bergqvist Rydén, Anne Jerneck, Jessika Luth Richter & Karin Steen

This is the proceedings volume from the 7th biannual *Teaching and Learning Conference at Lund University*, which took place in November 2019, hosted by the Faculty of Social Sciences. With the theme of *Interdisciplinary pedagogy in higher education*, it engaged nearly 50 presenters, who contributed to a multitude of interesting cases in six parallel sessions (in all, 23 presentations and seminars). The conference attracted around 170 participants from Lund University and beyond.

The aim of this series of conferences is to promote the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) signified by both good scholarly praxis and theoretically informed approaches. By offering an opportunity to share ideas, learn from each other's experiences, and get recognition for efforts to develop and promote good education, the conference is a lively event for all engaged and hard working educators at Lund University.

Interdisciplinary teaching has a solid position in the Lund University strategic plan (Strategisk plan 2017-2026). The conference theme is very timely, as we see a steady increase, not only in interdisciplinary research and full teaching programmes, but also in new interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary courses and components in more traditional disciplinary education at Lund University. The conference highlighted some of the many challenges and opportunities in such education where educators meet students with rather different disciplinary, cultural and geographical profiles.

The conference began with a dynamic and interactive keynote by Dr. Katrine Lindvig from the University of Copenhagen. She spoke about the “loud and soft voices of interdisciplinarity” and how interdisciplinarity is actually practiced (or not) through institutional policies, curriculum design, and learning activities. She presented the idea that the task of connecting different concepts and approaches across disciplines is often left to the students themselves, but that courses and programmes can be designed to make this easier. Therefore, educators have a responsibility to assist in this process of bridging various types of knowledge.

Keynote speaker Carl Gombrich is a former Professorial Teaching Fellow of Interdisciplinary Education at University College London, Principal Fellow of the

Higher Education Academy in the UK and a recent founder and organiser of the new Interdisciplinary School of London. He gave an inspirational talk about the role of interdisciplinary education in teaching “expertise” in the 21st century. In an interactive session, he challenged educators to consider different types of expertise that students need (or do not need) and how this can be taught.

The conference concluded with a panel discussion on the theme *Interdisciplinarity – Creating space to push the disciplinary boundaries in academia*. The panel examined the challenge of interdisciplinarity in education at Lund University, drawing on the experiences from multiple perspectives represented by both students and scholars: Matilda Byström, vice president of Lund University Student Unions Association (LUS); Kristina Jönsson, associate professor at the Department of Political Science and coordinator of the Graduate School Agenda 2030; Åsa Lindberg-Sand, associate professor at Division for Higher Education Development (AHU); Karin Steen, Director of studies for Environmental Studies and Sustainability Science (LUMES) and the Director for the Master of Science in Development at Graduate School; and Mikael Sundström, senior lecturer in Political Science and the Director of Studies at Graduate School. Vasna Ramasar, associate senior lecturer in the division of Human Ecology, moderated the panel.

Interdisciplinary teaching and the conference proceedings

The bulk of the conference consisted of parallel sessions where Lund University teachers presented their own experiences and research with interdisciplinarity. These contributions are also the content of these proceedings. But first, it is important to consider, what does research tell us about what is interdisciplinarity, and interdisciplinary education?

Interdisciplinarity has been defined by many different scholars, invariably, as a concept, a process, a methodology, and a reflexive ideology. However, most of these definitions contain the notion of interdisciplinarity “as a means of solving problems and answering questions that cannot be satisfactorily addressed using single methods or approaches” (Klein, 1990, p. 196). Following upon this, Boix Mansilla et al. (2000, p. 219) proposed the following definition of interdisciplinary understanding: “The capacity to integrate knowledge and modes of thinking in two or more disciplines or established areas of expertise to produce a cognitive advancement — such as explaining a phenomenon, solving a problem, or creating a product — in ways that would have been impossible or unlikely through single disciplinary means.”

Interdisciplinary *learning* has been defined as the synthesis of two or more disciplines, and the ambition to promote integration of knowledge in the educational setting (DeZure, 1999). DeZure further argues that interdisciplinary learning is a means for solving real-life problems and answering complex questions that benefit from more than one disciplinary approach (DeZure, D. 1999). The potential to address complexity and deepen learning has led to a continually increased interest in interdisciplinary education (Newell, 2009).

Gombrich and Hogan (2017) argue for two primary reasons for implementing interdisciplinary education at the university level: 1.) A practical aim in learning how to understand, relate and engage in the approaches of different academic disciplines, and 2.) To foster metacognition. However, interdisciplinarity is not without its challenges, including for educators, who may have to step out of their role as experts to cooperate with or integrate unfamiliar disciplines in complex problems. Assessment and learning activities might require more careful thought, time and effort to develop (Balsiger, 2015; Davis, 2018).

But what does all this mean for teachers and students in practice? Over the last two decades there has been a growing body of literature on how educators have experimented with interdisciplinary teaching. Several presenters at the conference gave examples from their own teaching at Lund University of how they have interacted with students, testing and developing their teaching in an interdisciplinary direction. Such development is especially important when it comes to supporting students learning how to understand and engage with different disciplines and many presenters underscored the need for students to learn the necessary skills to tackle contemporary and future societal challenges that they will face in their future professions. Other presenters took the perspective of educators and educational developers and discussed the challenges and benefits of an interdisciplinary approach and the implications, for example, for developing courses and syllabi, as well as their teacher teams.

The established scholarship of teaching and learning in the field has grown and much can still be added to this debate, which is what the contributions in this volume seek to do. One of the values of this particular conference is that it allows educators from all of the university to participate and contribute from their varying points of departure, which results in a broad array of perspectives, experiences and practices to be represented. This stimulating variation is also reflected in this proceedings volume. While some contributions discuss consequences of interdisciplinarity or disciplinary meetings for education more generally, others investigate what opportunities and challenges specific settings bring with them.

The chapters below are ordered in two loosely cohesive parts. The first five contributions deal with interdisciplinary teaching or the outcomes of disciplinary meetings in education from a more general or primal perspective, while still departing

from particular experiences. The subsequent five articles have more of a hands-on approach about experiences in implementing interdisciplinary education in the classroom.

In the very first chapter, Badersten and Thelander investigate how our subject disciplines influence how we teach. Their aim is to identify different approaches to teaching and learning within higher education, to increase our awareness and understanding of such approaches, and to discuss some challenges and opportunities and what these may imply for social science education. The authors have analysed 28 teaching portfolios written by teachers who were appointed Excellent Teaching Practitioners (ETPs) at the Faculty of Social Sciences at Lund University in 2011-2015. They identify and present three approaches to teaching and learning: the Facilitator, the Accommodator and the Scientist. For example, the Facilitator is focused on facilitating learning by providing order, structure and a favourable teaching environment for the students. The Accommodator's primary role as a teacher is to contribute to the students' personal development and maturation as human beings. The Scientist is a teacher with a strong research identity, i.e. the identity as researcher tends to be superior to the identity as teacher. By highlighting three distinct approaches to teaching and learning, the authors want to facilitate constructive dialogues and mutual exchange of ideas and experiences among educators from different disciplines.

The second chapter points towards the importance of open dialogue and discussion among educators involved in interdisciplinary teachings. Here, Eldh discusses the challenges in teaching quantitative methods, in this case statistics, in interdisciplinary courses with mixed methods where both qualitative and quantitative methods are taught. Despite this, most students tend to choose to use qualitative methods in their thesis research and the author researches why this is the case. Literature suggests that students often find statistics courses to be daunting and that students may lack motivation. However, the author finds that in this case the challenges have more to do with the framing of the course in the programme, the instructions from supervisors to their students and the competency of teaching staff when it comes to methods other than the ones they themselves promote. The findings and discussion highlight the importance of collegial communication and mutual understanding.

Tzanaki discusses the possibilities for law and economics to apply the Aristotelian notion of 'eudaimonia' - the highest human good in practical, political and intellectual life. In pedagogical terms, this would mean a holistic conception of education of mind, body and soul. The chapter recalls that science is a spiritual pursuit to be wrapped with intellectual curiosity and humility. The author discusses the (missing) connection and benefit in bringing the discipline of Law in touch with that of Economics and how expert scholars and teachers can learn to teach (better) through this interdisciplinary cross-pollination. The author claims that connecting law with economics may recast

the image of scholarly education as a bridge in the quest for finer quality and resilience in the curriculum and beyond.

Looking even more closely into the educational meeting of two disciplines, Selberg and Wegerstad recognizes the varying prerequisites for two disciplines – in this case law, which according to the authors is defined primarily by its boundary work, and gender studies, which is rather defined by its critical challenging of boundaries and norms – meet in an interdisciplinary educational setting. Students from the two respective mother disciplines enter this particular interdisciplinarity not only with very different pre-knowledge and understandings, but also different expectations, interests, motives, prejudices, and even different epistemologies and ideologies. This naturally has an impact on what issues arise for discussion and friction in the courses and what is thus required from the educators. In the cases discussed in this chapter, the very same two disciplines meet in two different courses, tailored for the respective disciplinary student group. The authors analyse the entrance perspectives of the respective student groups in relation to the nature of the two disciplines, and the consequences and potential for development this carries in relation to the involved students, teachers and educational designs.

The chapters above all discuss aspects of disciplinary meetings. Chapter 5, however, focuses explicitly on interdisciplinarity in teaching. In a comparative study, Reindl, Curtis & Smedby investigate to what extent current graduate programmes in sustainability in Sweden live up to a set of criteria of interdisciplinarity, which might reasonably be applied to interdisciplinary education. To that end, they also investigate how well the programmes apply constructive alignment meaning that teaching, learning and examination activities as well as grading criteria are directly aligned with interdisciplinary qualities as expressed in the intended learning outcomes, while also drawing on students experiences and pre-knowledge. Findings show that there is scope for educational programmes to align and develop this much further than has so far been done.

The following five chapters turn to activities and students' learning in (and outside) the actual classroom, specifically when it comes to general competencies such as being able to formulate a potent research question, being able to integrate knowledge from different disciplines or knowledge fields, and being able of critical thinking and awareness. Used well, disciplinary heterogeneity in the student group - even when leading to frictions - can be used as a lever to facilitate development of students' skills.

Brink Pinto, Larsson Heidenblad, and Severinsson, all of them educators in History, suggest an approach for how teachers can help students to acquire the important skill to formulate relevant and interesting research questions and how students can practise that skill in various course assignments. The approach seeks to go beyond the traditional teaching of canon ('knowing what') and instead teach students to pose

questions that uncover broader patterns, allow comparisons across space and time, and stimulate thinking along different lines of theoretical reasoning ('knowing how' and 'why'). The authors underline how this skill may help students also in later stages of their education, when it becomes an even more central parameter in the assessment of their work. As regards interdisciplinarity, it is an important skill to be able to pose significant researchable questions.

The next chapter is based on both a literature review and an experiment. Richter and Singh share with us their experiences of introducing learning portfolios with artefacts and critical reflections as a tool in a graduate program. They illustrate how this initiative may help students to reach the intended learning outcomes, while also promoting key principles in interdisciplinary teaching. Despite initial skepticism, their students came to appreciate the new activity of keeping track of their assignments and associated thinking in a learning portfolio, not only as a base for in-depth knowledge and thinking, but also as a showcase for prospective employers.

Thell & Jägervi share their experiences of how to introduce a specific disciplinary perspective into an interdisciplinary educational programme in very limited time. The psychological perspective is of central importance to most social work professions. However, in the three and a half year long education, it is given very limited course space; only a few weeks all in all. The authors have previously noted how hard it is for students to actually grasp the course content and understand how to apply acquired knowledge and skills in social work practice. However, Thell and Jägervi found that case discussions, wherein students are asked to apply theoretical psychological concepts of understanding to realistic cases encountered by social workers, can promote students' understanding of psychological concepts and ideas, and how these can be applied in practice. Moreover, in such a setting, students tend to draw on knowledge from other disciplinary fields previously encountered in their education, and on other experiences, thus connecting and applying all the knowledge they can actuate in the concrete case discussion.

Umut Aslan shows how a 'community of learning' philosophy can help improve student learning and the achievement of learning outcomes, especially in situations where teachers have few contact hours. The author describes how this is done in practice through peer-learning, discussing, searching, applying, analysing, grading, and writing. The author also discusses how the 'communities of learning' philosophy highlights the importance of co-learning among peers, and how distinctly different student backgrounds and skills are resourcified in knowledge production - all highly relevant for an interdisciplinary educational setting.

In the final chapter of this volume, Garduño, Tock and Kolankiewicz discuss how tensions and/or conflicts in the classroom may form powerful learning opportunities. Within gender studies, the encounter between the studied subject matter and the

personal thoughts, beliefs and experiences held by students and educators, may bring to the fore strong and sometimes difficult emotions and opinions. By recognising them as a natural and potent part of the inherent capacity of the field, potentially difficult or conflictual situations can be converted into something fruitful and prolific. Rather than striving for an ideal of making the classroom a safe space, the authors suggest that the idea of the classroom as a contested space might open up for such dynamics. They share with us their experiences of arranging workshops framed as forum theatre on potentially difficult and conflictual issues. This allows for such issues to be explored in a more controlled, yet open-minded and allowing way, and so to provide powerful learning opportunities for students as well as educators.

In the Lund University strategic plan, it is recognized that its breadth of disciplines is unique and should be preserved. At the same time, transboundary and inter-/cross-disciplinary collaboration within Lund University and beyond are also recognized as vital components, which are to be stimulated. However, despite this recognition on a principal level, several financial, organisational, and mental barriers still need to be overcome to facilitate interdisciplinary education at Lund University. One response would be to intensify informed discussions on *what interdisciplinary implies in both teaching and research* and to promote valuable education initiatives through explicitly supportive structures. For that, we need to share novel ideas on how to shape an environment that is conducive to teaching, learning, and creating integrated knowledge.

By providing a plethora of good examples, this volume is a hands-on expression of interdisciplinary teaching at Lund University. As such, we hope that it can serve as support in advancing knowledge and experience in interdisciplinary education for individual educators, teacher teams, and teaching ‘decision makers’. Hopefully, the following chapters can inspire educators and others engaged in educational development and design, to develop their own ideas and start - or continue developing - their interdisciplinary teaching practice.

Johanna Bergqvist Rydén, Anne Jerneck, Jessika Luth Richter & Karin Steen
Lund University, October 2020

References

- Balsiger, J. (2015). Transdisciplinarity in the classroom? Simulating the co-production of sustainability knowledge. *Futures*, 65, 185–194.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2014.08.005>
- Davies, J. P. Setting the interdisciplinary scene. In Davies, J. P. and Pachler, N. (eds.) *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: Perspectives from UCL*, 112-130.
<https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/10059996/1/Davies%20&%20Pachler%202018.pdf#page=239>
- DeZure, D. (1999). *Interdisciplinary Teaching and Learning. Essays on Teaching Excellence: Toward the Best in the Academy*. Athens, GA; POD.
- Gombrich, C. (2018). ‘Teaching interdisciplinarity’. In Davies, J. P. and Pachler, N. (eds.) *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: Perspectives from UCL*, 218-234.
<https://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/id/eprint/10059996/1/Davies%20&%20Pachler%202018.pdf#page=239>
- Gombrich, C. and Hogan, M. (2017) ‘Interdisciplinarity and the student voice’. In Frodeman, R., Klein, J.T. and Pacheco, R.C.S. (eds.) *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity*. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 544–57.
<https://www.oxfordhandbooks.com/view/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780198733522.001.0001/oxfordhb-9780198733522>
- Klein, J. T. (1990). *Interdisciplinarity: History, theory and practice*. Detroit, MI: Wayne State University Press.
- Lunds Universitet. *Strategisk plan för Lunds universitet 2017–2026*.
<https://www.lu.se/sites/www.lu.se/files/strategisk-plan-lunds-universitet-2017-2026-2.pdf>

Approaches to teaching and learning as an educational challenge and opportunity

Björn Badersten, Department of Political Science

Åsa Thelander, Department of Strategic Communication

How do our subject disciplines influence our teaching and didactic practices, i.e. the way we teach? Our disciplines are typically ingrained by implicit assumptions, practices and informal rules forming certain approaches to teaching and learning. These approaches, which entail a shared understanding of who our students are, how students learn, and what good teaching means, tend to be continuously produced and reproduced through the collegial exchange of experiences within our teaching environments. As university teachers, however, we rarely reflect upon these experiences. Although these approaches are often implicit and taken for granted, they sometimes become apparent, as for example in multi- and interdisciplinary settings where teachers from different teaching environments meet and interact, bringing with them different views on teaching and learning. At times, this creates friction, conflict and competition; at other times, when such views are the subject of elaboration, reflection and open discussion, these interactions create a dynamic and fruitful environment for pedagogical development.

The aim of this chapter is to identify and highlight different approaches to teaching and learning within higher education to increase our awareness and understanding of such approaches and to discuss some challenges and opportunities that they may imply for social science education. More specifically, we have three primary objectives:

1. To identify assumptions and practices that form different approaches to teaching and learning in higher education within the social sciences.
2. To discuss challenges and opportunities related to these approaches.
3. To provide a foundation for individual and collegial reflection on the implications of these approaches.

In order to identify different approaches to teaching and learning in higher education, we have analysed teaching portfolios written by teachers at the Faculty of Social Sciences at Lund University. We start with a methodological reflection on the material used for the study as well as the method and type of text analysis conducted. Next, we identify and present in detail three approaches to teaching and learning: the Facilitator, the Accommodator and the Scientist. Finally, we conclude with a general reflection on these approaches and a set of questions intended to stimulate further reflection and discussion among teachers, either independently or in collegial settings, such as teaching teams, departments or faculties.

Empirical material and method

In order to identify different approaches to teaching and learning in higher education, texts where teachers explicitly discuss their ideas on teaching and reflect on their teaching practice have been analysed. More specifically, we analysed all teaching portfolios – 28 in number – written by teachers who were appointed Excellent Teaching Practitioners (ETPs) at the Faculty of Social Science at Lund University in 2011-2015. The portfolios represent the majority of the departments and disciplines at the faculty (<https://www.sam.lu.se/en/internal/employment/career-development-for-academic-staff/teaching-academy>).

The teaching portfolios analysed were written by teachers for the explicit purpose of being considered for promotion to the Teaching Academy at the Faculty of Social Science. The portfolios are centered around and evaluated based on a set of assessment criteria (Dnr STYR 2019/1431). But despite the limitations presented by these criteria, the teaching portfolios are highly personalised and diverse as they are rooted in the applicants' own experiences and individual views on teaching and learning. The texts are generally highly reflective in nature, and teaching experiences are often discussed and problematized in a self-critical manner. Therefore, the texts are not primarily characterised by success stories. Rather, the opposite is often the case as difficulties, challenges and mistakes often are used as the basis for reflection. According to

evaluators, such reflections are seen as an important aspect of the personal development of the teacher.

We conducted an inductive text analysis of the teaching portfolios, meaning that certain themes and dimensions have gradually been generated through a review of the portfolio texts. We identified similarities and differences in the teachers' views on teaching and learning and their didactic practices. On the basis of this inductive review and comparison, three overall approaches to teaching and learning in higher education were identified: the Facilitator, the Accommodator and the Scientist. These approaches share some similarities with the teaching and learning regimes (TLRs) identified by Trowler & Cooper (2002), and with the personal theories of teaching and teacher roles sketched by e.g. Fox (1983). However, the questions raised and the dimensions used here are different and less comprehensive than the ones present in Trowler & Cooper, and the analyses is less focused on the level of the individual teacher compared to e.g. Fox. Therefore, we here speak of approaches rather than of regimes or personal views on teaching.

The approaches to teaching and learning that we identify are formulated as ideal types. Being ideal types, they should be seen as extrapolations of – or “extreme” versions of – the approaches, where certain characteristics are emphasised while others are played down. As such, they are distinctively different in character and are not variants on a continuum. In addition, they should be understood as heuristics for reflection, not as representations of reality, i.e. there are no clear-cut empirical representations of these approaches in practice. Thus, the purpose here is not to sort individual teachers or teaching environments into different categories, rather we seek to convey that specific teaching environments often have traits, more or less, from all ideal types, although they tend to gravitate towards specific approaches in the margins. It should also be said that the purpose is not to evaluate normatively the three approaches (based on some notions of “good” teaching). Our aim of presenting ideal types is simply to stimulate reflection by highlighting how the three approaches that teachers draw on vary in certain respects.

Three approaches to teaching and learning

From a general point of view, the teaching portfolios that we analysed all share a kind of constructionist view of teaching and learning, where it is presumed that learning takes place and knowledge is created in mutual interaction between actors in a social setting. Although there are significant differences in the extent to which this is emphasised in the portfolios, the “excellent” teachers usually tend to distance themselves from a more traditional, transmission-oriented view of learning, where it is

presumed that knowledge is transmitted in a unidirectional way from one person to another.

A cursory review of the portfolios also gives the impression that the teachers tend to use the same learning activities and methods in their teaching, i.e. lectures, seminars and workshops. A more in-depth reading, however, reveals that those general activities in practice imply rather different things. Differing views on how students learn and the goal and role of the teacher result in different ways of understanding the learning process and the teacher-student relationship. This results in quite different ways of organising and performing these teaching and learning activities.

Based on those differences, we extracted three ideal type approaches to teaching and learning in higher education from the teaching portfolios: the Facilitator, the Accommodator, and the Scientist.

Table 1. Three ideal type approaches to teaching and learning in higher education.

	The Facilitator	The Accommodator	The Scientist
Role of the teacher	The teacher guides and stimulates the responsible student's learning.	The teacher serves as role model and coaches the student in the learning process.	The teacher is an expert and serves as inspiration and a source of knowledge for learning.
Aim of the teacher	Provide tools for critical thinking and foster students to become citizens in a democratic society.	Support the student's personal development to become an compassionate and reflexive human being in a social context.	Teach scientific know-how and forms of knowledge production.
Power relationship teacher-student	Semi-symmetric relationship between teacher and student. Teacher and student are involved in a learning process but with different roles and power.	Symmetric relationship between teacher and student. Teacher and student part of intertwined process.	Asymmetric relationship between teacher and student. The teacher is knowledgeable and powerful outside the student's individual learning process.
Didactic practice	Lectures (interactive), seminars and workshops (co-creative and different forms). Summative assessment.	PBL, "peer learning", storytelling, collaborative and participatory methods. Formative assessment.	Lectures (know-how and inspiration), seminars (present and compare). Summative assessment.

The Facilitator

The Facilitator is focused on facilitating learning by providing order, structure and a favourable teaching environment for the students. The overall goal is to foster the student's development into citizens in a democratic society. This often involves a critical and reflective approach to the phenomena at hand, and teachers offer explicit discussion and motivation in the way their subject knowledge contributes to the development of relevant competencies. The Facilitator clearly emphasises the

significance of the *teacher* in the learning process; the teacher guides the student's learning process from start to finish. To this end, the teacher provides order and structure, but also appear with the semi-authoritative leadership of a knowledgeable guide.

The Facilitator acknowledges learning as an active process and uses and develops learning activities that activate, motivate and stimulate students. Lectures are the cornerstone, but the design of lectures is important for the facilitator. In line with the idea of activity and the social creation of knowledge, lectures are interactive and often based on dialogue and open-ended questions. The Facilitator acknowledges students and student interaction as important components of learning. Therefore, the Facilitator prefers teaching activities where students interact not only with the teacher but also with *other students* in a peer-to-peer oriented process, although the overall direction of the process is guided by the teacher. In terms of assessment, however, these interactive and formative elements of teaching are often played down in favour of a more *summative* orientation, focusing on evaluation of the student's fulfilment of learning outcomes.

The Accommodator

The Accommodator has a different take on teaching and learning. The primary role of the teacher in this approach is to contribute to the students' personal development and maturation as human beings. For the Accommodator, it is essential to stimulate the development of a range of personal, relational and reflexive competences, such as the capacity for listening, empathy and self-reflection. It is presumed that learning takes place in close interaction with others in a social context, whereas group dynamic aspects and emotions are emphasised as important parts of the learning process. In addition, *interpersonal* and ethical considerations are often interwoven as central and integrated parts of the subject knowledge at hand.

The integration of emotion and introspection in the learning process, however, places certain demands on the teacher, requiring the teacher to judiciously incorporate this in different teaching situations. In this respect, the teacher is believed to have an important responsibility for harbouring the emotions that may be expressed in diverse teaching sessions. Thus, the teacher is an integrated part of the learning process and there is a symmetric and intertwined relationship between teacher and student. Often, the teacher also serves as a role model for the students and is seen, to some extent, as the "embodiment" of the subject field and the discipline. In terms of teaching and learning activities, the Accommodator uses interactive, participatory, collaborative, problem-based and group-oriented activities, and assessment is normally open, *formative* and forward-looking rather than summative and evaluative. In addition, stories and storytelling, often based on real life experiences, play an important role in teaching.

The Scientist

The Scientist is a teacher with a strong research identity, i.e. the identity as *researcher* tends to be superior to the identity as teacher. Knowledge of the specific subject and discipline is strongly emphasised. The aim and role of the teacher is to inspire the students to want to learn about the subject (what) and how knowledge is produced (why). The teacher's own research serves as an important source of inspiration, and the teacher wants to convey a passion for research and knowledge production to the students. The Scientist often looks for role models within and tends to duplicate teachers from their own educational background; teachers who have been renowned experts in their field and have effectively transferred their subject knowledge, enthusiasm and scientific approach into their teaching practices.

The teaching subject of the Scientist is often very close to or completely overlaps with research itself. Compared with the facilitator and the accommodator, the scientist is less concerned about a lack of student motivation, because motivation to learn is seen as the student's own responsibility. In addition, learning is basically seen as an individual process, where the individual, as such, is the most important resource. The teacher, i.e. the *expert*, provides opportunities for the students to learn.

The Scientist often relies on lectures and seminars. Lectures are seen as important for presenting knowledge about the specific subject in a pre-structured way. Seminars emphasise involvement by the students, who prepare for seminar presentations and discussions with other students. Hence, seminars importantly serve as a way to benchmark knowledge with fellow students. In terms of examining the students, the scientist tends to verify the students' knowledge at the end of the course and prefers different forms of *summative* assessment.

Conclusions and discussion

As indicated above, we have found fundamental differences between the approach of social science teachers to teaching and learning in higher education, although most teachers – at face value – tend to belong to the same overall social constructionist paradigm. These differences refer to underlying views of teaching and learning and of the professional role of the teacher vis-à-vis students, as well as to differences in concrete didactic practices. Additionally, we have noticed differences between both individual teachers and between learning environments and disciplines, where colleagues who have the same organisational affiliation or share disciplinary background tend to gravitate towards the same approach.

In our analysis we generated three ideal type approaches to teaching and learning as extrapolations of the identified differences. Being ideal type characterizations, they are

constructed as coherent approaches. However, a detailed review of the teaching portfolios reveals certain contradictions and ambivalences related to the ideal approaches when staged in actual practice. The different approaches also tend to embody certain challenges. In fact, in some of the portfolios, the teachers themselves reflect on inconsistencies in and challenges with their own approaches and note that, in certain situations, they do not "live as they learn". For instance, the Facilitator often assumes the role of verifier of knowledge when assessing students in a way that contrasts sharply to their ideas about the teacher acting as a "guide". Assessment is described as a form of exercise of authority, legitimised by references to various types of official documents, rules and regulations, rather than as a learning process in itself. The Accommodator struggles e.g., with the balance between a personal, interpersonal, experience and emotions-based approach to teaching, on the one hand, and a more "science" or "research" oriented approach to teaching that is often expected in higher education. Finally, the Scientist may, e.g., have struggles with students who learn in ways other than through the knowledge they convey themselves and are not motivated on the same grounds.

One way to overcome these challenges is, naturally, to learn from and combine several approaches. For instance, the Facilitator could gain insights from the accommodator on collaborative approaches to the assessment process. The Accommodator could benefit from the scientist's strength in bringing the research process more explicitly into the teaching process, and the Scientist could, e.g., learn from both the Facilitator and the Accommodator by incorporating more elements of peer-teaching and student interaction in teaching. Hence, different approaches to teaching and learning have the potential to enrich each other and, through mutual exchange, solve some of the inherent ambivalences and contradictions.

From our reading of the teaching portfolios, it is apparent that teachers tend to develop their understanding of teaching and learning and their didactical practices through critical incidents, such as when teaching is performed in inter- and multidisciplinary environments where they encounter teachers and students accustomed to other approaches to teaching and learning. This seems to raise teachers' awareness and stimulate pedagogical development, both on the individual level and on the level of teaching teams and teaching environments. However, such incidents also have the potential to develop into tensions or even conflicts. Approaches to teaching and learning that are fundamentally different may clash, and the implicit character associated with such approaches, which is often taken for granted, may obstruct constructive interaction. It is our hope, however, that by highlighting three distinct approaches to teaching and learning, we have raised the awareness of such approaches and may facilitate constructive dialogue and mutual exchange of ideas and experiences among teachers from different disciplines. In this vein, we conclude with some questions that can be used as a starting point for reflection and discussion among teachers.

Questions for reflection (individuals)

- Do I recognize any of the ideal types of teaching and learning presented above (the Facilitator, the Accommodator, the Scientist)? How come?
- How do I define my approach to teaching and learning, in terms of e.g. the role and aim of the teacher, the teacher-student relationship or didactic practice?
- When and where do I encounter other approaches?
- What can I learn from other approaches?
- In which situations can other approaches be fruitful?

Questions for reflection (teaching environments)

- What approaches to teaching and learning exist in my teaching environment?
- What approaches do the students encounter and when?
- What are the students' expectations and preferences?
- Do we discuss different approaches with the students? Is it needed?
- Do we support certain approaches?
- How do we take advantage of different approaches?

References

- Dnr STYR 2019/1431. *Teaching academy criteria for assessment of teaching skills in appointments of qualified and excellent teaching practitioners* (<https://www.sam.lu.se/en/internal/sites/sam.lu.se.en.internal/files/teaching-academy-criteria-for-assessment-of-teaching-skills-decision-2019.pdf>).
- Fox, Dennis, 1983. "Personal Theories of Teaching", *Studies in Higher Education*, vol. 8, no 2, pp. 151-163.
- Trowler, Paul R. & Ali Cooper, 2002. "Teaching and learning regimes: implicit theories and recurrent practices in the enhancement of teaching and learning through educational development programmes", *Higher Education Research and Development*, vol. 21, no 3, pp. 221-240.
- 28 teaching portfolios written by teachers that have been appointed Excellent Teaching Practitioners (ETP) at the Faculty of Social Science at Lund University between 2011 and 2015 (<https://www.sam.lu.se/en/internal/employment/career-development-for-academic-staff/teaching-academy>).

Tactical avoidance of statistics? – How students choose methods in writing theses in interdisciplinary higher education programmes

Christer Eldh, Department of Service Management and Service Studies

In the field of research in statistical education and teaching there is a debate concerning students' attitudes to statistics and quantitative methods. There appears to be a concern that students do not see the value of statistics or find courses difficult to complete with a successful outcome. In addition, according to both the literature and my own experience as a lecturer, there is an odious nature to teaching statistics as students hate the field and look upon it as something that is painful but necessary (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009). It could be that there is the same tendency in academia generally although one might assume that this is also the case in interdisciplinary education, as students do not choose a programme or courses because of their interest in statistics (Condrón et al. 2018). Others argue that it is very important to motivate students during the introduction to a statistics course in order to raise their awareness of data in everyday life in the age of information as statistics form part of our daily lives and are involved in all aspects of scientific methodology (Murtonen and Lehtinen 2003; Rumsey 2002; Tominic et al. 2018). Condrón et al. are very outspoken and claim that there is anxiety in students who attend interdisciplinary social science statistics courses (Condrón et al. 2018). Of course, not all interdisciplinary programmes offer statistics courses. However, in the field of social science this is something that is usually expected throughout the world. It is also common for quantitative and qualitative methods to be given equal space in social science interdisciplinary programmes.

There is an inclination in the pedagogical perspective on statistics to fight for something that is threatened by unmotivated and afraid students, as well as by sceptical colleges in the general teaching staff who lack respect for the somewhat mysterious statistics skills. The “few and proud” statistics educators are sought after and every head

of department ensures that oddball statistics teachers remain (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009). This is the case at the Faculty of Social Science at Lund University, Sweden. The faculty is officially very concerned about the tendency not to find a sufficient number of quantitative teachers and offers a course to promote teaching and research in statistics. This is something that is very unlikely to happen in any other academic discipline. In this paper, I will discuss students' attitudes towards the use of quantitative methods in bachelor theses. However, I will not discuss the conditions of statistics educators *per se*, but will rather suggest a connection between students' statistics anxiety and the attitudes to statistics among the general teaching staff at a programme level.

Research in students' attitudes towards statistics

With the point of departure in the view that students are reluctant or negative to statistics, Hulsizer and Woolf claim that teaching in statistics is an art in itself that needs to be prepared and conducted on its own terms (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009). They argue that there are certain pedagogical challenges. One of the challenges is that today's students receive the vast majority of their statistics training from instructors outside the field of mathematics; statistics courses are dispersed among different academic disciplines. Further, they claim that there are differences in what should be included in a course and what educators actually include. Hulsizer and Woolf argue that the focus should be on effect size, estimation and the statistical power to introduce the use of statistics and less of complex techniques as correlation, t-tests and ANOVA. The point is that in order to be motivated, students must understand the use of statistics in their future career development (Williams et al. 2008). To achieve this, it is recommended that courses in statistics use six strategies: "emphasize statistical literacy, use real data, stress conceptual understanding, foster active learning, use technology and use assessment" (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009). With an element of humour, teachers are even instructed to help students survive and are encouraged to "incorporate strategies aimed at reducing maths anxiety from the first day of class" (ibid: 23). Condrón et al. (2018) also observes that students share anxiety about statistics. They agree that students are less likely to see the usefulness of statistics for their intended future careers and do not see the relevance of statistics to the real world (Condrón et al. 2018). The source of students' statistics anxiety have been identified as an overall lack of confidence, negative experience of previous statistics courses, general anxiety about test-taking, inadequate maths skills and an awareness of the importance of studying taking statistics (Condrón et al. 2018; Hill 2003). The data in these articles reveal that every single student feels statistics anxiety but not all of them are terrified. Because of this, it is recommended

that teachers spend some class time discussing statistics anxiety, some basic maths reviews, communicate the importance of statistics and build the students' confidence throughout the course.

As statistics appear to be a particularly complex subject to teach, Hulsizer and Woolf (2009) have stated that some attention should be paid to syllabus construction, choice of textbooks and a sufficient number of computer tutorials. Statistical thinking should be highlighted and involve the processes of application, critique, evaluation and generalisation in order to get the big picture and the ability to use the knowledge in working life. In the classroom setting, useful tools include active learning, special instructional techniques, the use of questions and the use of practical problems and examples (ibid: 82ff). The overall impression is that teaching statistics is difficult but doable with some preparation and a proper understanding of the students' reluctance and anxiety. There also appears to be some negative emotions involved in both teachers and students that are grounded in the particular circumstances of involved in statistics (Frankland and Harrison 2016; Hulsizer and Woolf 2009; Murtonen 2005). From the students' perspective, statistics is a difficult subject to learn and understand; from the teachers' perspective, teaching statistics is challenging because of the subject's complexity and the students' fear and lack of motivation.

Firstly, it is easy to recognise the picture gleaned from my own experience and I am sure that many teachers could confirm the situation with anecdotal evidence. A second consideration is that the critique of students' capacity and the complexity of the topic are also recognisable from other courses and raise the question that perhaps this issue is discussed in all university departments, irrespective of the discipline or course. A third issue concerns the ways in which the recommendations on how to conduct teaching differ from other topics. One of the "classics" in the field of pedagogical development in teaching at university levels, written by McKeachie (2002), confirms that the problems appear to be the same across disciplines. The general pedagogical literature discusses topics that are very close to pedagogical issues relating to statistics such as students' anxiety, the importance of motivating students by spending time explaining to them how useful the course will be in their future careers, the importance of syllabus construction, active learning and the process of application, critique, evaluation and generalisation (McKeachie 2002, p 16-17). This raises questions about whether there is a unique problem with courses in statistics.

The case

The problem with students not choosing to use statistical methods in their thesis will be discussed in this paper based on material collected from two departments at one faculty at Lund University. One of the two departments describes itself as interdisciplinary, established over the last two decades, and the other department teaches a traditional discipline. The material comprises 20 interviews with students writing an examination bachelors thesis. Most of the interviews are with individuals but in some cases two students are interviewed at the same time. A structured questionnaire (see appendix) was used. The qualitative approach is motivated by the overwhelming data and analysis based on the quantitative methods used in previous research and there are no obvious reasons to question them. Instead, this is a case in which qualitative interviewing could explain the results of quantitative research.¹ My relationship to the students is that I am a teacher from one of their previous courses but am currently teaching them. The two departments offer education at bachelor, advanced and doctoral levels and have around 60 employees (all staff are included) each and educate 1,200 students annually. One of the two departments comprises three specialisations on different perspectives on management in retailing, hotel and tourism, logistics and health management. The specialisations and research are interdisciplinary from different faculties such as social science, humanity studies, engineering, science and business administration. Around one dozen disciplines are represented. In order to be admitted to the interdisciplinary programme, the students are required to have a more advanced level of maths (level C – the standard requirement at a social science faculty is level B as is the case with the other department in this study). The research at both departments is dominated by the qualitative method and few teaching staff are available for teaching the quantitative method. During the second year at bachelor level, the students are obliged to take a mandatory course in methodology lasting for half a semester (15 study points in the Swedish system). Hardly any of the students have considered continuing after the master level. They would prefer to start their working careers outside the university.

The analysis will first discuss the attitudes of the interviewed students towards statistics and their views on the quantitative course at the department. The second section analyses how the students consider using statistics in their future working lives and then discusses the process behind the method selection in the ongoing work on their bachelor or master thesis. What the interview students have in common is that they regard themselves as being moderately ambitious, they want the study credits but

¹ However, what could be missed is data that measures the distribution of anxiety between different courses.

are not particularly interested in achieving top grades. They did not have any problems with maths at secondary school. They found it rather boring, but important. They all prefer traditional written exams but do not particularly dislike assignments and other forms of exam activities such as oral presentations.

The difficulties of statistics

My questions about attitudes towards statistics and the course in quantitative methods were expected to provide responses indicating anxiety, low motivation and the general idea that the course contained complex perspectives (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009, Condrón et al. 2018). The questions were along the lines of: “What is your attitude towards statistics, what were your expectations before the course and are statistics easy to understand?” The answers ranged from “very enjoyable” to “hard and messy”. Two students stated that the quantitative method was not enjoyable but was much easier to learn than the qualitative method. None of the interviewed students thought that they would ever use the statistical method in their lives, except perhaps in their bachelor thesis or master thesis. One of the students stated: “During the course, I found all the methodology totally meaningless and a complete waste of my time”. Despite all of them claiming that quantitative methods are interesting, even in a boring situation such as a methodology course, they appeared to be fascinated by the potential outputs of statistical analysis. All of them were able to recognise the use of statistics. The problem appears to be in the learning context; they were confronted by quantitative methods, framed as a preparation to writing their bachelor or master thesis, and struggled to connect it with the rest of their programme.

One of the students spontaneously compared the complexity of statistics with other courses on the programme: “I wasn’t nervous at all. We have more difficult courses such as *Financial Accounting and Management Accounting in Service organisations* and *Strategy and Management Control Systems*. They were very difficult and we were warned beforehand.” This answer is somewhat surprising as previous research has indicated that courses in statistics are something that students fear (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009, Condrón et al. 2018). The phenomena of anecdotal, rumour-based knowledge of courses creating anxiety and the way that this may turn in to a self-fulfilling prophecy appears to be at work, although the feared subject could differ (Ramos and Carvalho 2011). In this case, however, statistics in the interdisciplinary programme is not deemed to be the least attractive course to follow or teach. In this context, another course is the “anxiety course” and statistics is judged according to the fact that it is a part of preparation for the thesis – something the students understand as being mandatory and

necessary to completing their education. However, they are barely able to understand how the art of writing an academic paper will benefit them in their future lives.

Selection of methods for the thesis

In this section I will discuss the problems observed here with motivation and why few of the students use the quantitative method when writing their thesis. According to previous research, one of the problems with courses in statistics is that students rarely understand the use of statistics and believe that it will not form part of their working lives (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009, Condron et al. 2018). Thus, they are not motivated and teachers are recommended to spend some time explaining the usefulness of statistics. Looking at the figures in my case, from the low percentage of students who chose to use the quantitative method in their thesis (around 10%), it may be tempting to agree upon the necessity to motivate to use statistics in thesis writing. However, this has to be based on what the students think and feel. What is the relationship between the motivation to study statistics and the selection of quantitative methods in writing a thesis? The material comprises answers from the interviewed students discussing issues relating to what they are going to do in their future working lives and how they selected the method for their thesis.

All of the interviewed students found statistics to be very important in understanding the performance of an organisation, regardless of what work sector or position they were aiming for. The study of statistics are important in understanding sales, profits and the health condition of staff, to mention some of the students' examples. One of the students had some work experience and explained that behind all the "soft" management there is much statistics that you need to understand. In their understanding, teachers appear to believe that an argument is stronger if it is supported by statistics and qualitative analysis. Generally, the interviewed students looked upon statistics as "facts as opposed to other results as they are based upon people's experiences. Facts are clearer and explain how a firm is progressing" (retail management student). As teachers we may think that things are a bit more complex and do not divide research into "quantitative facts" and "second-rate qualitative experiences". However, it is very clear that the interviewed students saw the need for statistics and were convinced that they need to understand statistical reasoning and thinking to some extent.

Bearing this in mind, it is interesting to note that not one of the interviewed students chose to use quantitative methods in their thesis. When asked why, the students said that their supervisors had recommended qualitative methods. Two of the students used

qualitative methods in their thesis in the second year and were more comfortable with this. Other students had considered quantitative methods but were dissuaded after a discussion with their supervisors. One of the students explained that “I had the sense that we were obliged to use the qualitative method; the supervisor pointed very clearly in that direction. It was as if nobody had ever heard about anything else in my programme” (equality and diversity management student). Even though the course instructions clearly state that students may opt for either approach, and although qualitative and quantitative methods are described in a neutral way, the student could sense what the supervisor was recommending between the lines. With a teaching staff comprising researchers who mainly use qualitatively-oriented methods themselves, it is understandable that around 90% of the theses are based on qualitative methods. This is a very strong argument for further developing the environment for statistics courses in multi- or interdisciplinary programmes (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009, Rumsey 2002). The differences between statistical arguments in teaching and teachers’ attitudes towards quantitative methods in supervision are also worth taking into account.

Reflections and results

The case regarding two departments of social science at Lund University shows that students understand the use of statistics in their future career development. They also appear to be highly motivated and there are even signs that they overestimate the value of statistics. The interviewed students did not think of statistics as something that evoke anxiety. From the students’ perspective, the problem is that statistics are linked to a course in methodology. All methods are regarded as something that is rather meaningless and only necessary if you are heading for a career in academia, which very few of the student intended to do. None of the interviewed students mentioned any links between methods and “working in real life”. In this case, statistics are not the problem; quantitative methods are the problem. My results differ from other research at some points and merge at others. Condrón (2018) recommends that teachers spend some class time discussing statistics anxiety, undertaking some basic maths review, communicating the importance of statistics and building the students’ confidence throughout the course. In this particular case there appears to be other courses that provoke more anxiety, and it appears that every programme has one or two anxiety-provoking courses. There is no sign of any need for a maths review among the students (but perhaps among the teachers) and the students were convinced about the importance of statistics. One way to solve the problem, of course, is to separate statistics theory and literacy from quantitative methods. However, this could create a new

pedagogical nightmare because statistics courses are recommended to “emphasize statistical literacy, use real data, stress conceptual understanding, foster active learning, use technology and use assessment” (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009, p 16). The theory of statistics and qualitative methods still appears to be an excellent combination.

The most important finding of this study is the tacit recommendation from supervisors to use qualitative methods in thesis writing. This problem relates to what is described as “colleagues’ attitudes towards statistics” (Hulsizer and Woolf 2009, p 99) as an implicit attitude and a lack of capacity of staff to support quantitative theses. This problem has to be solved and is not something that a course team can address on its own. The problem involves the management of the department’s needs being addressed in staff meetings and conferences. This is not an easy task because not all teachers are comfortable with quantitative methods. This raises the question of who should teach statistics and qualitative methods. Hulsizer and Woolf (2009) cite Hotelling, who states that: “A good deal of [statistics] has been conducted by persons engaged in research, not of a kind contributing to statistical theory, but consisting of the application of statistical methods and theory to something else” (p 6). I would argue that these words are not reserved for statistics and quantitative methods; they are applicable to qualitative methods as well as to other programmes generally. Not every teacher has to be competent in both quantitative and qualitative methods. However, there is a need to distribute supervisors who meet the requirements of examinations, not what teachers prefer to supervise. There is also a need for basic knowledge and the ability to teach, but not necessarily conduct research, in the fields of qualitative and quantitative methods. Students will most likely require both skills in real life applications – more than researchers, who can choose to only apply qualitative methods. So the nature of a course in multiple methods allows access to both quantitative and qualitative skills. However, the reality is that one of these skills is more utilised in research and this does not align with practice in the field.

References

- Condron, Dennis J., Becker, Jacob H., and Bzhetaj, Linda (2018), ‘Sources of students’ anxiety in a multidisciplinary social statistic course’, *Teaching sociology*, 1-10.
- Frankland, Lianne and Harrison, Jacqui (2016), ‘Quantitative methods intervention: What do the students want?’, *Psychology Teaching Review*, 22 (1).
- Hill, Carolyn (2003), ‘Can they put it all together? A Project for Reinforcing what Policy Students Learn in a First-semester Quantitative Methods Course’, *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 22 (3), 473-81.

- Hulsizer, Michael R. and Woolf, Linda M. (2009), *A guide to teaching statistics. Innovation and best practices* (Chichester, United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell).
- Murtonen, Mari (2005), 'University Students' Research Orientations: Do negative attitudes exist toward quantitative methods?', *Scandinavian journal of Educational Research*, 49 (3), 263-80.
- Murtonen, Mari and Lehtinen, Erno (2003), 'Difficulties Experienced by Education and Sociology Students in Quantitative Methods Courses', *Studies in Higher Education*, 28 (2).
- McKeachie, Wilbert (2002), *McKeachie's Teaching tips. Strategies, Research, and Theory for College and University Teachers*. (Boston, New York USA: Houghton Mifflin Company).
- Ramos, Magdalena and Carvalho, Helena (2011), 'Perceptions of quantitative methods in higher education: mapping student profiles', *Higher Education Research and Development*, 61, 629-47.
- Rumsey, Deborah J. (2002), 'Statistical literacy as a goal for introductory statistics courses', *Journal of statistics education*, 10 (3).
- Tominic, Polona, et al. (2018), 'Students behavioral intentions regarding the future use of quantitative research methods', *Our economy* 64 (2), 25-33.
- Williams, Malcolm, et al. (2008), 'Does British Sociology Count? Sociology students' Attitudes toward Quantitative Methods. ', *Teaching sociology*, 42 (5), 1003-21.

Appendix

Questionnaire

- Do you usually aim for G or VG in tests?
- What is your opinion of statistics?
- Do you remember how you felt and what kind of expectations you had before starting the quantitative course?
- Based on?
- How would you describe the attitude towards statistics among the teachers at the department?
- What is the relevance of statistics to your future career?
- Did read about statistics before entering this programme?
- What kind of tests do you like best?

- Did you like maths secondary school?
- Was the course in quantitative methods something you had to do or was it interesting to learn the research process behind the results?
- Do you find it easy to understand the practical use of statistics?
- Why did you choose the method you are using in your examination thesis?

The Interbeing of Law and Economics: Building Bridges, Not Walls – Interdisciplinary Scholarship and Dialectic Pedagogy

*Anna Tzanaki**

Introduction: Education in the 21st century

Some fifty years ago, Pink Floyd topped the music charts irreverently vocalizing the idea that education is just “Another Brick in the Wall.” Should this popular enchantment of hearts and minds cause alarm to professional teachers and higher education scholars? How much relevance does the progressive rock band’s verse have to the spirit of contemporary academy?

A calmer, more composed reaction of educators would be one of constructive introspection over disciplinary and our own pedagogical practice. It is important to pause for a moment and ask what the enduring value, function and role of university education in the 21st century are. In the modern-day “knowledge society,” where the sources and means of learning abound, formal education is to be regarded as a tool of individual empowerment and “enlightenment”² rather than some off-the-shelf commodity to be provided *en masse*. By this view, academic training is a building block in creating sustainable and inclusive societies and not merely a functional production machine of a future skilled workforce.

* Marie Curie Post-Doctoral Research Fellow at Lund University, Faculty of Law, Sweden; Senior Research Fellow at UCL Centre of Law, Economics & Society, London, UK. Email: anna.tzanaki@jur.lu.se.

² José Ortega y Gasset, *Mission of the University* (Princeton University Press 1944). The famed Spanish philosopher and literary figure has captured beautifully the role of university education as a mediator between the individual and society: “the historic importance of restoring to the university its cardinal function of “enlightenment,” the task of imparting the full culture of the time and revealing to mankind, with clarity and truthfulness, that gigantic world of today in which the life of the individual must be articulated, if it is to be authentic.”

With this mission clear, could it be said that legal education today is up to task? Could the discipline of law expand, learn and be enriched by other disciplines? In an equally irreverent manner, this article claims that connecting Law with Economics may recast the image of scholarly education as a cross-disciplinary bridge, instead of a brick wall, in the quest for finer quality and resilience in the curriculum and beyond.

Wellbeing and Interbeing – of Human and Scholarly Souls

The Aristotelian notion of “eudaimonia” crystallizes the ideal of the highest human good in practical, political and intellectual life. This ideal represents a divine state of being, literally, or human flourishing,³ figuratively, attained through sustained exercise in excellence, virtue and reason. Accordingly, learning to practice the art of living and doing well requires discipline, mastery of skill but also the forging of character.⁴ In pedagogical terms, it conveys a holistic conception of education of mind, body and soul, for students and educators alike. Today more than ever, it is paramount to recall that science can be a spiritual pursuit that should be embarked upon with intellectual curiosity⁵ and humility.⁶ It is also a response to postmodernist disaggregation tendencies and a call for higher education pedagogy to become a core connecting thread that breaks through disciplinary silos and unites disperse islands of knowledge.

How then does this ancient wisdom apply to the academic practice of law? What is the (missing) connection and benefit in bringing the discipline of Law in touch with that of Economics? Could academic teachers and scholars be expected to learn to teach

³ On this complex, multi-faceted concept, see Blaine J Fowers, ‘Aristotle on Eudaimonia: On the Virtue of Returning to the Source’ in Joar Vittersø (ed), *Handbook of Eudaimonic Well-Being* (Springer 2016).

⁴ An interesting analogy is found in Daniel H Pink, *Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us* (Riverhead Book 2009). He suggests that motivation based on external carrots and sticks is largely ineffective and that human drive is premised on “three essential elements: (1) Autonomy—the desire to direct our own lives; (2) Mastery—the urge to get better and better at something that matters; and (3) Purpose—the yearning to do what we do in the service of something larger than ourselves.”

⁵ Toby E Huff, *Intellectual Curiosity and the Scientific Revolution: A Global Perspective* (Cambridge University Press 2010). This study links the great scientific discoveries and intellectual prominence of Western Europe ever since the Enlightenment to key legal and educational innovations enabling legitimized “collective human associations” and the “framework of legally autonomous entities”, namely universities. These novel institutions combined with the particular social context inspired “the unique emergence of a public sphere”, a singular “surplus of human capital,” and continuing technological progress and economic prosperity for Western civilization.

⁶ Mike Taylor, ‘Science Is Enforced Humility’ *The Guardian* (13 November 2012): “Science is not always right – very far from it. What marks it out from other fields of human endeavour is that, because of its formalised humility, it’s always ready to correct itself when it makes a mistake.”

(better) through such method of interdisciplinary cross-pollination? How is legal education to be reimagined and in the service of what purpose is knowledge to be pursued from the perspective of students and prospective citizens?⁷

In good congruence with Ancient Greek thought, the Buddhist tradition offers the notion of “interbeing”⁸ as a reflection of interdependence, interconnection and enlightened being within a universal cosmos. The law teaches us that boundaries are sacred, yet economics illustrates that exchange across those boundaries and within them is as natural as life. The one cannot exist without the other.

Interdisciplinarity – Law & Economics in Academic Action

Interdisciplinarity affirms this organic embeddedness of knowledge and recants a false sense of epistemic isolation that so often persists within and across disciplines in the academic realm.⁹ Combining subjects and integrating economic insights into the teaching of law at the university fosters a truly dialectic pedagogical practice.¹⁰ Students are trained in systemic and creative thinking;¹¹ they learn to recognize disciplinary

⁷ See, in this regard, Gary D Beckman and Richard A Cherwitz, ‘Intellectual Entrepreneurship as a Platform for Transforming Higher Education’ (2008) 19 *Metropolitan Universities* 88. The IE model envisions to nurture “citizen-scholars” ready to “simultaneously contribute to academic disciplines and to society”. [...] “Anchored to the rich humanist traditions of the university, IE harnesses the core philosophy of western education to transform the master-apprentice-entitlement paradigm into one of discovery, ownership, accountability, collaboration and action.”

⁸ Thich Nhat Hanh, *Interbeing: Fourteen Guidelines for Engaged Buddhism* (Parallax Press 1987). The third percept reads: “Do not force others, including children, by any means whatsoever, to adopt your views, whether by authority, threat, money, propaganda, or even education. However, through compassionate dialogue, help others renounce fanaticism and narrowness.” The first and second percepts further support an open educational spirit: “Do not be idolatrous about or bound to any doctrine, theory, or ideology, even Buddhist ones. [...] Do not think the knowledge you presently possess is changeless, absolute truth.”

⁹ See, for instance, Kenneth G Dau-Schmidt, ‘Economics and Sociology: The Prospects for an Interdisciplinary Discourse on Law’ (1997) 1997 *Wisconsin Law Review* 389; Ron Harris, ‘Legal Scholars, Economists, and the Interdisciplinary Study of Institutions’ (2010) 96 *Cornell Law Review* 789.

¹⁰ On the intellectual advantages of exchange, see John Stuart Mill, *Principles of Political Economy: With Some of Their Applications to Social Philosophy* (John W Parker 1848). Book 3, chapter 17, section 5: “It is hardly possible to overrate the value [...] of placing human beings in contact with persons dissimilar to themselves, and with modes of thought and action unlike those with which they are familiar. [...] Such communication has always been [...] one of the primary sources of progress.”

¹¹ For a compelling account of how educational systems undermine creativity by pursuing one-size-fits-all strategies and established thinking, see Sir Ken Robinson (ed), *Out of Our Minds: Learning to Be*

dividing lines and points of juncture; they begin to appreciate foundational differences and hidden value judgments or assumptions. Interdisciplinary exchange and experimentation lead law students and practitioners to be more open-minded, become critical problem solvers and learn to bring multiple perspectives to their reasoning.¹² These are essential values and professional qualities for successful paths for legally educated individuals later in life.¹³

Modern needs and traditional disciplines

We live in a complex world. Scientific knowledge is becoming increasingly sophisticated and proliferates at a pace difficult for any human being to follow and digest. Yet equally fast, knowledge becomes obsolete. In this age of widespread and readily available information, we suffer from cognitive overload, declining focus and shortening attention spans. At the same time, contemporary individuals are faced with multiple pressing technological, economic and societal challenges. Efforts to address

Creative (Capstone 2011). This concern may be particularly applicable to lawyers who are formally trained in categorical thinking within set boxes or boundaries. Yet, it has been warned by Bart de Langhe and Philip Fernbach, 'The Dangers of Categorical Thinking' (2019) 97(5) *Harvard Business Review* 80-91: "Innovation is about breaking the tendency to think categorically. [...] [organizational] disciplinary boundaries serve a purpose, but they also come at a cost. [...] thinking only within existing categories can slow down the creation of knowledge, because it interferes with people's ability to combine elements in new ways." Thus, economics being less formalistic and offering more functional approaches may benefit the legal educational enterprise. See Francesco Parisi and Jonathan Klick, 'Functional Law and Economics: The Search for Value-Neutral Principles of Lawmaking' (2004) 79 *Chicago-Kent Law Review* 431.

¹² Markus D Dubber, 'Critical Analysis of Law: Interdisciplinarity, Contextuality, and the Future of Legal Studies' (2014) 1(1) *Critical Analysis of Law*: "The distinctiveness of legal studies as a scholarly discipline will not emerge unless and until its practitioners come to see it in its contextuality, external and internal. External contextuality is true interdisciplinarity in the bilateral sense: the interaction between two disciplines rather than the use of one discipline as an opportunity for application of another. [...] Over the last forty years, interdisciplinarity in legal studies has used basic tools of the social sciences (sociology and economics) [in a unilateral mode] to shake up the encrusted complacency of orthodox Legal Process and Jurisprudence (Positivism vs. Natural Law). [Yet, l]egal studies is not only a social science [analyzing facts], but also a normative enterprise." Thus, both legal theory and legal doctrine gain from an interdisciplinary critical approach, which in turn assists law's own process of assimilation as a discipline.

¹³ Douglas W Vick, 'Interdisciplinarity and the Discipline of Law' (2004) 31 *Journal of Law and Society* 163. Vick argues that lawyers tend to be "bad collaborators" since perceived as "pushy know-it-alls", but as a group, they have the advantage that their academic training is professionally oriented and "not as specialized" as other disciplines; in particular, most practicing lawyers must be have a broad knowledge of (business) reality and be "jacks-of-many-trades." From this perspective, lawyers are uniquely located to benefit from the interdisciplinary law & economics approach in their professional or academic practice but also to contribute to its success.

these challenges have led to increasing specialization in education and the professions.¹⁴ A much larger part of the global population today enjoys university education. But is this broad higher education training that was created for a slower-paced, more static world and designed along traditional disciplinary lines serving us well today?

We can do better. Demands on university students are soaring. Academic study is becoming professionalized. The amount of material that students of law are expected to master has greatly increased. This increase is driven by the proliferation of legislation and soft guidance issued by regulatory authorities, as well as the interaction of domestic laws with the law of foreign jurisdictions. Ironically, academically trained lawyers are often employed in professions that are not strictly legal. Despite the increased specialization, careers may be disconnected from the narrow field of study.¹⁵ Today's changing social needs require that a core of academic skills be applied to different kinds of jobs and problems.

Traditionally, the academic discipline of Law and that of Economics represented “two worlds apart” being premised on divergent foundations, methods and approaches to scientific inquiry and study. From a theoretical point of view, law is closely linked in origin to philosophy and ethics while economics is further sourced on mathematical principles and reasoning. Lawyers typically rely on statutes and judicial precedent for authority, whereas the supreme law in the land of economics is that of supply and demand. For evidence, the lawyer will look to the particular facts of a case to argue how it fits more or less within the bounds of the existing law; the economist will use statistical analysis and econometrics to test and prove his or her hypothesis. Thus in a certain sense, the legal practitioner is more a “man of the past” looking to and interpreting pre-existing sources of law, while an economist may also be seen as a “man of the future” looking not only at explaining identified past behavior but also making future predictions based on these observations.¹⁶ The law is preoccupied with notions of legitimacy and fairness while economics is centered on the concepts of scarcity and opportunity cost. In terms of goals, the law aims towards justice and certainty whereas economics' ultimate objective is efficiency and optimization. Is there any hope or value in connecting the two?

¹⁴ For these trends in the legal realm, see George L Priest, ‘The Growth of Interdisciplinary Research and the Industrial Structure of the Production of Legal Ideas: A Reply to Judge Edwards’ (1993) 91 Michigan Law Review 1929.

¹⁵ George L Priest, ‘The Increasing Division between Legal Practice and Legal Education’ (1988) 37 Buffalo Law Review 681.

¹⁶ Borrowing from Simon Hermann, ‘Peter F. Drucker: Man of the Past, Man of the Future - A Personal Hommage’ (paying a tribute to the management scholar and professor on the occasion of his 90th birthday in November 1999): <https://www.druckerforum.org/articles/hermann-simon-man-of-the-past-man-of-the-future/>.

Every year the Harvard University President addresses the law graduates with these words engraved in the law school's library: "You are ready to aid in the shaping and application of those wise restraints that make men free."¹⁷ Freedom is meaningless without constraint, and vice versa, in a well-functioning orderly society. With law being a most authoritative tool of social engineering, it is not only feasible but imperative that legal education pushes back against blind specialization and marries sophisticated scientific methods with holistic research approaches,¹⁸ thus opening the way for balanced, resilient and informed public policies.

From the past to the future: history lessons for a class movement

A look beyond the immediate past may be useful for convincing us how deeply economic thought has been ingrained in public conscience within thriving polities. Several examples may be found in Ancient Greece. The story of Ulysses and the Sirens in Homer's epic poem finely captures the problem of multiple selves and illustrates a way out of it that is inspired by economic thinking. Ulysses instructed his crew to beeswax their ears, tie him to the ship's mast with ears open and ignore any future cries to unleash him until they sailed past the Sirens' island. By using this pre-commitment device, he succeeded in listening to their beautiful song while avoiding self-destruction by being lured and killed by the Sirens. "Hands-tying" may be a valuable tactical or strategic device to credibly commit *ex ante* to desirable outcomes *ex post*.¹⁹ Ulysses' genius took advantage of self-imposed "constraints" to resist the temptation of succumbing to his future-self preferences that would have been harmful from the perspective of his current rational self.²⁰

¹⁷ Drew Faust, 'Wise Restraints' Harvard Magazine (January-February 2016): <https://harvardmagazine.com/2015/12/wise-restraints>.

¹⁸ For a call for more "scientific", systematic, interdisciplinary study of the law, see Robert C Clark, 'The Interdisciplinary Study of Legal Evolution' (1981) 90 *The Yale Law Journal* 1238. The result of such endeavors is expected to be to "an improved ability to understand, to predict, and to control broad legal changes". Similarly, in favor of opening up legal education to social and behavioral sciences (such as economics), thus becoming more sophisticated yet interdisciplinary and relevant in modern society, see George L Priest, 'Social Science Theory and Legal Education: The Law School as University' (1983) 33 *Journal of Legal Education* 437.

¹⁹ Thomas C Schelling, *The Strategy of Conflict* (Harvard University Press 1980).

²⁰ Guido Calabresi and A Douglas Melamed, 'Property Rules, Liability Rules, and Inalienability: One View of the Cathedral' (1972) 85 *Harvard Law Review* 1089, 1113–1114; John B Davis, *The Theory of the Individual in Economics: Identity and Value* (Routledge 2003) 72–73. Davis presents Ulysses' story as a problem of "multiple selves," a self in the present and a self in the future with conflicting

Legal and social institutions in classical Athens further evidence their firm economic grounding. Tax policy is a case in point where powerful “incentives” were incorporated to drive sound and honest behavior. Citizens of the republic were recognized in social status and designated for assuming a host of “leitourgies” (public functions) according to their economic capabilities. A key institution called “antidosis” introduced by the lawmaker Solon allowed citizens to refuse their public duties, including paying taxes for the set (“self-assessed”) value of their private property, if they thought those were disproportionate, by indicating some other wealthier citizen to take on the task. According to the process of “antidosis” (literally “giving against”, translating as counterchange or retribution), the second indicated citizen ought to accept the duty, otherwise exchange his property with the first.²¹ Other kinds of Athenian “leitourgies” encumbering the wealthiest citizens were sponsorship of public festivals, such as theatre play productions, or war expeditions, such as military ship building. The sponsor of such a ship ought to also lead it in war. These carefully calibrated institutions hedged against widespread tax evasion and encouraged truthful reporting, transparency, streamlined individual incentives and social harmony.

The lessons drawn from history on the happy and successful marriage of law and economics may be an instructive guide for modern students and teachers of law. There is certain scientific, ethical and emotional appeal in fully appreciating the potency of the pairing for legal academic and pedagogical practice. Students come to experience and discern the various economic and social policy cues embedded in the law. The mutual dependence shatters the image of any self-contained disciplinary importance. Neither “Law’s Empire”²² nor “economic imperialism”²³ is advocated for as a singular vision for scientific inquiry and policy making. The historically informed, interdisciplinary approach is a call for intellectual humility. Students as well as teachers of law are forced to embrace the relative nature of the “good” and the “bad” from different points of views and analytical, legal or economic, approaches.²⁴ As the Ancient

preferences (self-restraint versus self-indulgence), to which Schelling’s pre-commitment strategy is a solution, whereas Calabresi and Melamed see it as “self-paternalism” whereby self-control or short-term relinquishment of freedom is considered a “rational” solution chosen by the individual in light of his/ her long-term interest and thus Pareto efficient.

²¹ On these institutions in a modern law & economics analysis of markets, see Eric A Posner and E Glen Weyl, *Radical Markets: Uprooting Capitalism and Democracy for a Just Society* (Princeton University Press 2018) 55.

²² Ronald Dworkin, *Law’s Empire* (Harvard University Press 1986).

²³ Edward P Lazear, ‘Economic Imperialism’ (2000) 115 *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* 99.

²⁴ See, for instance, Jan M Smits, ‘Law and Interdisciplinarity: On the Inevitable Normativity of Legal Studies’ (2014) 1 *Critical Analysis of Law*, arguing that with legal scholarship becoming less doctrinal and more interdisciplinary and international, the role of other disciplines is not to provide an authoritative answer but to put law into context in order to reflect on alternative solutions and

Greek examples suggest, consistency may come at the price of rationality, and effectiveness may demand less fixed institutional choices.

Explicitly recognizing and exposing these tradeoffs carries more than mere academic value. It is an exercise in character building for both the trainers and the trained in law, with further future applications in professional and private life.²⁵ At the same time, the infusion of law with economics provides a means of cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary exchanges and a tangible way of connecting over shared values and experiences, realized *ad hoc* in each individual context and class. Interdisciplinarity instilled in the law curriculum helps also critically review disciplinary and political tradition. It helps to establish the basis for a future vision despite the past, a process of self-renewal for societies and individuals alike. In this double sense, an economically infused interdisciplinary approach to the study of law sets the tone for a promising and engaging “class movement.”²⁶

Of methods and lessons: bringing law & economics teaching to life

Modern business law education offers rich opportunities for academic teachers to capitalize on the lessons from history and put them into pedagogical action. Business, commercial and economic activity provide natural, fertile ground for law and economics to meaningfully meet and interact, imparting multiple forms of powerful insight and interdisciplinary applications, from methods to substance. On the methodological terrain, university law teachers may experiment with the case study method, used in business schools and management education, to organize course curricula and individual classes. Infusing the study of statutory “black-letter” law or

competing considerations (“Other disciplines can help to clarify different positions [...]. They assist in creating *estrangement* of the jurisdiction or legal solution we are familiar with.”). In this light, it is important to recognize that while the law may retain its ultimate authority to decide “what the law ought to be”, “law and ...” approaches informing the “normative legal enterprise” are “inevitably normative themselves”.

²⁵ Kathleen M Sullivan, ‘Foreword: Interdisciplinarity’ (2002) 100 Michigan Law Review 1217, 1224–1225: “increased interdisciplinarity in legal knowledge affirmatively improves the teaching of law, and thus improves the professional preparation of lawyers whether they enter legal practice or business or public policymaking positions. [...] More subtly, interdisciplinary knowledge that is explicitly conveyed in legal teaching helps students to absorb, as part of the social practice of law, the deep structure of the ideological and institutional tensions that law helps to resolve.”

²⁶ I suggest here both political and educational class movements. For the intimate connection between the quality of democracy and education, see Martha C Nussbaum, ‘Education and Democratic Citizenship: Capabilities and Quality Education’ (2006) 7 Journal of Human Development 385 (“public education is crucial to the health of democracy”); and John Dewey, ‘Creative Democracy--The Task Before Us’ (1939), speech prepared for a conference in New York in honor of his eightieth birthday (“faith in democracy is all one with faith in experience and education”).

cases decided by courts and regulatory authorities with further extensions on complex, real-world or hypothetical problems that require creative solutions, may bring the “law-in-the-books” into greater proximity with the “law-in-action,”²⁷ applied to actual life or in the future. The Socratic method can also work, hand in hand with the case method or independently, to animate traditionally structured law lectures. By stimulating students’ interest and active reactions with leading questions, this method may help challenge mainstream or established legal concepts or results seen from the viewpoint of economics and thus set a dynamic teaching and learning frame for the class.²⁸ Inspiring engagement before and during class is no easy task when legal teaching materials are dense, lengthy and replete with technical economic theories and jargon.

²⁷ Roscoe Pound, ‘Law in Books and Law in Action’ (1910) 44 *American Law Review* 12.

²⁸ Jeffrey Jackson, ‘Socrates and Langdell in Legal Writing: Is the Socratic Method a Proper Tool for Legal Writing Courses?’ (2007) 43 *California Western Law Review* 267. Jackson recites the parallel introduction by Langdell (then dean of Harvard Law School) of the Socratic and the case method of law study, which then “became the predominant means of the teaching of law in the United States.” The University of Chicago Law School is proud to this day of its use of “the style of legal pedagogy known as the Socratic Method,” a fundamentally “cooperative” effort in “active” teaching and learning: <https://www.law.uchicago.edu/socratic-method>. For the most part, university legal education in continental Europe remains focused on traditional lecturing methods, and legal doctrinal analysis and the legal dogmatic research method. The winds of change are slowly reaching European legal education though as different departments within academic institutions (e.g. law schools and business schools or economics departments) collaborate to offer joint courses or degrees. Internationalization of higher education and the practice of law (despite its strong national or jurisdiction specific character unlike other sciences) are further conducive to this trend.

As an antidote, use of comics, animations, videos²⁹ or films³⁰ may aptly help law teachers drive the power of the law & economics pairing home to their students. Against all odds, “fun is not to die” for the teachers and students of law and economics.³¹

On the substantive plain, the law offers various entry points for economics. Economics may study the causes and effects of legal rules and regulations, often reaching counterintuitive results on the relative efficiency or desirability of legal solutions. Seen from the vantage point of economics, the law can be a catalyst of human

²⁹ For classes taught on EU and UK competition law, I have employed different audiovisual material prepared by the relevant public authorities for popular use by consumers and the wider public. For instance, the European Commission comic “Competition in Europe – It’s Your Deal” (Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg 2013): <https://antitrustlair.files.wordpress.com/2013/12/dg-competition-comic.pdf>, portraying the romantic encounter of a male DG COMP official who recounts his work life and tasks in the service of European competition policy and law enforcement to an interested lady met at an airport, who at the end of their talk captures the details into this comic; and also a series of short animated video guides “Competing Fairly in Business” (2015) by the UK Competition and Markets Authority, which “explain the main things businesses need to know to stay on the right side of competition law and to spot and report illegal activity”: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/video-guides-on-illegal-anti-competitive-activities>. Educational YouTube channels for example on “Institutional and Organizational Economics” (Learn IOE) may also be used to concisely explain to law students key economic concepts, theories and methods on human behavior, markets and organizations related to their legal study material such as “transactions costs,” “property rights,” “incentive theory”: <https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCI8J34RXhW1Tq7yGTgXlHcQ/videos>. Similarly, the Institute for New Economic Thinking offers the “What Money Can’t Buy” live video recorded lectures in six episodes, led by Harvard professor Michael Sandel in debate with students and world renowned law & economics scholars questioning the limits of markets on a wide range of issues while “exploring the role of money and morals in today’s world”: <https://www.ineteconomics.org/perspectives/videos/what-money-cant-buy>.

³⁰ Classics in popular culture films may offer entertainment at the service of teaching and learning objectives, thus also imprinting vivid lessons on students and knowledge most likely to be retained for the future. For example, I have used the film “Other People’s Money” (1991) with Danny DeVito, Larry “the Liquidator” in the movie (as corporate raider) and Gregory Peck (as company chairman) entangled in the drama of a hostile takeover, as an introduction to for my course on Mergers & Acquisitions. For my course on competition law and policy I have used the film “The Informant!” (2009) by Steven Soderbergh featuring Matt Damon (as cartel whistleblower and corporate executive), uttering the legendary line “Mark Whitacre, secret agent 0014. [Why 0014?] Cause I’m twice as smart as 007.”; a film based on real yet a thrilling turn of events regarding an illegal price-fixing case. Besides the pure legal aspects, the characters’ psychology and their “economic” or personal motivation behind their actions is particularly interesting in the context of the subject matter taught.

³¹ As a popular joke, the University of Chicago, considered as the birthplace of law and economics, is colloquially said to be the place “where fun comes to die”; yet, as a proud UoC alumna I attest to the immense privilege, sheer excitement and absolute delight of part taking in such rigorous deep dive into the sea of academic knowledge – intellectual fun at its best. The self-sarcastic humor of the institution is also imprinted on UoC T-shirts: <https://www.newyorker.com/books/page-turner/chicago-where-fun-comes-to-die>.

and organizational behavior by providing “incentives” or “constraints” to act.³² This external view, useful as unsettling at times, ushers in the frontiers of the law from the static towards the dynamic end. Law students become live witnesses to this undressing of the Law emperor’s clothes, only to learn to appreciate and anticipate different ways of looking at the law and evaluating its structure and implications. Yet, lawyers can also take pride in the powerful economic instinct of their disciplinary tribe. Nobel Prize laureate Ronald Coase had pointedly asserted that the legal notion of “reasonableness” that permeates legal cases in the common law tradition reflects the fundamental economic concept of “opportunity cost.”³³ Unlikely encounters may be the most meaningful indeed once they register.

On the other hand, laying bare points of departure may eventually enable a more honest rapprochement. For instance, law today is the product of a (legitimately authorized) collectivity, a form of “public good.” Economics in their microanalytic applications heavily rely on the principle of “methodological individualism,” setting individual actors as the basic atoms at center of analysis whose reactions and interactions may explain social phenomena. Game theory and behavioral economics have been part (r)evolution within the field and part response to criticism of the neoclassical assumptions of individual rationality. Nonetheless, the story of Ulysses and the Sirens, as described above, reveals that the very idea of considering individuals as a “single atom” with intact identity, preferences and choices across time may be occasionally misleading and potentially harmful. Constructive revisioning works both ways. These rudimentary lessons, often bypassed due to their simplicity, is ever more important to be shared and owned by higher education law students that may easily be lost in the labyrinth of detail and narrow specialization. Legal practitioners who are aware of the broader context and who can see the big picture and react in good proportion, are of most service to their clients and society at large. Trained to look behind the normative and institutional structures of either discipline, law and economics students have crossed the threshold of true interdisciplinary knowledge that liberates, empowers and enlightens. Aside the mutual benefit for the progression of the academy, science and their partakers, a deeper lesson rings loud: the interbeing of law and economics is genuine, safe and sound – we need not lose our separateness to be together.

³² That is, by simply allowing or setting a “price” for certain conduct or by imposing “sanctions” and completely prohibiting acting in a certain way. See Robert Cooter, ‘Prices and Sanctions’ (1984) 84 Columbia Law Review 1523.

³³ Cento Veljanovski, *Forever Contemporary: The Economics of Ronald Coase* (The Institute of Economic Affairs 2015) 28–29.

Science, education, culture: in favor of the art of dialectic pedagogy

Interdisciplinary pedagogical practice is both transformative and transformational in the narrow and broad sense. The gain from the dynamic law and economic paradigm portrayed above transcends the shared benefit for these particular disciplines. Interdisciplinary teaching is inherently dialectic at its core. The very word “lecture” or “dialexis” in Greek captures all fine nuances of academic dialogue in the entire connotational gamut ranging from discourse to debate to disputation. Curiously, *Dialexeis*³⁴ is a written fragment by Simonides of Ceos, an ancient lyric poet, who is also associated with the art of memory. This is the first known reference to its principles such as the power of visualization and repetition, which were later also used as potent rhetorical devices in public speaking and the practice of law.³⁵ Lawyers are renowned masters of rhetoric, mnemonics and logical reasoning. Dialectics is a means of dissecting rhetoric or biased opinion to unveil reality and jointly reach towards truth.³⁶

The dialectic approach as a reflection of interdisciplinarity in action is both a method of instruction and a distinct approach of learning.³⁷ Contradicting the different assumptions, tools and insights of law and economics and integrating them back together into a new whole reinforces critical thinking and holistic problem solving. It stimulates two-way communication between disciplines but also between students and

³⁴ This is the plural form of the word “dialexis.”

³⁵ Frances A Yates, *The Art of Memory* (University of Chicago Press 1966). See chapters 1 and 2, on Simonides as “the inventor of the system of memory-aids” and the colorful story behind his invention. Among others, Cicero in his *De Oratore* is said to discuss the art of memory (“the mnemonic of places and images”) as a part of rhetoric.

³⁶ Jack Mezirow, ‘Transformative Learning as Discourse’ (2003) 1 *Journal of Transformative Education* 58. Mezirow describes critical-dialectical discourse as “the intersubjective process of communicative learning by which adults assess beliefs” and defines transformative learning as “learning that transforms problematic frames of reference—sets of fixed assumptions and expectations (habits of mind, meaning perspectives, mindsets)—to make them more inclusive, discriminating, open, reflective, and emotionally able to change. Such frames of reference are better than others because they are more likely to generate beliefs and opinions that will prove more true or justified to guide action.”

³⁷ Karl R Popper, ‘What Is Dialectic?’ (1940) 49 *Mind* 403. As Popper explains: “Dialectic is a theory which maintains that something - for instance, human thought - develops in a way characterised by the so-called dialectic triad: thesis, anti-thesis, synthesis.” In contrast, the “method of trial and error” is characteristic of the “scientific method” and is essentially a process of “elimination” of the proposed thesis or antithesis that may lead to “the survival of the fittest theory.” The dialectic approach puts emphasis on the synthesis, i.e. “a theory in which the best points of both thesis and antithesis are preserved” through a satisfactory “[re]solution” of the underlying struggle. As argued above, the balanced, harmonious interplay between law and economics may shatter the image of projected self-importance of either discipline alone. Further, a dialectic, interdisciplinary approach grounds both by looking for meaningful encounters that tap on their most valuable elements and offers combined applications (e.g. legal reasoning and economic empiricism) in solving problems and approaching “truth.”

teachers and encourages their ongoing, organic development through critical assessment and re-evaluation. The interdisciplinary dialogue clearly reveals the nature of the law as a social phenomenon that operates “in context,” as much as any other discipline.³⁸ The interaction also showcases that scholarly precision need not come at the price of disciplinary isolation. Increased sophistication of knowledge and specialization in narrow areas or topics of study within a discipline may still leave openings for creative interlocution with and injection of scientific insights or ways of thinking from other disciplines. Divisions, while useful, are often arbitrary and relative in time and space as knowledge advances. Realizing this relativity of truth is a fundamental tenet of science, a precious lesson for those subject to education and those setting the scene for learning. A love for inquiry, instead of absolute truth, is the most enduring instrument a teacher can equip his or her students with. Progress occurs when the logical and emotional elements of this reality meet and coincide.³⁹

Our best pedagogical investment is on connection, deeper and wider. Interdisciplinarity is an integral part and a first-class expression of the “Connected Curriculum” for higher education.⁴⁰ Research in law or other fields of study that is in touch with reality, that is replenished by such conscious interaction provides the lynchpin for inquiry-based learning and out-of-the-box thinking. The interdisciplinary approach also operates as a safety buffer and resilience mechanism for teachers and students to navigate change.⁴¹ Perceiving their role as one that is always in flux alleviates

³⁸ Sullivan (n 24) 1221, 1226–1227: “Legal doctrine interacts dialectically with social practices in a way that always and everywhere implicates theoretical debates. [...] The continued lowering of walls erected between law and other disciplines out of institutional turf battles, or misguided mutual isolationism, is sure to produce better thought and analysis on both sides. [The] gains from collaboration are evident to the scholars who attend law school workshops in law and economics [...]. Legal scholars need not choose between practical and theoretical destinies, nor non-legal scholars be exiled from the precincts of law. To the contrary, interdisciplinarity promotes synergy and enlightenment.”

³⁹ For an account integrating cognitive and emotional aspects of adult learning and education theory, see Kaisu Mälkki, ‘Building on Mezirow’s Theory of Transformative Learning: Theorizing the Challenges to Reflection’ [2011] *Journal of Transformative Education*. Interestingly, it is stressed that our biologically-set emotional mechanisms often stand in the way of critical reflection in practice.

⁴⁰ Dilly Fung, *A Connected Curriculum for Higher Education* (UCL Press 2017).

⁴¹ By being exposed to dialectic-critical thinking, perspective taking and detachment from established knowledge and identities associated to law or particular views, students also learn to develop more flexible and accommodating cognitive and emotional attitudes and reactions, which foster moderation, emotional security, and a skeptical growth mindset at an individual and communal level. On the importance of integrated and dynamic educational practice that supports the whole child (including social and emotional learning) for healthy development and powerful learning, see Linda Darling-Hammond and others, ‘Implications for Educational Practice of the Science of Learning and Development’ (2020) 24 *Applied Developmental Science* 97.

the emotional and psychological stress that heightened demands put on modern university students and teachers. Learning that being wrong is just part of the process, feeling comfortable with towering uncertainty and complexity, and overcoming attachment to dogma are experiential lessons that open the path for true learning. This dialectic, interdisciplinary model of teaching and learning is not authority centric. The power of knowledge and instruction it elicits is respect-based and question-oriented. Its vital force emerges from the unity that lies in diversity, which has become first-hand crystallized experience.

Connected pedagogy is a matter of culture.⁴² A culture of interdisciplinarity instills a spirit of quest for exploration, unity and integration.⁴³ Academic and pedagogical culture borrows and gives back to society and its individual members by assimilating and transforming assumptions that are shared in a given social, institutional and classroom setting.⁴⁴ Culture in and outside class is about values, perspectives and style. Cicero first speaks of “*cultura animi*,” the cultivation of the soul.⁴⁵ Samuel von Pufendorf, the German philosopher and jurist, draws on this notion and expands

⁴² Gasset (n 1) pointedly notes: “Personally, I should make a Faculty of Culture the nucleus of the university and of the whole higher learning.”, and earlier: “What we call today “a cultured man” was called more than a century ago “an enlightened man,” i.e. a man who sees the paths of life in a clear light.”

⁴³ For a fascinating intellectual and popular argument for the unity of knowledge and a call for unification across the natural and social sciences and humanities to solve the world’s major problems, see Edward O Wilson, *Consilience: The Unity of Knowledge* (Knopf: Distributed by Random House 1998). “Consilience” is the coming or “jumping together” of knowledge by drawing on insights from many different disciplines; a “dream of unified learning” in line with the vision of the Enlightenment and tracing back to Thales of Miletus and the “Ionian Enchantment,” a world view of some irreducible, basic order reflecting the unity of nature and science despite surrounding chaos and observed diversity. In chapter 7 “From Genes to Culture,” Wilson suggests greater mutual connections in understanding the natural and human evolution: “There is only one way to unite the great branches of learning and end the culture wars. It is to view the boundary between the scientific and literary cultures not as a territorial line but as a broad and mostly unexplored terrain awaiting cooperative entry from both sides. The misunderstandings arise from ignorance of the terrain, not from a fundamental difference in mentality.”

⁴⁴ On the intersection of law, culture and society, see Idit Kostiner, ‘Evaluating Legality: Toward a Cultural Approach to the Study of Law and Social Change’ (2003) 37 *Law & Society Review* 323. Kostiner identified three distinct schemas in which law may affect social change: institutional, political and cultural. “The cultural schema emphasizes the transformation of assumptions that are shared by all members of society. [...] [It] represents a stage of disillusion with both concrete resources [institutional schema] and social power [political schema]. [...] Thus, it moves beyond resources and power into the realm of people’s thoughts and assumptions. The central institution associated with this schema is education.”

⁴⁵ Marcus Tullius Cicero, *Tusculanae Disputationes*, Book II, § 13 (“*Cultura autem animi philosophia est*”). Original text in Latin and English translation: https://www.loebclassics.com/view/marcus_tullius_cicero-tusculan_disputations/1927/pb_LCL141.159.xml.

suggesting that culture “refers to all the ways in which human beings overcome their original barbarism, and through artifice, become fully human.” According to Velkley, Pufendorf views culture as the “universal artificial correcting (or supplementing) of nature.”⁴⁶ Perhaps until the second nature becomes the dominant one.

In this light, it is a teacher’s ultimate goal and responsibility to foster a culture of excellence and ignite every student’s latent desire to learn. Exposing students to state-of-the-art academic scholarship and research methodology at the intersection of law and economics links good science with effective education and continuous personal development. It is also in this light that individual advancement becomes a key integrated part of social life and the common good.⁴⁷ Further, introducing dynamic interdisciplinary dialogue in higher education pedagogy teaches fundamental values such as curiosity, respect, democracy, empathy, community and connectedness in the place of authority, narrow-mindedness, fixed thinking, self-importance and disengagement. By exposure and experience, students learn to collaborate and make a contribution in class without fear of error. They learn to engage and express their views in a friendly and open environment and be authentic. Thus, the intertwining of law and economics operates at two levels – the scientific and the communal – by means of boundary pushing, narrative shifting, partnership building. In this atmosphere of innovation and co-creation it is that human and social transformation develops.

Epilogue: Dante and the Classroom Marketplace

Interdisciplinarity in higher education pedagogy creates the ideal conditions for a thriving Classroom Marketplace.⁴⁸ Coming full circle and borrowing from the

⁴⁶ On the linguistic and philosophical origins of culture and a presentation of Pufendorf’s views in this context, see Richard L Velkley, *Being After Rousseau: Philosophy and Culture in Question* (University of Chicago Press 2002) 15–16.

⁴⁷ On the lasting lessons and social benefits of interdisciplinary and interprofessional education, see Monica Nandan and Manuel London, ‘Interdisciplinary Professional Education: Training College Students for Collaborative Social Change’ (2013) 55 *Education + Training* 815.

⁴⁸ Another way to see such free, open and vibrant Classroom Marketplace is as a highly democratic classroom. The prototype of a genuinely democratic teacher is Socrates, whose “Socratic method of dialogue between teacher and students invites students to question assumptions – including those about authority [...]” See Theodore Lewis Becker and Richard A Couto, *Teaching Democracy by Being Democratic* (Praeger 1996) 6. As explained above, the dialectical method of teaching is intimately linked to interdisciplinary pedagogy. On how the Socratic method allows students to engage in “active” and independent learning and is particularly fit for instructing future lawyers set to present and argue their cases in court before judges and juries, see Jackson (n 27). On the broader connection of Socrates to interdisciplinarity in general and interdisciplinary teaching in specific, see Julie Thompson Klein and Robert Frodeman, ‘Interdisciplining Humanities: A Historical Overview’

language of economics, this is imagined as a place that is free. Teachers and learners are “price takers,”⁴⁹ a class of equals, where none enjoys any entrenched position of “market power.” Exchange is voluntary and agreed-upon cooperation works for the benefit of all. It is a place that is open. Entry and exit are uninhibited. Participants in class are free to express their preferences and choices at any moment in time. Self-ownership and inspiration trumps top-down control and coercion. It is a place that is lively. The class experience is dialectic and experimental. It encourages organic growth and wholesome risk taking. As a whole, it is a place for “creative destruction” in higher education: forming factories for ideas, nurturing pioneering visions and mastering waves of change.

In our lives as researchers, teachers, students, we set on our path with this dream. Being cooperative components of such energetic vision of the class and educational experience. Interdisciplinarity, our forged togetherness, makes us trusted partners in perfecting the art of life-long learning and knowledge creation that lasts. May Dante’s verse from his Divine Comedy be a noble guide, reminder and refuge for all of those involved in such expedition:

“Midway upon the journey of our life
I found myself within a forest *dark*,
For the straightforward pathway had been lost.

in Robert Frodeman and others (eds), *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity* (Oxford University Press 2017) 149-150 (describing Socrates as “an avant la lettre transdisciplinary” and recounting how historical evolution and institutional realities changed philosophy into “a creature of disciplinarity” and also how “[a]gainst the inclinations of Socrates, philosophers became experts like other disciplinary specialists”); Lisa R Lattuca, Lois J Voigt and Kimberly Q Fath, ‘Does Interdisciplinarity Promote Learning? Theoretical Support and Researchable Questions’ (2004) 28 *The Review of Higher Education* 23, 32-34 (“Situated learning theories suggest that complex, real-world problems, such as those associated with interdisciplinarity, may enhance learning because they engage students in authentic tasks similar to those they will be expected to perform as workers or as citizens. [...] people try to understand new information in terms of what they already know. [...] If instructors understand students’ current state of knowledge, they can improve students’ learning by providing overt organizational schemes or teaching temporary models that scaffold new information. When students are asked to interrogate these organizational schemes and models - and in the process either instantiate or falsify them - they are organizing their knowledge. [...] The pedagogical implication is that effective instructors use a process of interrogation and confrontation to build new knowledge. This process is often presented through case, discovery, or Socratic methods of inquiry.”).

⁴⁹ Bruce A Ackerman, ‘The Marketplace of Ideas’ (1981) 90 *Yale Law Journal* 1131, 1141: “The only remedy for oligopoly in the production of new ideas is more scholarly competition-full of participants who find engaged dialogue its own reward.”

Ah me! How hard a thing it is to say
What was this forest savage, rough, and stern,
Which in the very thought renews the *fear*.

[...]

Here vigour failed the lofty fantasy:
but my desire and will were moved already -
like a wheel revolving uniformly - by
the *Love* that moves the sun and the other stars.

As she then was – a guide in word and deed,
Her work all done – she spoke again: ‘We’ve left
The greatest of material spheres, rising
To light, pure light of intellect, all love,
The love of good in *truth*, all happiness,
A happiness transcending every rapture.’”

Gender Studies for Law Students – Legal Studies for Gender Students

Analysing experiences of interdisciplinary teaching at two
university departments

*Niklas Selberg & Linnea Wegerstad*⁵⁰

Introduction

The role of law in upholding gendered power relations, and the question of how gender is reflected in the legal system, are central and related issues subject to research and debate within both law schools and gender studies departments. Critical legal scholarship as well as positive law⁵¹ suggest that lawyers need more knowledge about the gendered nature of law and the (to some extent legal) regulation of gender. Gender scholars approach the legal system as an important field and have utilised analysis of the law as a means for developing theory.⁵² Even though the interplay between law and gender is increasingly recognized, not many university courses exist on this topic in Sweden. Lund University is somewhat of an exception to this state of affairs: both the Department of Gender Studies and the Faculty of Law offer courses on law and gender. These courses invite gender students to study and understand the law, and law students

⁵⁰ Over the years we have discussed the issues covered in this paper with the teaching team and course directors of the two courses analysed in the paper. These discussions have been instrumental in developing our teaching methods and philosophies and we are sincerely grateful for all these joyous conversations. Furthermore, we wish to thank the editors of this volume for their important comments. The usual disclaimers apply.

⁵¹ Cf the annex to the higher education ordinance [1992:1434], United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, 1981.

⁵² Cf Kimberlé Crenshaw and intersectionality as discussed *e.g.* in Selberg, N. & Wegerstad, L., *Intersektionella analyser. Att begreppsliggöra ojämlikheter i och genom rätten*, Retfærd 2012, 138.3 p. 1-11.

to study gender relations and their role in the legal system. Each category of undergraduate student is, respectively, challenged from the ‘outside’: either from legal studies or from gender studies.⁵³

In this explorative paper, we discuss issues of interdisciplinary pedagogy in legal education, using as data our many years of experience in teaching law to gender students and gender to law students. The preconceptions, assumptions and theoretical positions (in terms of ontology and epistemology) generally held in the respective institutional contexts are analysed.⁵⁴ Furthermore, we provide pedagogical examples of how the interdisciplinary approach can be used to critically engage with the boundaries of law. The paper contributes both to the theoretical development of interdisciplinary law teaching⁵⁵ and to the empirically based knowledge of interdisciplinary teaching activities from the field of law.⁵⁶ Interdisciplinary law teaching is undertheorized.⁵⁷

Interdisciplinarity as critique of knowledge

The normativity of law and the possibility of being ‘internal’ in relation to the system (*i.e.* a feeling of being bound to apply a certain rule) is a threshold concept for legal studies.⁵⁸ Doctrinalism is the benchmark against which legal academics define themselves and the point of departure for those engaging in interdisciplinary approaches.⁵⁹ In courses on law and gender, this positivistic and professional school-oriented subject matter is confronted not with the contents of ‘another’ positivistic

⁵³ Cf K. Tuori, *Critical Legal Positivism*, Aldershot, Ashgate, 2002 on the dichotomy in-/outside of law.

⁵⁴ For legal studies see C. Sandgren, *Vad är rättsvetenskap?*, Stockholm, Jure, 2009, for gender studies see Å. Gunnarsson, E.-M. Svensson, J. Käll & W. Svedberg, *Genusrättsvetenskap*, 2nd ed, Studentlitteratur, Lund, 2018.

⁵⁵ D. L. Borman & C. Haras, *Something Borrowed: Interdisciplinary Strategies for Legal Education*, *Journal of Legal Education*, Vol. 68, No. 2, 2019, p. 357-391.

⁵⁶ Cf K. D. Connolly, *Elucidating the Elephant: Interdisciplinary Law School Classes*, 11 *Wash. U. J. L. & Pol’y* 11 (2003) https://openscholarship.wustl.edu/law_journal_law_policy/vol11/iss1/3. Last visited 2020-03-04; K. Lindvig & L. Ulriksen, *Different, Difficult and Local: A Review of Interdisciplinary Teaching Activities*, *The Review of Higher Education*, 2019 vol. 43 no. 2 p. 697-725.

⁵⁷ Borman & Haras (note 6).

⁵⁸ *Threshold Concepts*, <https://www.ee.ucl.ac.uk/~mflanaga/thresholds.html>. Last visited 2020-03-04. Cf G. Akerlind et al., “A threshold concepts focus to first year law curriculum design: supporting student learning using variation theory”; https://unistars.org/past_papers/papers10/content/pdf/12B.pdf. Last visited 2020-03-04.

⁵⁹ D. W. Vick, *Interdisciplinarity and the Discipline of Law*, *Journal of Law and Society*, Vol. 31, No 2, 2004, p. 163-193.

body of knowledge, but instead with a challenge to claims of objectivity of law and scientific knowledge from a gender perspective.⁶⁰

In legal academia, interdisciplinarity is most often understood in a narrow sense, emphasising that lawyers should be familiar with the social/natural area or problem they are applying the law to, and that lawyers should be able to communicate smoothly with other professionals (*e.g.* environmental lawyers should know something about ecology, social lawyers should be able to talk to social workers, etc.).⁶¹ Interdisciplinary approaches to law are also linked to a notion that law exists in a sociopolitical context, rather than, as formalists and positivists posit, being entirely autonomous in relation to society.⁶² Historically, law has been reluctant to integrate interdisciplinary approaches. This stance stems from a feeling that the disciplinary core and identity of the doctrinal approach is under threat from ideas imported from the outside.⁶³ Furthermore, in legal academia, interdisciplinary approaches are often questioned, as it is suggested that this type of knowledge does not enhance practicing lawyers' effectiveness in arguing cases and that a wider scope of knowledge is not necessary to effectively argue cases.⁶⁴

Since our interdisciplinary approach is about exposing 'unstated assumptions, patterns or results, internally inconsistent structures or other tensions' and focusing 'tensions, contradictions or paradoxes behind the surface of law' while linking to social theory, it is essentially part of a critical perspective on law.⁶⁵ Because interdisciplinarity in the field of law and gender is a form of critique of knowledge, teaching must reflect this. Our teaching on law and gender represents an engagement in a critical project as regards law's claim to neutrality and objectivity: we are importing a critical project into a professional school, and vice versa, importing a practical (legal) method into a project (gender studies) that is essentially about a critique of science. Increased reflexivity, we argue, is key in appreciating the normativity of law and its boundaries (*i.e.* what is inside and outside of law?). Furthermore, in relation to the threshold concept of the binding nature of law, boundaries are rendered visible when challenged from different points of

⁶⁰ Gunnarsson et al (not 5) ch. 4, Å. Gunnarsson, E.-M. Svensson & M. Davies, 'Reflecting the epistemology of law: exploiting boundaries', *Exploiting the limits of law*, 2007, p. 1-15.

⁶¹ Connolly (note 7).

⁶² S. Henry, *Interdisciplinarity in the Fields of Law, Justice and Criminology*, in R. Frodeman (ed.) *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity*, 2nd ed., 2017, p. 398-411.
DOI:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780198733522.013.32.

⁶³ Vick (note 10).

⁶⁴ Henry (note 13).

⁶⁵ M. Minow, *Archetypal legal scholarship: A field guide*, *Journal of Legal Education*, Vol. 63, No. 1, 2013, p. 65-69, N. James, C. Hughes & C. Cappa, *Conceptualising, developing and assessing critical thinking in law*, *Teaching in Higher Education*, Vol. 15, No. 3, 2010, p. 285-297.

departure. The field of gender studies is in and of itself engaged with this critical project – and this is then related to the legal field. Doctrinal legal studies are not in themselves equipped to produce the reflexivity needed to engage in a critique of knowledge.

The syllabi: differences and similarities in understanding the law

Introduction

The two courses' respective syllabus display interesting differences and similarities, illustrating the kind of boundary work that must be carried out in the respective fields. Most importantly for the purpose of this paper, the syllabi (which define course content and learning outcomes) reflect only partial disagreement as regards an understanding of law and society, and a shared understanding of the concept of critique and a primarily external perspective on law.

B.A. in Gender Studies: Gender and Law

The course located at the Department of Gender Studies is first cycle, given as a mandatory course in the third semester of the B.A.-programme.⁶⁶ The course content covers feminist and critical discussions on social justice and an introduction to law and the method of legal science. The syllabus places desired learning outcomes in different categories: 'knowledge and understanding', 'competence and skills' and 'judgment and approach'. The primary object of 'knowledge and understanding' is social justice, different definitions thereof and how law can be instrumental in increasing social justice. Law is seen as a set of state-organised actions in relation to injustices and as a tool for changing society. The law (its sources, and the system it forms) is also presented as an object of 'knowledge and understanding'. Understanding statutes and precedents falls under the category of 'competence and skills', as do solving legal problems using the legal method and arguing like a lawyer. Critical engagement with scientific explanations of injustices, meanwhile, falls under 'judgment and approach'. This is also the case as regards identifying and evaluating concrete instances of strategic use of the law in order to increase social justice.

⁶⁶ Lund University, Faculty of Social Sciences, Department of Gender Studies, Course Plan, GNVB71 Gender Studies: Gender and Law, 30 Credits, First Cycle. Decided by the board 2019-02-13.

The understanding of law is akin to traditional positivist accounts⁶⁷ of the legal system, *i.e.* law is seen as a given factor, a political instrument and a resource to be deployed by different groups/interests. Importantly, law is perceived as external to social justice, making the opposite true as well: social justice is external to law. The course seemingly takes its starting point in assumptions and narratives present in mainstream legal science about law as separate from society and politics. Since the objective of social justice is not inherent to law, critique of the legal system is implicitly defined as an external endeavour. The legal method – doctrinalism – is left unquestioned.

LL.M. programme: Law and Gender

The course given at the Faculty of Law is an elective second cycle course offered during the seventh and eighth semesters (of nine in total).⁶⁸ The course content covers the presentation and analysis of theories from the field of gender studies, including feminism and intersectional theory. A central part of the course is examining the relationship between gender, power and law, which is investigated and problematised using social science theories and methods. Gender theory in general, and theories on gender within the legal system and legal science specifically, are the primary object of ‘knowledge and understanding’. Analysing the legal system and legal science from the point of view of gender theory is the key ‘competence and skill’, according to the syllabus. The ability to independently and critically assess law and the legal system in relation to gender is a ‘judgement and approach’ learning outcome.

In the syllabus, law is seen as a social phenomenon that can be analysed from the outside using theoretical frameworks borrowed from gender studies. Further, law is seen as a discrete system that self-referentially creates meaning, and can be analysed from within using a (gender) perspective. Compared to the syllabus for the course at the gender studies department, this course notably does not use ‘critique’ or ‘social justice’ as a yardstick. The yardstick is instead the given and unproblematised category of ‘gender’, and the approach is to put forward a ‘perspective’. A key assumption seems to be that critique primarily corresponds to taking an external point of view on the law.

⁶⁷ *E.g.* A. Peczenik, *Vad är rätt? Om demokrati, rättssäkerhet, etik och juridisk argumentation*, Norstedts juridik, Stockholm, 1995.

⁶⁸ Lund University, Faculty of Law, Course Plan, JUZN13 Law and Gender, 15 credits, second cycle. Decided by the board 2018-09-05.

Students' background knowledge about law and gender

This section describes the institutional framing of the two courses and sheds light on the preconceptions, assumptions and theoretical positions generally held by the student body in the two disciplines of law studies and gender studies, respectively. While being aware of the risk of oversimplifying and mischaracterizing students in the respective disciplines, we feel a need to render visible and verbalise what we understand as the epistemological preconditions for the 'other' discipline, which forms the backdrop and precondition for interdisciplinary teaching and learning.

The law students we encounter have passed the first cycle of the LL.M. programme and completed three years of legal studies. At this point law students have internalised and naturalised an approach to social relations in which the legal system, with its concepts and rules, functions as the reference point and point of departure. The LL.M. programme is highly influenced by so-called legal dogmatic (or doctrinal) scholarship and perspective, which is closely connected to actual legal practice.⁶⁹ This implies a distinct demarcation between law and politics, casting law as the objective and neutral counterpart to politics, and, importantly, assigning the gender perspective to the latter category. When understanding social reality mediated through the legal 'grid',⁷⁰ social relations become visible to the extent that they are explicitly regulated in legislation or taken up by legal concepts. Moreover, the knowledge formation in relation to law in the first cycle of the LL.M. programme is permeated by a gender-neutral conception of social relations (*i.e.* the autonomous legal subject).

The gender students we encounter have finished one year of gender studies, and are highly knowledgeable about the theories and methods necessary to analyse social relations as gendered, and about theories of sexuality and inequality. From the outset, these students perceive reality and social relations as theory-bounded and socially constructed. In contrast to students in the LL.M. programme, they understand social relations as intrinsically gendered, and their point of departure is discovering and analysing unequal power relations in many different contexts – of which the law is one. Since the discipline is linked to the project of analysing social injustices that can be found in most social arenas, the demarcation between law on the one hand and politics on the other is not very prominent.⁷¹

⁶⁹ Cf E.-M. Svensson, 'Boundary-work in legal scholarship', in *Exploiting the limits of law: Swedish feminism and the challenge to pessimism*, 2007, p. 17-49.

⁷⁰ Cf J. Conaghan, *Intersectionality and the feminist project in law*, in E. Grabham, et al. (eds.), *Intersectionality and Beyond. Law, Power and the Politics of Location*, Routledge-Cavendish, Abingdon 2009.

⁷¹ Cf *e.g.* A. Lundberg & A. Werner, *Genusvetarnas framtid. En nationell alumniundersökning av genusvetenskaplig utbildning och arbete*, Nationella sekretariatet för genusforskning, 2013, Swedish

Against the backdrop of this set of epistemological backgrounds, what are the challenges for teachers and students engaging with gender and law? The law students conceive the feminist theories taught in the course as an addition to the legal lens through which social reality is rendered visible. The distinction – on the one side, a legal perspective and on the other side, a gender perspective – remains intact. A ‘gender grid’ replaces the ‘legal grid’ and gender theory is understood as a given entity rather than a project of critically engaging with fundamental concepts, or something that can be engaged with as such.⁷² For the gender students, the other discipline – law – is added and perceived as something distinguished from gender studies. Law is appreciated as something akin to a scientific theory – one among several other theories, at that – of social relations, but is also comprehended as in itself being a part of the social problem of unequal power relations. In contrast to the law students’ doctrinal approach, for gender students, law and legal categories are elastic and negotiable; that is, they are open for critique and transformation.

The differences between the two student groups should, however, not be exaggerated. One trait they have in common is that they tend to make gender theory the external yardstick for measuring the extent to which law is efficient in promoting what is perceived as justice. This results in a jointly held notion that law is relevant as a regulator of gender relations, implying an interest in certain topics such as sexual offences, anti-discrimination/equal treatment, abortion, marketing, corporate social responsibility, family law, violence against women, quota in corporate boards, migration, and asylum laws.

Most important, however, is that the differences between the groups do have implications for how critique is perceived, and these differences are therefore crucial to consider for the teacher who seeks to encourage critical engagement with fundamental aspects of law and the legal positivist school of thought. For law students, feminist legal critique becomes secondary to law. The students are careful not to overstep the boundary of law towards what is thought of as ‘politics’. As neutrality and impartiality are key in the first three years of the law programme, the students are reluctant to engage with and develop feminist theory together with law – to think through the messy reality

National Agency for Higher Education, Utvärdering av ämnet genusvetenskap vid svenska universitet och högskolor, Rapport 2007:17R, N. Lykke, Genusforskning. En guide till feministisk teori, metodologi och skrift, Liber, 2009, M. Liinason, Exploring the Politics of Institutionalization in Gender Studies in Sweden, Lund University, 2011, the contributions to L. Martinsson & D. Mulinari (eds.) *Dreaming Global Change, Doing Local Feminisms. Visions of Feminism, Global North/Global South Encounters, Conversations and Disagreements*, Routledge, 2018.

⁷² Cf the metaphor of a zipper used by Lindvig & Ulriksen (note 7) to conceptualise the challenge of bringing disciplines together.

of social inequalities, and the complex role of law in producing and reproducing unequal power relations.

Whereas law students primarily struggle with finding the correct legal answer, the most important dimension for gender students is critique. Critique seems to define the self-understanding of the field of gender studies. Also, in contrast to law students, gender students are not particularly concerned about crossing a boundary between law and politics; critique does not know any such limits. Hence, a challenge for the teacher in both contexts is striking a balance between, on the one hand, the specificities of law in comparison to other means for achieving social justice – such as constitutional aspects, procedural limitations, rules for legal interpretation – and, on the other hand, encouraging and engaging in critical analysis.

Building up and tearing down the boundaries of law – examples of how to manage the challenges of interdisciplinary law teaching

Introduction

Having described the institutional contexts and the respective student groups' formative disciplinary background, in this section we turn to examples of teaching modules in the respective courses. The example modules have in common that they seek to engage students in reflecting upon the boundaries of law, and illustrate a context-sensitive approach that distinguishes between law students and gender students.

Examples involving legal theory and method at the Department of Gender Studies

In the Department of Gender Studies course, a lecture entitled “The Legal System – Its Mode of Thinking, Method and Language; Or, The Art of Picking a Fight with a Lawyer” provides an overview of central legal problems. These include *e.g.* relations between legality and legitimacy, law and power, epistemology and ontology as relates to law, distinctions between law and fact and law and politics. The aim of the lecture is to identify how the law operates in order to make it available for critical evaluation from the external point of view, as a social phenomenon.

Even though the students are new to the field of law, the aim of this lecture is not to teach them how law is applied to a dispute,⁷³ but instead to invite them, from the outset of their studies, to reflect along the lines of ‘reporting – relating – reasoning – reconstructing’ as this relates to understandings of the nature of law.⁷⁴ This pedagogical approach requires students to be active and personally engage with the subject matter, but can nevertheless be adapted to a lecture format, if the teacher is familiar with the assumptions about law that are present within the group.

Confronted with legislation that explicitly refers to gender, students tend to emphasise an understanding of law as a political tool that ought to be afforded the largest possible impact. This reflects a positivist stance towards law, assuming that law is an autonomous field. Inequalities are understood as a social problem to which law is the answer; also, inequalities are not found in law.

Confronted with legislation that is gender neutral, students tend to assume that the operation of law is disadvantageous to already subordinated groups. This assumes a focus on outcomes of law in terms that cannot be measured with legal methods. Thus, students fall back on claims based on rather positivistic social sciences to critique law. At this point the perspective on law is more related to legal realism: the legal system is understood in terms of its effects on empirical reality. The legal argument is less distinct and less autonomous. Inequalities are present both in law and in society.

In this way the lecture identifies competing assumptions about law and society and shows how these assumptions relate to context, thus rendering the legal system visible.⁷⁵ The lecture confronts the respective assumptions regarding the legal system that are inherent to different critiques of law.

Another example from the gender studies department is a teaching module on criminal law. This module focuses on sexual violence and consists of two lectures and one seminar. The desired learning outcome is twofold. First, the module should provide basic knowledge on criminal law, the criminal justice system and the laws governing sexual violence. Second, it should equip students with tools to critically assess the law’s ability to respond to social injustices with regard to sexual violence. As noted above, gender students tend to think of law and policy as intertwined and, by comparison with law students, the walls surrounding law are not there to be torn down. Therefore, when teaching the interdisciplinary subject law and gender from the gender studies

⁷³ K. Jensen, M. Nerland, C. Enqvist-Jensen, Enrolment of newcomers in expert cultures: an analysis of epistemic practices in a legal education introductory course, *Higher Education*, Vol. 70, 2015, p. 867-880.

⁷⁴ M. Ryan, The pedagogical balancing act: teaching reflection in higher education, *Teaching in Higher Education*, Vol. 18, No. 2, 2013, p. 144-155.

⁷⁵ Cf S. D. Brookfield, *Teaching for Critical Thinking. Tools and Techniques to Help Students Question their Assumptions*, John Wiley & Sons, 2011.

perspective, it becomes important to sketch the boundaries of law and the particularities of criminal law: its role as a distinct societal institution, which is built upon and reproduces certain tacit assumptions and principles. To name a few: criminalisation involves the deployment of the nation-state's monopoly of violence; criminal law operates primarily retrospectively; the most central relationship is that between the state and the defendant, leaving the victim aside; the outcome is punishing individuals through deprivation of freedom or property. However, these characteristics are constructs, and it is therefore equally important to stress the political and historical contingency of these fundamental aspects of criminal law.⁷⁶

In the classroom setting the teacher needs to engage the students in a constant reflection upon the boundaries of criminal justice, which involves moving between internal and external perspectives on criminal law. In the seminar, this is done in two steps. The first step is a moot court situation. The students are given the facts of a fictional rape case, divided into groups and assigned to take either the role of prosecutor and argue for a guilty verdict, or defence attorney and argue for acquittal. The students are also asked to consider if they need any additional information about the circumstances of the case, and for what purpose such information would be important. In this way, the students practice taking the internal perspective on law, having to pay due respect both to substantive criminal law as well as procedural rules. The next step in the seminar is to move from the fictional court situation to an external perspective and reflect upon the exercise from different angles, *e.g.* whether some facts should be important, but not others, and what a feminist judgement would look like.⁷⁷ Moreover, the students are invited to share their experience arguing for or against a position they do not necessarily agree with, a skill often stressed in law schools.

Examples involving legal theory and method at the Faculty of Law

A seminar held at the Faculty of Law aims to identify the method of legal reasoning that is otherwise taken for granted in the LL.M. programme and is understood as something received through the learning of particular rules/laws.⁷⁸ After identifying the

⁷⁶ N. Lacey, *Historicising Criminalisation: Conceptual and Empirical Issues*, *The Modern Law Review* Vol. 72, no. 6, 2009, p. 936–60.

⁷⁷ Cf the *Feminist Judgment Project*; R. Hunter, C. McGlynn & E. Rackley (eds.), *Feminist judgments: From theory to practice*, 2010, Oxford, Hart.

⁷⁸ Cf the discussions in P.O. Träskman, *Hur skapas en "jurist" – om juristrollen och juristutbildningen*, *Retfærd*, Vol. 26, No. 2, 2003, p. 46-58, P. Seipel, *Juristutbildningens didaktik – formulering av färdigheter*, in C. Sandgren (ed.) *Juridikundervisningens pedagogik*, Juristförlaget, 1994, p. 7-17, Å. Hyland & S. Kilcommins, *Signature pedagogies and legal education in universities: epistemological*

mode of legal knowledge production, usually not an object of discussion, the aim is to subject it to a critical evaluation from an internal point of view, showing the boundaries of law and the tacit assumptions underlying seemingly ‘neutral’ law.

A think-aloud method is used in which the teacher vocalises the internal thinking employed when producing legal knowledge/interpretations, thus making these cognitive processes transparent.⁷⁹ This approach starts with a reflexive process on the part of the teacher, who discusses not only what she feels she knows, but also how she knows it. A lawyer’s (*i.e.* the law teacher’s) self-knowledge in relation to the law⁸⁰ is rendered visible through a module on legal method in which the teacher dissects and performs reverse engineering on her own piece of legal writing (*e.g.* an article). The module is about concretely opening up the processes of production of legal knowledge that are normally taken for granted and not made the object of discussion. Furthermore, displaying processes of reflexivity fleshes out the agent/writer in relation to the (legal) system (legal texts). There is a need to support continued reflexivity on the part of students, and examinations must reflect this, *i.e.* through the use of a diary.⁸¹

The teacher discusses with the student concrete instances in which she felt the boundaries of law: in effect unpacking a legal analysis and illustrating the actual interpretative operations present below the surface level of the genre. To a certain extent, therefore, the focus is more on text that is not there, than on text that is there. This approach exposes the fact that legal reasoning is more than pure deductions from a system. The horizon of questions that are possible to pose at all is also made visible and open to discussion.

It is important that the teacher takes the lead in dissecting the text. After seven to nine semesters, students have internalised the legal method to such an extent that they fear that instructions to critique a text, as suggested here, are a trick and a moot exercise serving only to make the point that a given analysis of the text was inevitable.

The teacher’s use of her own text provides her with a particularly large space for second-guessing and questioning the text, something that would be more problematic

and pedagogical concerns with Langdellian case method, *Teaching in Higher Education*, Vol. 14, No. 1, 2009, p. 29-42.

⁷⁹<https://www.education.vic.gov.au/school/teachers/teachingresources/discipline/english/literacy/speakinglistening/Pages/teachingpracmodelling.aspx> with further references. Last visited 2020-03-04.

⁸⁰ Cf T. Morawetz, *Self-Knowledge for Lawyers: What It Is and Why It Matters*, *Journal of Legal Education*, Vol. 68, No. 1, 2018, p. 136-153.

⁸¹ Cf *e.g.* J. C. Dunlap, *Using Guided Reflective Journaling Activities to Capture Students’ Changing Perceptions*, *TechTrends: Linking Research and Practice to Improve Learning*, Vol. 50, No. 6, 2006, p. 20-26, M. Giguere, *Self-Reflective Journaling. A Tool for Assessment*, *Journal of Dance Education*, Vol. 12, 2012, p. 99-103, J.P. Ogilvy, *The Use of Journals in Legal Education: A Tool for Reflection*, *Clinical Law Review*, Vol. 3, 1996, p. 55-107.

if another scholar's text was used. The risk, obviously, is egocentricity on part of the teacher. It is crucial that the teacher be able to avoid entering into a defensive mindset.

Another example of how the interdisciplinary subject of law and gender is taught from the point of view of legal studies is a seminar that builds on Margaret Davies' article, 'Feminism and the Flat Law Theory'.⁸² The aim of the seminar is to broaden the horizon for what legal scholarship could be, and provide methods for deconstructing the boundaries of law. The seminar students are familiar with the presumption of a difference 'between an entity known as "law" and a sphere external to law', as Davies puts it. However, they are not skilled in thinking about this separation as a socially constructed contingency. Hence, and in contrast to the gender studies students, the law students need theories and methods that approach law as being intertwined with the social and political spheres. Whereas the point of departure for the criminal law seminar at the gender studies department was the most traditional legal setting – the courtroom – the point of departure for this seminar is an opinion piece in a daily newspaper.⁸³ Using Davies' theory, we deconstruct the main argument in the opinion piece: that judges too robotically exclude from consideration the victim's behaviour before and after an instance of rape. For example, we discuss why some facts are deemed important but not others, how the boundaries of law are re/produced and the consequences of boundary work.⁸⁴

The interdisciplinary subject of law and gender, when taught at law school, is about tearing down the walls surrounding law: both the walls that define it as an academic field of knowledge, and the walls that have been built up during students' previous learning experiences. In comparison with the module on criminal law for gender students, this example shows that the concept of law is framed very differently in two interdisciplinary settings that from the outset seem similar, combining law and gender studies. This, we argue, has implications not only for teaching law and gender, but also for how we as legal scholars conceptualise the boundaries of law in research.

Conclusion

Interdisciplinary approaches to law are linked to a notion that law should be understood as existing in a sociopolitical context, rather than, as formalists and positivists posit,

⁸² M. Davies, *Feminism and the Flat Law Theory*, *Feminist Legal Studies*, Vol. 16, 2008, p. 281-304.

⁸³ L. Andersson, *Arnault-domen är en katastrofal triumf för robotsamhället*, *Dagens Nyheter*, December 8th 2018, p. 4.

⁸⁴ Gunnarsson, Svensson & Davies (not 11), p. 1-15

being entirely autonomous in relation to society.⁸⁵ Furthermore, in legal academia, interdisciplinary approaches are often questioned, as it is suggested that this type of knowledge does not enhance practicing lawyers' effectiveness in arguing cases and that a wider scope of knowledge is not necessary to effectively argue cases.⁸⁶ Historically, law has been reluctant to integrate interdisciplinary approaches. This stance stems from a feeling that the disciplinary core and identity of the doctrinal approach is under threat from ideas imported from the outside.⁸⁷

Foundational interdisciplinary approaches within legal academia are often contested, since they could call into question the quality, depth and legitimacy of legal education generally speaking.⁸⁸ Debates on interdisciplinary teaching relate to the debate on whether law schools primarily should transmit professional skills or advance a broader intellectual agenda.⁸⁹ Interdisciplinarity challenges the historically close connection between legal academia and 'vocational training'.

In our experience, knowledge of law is key to understanding gender relations, while knowledge of gender in law makes for better lawyers. Teaching modules on these topics is great fun and a most enriching experience for the lawyer/teacher. It is also a rewarding challenge to involve two disciplines characterised by different epistemological starting points. In this paper, we have shown that this can be done through conceptualising interdisciplinarity as a critique of knowledge. Furthermore, exploring our teaching experiences has exposed the way that each teaching subject – legal studies and gender studies – takes on different forms depending upon the institutional context.

We suggest that a teacher trained in crossing – entering and leaving – the boundaries of law and therefore also of academic disciplines becomes particularly sensible to the prerequisites of learning a subject – law – that is defined in entirety by its boundary work.

The type of two-way context-sensitive interdisciplinary teaching we have discussed in this paper both presupposes and generates enhanced reflexivity on part of the teacher, which can be put to further use in teaching. This, we suggest, is an interesting topic for further research.

⁸⁵ Henry (note 13).

⁸⁶ Henry (note 13).

⁸⁷ Vick (note 10).

⁸⁸ Connolly (note 7).

⁸⁹ Connolly (note 7).

How interdisciplinary are Master's programmes in sustainability education?

Katharina Reindl, Steven Kane Curtis & Nora Smedby, The International Institute for Industrial Environmental Economics

Introduction

Interdisciplinary research and education is increasing in relevance, moving from the margins to the mainstream (Bridle et al., 2013; DeZure, 2010; Lyall & Meagher, 2012). Lately, interest in interdisciplinary pedagogy has increased, particularly in how to design, teach, and assess interdisciplinary programmes and courses (DeZure, 2017). Interdisciplinarity has been recognised, in particular, to provide societally-relevant knowledge (DeZure, 2017). Additionally, governments recognise the need for interdisciplinary research and education, as highlighted in the Swedish Government's bill for a national research policy (Swedish Government, 2016).

Interdisciplinarity is valued particularly in sustainability science and other problem-based or future-oriented disciplines (Aktas Can, 2015; Feng, 2012; van Rijnsoever & Hessels, 2011). For example, sustainability challenges are characterised as being complex and dynamic with high uncertainty. University education in sustainability seeks to support students to address these real-world challenges. These educational programmes address environmental, economic, and social problems in interconnected systems, for instance, energy consumption, climate change, loss of biodiversity, and poverty. Thus, sustainability masters' programmes in Sweden are often described and marketed as interdisciplinary.

Despite these programmes describing themselves as interdisciplinary, existing knowledge is insufficient on how interdisciplinarity translates into teaching and learning activities and how it is executed during assessment of interdisciplinary knowledge and skills (Feng, 2012). Therefore, this research analyses the extent to which

interdisciplinary sustainability masters' programmes integrate interdisciplinary knowledge and skills into their programmes, considering constructive alignment. 'Constructive' in this sense refers to the constructivist tradition in learning, whereby students are confronted with new knowledge, examine and reflect on its implications, and develop new knowledge structures integrating past experiences with this new knowledge (Elmgren & Henriksson, 2014, p. 24). 'Alignment' describes the clear connection between these components of the classroom that support and develop from each other (Elmgren & Henriksson, 2014, p. 66). As such, constructive alignment promotes the deliberate coupling between the intended learning outcomes (ILOs), teaching and learning activities, and assessment (Elmgren & Henriksson, 2014, p. 65).

In this study, we identify Swedish masters' programmes in sustainability that market themselves as interdisciplinary. Then, we examine the programme syllabus (PS), the thesis course syllabus (TCS), and the thesis assessment criteria (TAC) – where available – to determine the extent to which these programmes explicitly teach and assess interdisciplinarity. We chose to focus on TCS and TAC as the thesis is traditionally viewed as the capstone project to demonstrate knowledge and skills. We chose to delimit our study to the ILOs and assessment criteria, particularly due to their pedagogical importance in constructive alignment and designing teaching and learning activities.

Background literature

Traditionally, university education takes a disciplinary perspective. This means operating within a community with shared vocabulary, tools, methods, institutions, and epistemological perspectives (Feng, 2012). However, interdisciplinary education is breaking with this tradition, as the challenges we face require systems thinking and integration from various disciplinary perspectives. However, there are diverse views on what constitutes interdisciplinarity. A useful distinction is between multi-, inter-, and trans-disciplinary (MIT) education. Klein (2017) sees the three as representing different levels of integration of disciplinary knowledge, theory, methods, skills, and tools, with multidisciplinary being the least integrated and transdisciplinary the most integrated.

In a multidisciplinary approach, disciplines *interact* to gain an enhanced understanding of a broader set of problems. Often, scholars from different disciplines have limited collaboration, leading to limited integration of knowledge, theory, methods, skills, or tools (Klein, 2017). In an interdisciplinary approach, there is a deeper form of *integration* between different disciplines relating to knowledge, theory,

tools, and methods. Lastly, a transdisciplinary approach refers to knowledge production *transgressing* traditional academic borders and disciplinary limitations, either through the rejection of disciplines or through a more integrated application of disciplinary logics (Klein, 2017). Interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary research and education is often closely connected to an emphasis on societal relevance and collaboration with societal actors.

Features of Interdisciplinary ILOs

As interdisciplinarity is contested, scholars have identified various features of interdisciplinary education (Borrego & Newswander, 2010; de Oliveira et al., 2019; Mansilla & Duraising, 2007; Wiek et al., 2011). We chose to utilise the features of interdisciplinary ILOs, presented by Borrego & Newswander (2010), as this will be our unit of analysis. These features are:

1. **Communication:** describes the translation of knowledge and skills across disciplinary boundaries, being able to communicate across disciplines.
2. **Critical awareness:** refers to the ways in which individuals make sense of different kinds of knowledge. Critical awareness is also about reflecting on others' as well as one's own work in relation to strengths, weaknesses, and proposed solutions. It also refers to holistic thinking in which additional perspectives are valued.
3. **Disciplinary grounding:** refers to the degree to which students' work is grounded in disciplinary insights. This means selecting appropriate discipline(s) and applying them consistently in relation to the theory, method and findings regarding the selected disciplines.
4. **Integration:** refers to integrating disciplinary insights to achieve advanced knowledge and understanding and to recognise the strength of a holistic perspective as opposed to individual disciplinary perspectives.
5. **Teamwork:** refers to the different disciplinary backgrounds of teams, working collaboratively, that may integrate their insights to create a more holistic perspective.

Methodology

We used the five features of interdisciplinary education as our analytical framework. We collected our empirical data from masters' programmes at universities in Sweden in the area of sustainability education. This included the programme syllabus (PS), the thesis course syllabus (TCS), and – when available – the thesis assessment criteria (TAC).

Methodological Approach

We aim to examine the extent Swedish Master's programmes practice constructive alignment of interdisciplinary knowledge and skills. For many universities, constructive alignment is fundamental in programme and course design. Originally developed by John Biggs (Biggs, 1996; Biggs & Tang, 2011), constructive alignment promotes the deliberate coupling between the ILOs, teaching and learning activities, and assessment (Elmgren & Henriksson, 2014, p. 65). It suggests that the teaching and learning activities and forms of assessment should be aligned with the ILOs (Biggs, 2014). Therefore, we focused our analysis on programme ILOs, thesis course ILOs, and thesis assessment criteria.

Material and Methods for Data Collection

We embarked on a database search to identify masters' programmes in the area of sustainability. The programmes were identified through the official search portal for university education in Sweden (<https://www.antagning.se/>). The search took place in September 2019 and included programmes taught in both Swedish and English. The search strategy captured those sustainability programmes that self-identified as interdisciplinary as well as admitting students from multiple disciplines. We limited the search results to 120 ECTS masters' programmes at Swedish universities (not university colleges, so called "högskola") as of Autumn 2019.

First, we identified those programmes that related to sustainability. We used the search terms *environment**, *sustainab** or *climate* (or Swedish equivalents) and reviewed the programme names in a first screening. Those programmes that did not have any of these terms in their names were excluded, rendering 81 programmes. Next, we reviewed the programme homepage and promotional material to identify those programmes that marketed themselves as multi-, inter- or transdisciplinary (or Swedish equivalents). We also verified that the programmes admitted students from multiple disciplines. This resulted in a list of 13 programmes (Table 1).

Table 1. Table showing an overview of Swedish Sustainability Masters' Programmes and Document Availability.

	Programme Name	University	Language of Instruction	PS	TCS	TAC
P1	Sustainable Urban Management - Master's Programme	SLU	SV	Yes	Yes	Yes
P2	Environmental Studies and Sustainability Science	LU	ENG	Yes	Yes	No
P3	Master's Programme in Global Environmental History	UU	ENG	Yes	No	Yes
P4	Master's Programme in Globalization, Environment and Social Change	SU	ENG	Yes	Yes	Yes
P5	Master's Programme in Sustainable Destination Development 2019/2020	UU	ENG	Yes	Yes	No
P6	Master's Programme in Sustainable Development 2019/2020	UU	ENG	Yes	Yes	Yes
	F6a – Sustainable Development F6b – Environmental Science					
P7	Environmental Management and Policy	LU	ENG	Yes	Yes	Yes
P8	Master's Programme in Social-ecological resilience for sustainable development	SU	ENG	Yes	Yes	Yes
P9	Masterprogram i tillämpad klimatstrategi	LU	SV	Yes	Yes	Yes
P10	Master's programme in Sustainable Urban Planning and Design P10a – Urban Planning and Design P10b – Urban and Regional Planning P10c – Environment and Planning	KTH	ENG	Yes	Yes	Yes
P11	Disaster Risk Management and Climate Change Adaptation - Master's Programme	LU	ENG	Yes	Yes	No
P12	Nordic Master's Programme in Sustainable Production and Utilization of Marine Bioresources	GU	ENG	Yes	No	No
P13	Cultural Heritage and Sustainability - Master's Programme in the Humanities	UU	ENG	Yes	Yes	Yes

After identifying these programmes, we collected their PS, TCS, and TAC documents. We collected relevant materials in the language of instruction. Most was publicly-available; however, we also contacted programme coordinators to request missing documents, where necessary. There were two programmes that had specialisations,

which we included in our analysis. In addition, we reviewed the ILOs that are prescribed in the Swedish Higher Education Ordinance (SHEO).

Methods for Data Analysis

Our primary method for data analysis was qualitative content analysis (Schreier, 2012) conducted in two phases. In a first phase, we engaged in predatory reading – a method to skim through a text and read for an intended purpose. This initial reading and structuring of the material allowed us to compare the PS, TCS, and TAC to each other as well as to the SHEO, with SHEO representing a benchmark set of ILOs that is not adapted to interdisciplinary education. We additionally investigated how MIT is framed and referred to in these documents.

In a second phase, we used NVivo – a software to assist in qualitative content analysis (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013) – to structure and analyse our dataset. This phase consisted of three steps of analysis. First, we used a theory-driven deductive coding framework (Schreier, 2012) based on the features of interdisciplinary education (presented above). Second, we examined the broad features of interdisciplinary education and engage in open, axial, and selective coding to further analyse the content of these features. In this way, we were able to describe the content of the ILOs and TAC for the selected programmes. Third, we used a coding matrix to analyse the presence, overlap, and/or disparity of these features of interdisciplinary education across the programme and TCS as well as TAC. NVivo allowed us to quantitatively extract the number of files and the number of instances for each category across all documents and all programmes. We normalised these instances to determine which categories and programmes were constructively aligned according to the features of interdisciplinarity education.

Findings & analysis

Phase One: Content and Structure of Programmes Documents

Our first phase of analysis examined the explicit mention of MIT in any of the PS, TCS, and TAC (Table 2). Quite shockingly, while these programmes promote themselves as interdisciplinary, there is little explicit use of these terms across all programme documents. *Multidisciplinarity* was mentioned only in the PS ILOs (P10, P11). No alignment was achieved since this was only mentioned in the PS and not in the TCS or TAC for both programmes. *Interdisciplinarity* was mentioned five times

across our document (3x in the PS (P2, P4, P12), 1x in the TCS (P7) and 1x in the TAC (P7)). Programme 7 addresses interdisciplinarity in both TCS ILOs and TAC, which indicates some degree of alignment. The other programmes address issues of interdisciplinarity without any alignment across studied documents. *Transdisciplinarity* was only mentioned once in our analysis (P12).

While this does not indicate to what extent these programmes teach interdisciplinary knowledge and skills, it was our first indication that the documents collected may not tell the whole story and/or that programmes demonstrate limited constructive alignment.

Table 2. Explicit Treatment of MIT Across Case Programmes

Programme	Reference	PS	TCS	TAC
P2	Multidisciplinary	1		
	Interdisciplinary			
	Transdisciplinary			
P4	Multidisciplinary	1		
	Interdisciplinary			
	Transdisciplinary			
P7	Multidisciplinary		1	1
	Interdisciplinary			
	Transdisciplinary			
P10	Multidisciplinary	1		
	Interdisciplinary			
	Transdisciplinary			
P11	Multidisciplinary	1		
	Interdisciplinary			
	Transdisciplinary			
P12	Multidisciplinary	1		
	Interdisciplinary			
	Transdisciplinary			

Next, we reviewed the content and structure of all documents across our case programmes. We realised the importance of the SHEO across all programmes. Six of the investigated programmes use the SHEO nearly verbatim as their programme ILOs (P1, P3, P8, P9, P11, P12). In considering the TCS or TAC, they were closely related to the ILO's of the SHEO, namely, for P2, P3, P6, P10, P11 and P12.

Additionally, eight PS (P2, P4, P5, P6, P7, P11, P12, P13) were specific to the content of the Master's programme, but were also very much related to the SHEO. We include Programme P11 and P12 here as well as they included the SHEO ILOs as well as elaborated on more specific programme ILOs.

Our analysis indicated a clear impact of SHEO on the programme and course ILOs, despite the SHEO ILOs being intended for all masters' programmes in Sweden. This

further suggests that the programme and thesis course ILOs are not specific to interdisciplinary sustainability education.

Phase Two: Qualitative Content Analysis According to the Features for Interdisciplinarity

In phase two, based on our deductive coding framework according to the five features of interdisciplinary education, we analysed to what extent the programmes address these key features and, in this sense, to which extent they teach interdisciplinary knowledge and skills.

First, we elaborate on the number of instances that any of the five features of interdisciplinary education were present across the programmes. Using the matrix coding feature in NVivo, we extracted the total number of instances where any of the five features – communication, critical awareness, disciplinary grounding, integration, and teamwork – occurred in the different programmes. To compare across programmes, where some programmes were missing documents or had documents from multiple specialisations, we normalised the number of instances in relation to the number of documents for each programme (Figure 1). Average across the programmes (excluding SHEO) is 8.6 instances per document of any of the features. The spread was relatively wide, ranging from 4.5 instances to 12.2 instances. Programme 10 had the highest frequency of identified features, Programmes 3 and 5 had the lowest. This indicates that the presence of the five features of interdisciplinary education vary across our case programmes, suggesting differences in the extent to which they may teach interdisciplinary knowledge and skills.

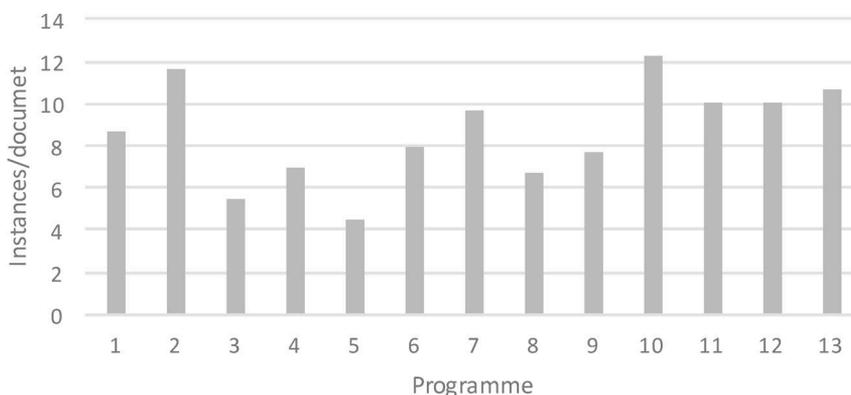


Figure 1. The Total Number of Instances Per Document Across Case Programmes

Distribution between the features, all programmes, all elements

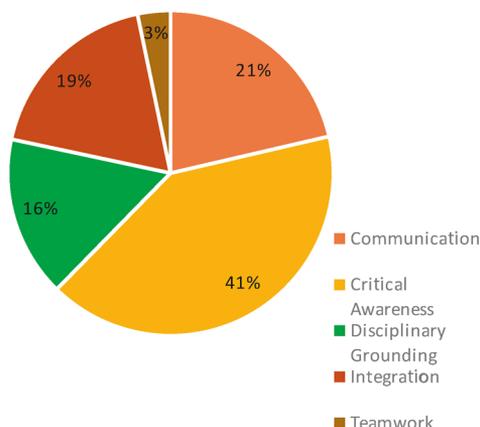


Figure 2. Distribution of Features of Interdisciplinary Education

Next, we compared the prevalence of each of the five features in our analysis. Critical awareness is, by far, the most dominant feature across our case programmes (Figure 2). Communication follows; however, this is an example of when we were quite open to communication in a broad sense. Therefore, we suggest that the majority of instances for each category are quite general and may not specifically link to interdisciplinary knowledge and skills. We elaborate the difference between general knowledge and skills in contrast to what we suggest are interdisciplinary knowledge and skills in Table 3.

Table 3. Examples of text within the features

Feature	General	Interdisciplinary
Communication	<i>The degree of clarity and lucidity, not only in the presentation of the contents, but also in the structure of the presentation (P8, TAC)</i>	<i>Demonstrated the ability to involve stakeholders in research design, and to clearly communicate research findings, including the evidence on which they are based, in speech and writing to diverse audiences (P2, PS)</i>
Critical awareness	<i>If there is a critical evaluation of the sources/data used for the thesis, their reliability and validity (P4, TAC)</i>	<i>Critically apply advanced theories and methods from various disciplines in the arts and social sciences (P13, PS)</i>
Disciplinary grounding	<i>Ability to identify and formulate questions in Global Environmental History (P3, PS)</i>	<i>Demonstrate an insight into the opportunities and limitations for the relevant academic disciplines to contribute to a sustainable development. (P7, PS)</i>
Integration	<i>Integrate and analyse knowledge from both literature and primary information in a critical and systematic manner (P7, TCS)</i>	<i>Critically integrate knowledge in the socio-economic and the bio-geo-physical areas (P4, PS)</i>
Teamwork	<i>Cooperate and create a positive learning environment, and motivate and support common exploration of and problem solving for sustainable destination development (P5, PS)</i>	<i>Be able to organise and lead multi-disciplinary groups with experts and contribute to the outcome of the working task. (P10, PS)</i>

Teamwork is present to a very limited degree in the various programmes. For 8 of the 13 programmes, no such instances were identified. In the programmes where teamwork was identified, this primarily was in the programme syllabus. This might be a natural consequence of thesis work, as a Master's thesis in Sweden is generally an individual endeavour. Therefore, to compare alignment between the documents, we exclude teamwork and compare the distribution between the remaining four characteristics (Figure 3).

Critical awareness is once again the dominant feature across all documents. However, the TAC stands out in addressing communication to a significantly higher degree than the syllabi. The syllabi, instead, focus more on integration. This is likely because of the assessment of the presentation or the defence of the Master's thesis. In contrast, integration may be more difficult to assess as there are limited objective and specific metrics to do so. However, this raises broader questions about assessing interdisciplinary teaching and learning activities, such as the thesis, which we are not able to address in this text, but warrant future research.

Finally, we examined the constructive alignment of these features across our case programmes (Figure 4). Overall, the results indicate relatively poor alignment in terms of addressing the five features within our case programmes. An example of a poorly aligned programme is Programme 2 (Figure 5). Programme 1, on the other hand, can be seen as an exception, with relatively strong alignment between the course documents. Still, the degree to which the features are addressed varies a lot, meaning that even if the features are addressed consistently across the documents, Programme 1 does not have a strong alignment of interdisciplinary knowledge and skills in a holistic sense.

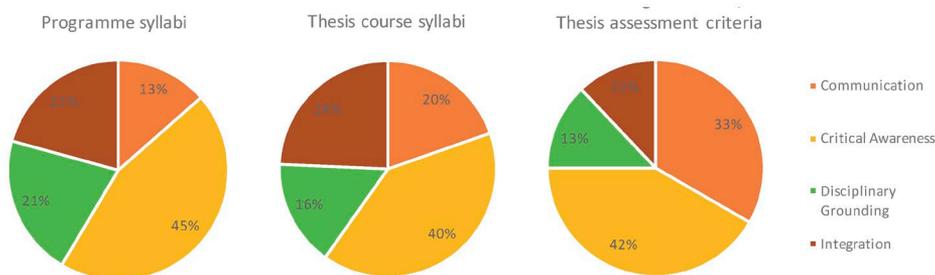


Figure 3. Distribution of Features of Interdisciplinary Education Based on Document Type

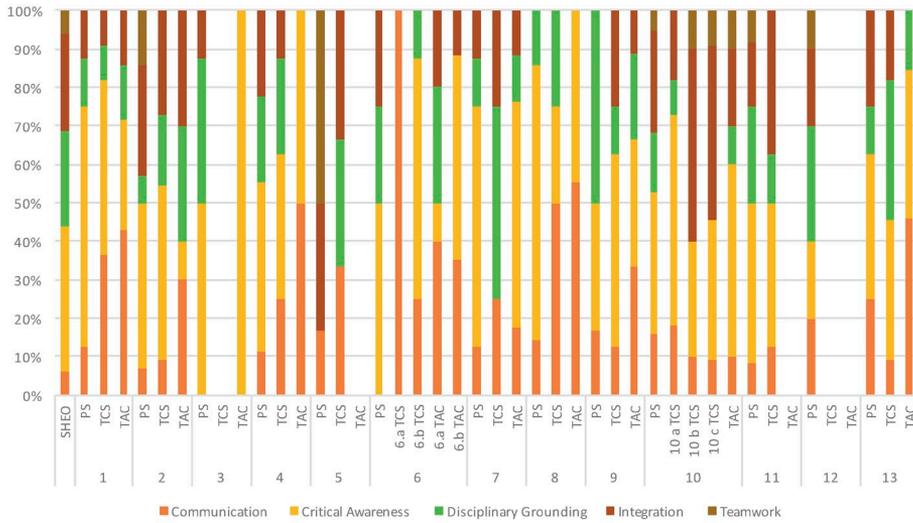


Figure 4. Distribution of Features of Interdisciplinary Education Based on Programme and Document Type

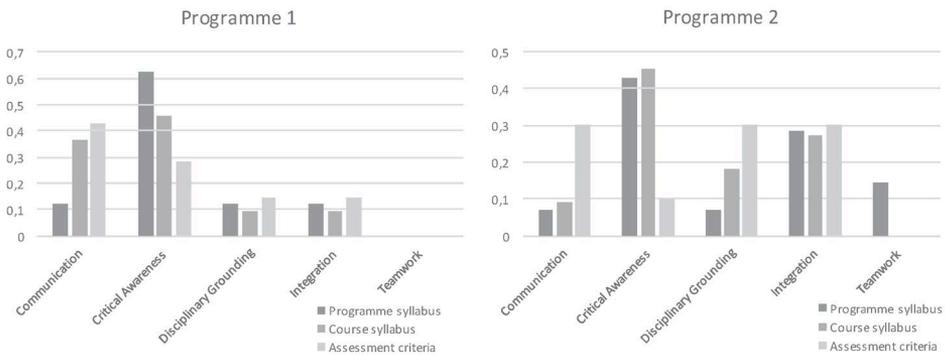


Figure 5. Examples of Programme Alignment

Discussion and conclusion

It is likely that the importance of interdisciplinary sustainability education will only grow as our global and grand sustainability challenges continue to mount. These challenges are multifaceted and complex and require new methods, rather than traditional disciplinary and pedagogical approaches in higher education. However, our

educational programmes shall ensure that they are teaching the necessary interdisciplinary knowledge and skills, which promote systems thinking and more holistic perspectives to address these real-world challenges.

Therefore, the aim of this research was to investigate to what extent interdisciplinary sustainability masters' programmes integrate interdisciplinary knowledge and skills, considering constructive alignment. Considering the above findings, we suggest the extent to which our selected programmes are interdisciplinary is unclear. Based only on the intended learning outcomes (ILOs) of the programme syllabi and thesis course syllabi as well as the thesis assessment criteria, there is limited specific articulation of interdisciplinary knowledge and skills. Beyond marketing the programmes as interdisciplinary, only a few programmes state explicitly the role or extent of interdisciplinary knowledge or skills across the documents studied. We conclude that there is limited constructive alignment based on our analysis of the five features of interdisciplinary ILOs, proposed by Borrego & Newswander (2010).

We also found that the Swedish Higher Education Ordinance (SHEO) and its proposed ILOs highly influenced the programmes we analysed. In six of the thirteen programme syllabi, the ILOs from the SHEO are nearly verbatim. Several of the thesis course syllabi also closely relate to the SHEO ILOs. We hypothesise that the content of the programme syllabi –informed by SHEO – does not capture the teaching and learning activities throughout the programme, suggesting that constructive alignment is not strongly practiced at the programme level.

Another feature that emerged in our analysis was *disciplinary* knowledge and skills. Once again, this may be influence from the SHEO, with the SHEO ILO to “demonstrate the ability to make assessments in the main field of study informed by relevant disciplinary, social and ethical considerations”. Programme 1 and 6b had the same ILO stating “present a scientific work in accordance with the prevailing practice of the discipline...”. Other examples exist, which potentially presents a tension between disciplinary and interdisciplinary perspectives in the SHEO as well as the extent of integration possible in the thesis project.

In reflecting on the limitations of our research, we acknowledge that our analysis focused on only the programme course syllabi, thesis course syllabi, and thesis assessment criteria. While we saw the thesis as the capstone project to showcase interdisciplinary knowledge and skills, we recognise it may present an incomplete picture of a robust two-year Master's programme. We also limited our analysis to the ILOs and assessment criteria. However, in practice, it may be that this does not tell the whole story, including teaching and learning activities and personalised classroom instruction and thesis supervision.

Future research could examine other components of interdisciplinary sustainability education such as teaching and learning activities or student evaluations. Additionally,

this study could be complemented by an examination of thesis content in relation to the five features of interdisciplinary education. Finally, we suggest future research may examine the extent to which the SHEO has impacted masters' programme ILOs in Sweden. The prominence of the SHEO across our case programmes was a surprising finding, which warrants future research and deliberation among interdisciplinary sustainability masters' programmes.

We see this as a first step to examine the interdisciplinary nature of sustainability masters' programmes. In the future, we propose programmes reflect on what constitutes interdisciplinary knowledge and skills in contrast to disciplinary perspectives. Doing so, educators can be more deliberate in promoting interdisciplinary learning, including in the actual supervision and content of theses.

References

- Aktas Can, B. (2015). Reflections on interdisciplinary sustainability research with undergraduate students. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 16(3), 354-366. doi:10.1108/IJSHE-11-2013-0153
- Bazeley, P., & Jackson, K. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*. London: SAGE.
- Biggs, J. (1996). Enhancing teaching through constructivism. *Higher education*, 32, 347-364.
- Biggs, J. (2014). Constructive alignment in university teaching. *HERDSA Review of Higher Education*, 1, 5-22.
- Biggs, J., & Tang, C. (2011). *Teaching for Quality Learning at University*. In (4 ed.). Maidenhead: OU Press.
- Boix Mansilla, V., & Dawes Duraising, E. (2007). Targeted Assessment of Students' Interdisciplinary Work: An Empirically Grounded Framework Proposed. *The Journal of Higher Education*(2), 215.
- Borrego, M., & Newswander, L. K. (2010). Definitions of Interdisciplinary Research: Toward Graduate-Level Interdisciplinary Learning Outcomes. *Review of Higher Education*, 34(1), 61-84.
- Bridle, H., Vrieling, A., Cardillo, M., Araya, Y., & Hinojosa, L. (2013). Preparing for an interdisciplinary future: A perspective from early-career researchers. *Futures*, 53, 22-32. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2013.09.003>
- de Oliveira, T. M., Amaral, L., & Pacheco, R. C. d. S. (2018). Multi/inter/transdisciplinary assessment: A systemic framework proposal to evaluate graduate courses and research teams. *Research Evaluation*, 28(1), 23-36. doi:10.1093/reseval/rvy013

- DeZure, D. (2017). Interdisciplinary Pedagogies in Higher Education. In R. Frodeman (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity* (2 ed.). Online Publication: Oxford University Press.
- Elmgren, M., & Henriksson, A.-S. (2018). *Academic teaching* (1 ed.). Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Feng, L. (2012). Teacher and student responses to interdisciplinary aspects of sustainability education: what do we really know? *Environmental Education Research*, 18(1), 31-43. doi:10.1080/13504622.2011.574209
- Klein, J. T. (2017). Typologies of Interdisciplinarity: The Boundary Work of Definition. In R. Frodeman (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity* (2 ed.). Online Publication: Oxford University Press.
- Lyll, C., & Meagher, L. R. (2012). A masterclass in interdisciplinarity: Research into practice in training the next generation of interdisciplinary researchers. *Futures*, 44(6), 608–617.
- Schreier, M. (2012). *Qualitative content analysis in practice*. Los Angeles, [Calif.] ;; SAGE.
- Swedish Government. (2016). *The Government bill 2016/17:50 Knowledge in collaboration – for the challenges of society and increased competitiveness [In Swedish: Kunskap i samverkan – för samhällets utmaningar och stärkt konkurrenskraft Prop. 2016/17:50]*. Stockholm.
- van Rijnsoever, F. J., & Hessels, L. K. (2011). Factors associated with disciplinary and interdisciplinary research collaboration. *Research Policy*, 40(3), 463-472. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2010.11.001
- Wiek, A., Withycombe, L., & Redman, C. L. (2011). Key competencies in sustainability: A reference framework for academic program development. *Sustainability Science*, 6(2), 203–218.

From Knowing the Canon to Developing Skills: Engaging with the Decoding the Disciplines Approach

Andrés Brink Pinto, David Larsson Heidenblad & Emma Severinsson
The Subject of History

Teaching and learning in the humanities and social sciences often revolve around a more or less formal canon of facts, concepts, and interpretations. Hence, undergraduate courses are typically directed towards expanding the students' knowledge base, rather than training them in disciplinary skills. While the latter may be included in the curriculum, students will often be required to become acquainted with the canon, sometimes even learning it by rote. Consequently, many students will struggle at later stages in their education when a different set of disciplinary skills is required. Additionally, courses that focus on a set of facts and concepts provide students with knowledge that is difficult to translate across disciplines and contexts. By practicing skills, such as how to formulate adequate empirical and theoretical research questions, we therefore prepare them better for interdisciplinary learning and collaboration.

Our primary discipline, history, provides a good illustrative example. Traditionally, the better part of the first semester consists of survey courses that seek to cover the human past from antiquity to the present. Consequently, discussions on teaching and learning in history typically focus on content rather than format, on *what history we teach* rather than *how we teach history*. While it is certainly challenging to select periods, regions, and social categories it is equally difficult to find the most suitable format. Hence, successful contestations (such as social, gender, and global history) have resulted in adding to the canon, thereby cementing traditional teaching methods (Sipress & Voelker 2011; Larsson Heidenblad 2018; Barnett et al, 2001, p. 440).

If we turn to the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL), it is evident that there are alternatives to canon-centred teaching. We have been particularly inspired by Lendol Calder's 'uncoverage model' that is designed to counteract the traditional 'coverage model'. At the heart of Calder's distinction is the word 'cover', usually

referring to the content covered in a course. However, it can also mean to 'cover up' and Calder argues that this is exactly what traditional survey courses do. They cover up how knowledge is produced and the disciplinary skills needed to do so. What is required, he maintains, is a new signature pedagogy that 'uncovers' these steps and helps students develop disciplinary skills (Calder, 2006).

Calder's pedagogical ideas are closely related to the 'Decoding the Disciplines Paradigm'. This initiative to increase student learning has gained considerable momentum and currently influences teaching modes in various disciplines all over the world (Miller-Young & Boman 2017; Pace 2017). At the heart of this approach are three basic tenets. First, it focuses on *local* learning within specific disciplines, rather than on vague general skills such as critical thinking. Second, it centres on what students should be able to *do*, rather than what they need to *know*. Third, it underscores that specialists in a field tend to be unaware of the basic mental operations required, as those skills have been automated and are thereby *invisible* to the specialist. Following these assumptions, proponents of this paradigm takes a special interest in those educational stages where many students tend to fail. By decoding these learning processes, they seek to uncover the invisible disciplinary skills. Once these are known, it is possible to address the obstacles and alter the course design.

One of the greatest merits of the Decoding the Disciplines approach is that it provides a common language for discussing pedagogical challenges within and across disciplines. Successful decoding operations enable experts to see and reflect upon their own disciplinary grounding and this heightened awareness is particularly important for teaching and learning in an interdisciplinary setting (Borrego & Newswander 2010). Furthermore, it provides a more precise understanding of the various disciplinary skills that students develop. Thereby, the 'Decoding the Disciplines paradigm' opens up for inter- and cross-disciplinary discussions on how different skill sets can enrich and complement each other and be transferred from one discipline to another.

Uncovering the Welfare State

Influenced by these pedagogical ideas, over the last few semesters we have redesigned and taught a five-week thematic course in the second term of the undergraduate programme in history at Lund University. The course in question, "The Welfare State", has shifted its primary learning objective from knowing about the topic towards developing the ability to pose a relevant historical question to a source material, which is a skill that the students need to master at the next stage of their education: the writing of a shorter independent thesis.

Traditionally, these second-term thematic courses have been the first instance, in which the students become acquainted with a specialised disciplinary substance, often

connected to a research field in the department. This thematic course dealt with the Swedish welfare state during the twentieth century. It is important to note that our pedagogical intervention did not extend to the existing literature or curriculum; instead we focused on the planning and teaching of the course.

We organized the coursework in three blocks, loosely arranged on the subthemes of the formation, expansion and neoliberal challenges of the welfare state. Each block consisted of one introductory lecture, one text seminar and one source seminar. In preparation for the source seminars, the students were given two to three pre-selected historical sources and asked to make a source critical assessment and pose a historical question to each source material. The students then handed in their questions via a digital learning platform. After each seminar, the students received written individual feedback from the teacher. The course ended with a take-home exam with two essay questions, one of which was to return to one of the source materials and give an outline of a larger historical study consisting of purpose, question and source critical assessment (Brink Pinto & Larsson Heidenblad 2020).

To date, we have taught this course twice, first with Andrés Brink Pinto and then with Emma Severinsson as course coordinator. Between the two occasions, we did minor changes regarding source materials, most importantly by substituting written sources with a documentary at the third source seminar.

Study Design

We have assessed all the students' questions from the two first seminars and from the take-home exam on their validity as scientific questions in the discipline of history. In a first step Brink Pinto and Severinsson made a taxonomy of different types of questions (described below) based on a qualitative reading of the material. After that, they made an individual assessment of the students' questions and then compared their results and adjusted which questions should go into which category, until they reached consensus. To add reliability to the results, David Larsson Heidenblad made a critical reading of the sorting. In the instances where the initial assessment differed from Larsson Heidenblad's we discussed until we reached a consensus. We ended up moving some questions from the feasible category, and we have strived to err on the side of a more critical evaluation in order to lessen the impact of a subconscious bias towards wanting to see a clear progression. For example, we moved one exam that took a theoretical perspective from the course literature, but used it to pose a question on childcare that was more connected to a grand narrative on the history of childhood than to the historical source of the expansion of childcare in the 1970s.

The criteria and principles we used to distinguish feasible questions and sort out unfeasible were not fully formed when we started our assessment, rather the opposite.

As experts (at least in comparison to the undergraduate students), we all shared a set of hidden, or embodied, principles of quality but – importantly – these criteria were primarily verbalised through our continuous discussions. And perhaps some aspects of what constitutes quality in a historic question are still left unspoken or only alluded to in our paper, being so obvious to us as historians that they are invisible. This points towards the importance of interdisciplinary discussions and collaborations on a concrete pedagogical level, and we would encourage others to try out this approach.

Based on the hand-ins, and the take-home exam, we have data from two semesters. For a unified analysis, we combined them into three data sets, from the first hand-in, the second hand-in, and the take-home exam. Since the students were given at least two sets of sources to work with at each hand-in and since not all students submitted at every occasion the amount of questions differs between the data sets.⁹⁰ The take-home exam is comparable, in that the main assignment was to pose an expanded question to one of the source materials, but it also differs in that the students only posed one question and that fewer students submitted exams than hand-ins. It is clear that students who had the opportunity to practise a certain skill in a learning environment with formative assessment should improve. However, some part of the improvement in the student group as a whole could depend upon a self-selection, where the students who are the furthest from reaching the desired learning outcomes may abstain from submitting their exam paper – thereby sparing themselves from potentially being failed. It is also important to note that the students had a full week to work on the exam and that they knew that the exam counted significantly towards their grade. In other words, it is highly plausible that most students put in more time and effort to the exam paper in comparison to the smaller hand-in assignments.

Results

Through our assessment, we have identified two groups of questions based upon their quality. The first group consists of questions that clearly fall in the category of not feasible as historical questions. That is, questions that are impossible to answer with only the given source material, such as how did the labour union LO [*Landsorganisationen*] work politically in concert with the social democratic labour party to bring about full employment in regard to a union report on the organisation of collective bargaining in the 1950s. This group of unfeasible questions can be further broken down into subgroups, that are not as clear-cut as a neat taxonomy might imply. Several questions only test reading comprehension, such as “what is the definition of *Folkhemmet* in Per Albin Hansson’s speech”, or “which proposals were put forward by

⁹⁰ N is 36 for the first hand in, 41 for the second hand in and 24 for the take-home exam.

the official report by the Swedish government on pre-school [*Barnstugeutredningen*]. Another sub-category is the invitation to pure speculation or the personal opinion on a source, such as “why do you think that Hansson made his speech” or “what do you think about the *Folkhem*”. Lastly, the group of unfeasible questions also includes questions that are too big to be answerable by a confined study of the given sources, such as “how did the first generation of social democratic reformers in power relate to earlier utopian thinkers”, or “how did people in general view sexuality during the first half of the 20th century”. While these questions are impossible to use in a highly limited historical study, which was the given assignment, it is obvious that some students chose to emulate earlier experiences when faced with a new and perhaps uncertain assignment. Indeed, we have all posed similar questions as study questions to course literature, and it seems plausible that many students also come into higher education well acquainted with answering similar types of questions.

The second group consists of feasible questions, given the nature of the assignment and the place of the course within the programme. This group includes questions that range from borderline feasible to perfectly adequate. They are all narrow in scope, in that these questions are possible to answer by only using the given sources. Most of them also have some kind of source critical evaluation of the given sources as a basis, where the students identify the kind of source they work with and sometimes also goes through the classic source-critical criteria, thereby generating some basic historical questions.

Superior questions often tend to include some kind of comparative approach between different sources. For instance, the use of the term “Folkhemmet” in a text by the conservative ideologue Rudolf Kjellén compared to a speech by the social democratic prime minister Per Albin Hansson. Furthermore, the best of these questions also use the course literature in a way that demonstrate the ability to reflect upon the practice of posing scientific questions, as well as the difference between historical sources and the course literature. This can be in the form of a contextualisation that makes sense of the source by situating it within a specific historical context. One example is how a student uses a longer time frame (70 years) to situate an analysis of the expansion of pre-schools in the 1970s within the politico-economic context of the decade and a longer timeline of norms on gender and sexuality in relation to the welfare state. It can also be by taking a perspective, theoretical model or method from the literature as a way to generate a relevant historical question. For instance, by applying a gender perspective to the politics of the welfare state.

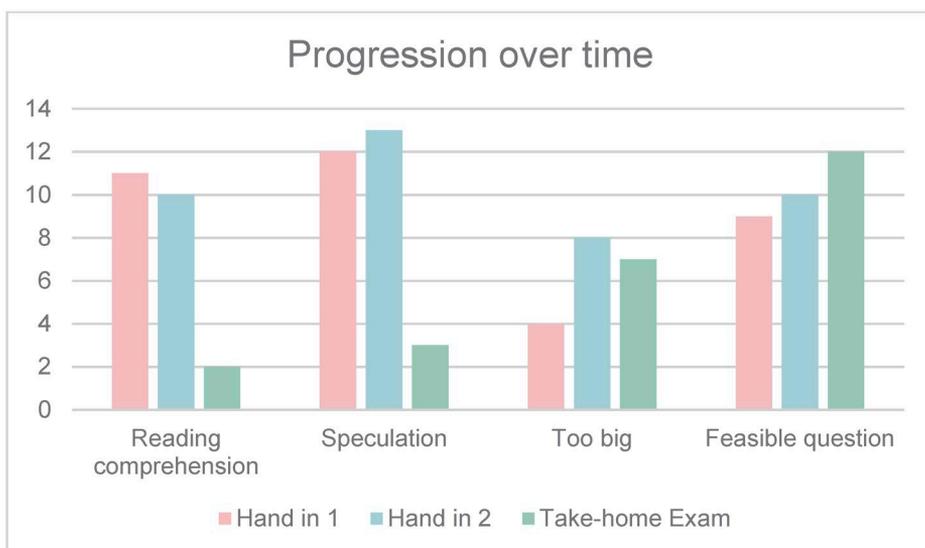
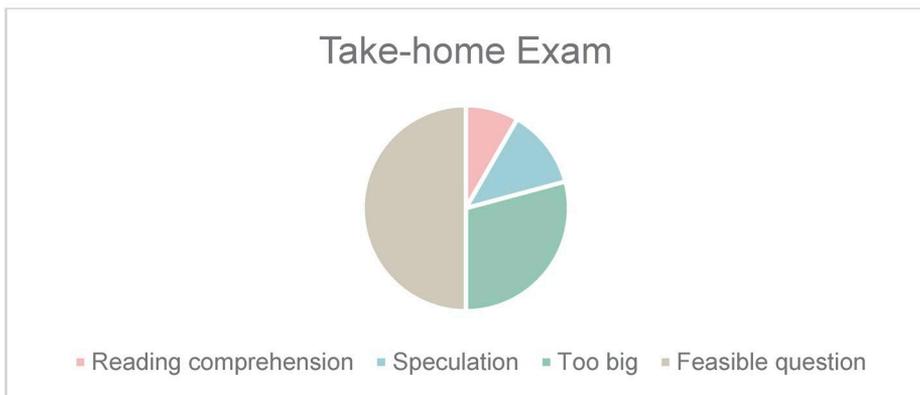
The most ambitious questions sketch out different possible approaches based upon a comparison of different arguments in the course literature. This is especially apparent in the exam paper, and some students also showed originality in using the sources to pose questions that hadn't been modelled at lectures or seminars. One student intended

to test the merits of the concepts “state individualism” (Berggren & Trägårdh 2015) and “decommodification” (Esping-Andersen 1989) to understand the expansion of the welfare state, thereby showing how different theoretical perspectives (may) lead to different conclusions.

Analysis

As presented in the graphs below, we can see a trend towards an increase in feasible questions over the course, especially when comparing the smaller hand-in assignments with the final take-home exam. It is also worth pointing out that most of the questions that were too encompassing in relation to the given source materials would have functioned fine as study questions directed at the course literature. This points towards the feasibility of our chosen model in order to increase student skill. By engaging with the Decoding the Disciplines approach, the pedagogical focus can shift from mastering content to developing specific – and to some extent measurable – disciplinary skills. Hence, the course also uncovers, so to speak, how historical knowledge and narratives are actually produced for the students, and in a way also for the teachers.





Concluding remarks

Our study explores how history students can develop their ability and disciplinary skills to pose research questions, in order to reach a deeper understanding of how scholars pursue research to produce history. However, the ability to formulate research questions is important in many disciplines. Besides experiences of teaching history, we as authors have supervised students in gender studies, fashion studies, and human rights studies at Lund University. Our experience is that students across disciplines have difficulties understanding how and why a research question could or should be formulated – as well as developing such questions. The method we have developed can thus be beneficial in other disciplines to enhance the students' ability to pose viable

research questions. Also, this prepares students for their thesis work wherein the ability to pose good questions is essential to the quality of the work as a whole (compare with Tracy 2010). To give students the tools, preferably early on in their education, for understanding how research is set up and pursued should widen, or perhaps help eliminate, the bottleneck between writing take-home exams and writing a bachelor thesis.

As shown in our study, the Decoding the Disciplines approach seems to yield results in how students develop one important skill, when given the opportunity to practice said skill within a teaching environment. While our intervention took place within the discipline of history, we strongly believe that this approach has a high degree of validity in other disciplines as well. A possible next step could be to find interdisciplinary collaborations where participants from different disciplines help each other with critical assessments of possible bottlenecks within undergraduate teaching (Pace 2017, pp. 19–31). Perspectives from the outside can help illuminate what is taken for granted by academics embedded within a particular field. But perhaps even bigger gains could be made by taking the Decoding the Disciplines approach to more interdisciplinary situations of teaching and learning.

Based upon this we would argue that the Decoding the Disciplines approach can serve as a powerful basis for establishing a common interdisciplinary language of learning, not least since the approach stresses collegiate collaboration in the form of critical investigation into teaching practices in a way that forces us to verbalise those parts of our knowledge fields and academic selves that are taken for granted and thus often stay silent. Furthermore, the approach can help acknowledge and visualise desired learning outcomes in the form of a particular set of skills in a way that allows for a teacher to retain disciplinary particularities while also pointing to those areas where students develop transferable skills on a more general level. In other words, this approach makes it easier for both teachers and students to identify how the development of particular disciplinary skills also leads towards more general transferable skills (Barnett et al 2001; Borrego & Newswander 2010)

Another intriguing possibility is to study the impact of skill-oriented teaching on student learning over prolonged periods. That would imply semesters and years, rather than weeks. In 2017, the Department of History at Lund University launched a three-year bachelor programme in history, which is part of a larger turn in Swedish academia toward the organisation of undergraduate higher education in the form of programmes. This offers an institutional framework in which various teaching methods could be tried, tested, and evaluated. As new cohorts begin each fall, and some courses are selectable, there is ample opportunities for creating control groups. While an undertaking on this scale would require considerable funding and scholarly commitment, the potential gains – for students, teachers, departments, and faculties –

are large. By engaging with the Decoding the Disciplines approach, teachers and supervisors at Lund University could take a leading role in developing their scholarship of teaching and learning.

Acknowledgments

Funding for this project was generously provided by Helge Ax: son Johnsons stiftelse (F19-0256) and Gunvor and Josef Anérs stiftelse (FB19-0086). The authors would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for helpful comments and suggestions. We would also like to thank Björn Lundberg, who helped us with language checks.

References

- Barnett, Ronald, Parry, Gareth, & Coate, Kelly. (2001). "Conceptualising Curriculum Change" *Teaching in Higher Education*, 6(4), 435–449. DOI: 10.1080/13562510120078009
- Berggren, Henrik & Trägårdh, Lars (2015). *Är svensken människa?: gemenskap och oberoende i det moderna Sverige*. Andra upplagan Stockholm: Norstedts.
- Borrego, Maura & Newswander, Lynita K (2010). "Definitions of Interdisciplinary Research: Toward Graduate-Level Interdisciplinary Learning Outcomes". *The Review of Higher Education*, 34 (1), pp. 61–84. DOI: 10.1353/rhe.2010.0006
- Brink Pinto, Andrés & Larsson Heidenblad, David (2018). "Vad vill vi att studenterna ska kunna göra? Avtäckningsmodellen i praktiken". In Markussen, Hege & Mårtensson, Katarina (eds.) *Proceedings från Humanistiska och teologiska fakulteternas pedagogiska inspirationskonferens 2018*. Lund: Mediatryck, in print.
- Calder, Lendol (2006). "Uncoverage: Toward a Signature Pedagogy for the History Survey", *The Journal of American History*. 92 (4), pp. 1358–1370. DOI: 10.2307/4485896.
- Esping-Andersen, Gøsta (1989). "The three political economies of the welfare state". *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology*, 26 (1), pp. 10–36. DOI: 10.1111/j.1755-618X.1989.tb00411.x.
- Larsson Heidenblad, David (2018). "Kan vi göra på något annat sätt? Utblickar och tankar kring färdighetsorienterad historieskrivning". In Karlsson, Klas-Göran (ed.) *Att undervisa i historia på universitetet: Idéer, problem, utmaningar*. Lund: Studentlitteratur, pp. 133–153.
- Miller-Young, Janice & Boman, Jennifer (eds.) (2017). *Using the Decoding the Disciplines Framework for Learning across the Disciplines*. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Pace, David (2017). *The Decoding the Disciplines Paradigm: Seven Steps to Increased Student Learning*. Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press.

Sipress Joel M. & David J. Voelker (2011), "The End of the History Survey Course: The Rise and Fall of the Coverage Model", *The Journal of American History*, 97 (4), pp. 1050–1066. DOI: 10.1093/jahist/jaq035.

Tracy, Sarah J. (2010), "Qualitative Quality: Eight 'Big Tent' Criteria for Excellent Qualitative Research", *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16 (10), pp. 837–851.

DOI: 10.1177/1077800410383121.

Reflecting on critical awareness and integration of knowledge in interdisciplinary education: exploring the potential of learning portfolios

Jessika Luth Richter & Jagdeep Singh. International Institute for Industrial Environmental Economics⁹¹

Introduction

While literature indicates that learning portfolios have a theoretical potential to enhance interdisciplinary learning outcomes, this is still less documented in practice. To this end, we introduced learning portfolios into an interdisciplinary course to identify and reflect upon the challenges and to learn from practical experience.

In this chapter we discuss our practical experiences from introducing and using learning portfolios with particular focus on critical reflection in an interdisciplinary course in the interdisciplinary Master's degree programme in Environmental Management and Policy (EMP) at the International Institute for Industrial Environmental Economics at Lund University, Sweden.

Research suggests five core principles of interdisciplinary learning: disciplinary grounding, integration, communication and translation, critical awareness, and teamwork (Borrego & Newswander, 2010; Mansilla, 2017; Mansilla et al., 2009). In the EMP course design, we adhere to these principles and follow them throughout the programme. However, achieving and strengthening these principles in practice can be challenging for an interdisciplinary course and programme design. Learning portfolios may have the potential to hone interdisciplinary skills among students; in particular,

⁹¹ jessika.luth.richter@iiee.lu.se, jagdeep@kth.se

critical awareness and integration of knowledge by the reflection that can be encouraged through learning portfolios (Scott, 2010). Further, learning portfolios can help integrate learning across courses in a subject or programme, keep an account of knowledge acquired, its key sources, and how it has been applied. In this study, we explore the potential for learning portfolios to strengthen and deepen interdisciplinary learning, with a particular focus on reflection and learning outcomes related to critical awareness. In our study, which is part of a larger study on introducing learning portfolios on a programme level, we added reflective activities to the learning portfolio on a course level. The purpose of this initiative is to promote, facilitate, and deepen students' interdisciplinary understanding of complex sustainability issues while at the same time seeking to help them fulfil the learning outcomes.

Through a literature review, we first explored the potential for learning portfolios (including e-portfolios) to contribute to interdisciplinary learning. We then examined learning portfolios in practice (through a review of examples online)⁹². In order to gain practical experience of design and implementation, we planned and introduced a learning portfolio and supporting activities in one course in an interdisciplinary Master's degree programme⁹³. It should be noted that one of the authors (JS) was a teacher in the course, introducing the learning portfolio and reflection activities as part of the course while the other author (JLR), who was not a teacher in course, conducted a survey with the students and a focus group interview. In this chapter, we present the results of this research, reflect on the challenges of designing and implementing learning portfolios in practice, and discuss the potential use and development of learning portfolios in future.

Learning Portfolios

Learning portfolios have attracted attention in higher education for decades now due to an 'authentic assessment' movement and a desire to document learning achievements (Wright et al., 1999). The key aspects of learning portfolios is to catalogue 'artefacts' such as assignments, to reflect critically on those and other learning activities (Abrami et al., 2005; Klenowski, 2002; Reynolds & Patton, 2015), and thus seek to integrate

⁹² Loyola University in Chicago in the USA and the University of Waterloo in Canada both have extensive inventories of learning portfolio examples. See (Loyola University, Chicago, 2019; University of Waterloo, 2019)

⁹³ Masters of Science in Environmental Management and Policy at the International Institute for Industrial Environmental Economics

knowledge and perspectives (Eynon et al., 2014; Morreale et al., 2017), which in turn can deepen learning (Scott, 2010).

In the review of practical examples of learning portfolios, we noted that learning portfolios vary in format. While some cover one single assignment, others integrate aspects of a whole programme. Some look like reflection journals while others are presented on websites as elaborate thematic e-portfolios. A range of artefacts were found in the examined portfolios: essays, tests, assignments, projects, presentations, or other forms of media, such as video or audio, short reflections on the learning, examples/illustrations used in the lecture, and a student-derived list recommended text readings and videos. Lastly, learning portfolios serve different purposes, such as: to demonstrate mastery of course learning outcome(s), to connect ideas and assignments from multiple courses, or to showcase sample work to prospective employers. Despite the variety of learning portfolios the element of reflections were observed in all learning portfolios.

Examples in literature and practice offer insight into choices for design and implementation of learning portfolios to achieve interdisciplinary learning outcomes. After empirically testing the use of learning portfolios in an MBA programme, Scott (2010) recommended tying learning portfolios closely to the curriculum (and formal assessment, if possible) to elevate the level of importance assigned to it by the students. Noy et al. (2017) also found the usefulness of the reflection portfolio in their empirical study assessing students' learning in an interdisciplinary context. In their study, journal writing was an assessment task and the emphasis was on reflection about the challenges of the subject content and experiences in the course. However, in the journals themselves, meta-reflection (i.e. reflection on the importance of reflection) was less emphasised, the authors attribute this to implicit instructions and acknowledge this could be improved.

It is important that teachers and instructors create assignments including time and space where students have a chance to practice meta-reflection about learning. It is particularly important for teachers of interdisciplinary courses to help students recognise and appreciate interdisciplinary elements in the course or programme, since often this "linking" is left to the students and not explicitly directed or recognized (Lindvig & Ulriksen, 2018). The framing of interdisciplinary courses has been argued to be important for their (positive) perception of the value of course learning (Gombrich, 2018). So this aspect of the courses and programme needs to be refined along with the introduction of learning portfolios.

Experience with Learning Portfolios on the Course Level

The course

We introduced a learning portfolio in our first year course Conceptualisation of Sustainability (5 credits). The course runs in parallel to an economics course and introduces systems thinking and life cycle thinking to conceptualise sustainability aspects. Thereby it lays the foundation for the whole curriculum of the Environmental Management and Policy master's programme.

The notion of sustainability builds on the long-term prospects of a limited supply of available resources ensuring intra- and inter-generational equity and justice (Zachary 2015). Sustainability science focuses on understanding the fundamental characteristics of dynamic interactions between nature and society in order to devise solutions to sustainability challenges (Kates 2011). This involves recognising and conceptualising varying system interactions and evaluating them in relation to the problem and its potential solutions.

In this course, we integrated a learning portfolio as an additional learning activity to strengthen the achievement of the learning outcomes that are listed below in Table 1.

Table 1: Learning outcomes of the course corresponding to interdisciplinary learning outcomes.

Learning outcomes	Interdisciplinary learning objective
demonstrate an ability to describe and apply the logic and principles of systems thinking in the context of environmental challenges and sustainable development;	integration of knowledge
demonstrate an ability to describe, discuss, contrast and understand controversies related to key ideals/concepts of relevance in the public discourse on sustainable development	critical awareness
be able to discuss and explain causes of the issues of justice, influence and equitability in relation to sustainable development, and the potential trade-offs that such solutions may entail.	critical awareness
be able to recognise and illustrate a life-cycle perspective on production and consumption systems.	integration of knowledge
demonstrate an ability to work effectively in a group with members of diverse disciplinary and national background;	teamwork
demonstrate an ability to communicate the value of sustainability and how this relates to justice to the general public; and	communication and translation
be able to develop and present multimedia content via web-based communication tools.	communication and translation
Reflect on how your own ways of thinking are based on certain values, which are affected by, and impact upon, others and the world around you	critical awareness

Practical Application in the course

The design of the learning portfolio introduced in the course focussed on enhancing reflection (i.e. reflection on the process of learning and integrating different concepts and perspectives) as well as collection of artefacts (i.e. examples demonstrating development of skills and knowledge). We introduced the learning portfolio to the students in the course by revisiting the principles for interdisciplinary learning (also introduced in the first course of the programme). We briefly presented our findings about learning portfolios having both artefacts and reflective elements. We had also mentioned potential for learning portfolios to be continued throughout the programme and potential for highlighting learning throughout the programme and samples of work to potential employers after the programme.

In a previous course, students had started a learning journal where they wrote personal reflections in response to short prompts in most class meetings to reflect on their learning or the course content. These learning journals were not reviewed or graded and were personal. In our course, we planned to use prompts for reflections to be consistent with the earlier, but the emphasis was placed on reflection as part the portfolio (i.e. not just reflections for personal use, but reflections for sharing).

In the beginning of the course students were asked to take a survey⁹⁴ about their perceptions of how important reflection about their learning is (for their learning – this latter part framed by the introduction given in class to the survey). The question was asked both on a scale and in a free-text comment. Most students in the course indicated that reflection about their learning was very important (see Figure 1).

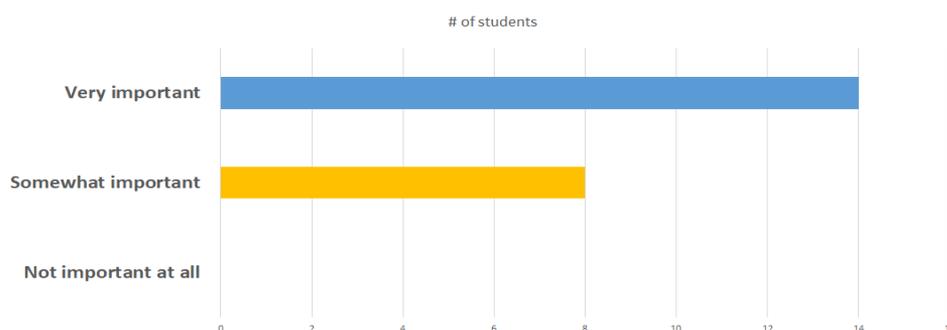


Figure 1. Students responses to Q.1: How important do you think reflection about your learning is?

⁹⁴ Using SurveyMonkey free software. 23 out of 27 students present in the class participated in the survey with their personal laptop or phone. All responses were recorded anonymously.

Student comments also gave further insight into this question. We found that the students related to the value of reflection differently. There were many references to the way that reflection was introduced as an activity in the first (preceding) Master's course. Some students also related to the interdisciplinary learning of outcomes of integration and critical awareness. For instance, one student commented:

It makes you more critical about what you have learnt, and also helps to fully incorporate new ideas into your own outlook.

And another commented:

1. it helps deepen the content you have learnt. 2. It helps me understand the content 3. It develops critical thinking.

However, students also debated the form of reflection. Some students felt the writing of reflection (as opposed to thinking) to be extraneous and unnecessary. For example, one student commented:

I do find value in reflection- but I don't know if a dictated form of reflection is valuable. I do that reflection independently, normally internally, having an enforced written version honestly feels unneeded and like an increase of work where it's not super valuable.

These comments suggest that students were still sceptical about the benefits of reflection despite the explanation about reflection given in the previous course and in the introduction of this course. There was also divergence in how students integrated reflection as part of their learning process independently or only because of prompts in class (see Figure 2).

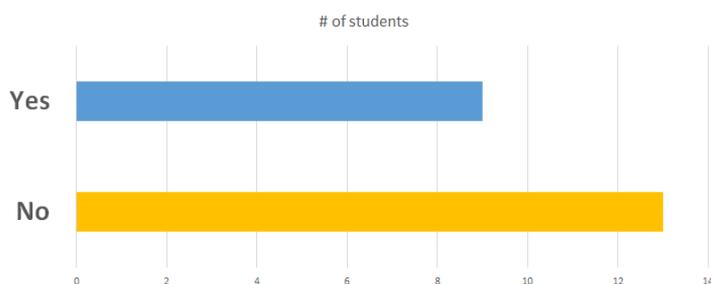


Figure 2. Students' responses to Q. 2: Do you use a learning journal or other form of reflection without prompts or time allocated for this in a course?

There was a correlation between answering if reflection was important in Q1 and answering “yes” to Q2. Most of the students who commented supported the usefulness of prompts:

I definitely find prompts useful, as well as a combination of internal reflection and reflective discussion with others. I do find that writing things down can be helpful but I don't think it is necessarily the only way or always the best way to reflect. I think it is useful to have a combination of ways to reflect, especially because people learn and understand things in different ways.

Some students also felt that there was a need to substantiate why reflection was important to learning (although this also had been part of the earlier course):

It would need to be emphasized in the course itself. Perhaps a list of benefits or research on why reflection on learning is important.

Students used a mix of reflection approaches. One of the mini-assignments prompted the students to further develop a course topic and to do so while integrating knowledge and critically reflecting on the content. Reflection prompts were mainly in the form of critical questions, following a learning activity such as a reading, discussion or lecture. Prompts served to guide individual reflections to be part of the learning portfolio. Examples of prompts used in the course included:

1. What was the new knowledge gained?
2. How did it change your existing understanding of the concept/topic?
3. How did it change your existing worldview and how you personally relate to sustainability challenges?
4. How could you integrate your previous knowledge/ education/ experience with the new learning?
5. How are you inspired to learn new concepts, tools, methods, etc.? Which ones?
6. How did your view develop about how sustainability is presented in the media?

We prompted reflections throughout the course after learning activities. For example, students were prompted to reflect after a discussion of environmental justice. At the end of the course we prompted students to write how they felt they met the learning outcomes of the course - i.e. a focus on metacognition. Lastly, the course wrap-up session was a brainstorm and class discussion mapping and connecting the different

concepts covered in the course, attempting to “string the pearls” together (Lindvig & Ulriksen, 2018).

After completion of the course, we asked students to join a focus group to discuss the learning portfolios implemented in the course. Five students volunteered to join the focus group. A question protocol can be found in the Appendix to this paper. The responses were inductively coded to note convergent themes and issues.

Interestingly, the focus group noted how reflections in our course differed from reflection in the first course. The first course had used prompts for short personal reflections, mainly on metacognitive aspects, and had prompted the students in each class activity. In our course, the reflections were more varied – sometimes on the content or knowledge with a goal of integration and sometimes on the learning (i.e. metacognition). Our reflection prompts pertained to a module of learning of activities, and thus were performed every week than every session. Even though we had designed reflections using prompts to maintain consistency with the first course, these differences were noted by the students as inconsistencies. Furthermore, the course taken in between (and another concurrently) did not stress reflection explicitly. From this, students drew the conclusion that there was no consistent approach to reflection in the programme and that this could be improved.

In the focus group, we encouraged students to discuss the role and structure of learning portfolios in their coursework. The main outcome here was how students rank the importance of reflections. Most students saw the reflection process as crucial for metacognition, deeper learning, and integration of content knowledge, but students were divided about how reflections should be structured (i.e. whether they should be primarily for personal use and ungraded or whether they should also be, as was argued in this course, also for an external audience and/or graded). The collection of artefacts was seen as something that most of the students in the group felt would be more meaningful in later courses when there were skills or specific outputs that would be useful to demonstrate to future employers. While the opportunity to develop a reflection as an assignment was appreciated to engage with learning on a deeper level, its usefulness as an artefact was met with mixed feedback. From our literature and sample reviews, we saw that artefacts are often presented as evidence of learning but in our practical experience, many of the students associated artefacts more as samples of work for prospective employers after the education.

Most students thought that the main usefulness of artefacts in the portfolio would be for potential employers whereas the reflective elements have more personal benefit. This indicated that we need to think more about types of reflections and their role in the portfolio, and indeed revisit what type of learning portfolio should be pursued. If pursuing interdisciplinary learning outcomes, students should not only be able to show their work, but to explain how knowledge and skills have been acquired, and how it is

connected to other learning. While we focussed on enhancing critical awareness and integration of knowledge through the portfolios, we can also think more about how learning portfolios can enhance the other interdisciplinary principles of communication and translation skills, disciplinary grounding and even teamwork.

Concluding Remarks

From the literature, we learned that portfolios have a potential to support deeper learning in general and interdisciplinary learning outcomes of critical awareness and integration of knowledge in particular. Supported by the literature and based on the need to better substantiate and convince students of the benefits of writing reflections for a learning portfolio throughout their whole master's programme, we introduced learning portfolios at a course level where it served as a tool for critical reflection on already existing course assignments.

The feedback from both the survey and focus groups showed that students generally found reflection important, and had preferences in how it should be done. They preferred regular prompts and time in class to reflect. Ideally this would then be part of every course for consistent framing and emphasis of this aspect of learning. This would need to involve more discussion and coordination with other course teachers and adopting a consistent approach.

Consistency might also be better achieved through implementing a learning portfolio on a programme, as opposed to a one-off course, level. This first attempt at implementing in a course gave insight into what would be necessary for the whole programme. Consistent framing of the learning portfolio and follow up will likely be needed by either a teacher who works on integration of the portfolio across courses or by the Director of Studies who has the overview of the programme. The introduction of learning portfolios on a programme level can possibly be leveraged with the introduction of the Canvas online platform in the next year. Canvas has an e-portfolio function to make it easy to collect artefacts from courses throughout the programme. Another benefit of the programme level is the possibility to include more artefacts and increased potential for integrating knowledge across courses. As interdisciplinary principles underpin the entirety of the Master's programme, learning portfolios might also support constructive alignment (see Biggs, 1996).

Though research and experience from other institutions suggests that the benefits of learning portfolios outweigh this additional administration and coordination burden, this is still a practical consideration for implementing learning portfolios. In short, structure and institutional support for learning portfolios will be key to its introduction

and continued use in courses and at the programme level. The potential for learning portfolios to achieve interdisciplinary learning outcomes should continue to be explored and assessed.

References

- Abrami, P., Barrett, H., & Barrett, H. (2005). Directions for Research and Development on Electronic Portfolios. *Canadian Journal of Learning and Technology / La Revue Canadienne de l'apprentissage et de La Technologie*, 31(3).
<https://www.learntechlib.org/p/43165/>
- Biggs, J. (1996). Enhancing Teaching through Constructive Alignment. *Higher Education*, 3, 347.
- Borrego, M., & Newswander, L. K. (2010). Definitions of Interdisciplinary Research: Toward Graduate-Level Interdisciplinary Learning Outcomes. *The Review of Higher Education*, 34(1), 61–84. <https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2010.0006>
- Funtowicz, Silvio O., and Jerome R. Ravetz. 1993. "Science for the Post-Normal Age." *Futures* 25 (7): 739–55. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-3287\(93\)90022-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-3287(93)90022-L).
- Gombrich, C. (2018). Implementing Interdisciplinary Curricula: Some Philosophical and Practical Remarks. *European Review*, 26(S2), S41–S54.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S1062798718000315>
- Kates, Robert W. 2011. "What Kind of a Science Is Sustainability Science?" *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 108 (49): 19449–50.
<https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1116097108>.
- Klenowski, V. (2002). *Developing portfolios for learning and assessment: Processes and principles*. Routledge.
- Lindvig, K., & Ulriksen, L. (2018). *Different, Difficult and Local: A Review of Interdisciplinary Teaching Activities*.
- Loyola University Chicago. (2019). *Learning Portfolio Elements*. Learning Portfolio Program.
<https://www.luc.edu/experiential/eportfolio/learningportfolioelements/>
- Mansilla, V. B. (2017). Interdisciplinary Learning. *The Oxford Handbook of Interdisciplinarity*.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780198733522.013.22>
- Mansilla, V. B., Duraisingh, E. D., Wolfe, C. R., & Haynes, C. (2009). Targeted Assessment Rubric: An Empirically Grounded Rubric for Interdisciplinary Writing. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80(3), 334–353. <https://doi.org/10.1353/jhe.0.0044>
- Noy, S., Patrick, R., Capetola, T., & McBurnie, J. (2017). Inspiration from the Classroom: A Mixed Method Case Study of Interdisciplinary Sustainability Learning in Higher Education. *Australian Journal of Environmental Education*, 33(2), 97–118.

- Reynolds, C., & Patton, J. (2015). *Leveraging the ePortfolio for integrative learning: A faculty guide to classroom practices for transforming student learning*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- Scott, S. G. (2010). Enhancing Reflection Skills Through Learning Portfolios: An Empirical Test. *Journal of Management Education*, 34(3), 430–457.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1052562909351144>
- University of Waterloo. (2019). *E-Portfolios*. <https://uwaterloo.ca/centre-for-teaching-excellence/resources/integrative-learning/eportfolios>
- Wright, W. A., Knight, P. T., & Pomerleau, N. (1999). Portfolio People: Teaching and Learning Dossiers and Innovation in Higher Education. *Innovative Higher Education*, 24(2), 89–103. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:IHIE.0000008148.71650.e6>
- Zachary, Daniel S. 2015. “On the Sustainability of an Activity.” *Scientific Reports* 4 (1): 5215.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/srep05215>

Appendix

Focus Group Questions

- What types of reflection have you done in the courses you have taken so far?
- What types of reflection do you think are useful for students in the EMP programme?
- Should teachers include all types of reflection explicitly in course designs?
- Is just giving students time to reflect in a course enough? (Some students mentioned assessing or getting graded)
- Do you find value in collecting samples of work (artefacts) and reflecting on them in each course? Some of the courses? Why or why not?
- How well did the reflections for the portfolio prompt you to draw connections between knowledge in the course? Between this course and earlier courses/prior knowledge?
- How well do you think you can explain the strengths of an interdisciplinary education right now?
- What would support you better in doing so?
- How would you like to see the learning portfolio develop as a learning activity in the course? in the programme?

Case discussions as a way of integrating psychology into social work education

Nataliya Thell & Lotta Jägervi, School of Social Work

Psychology and case discussions in social work training

Social work is an inherently interdisciplinary field that draws upon theories and research from such disciplines as sociology, law, political science, social policy and psychology. Social problems, addressed in social work, such as poverty and social injustice are complex and require interdisciplinary approaches. Educational staff at social work departments therefore often include not only social workers and social work academicians, but also sociologists, lawyers and psychologists⁹⁵. One of the learning objectives in social work education is thus integration of knowledge from different academic fields (Borrego & Newswander, 2010).

The psychological knowledge traditionally incorporated into social work curricula includes such topics as mental health and disability, stress and trauma, human development and neuroscientific bases of human behaviour as well as communication and relationships (see e.g. O'Brien, 2016). The common ground between the two disciplines – psychology and social work – is their focus on approaches to enhance human well-being. At the same time, there is an essential difference in the perspectives – while psychology studies a person on the individual level, social work focuses more on the level of society. This divergence poses a challenge in incorporating psychological knowledge into social work education (cf. Repko, 2008).

At the School of Social Work, Lund University, the time period available for teaching psychological theories is very short (about three full-time weeks) and provides possibilities for only a very condensed overview of major psychological approaches. Although students usually look forward to learning psychological theories they can be

⁹⁵ Both authors have their background in psychology, the second author working as a licensed psychologist in recent years.

left, judging by their feedback, with the feeling of a scattered picture filled with theoretical concepts and names, which the students perceive as not having a direct connection to their future professional practice. One of the major challenges in teaching psychology for social work students is therefore to choose and present psychological knowledge in a way that clearly shows its relevance to the theory and practice of social work.

We suggest that one way to help students to integrate psychology into their social work education is through case discussions which are routinely used in social work education to illustrate the realities encountered by social workers in their everyday practice. Literature suggests that case discussions help the students bridge the gap between theory and practice (Jones, 2003), enhance understanding of the complexities and challenges of the social work practice (Ruch, 2007) and foster critical thinking (Cossom, 1991; Milner & Wolfer, 2014). Case discussions may, for example, allow one to integrate particular areas of knowledge, such as neuroscience, into social work education (Egan et al., 2011). We suggest that the discussion of cases that depict clients in particular life situations, with specific behavioural difficulties and in need of help from a social worker, can be used to integrate psychology into social work courses. Students are encouraged to apply psychological concepts in order to consider explanations for the clients' difficulties and potential strategies of providing help to them. While training to apply psychological concepts in their analysis, students learn to understand how these theoretical concepts are relevant for social workers in their work with clients.

Below, we discuss two examples of case discussions. The first is based on an *evaluative case*, in which the issues are clearly stated and the decisions are already made (see Jones, 2003). In this example students are invited to assess issues and decisions in the case and suggest alternative interpretations and solutions. The second presents a *decision case* where decisions are not made and students are invited to assess situations in the cases and develop possible solutions (see Milner & Wolfer, 2014). Evaluative and decision cases have different levels of analytical difficulty – low and high respectively – and are therefore appropriate at different stages of professional education (Jones, 2003).

Example 1: Introducing psychology at the social work undergraduate program

The undergraduate social work program at the School of Social Work, Lund University, is three and a half years' long and after completion, the students are educated social workers. The students are often young, with no prior experience in

social work. Psychological theories are introduced at the beginning of the second semester of the program within the course *Social Science and Social Work* (30 credits) through the module *Individual and Society*. There are five psychology lectures (partly taught by the second author of this article) which are the only assembled psychology module, though psychological knowledge is revisited later in the program in relation to specific issues such as addiction. One of the intended learning outcomes of the module is to help students to “view individuals and society from different perspectives and interpret events with help from different theories and concepts from social sciences” (cited from the course curriculum). Knowledge of psychology is seen as one of many tools in the students’ future practical work, as their clients will usually have wide ranges of practical, social and psychological needs.

The goal of the lectures on psychology is twofold, namely to give students a basic understanding of psychological theories, and to teach them to use these theories in conjunction with other areas of knowledge. One challenge is the limited space psychology occupies in the curriculum. The psychological knowledge to be put into practice in work with vulnerable groups is learned in a brief period of time, and the leap from theory to practice needs to be done by students who may be encountering psychology knowledge for the first time. Introducing a range of theories in a short period of time through traditional lectures have been argued to promote a surface approach to learning, where the main goal is passing exams, rather than a deep approach to learning where understanding is a purpose of its own (e.g. Ramsden, 1992; Biggs, 2003; McKeachie & Svinicki, 2006; Trigwell, 2006). Case discussions incorporated into the lectures may create conditions for a deeper approach to learning by making the real-life relevance of psychological theories more clear to students (Egan et al. 2011), providing training in moving from theory to practice (Jones, 2003) and fostering critical thinking by illustrating both gains and limits of the theories (Cossom, 1991; Milner & Wolfer, 2014).

An evaluative case that was introduced as a trial on two lectures on developmental psychology is presented below, albeit translated from Swedish and somewhat shortened. The students in both classes were invited to apply three psychological theories of child development in order to discuss, evaluate and elaborate on the first step solution. The students worked in small groups, followed by a full class summary.

Daniel is a seven-year-old boy who comes to the office of his school counsellor with his single mother Sarah, after his teacher booked an appointment for him because he has difficulties in parting from his mother in the mornings. He cries when she leaves and stays sad and unfocused for the first classes. While Daniel has always needed a lot of physical contact, he is now more anxious and clingier than normal for no apparent reason according to his mother. He wants to sleep in her bed, which she sometimes allows. Sarah works irregular hours and is less inclined to oblige him when she is about to work

long days. Sarah is embarrassed by Daniel's shyness and prompts him to speak in social situations, which usually results in conflicts. She admits having slapped him once, and she is very remorseful about it.

Daniel has a diagnosed language impairment. He can read and write a little, but is somewhat late compared to his classmates. He has difficulties with retelling and giving answers verbally in class, but likes doing experiments and problem-solving with other children. When working with others, he understands which information to gather and is often the first to figure out assignments. He is best friends with a girl in his class. She is very fond of Daniel but complains that he can be quite intense and sometimes upset if she wants to play with other children.

The counsellor makes a three-step plan:

1. To contact social services with a child endangerment report.
2. To contact a school psychologist to make an assessment of Daniel's intellectual and social functioning.
3. To contact a specialized teacher for support to Daniel's regular teacher.

The students were asked to discuss the case applying the attachment theory, which concerns the quality of child-parent relationship and its effects on the child's emotional development and relationships with others (Bowlby, 1958), and Piaget's and Vygotsky's theories of cognitive development. Piaget's theory postulates that children develop higher levels of abstract thinking according to age-specific stages, while Vygotsky suggests that all learning is relational, and that periods of fast development in one area are connected to a crisis in another (Crain, 2000).

As the case has only been tried in two classes, the results are preliminary. The first impression however is that the anticipated pedagogical gains were reached. Students in both classes applied the theories appropriately, and observed, in the full class discussions, that the assignment made the theories "seem more real" and more "applicable to something realistic". As anticipated, students drew on the attachment theory to understand Daniel's relationship to his mother, and hypothesized that Daniel shows signs of the ambivalent attachment style. They also interpreted Daniel's cognitive level according to Piaget's theory, and argued that Daniel has an emotional crisis, which according to Vygotsky is a result of the intense cognitive development at an age of about seven years old. Additionally, the students combined the theories in their analysis, by arguing, for example, that Daniel's relationship to his friend could be seen as being formed by a combination of his attachment style, transition crisis and difficulties to take the perspective of others due to his underdeveloped abstract thinking.

Interestingly, students would also spontaneously apply theories from earlier lectures and connect them to the newly acquired knowledge; for example, they suggested that Daniel's ambivalent attachment may be a result of intermittent reinforcement (a behavioral concept introduced earlier in the course, see Ferster & Skinner, 1957). Hence, working with this case appears to inspire students to make connections between different psychological theories, and see how the theories may complement each other both by covering different areas of human experience and by providing different forms of understanding of the same issue.

Students were also asked to evaluate the counsellor's plan more freely, from the point of view of other than psychological approaches and concerns. The idea is to inspire students to see both possibilities and limits of the psychological theories and prompt them to pay attention to factors outside the scope of their present knowledge. In the full-class discussions, students readily raised issues that were not related to psychological issues, such as the dilemma of whether to report a minor act of violence to social services, and the question of what kind of social support may be available for the family in different sectors of social care. Furthermore, the students posed questions about what they will learn later in the program to be able to approach these issues.

Example 2: Integrating psychology in a free-standing social work course

Social Work, A Basic Course is a two-term free-standing online course including a six-week (half-time) part on psychological theories in social work (taught by the first author). Those who take the course are often older than students at the undergraduate program, and they usually strive to gain theoretical knowledge as a complement to their already rich practical experiences of working in various spheres of social care, including social services. Many of the course participants are thus well acquainted with the realities of social work practice in Sweden.

The part of the course dealing with psychological theories belongs to module 3, *Theories and Methods in Social Work* (9 credits), which is aimed at "providing knowledge about how social work can be understood and accomplished on different levels – individual, family, group and society levels" (cited from the course curriculum). One of the intended learning outcomes of this module is for students to be able to apply theoretical concepts and approaches in decision-making involved in social work with individuals and families. This learning outcome is achieved by means of case-based learning. The case-based approach has been used in the course for several years and has

proved to be – according to students’ feedback – an efficient tool to help them understand the relevance of psychological theories for social work practice.

The cases used are descriptions of individuals and families in need of help from a social worker. With the view to the course objectives – training decision making – the cases are of the decision type (see Milner & Wolfer, 2014). The students’ task is both to formulate a theoretical explanation of the case from the point of view of one or several of psychological perspectives (What are the origins of the problems in the case?) and to propose a possible intervention (What kind of help shall be provided?). The students discuss the cases in smaller groups via an online discussion forum, which is followed by the teacher. Besides this, a requirement is to summarise the discussion in the group’s shared document.

Below is an example of the case descriptions (from Payne, 2005, p. 145; presented to students in Swedish translation).

Katie (7) and Jarold (9) are referred by their school for child protection work because of a risk of emotional and physical abuse and neglect. Their parents are Juliana (28) and Alberto (31). There was a history of late cognitive development in pre-school years, and Alberto left Juliana several times, apparently to work in the Middle East, but also because he found the children’s demanding behaviour difficult. The school has experienced behavioural problems of aggression from Katie – taking property from other children, denying it loudly in the face of clear evidence of her behaviour, and then assaulting the accusing child. Jarold often sits quietly in the background watching what goes on in the classroom, but he is not learning much. There have been complaints from other parents, both to the school and to Juliana and Alberto, which has sometimes led to arguments between Alberto and other parents in the street. The children have both been left behind at school on several occasions for teachers to look after when one or the other of the parents have failed to call for them. The school does not yet have an after-school club. Health care records show that there were fears that the children were being neglected or heavily disciplined. Juliana and Alberto’s parents migrated from the Caribbean, and have returned there.

Course participants are invited to discuss the case starting with the following questions: Thinking about attachment theory, how would you set about an assessment of the children? What kind of help does the family need? The attachment theory (Bowlby, 1958) provides theoretical concepts (e.g. attachment types, a secure base and attachment person) that allow naming problematic patterns in Katie’s and Jarold’s behaviours, as well as hypothesising that possible origins of these behaviours may lie in the children’s relationships with their parents. In the group discussions, students would reason that Katie’s aggression and Jarold’s withdrawal indicate the disorganised attachment style, which in turn suggests that the children may be maltreated by their parents. The concept of attachment allows one to connect the children’s problematic

behaviours to the situation in the family and to consider whether the family environment meets the children's basic needs in security and care. Besides this, the analysis advises that not only Katie and Jarold but also their parents, Juliana and Alberto, may need help, for example in the form of parent counselling.

Students are also encouraged to suggest which other theoretical approaches, apart from the attachment theory, may be useful in reasoning about the case. They would suggest, for example, that the behaviouristic concept of observational learning (Bandura, 1961) explains Katie's aggressive behaviour as Katie may immitate her father, Alberto, who is described as inclined to quarrelling. By considering alternative theoretical explanations the students gain an understanding of the ways psychological theories may complement each other by providing different understandings regarding the origins of the same behaviour pattern. As many course participants have work experience in social services, they also tend in the case discussions to raise issues concerning current social policies and structural societal issues. Some students, for example, would argue that the family's immigrant background may be a reason for their marginalised position in the society, which may be an explanation for the parents' problematic behaviour. In such a way, the students discuss the case not only on the level of the individual, which psychological theories invite to, but also on the level of society which lies at the heart of social work (cf. Egan et al., 2011). Psychological explanation models are thus discussed in the context of concrete realities of social workers' practice and structural issues of the welfare society.

Conclusions

Using case discussions to introduce related areas of knowledge into social work education is not a new approach. Egan et al. (2011), for example, have previously suggested a case-based model for integrating neuroscience into social work theory. In this paper, we have focused on case discussions as a way to deal with the challenges that we face when teaching psychology to social work students. We see case discussions as a valuable tool in bridging psychological theory and social work practice in courses where an overview of a wide range of psychological theories is necessary within a short period of time. Case discussions stimulate the students' reflection on the relevance of psychological knowledge in social workers' professional decision making and bring several pedagogical gains.

Firstly, case discussions allow one to incorporate psychological concepts into the context of practical social work with clients and thus support deep approaches to learning (cf. Biggs, 2003). The discussions trigger comparisons of different

psychological theories when applied to the same human experience and reflection upon linkages between the theories that cover different aspects of human functioning (e.g. thought, affect and conduct). The comparisons and linkages provide for a more integrated knowledge of psychology and prevent a scattered picture of isolated theoretical concepts and explanations. Furthermore, through concrete examples of clients' problems and difficulties, case discussions help students to see how psychological theories may be integrated into decision making by social workers. Social work practice presented in the case descriptions serve as a "disciplinary grounding", which is argued to be an important element of a successful integration of different disciplinary perspectives (Borrego & Newswander, 2010). The relevance of psychological theories is judged against the practical tasks social workers face in their everyday work.

Secondly, case discussions make students consider the range of applicability of psychological theories in social work practice, as well as the limitations of the theories, and thus foster critical thinking (cf. Milner & Wolfer, 2014). When dealing with realistic descriptions of clients in need of a social worker's help, students find themselves in the position of making professional judgements and decisions. Students are triggered to evaluate the degree to which psychological theories provide the tools required to make the necessary assessments and to take decisions about treatment strategies. In such a way, the students gain an understanding of the ways psychological theories need to be complemented with other areas of knowledge, such as social policy. Thus, the case discussions enhance understanding of the relations between perspectives derived from different disciplines, which is an essential element of interdisciplinary skills (cf. Ivanitskaya et al., 2002). Searching for links with other areas of knowledge allows students to find a place for psychological theories in their professional thinking and thereby better integrate psychology into their social work education.

References

- Bandura, A., Ross, D., & Ross, S. A. (1961) Transmission of aggression through the imitation of aggressive models. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 63, 575–582.
- Borrego, M. & Newswander, L. K. (2010) Definitions of interdisciplinary research: Toward graduate-level interdisciplinary learning outcomes. *The Review of Higher Education*, 34(1), 61–84.
- Bowlby, J. (1958) The nature of the child's tie to his mother. *International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 39, 350–373.

- Biggs, J. (2003) Formulating and clarifying curriculum objectives. In: Biggs, J. *Teaching for Quality Learning at University. What the student does*. The Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press, Berkshire, pp 34–55.
- Cossom, J. (1991) Teaching from cases: education for critical thinking. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 5(1), 139–155.
- Crain, W. (2000) *Theories of Development. Concepts and Applications*. 4th ed. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Egan, M., Combs-Orme, T. & Neely-Barnes, S. L. (2011) Integrating neuroscience knowledge into social work education: a case-based approach. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 47(2), 269–282.
- Ferster, C. B. & Skinner, B. F. (1957) *Schedules of Reinforcement*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Ivanitskaya, L., Clark, D., Montgomery, G. & Primeau, R. (2002) Interdisciplinary learning: Process and outcomes. *Innovative Higher Education*, 27(2), 95–111.
- Jones, K. A. (2003) Making the case for the case method in graduate social work education. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 23(1/2), 183–200.
- McKeachie, W. J. & Svinicki, M. (2006) *McKeachie's teaching tips. Strategies, Research, and Theory for College and University Teachers*. Boston, New York: Houghton Mifflin.
- Milner, M. & Wolfer, T. (2014) The use of decision cases to foster critical thinking in social work students. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 34, 269–284.
- O'Brien, E. Z. (2016) *Psychology for Social Work. A Comprehensive Guide to Human Growth and Development*. London: Palgrave.
- Payne, M. (2005). *Modern Social Work Theory*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ramsden, P. (1992) Approaches to learning. In: Ramsden, P. *Learning to Teach in Higher Education*. London: Routledge Falmer, pp. 46–49.
- Repko, A. F. (2008) *Interdisciplinary Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ruch, G. (2007) 'Thoughtful' practice: child care social work and the role of case discussion. *Child and Family Social Work*, 12, 370–379.
- Trigwell, K. (2006) An analysis of the relations between learning and teaching approaches. In: Sutherland, P. & J. Crowther (Eds). *Lifelong Learning: Concepts and Contexts*. Abingdon, New York: Routledge, pp. 108–116.

Communities of Learning in Times of Student Solitude⁹⁶

Devrim Umut Aslan, Department of Service Management and Service Studies

Introduction

In the academic year of 2018-2019, and with a short notice, I became the coordinator of two consecutive courses that were obligatory for second-year students of an undergraduate programme in another faculty than my own. When I studied the first course's structure, I was initially surprised by the low number of contact-hours available to the students. The scheduled contact hours were mostly organized as lectures, with the exception of two workshops and supervision moments. Despite having limited possibility to meet their teachers, once the course started, many of the enrolled students still skipped the non-obligatory moments. Furthermore, the students who attended workshops and lectures were in general passive; they seldom posed questions and hardly engaged in discussions. The overall level of submitted examination papers was also disappointing; with few exceptions, many students had pragmatically scanned some of the course literature or relied on the parts quoted in teachers' power point presentations (Baier et al., 2011).

Based on the rather disappointing experience in the first course, I wondered how I could improve learning outcomes in the second course. How could I design it not for the few ambitious and self-structured students but for the average student as problematised by Biggs, (2012)? How can I create a learning platform for students with different backgrounds and skills? How could I make students read and inspire them to actively participate in the classroom? How could I help them develop core academic skills within the limited meeting hours we had? Actually, why did they have so little contact hours in the first place? Why do we expect students to carry the burden of learning almost alone?

⁹⁶ First version of this paper was written for a higher education pedagogical course at Lund University.

Higher education in transformation

A recent transformation⁹⁷ in the organizational structure of Swedish higher education resulted in a reduction of contact-hours with students (UKÄ, 2018), as well as trivializing of teaching in favour of research, as happened in other European countries (cf. Shapiro, 1997). These radical changes have been accompanied with, and partially legitimized by, a novel teaching and learning philosophy, which criticizes traditional lecture-based teaching as a unidirectional knowledge transfer from teacher to students (Fox, 1983; Trowler, 1998). The new pedagogical understanding argues that, instead, the contact-hours should be used to inspire, train and guide students to become independent self-learners (Bligh, 1998). Students, through developing their “metacognitive processes”, would be able to “monitor and control their own learning” (Ambrose et al., 2010: 6). In this perspective, teachers take the role of facilitators, supporting students in their personal journey of self-actualization. Thus, it is claimed that teachers should leave behind their archaic role as experts of their fields to become educational ‘coaches’ (Kugel, 1993). Since “coaches tend to be happier when they do less and their players do more”, and when “they want to develop their players’ leg muscles they do not run for them” (Kugel, 1993: 322), the logical inference is that with this pedagogical philosophy students can reach the learning goals with less contact-hours.

Nevertheless, the outcomes of this shift in the teaching philosophy is questioned both by students and academics. Students report that, accompanied by reduced contact-hours⁹⁸, they spend less and less time learning while suffering under the pressure of carrying individual responsibility for their higher education. The question is: how can we avoid this pedagogical dichotomy between traditional teaching and self-learning? How can we underline the importance of having social learning settings in the time of student solitude? Is it possible to defend the indispensability of university classroom as a socio-physical place without falling into a nostalgic trap? A plausible and potential pedagogical and epistemological alternative is assembling and reorganizing higher education around ‘learning practices’ instead of focusing on teachers or students.

⁹⁷ Swedish higher education system was not immune to the organizational transformation that happened among public institutions in the last decades (Berg et al., 2003), which involved redistribution and replacement of public resources within nation states, sometimes through privatization, sometimes institutional effectivization and organizational dismantling (Baltodano, 2012; Giroux, 2002; Shore, 2010).

⁹⁸ According to large-scale student survey at Lund University, around half of the students in Faculties of Social Sciences and Humanities claim they have less than six contact-hours a week (Holmström, 2018: 35). Similarly, according to a recent report, Sweden has the least contact-hours made available to university students among European countries (Eurostudent VI, 2018:116).

Practice Theory and Learning

There is no single, coherent, formulated ‘practice theory’, rather the body of literature accumulated around the concept of ‘social practice’ represents one of the recent significant turns in the social sciences, and a shift in the priorities of conducting research and analysing research material (cf. Schatzki et al., 2001; Reckwitz, 2002; Warde, 2005; Shove et al., 2012; Spaargaren et al., 2016; Hui et al., 2016)⁹⁹. Reckwitz (2002) locates practice theory within the category of ‘cultural theories’, and asserts that cultural theories position themselves in-between rationality-based, individualist accounts, and norm-oriented, deterministic perspectives. The common ground among practice theory scholars, then, is emphasizing the key position of practices in organizing and making sense of the social world as meso-level phenomena. Different practice theory approaches have the shared “belief that such phenomena as knowledge, meaning, human activity, science, power, language, social institutions, and historical transformation occur within and are aspects or components of the field of practices” (Schatzki, 2001: 11). Thus, they argue that studying social practices is fundamental for understanding and making sense of the social world (Reckwitz, 2002), rather than studying individuals or social structures. Accordingly, focusing on social practices provides the opportunity to move beyond traditional dichotomies, such as structure vs agency, mind vs body, or teaching vs learning as dualities embedded in social practices (Giddens, 1984). Some practice theory scholars particularly underline routinized activities; thereby they also give importance to notions of practical understanding, embodied learning, skills and competences in organization of social practices (Bourdieu, 1977; Giddens, 1984; Reckwitz, 2002; Shove et al., 2012).

⁹⁹ A social practice is generally defined as associated activities and events aligned by different elements, components, or linkages, such as teleo-affectivity, understandings, rules (Schatzki, 1996), background knowledge, emotions, things, motivations (Reckwitz, 2002), understandings, procedures, engagements (Warde, 2005), or materials, competences, meanings (Shove et al., 2012).

Communities of learning practices

Since the 1990s, a pedagogical perspective has gradually emerged, inspired by the notion of ‘communities of practices’ within practice theory literature (cf. Lave, 1996; Wenger, 1998; Jarzabkowski & Whittington, 2008; Reid, 2011; Buschmann & Alkemeyer, 2016). This perspective can also be framed as ‘communities of learning’, and it specifically underlines the social and embodied aspects of learning:

Within the ‘family’ of practice theories, research in the field of learning and education addresses concepts of socialisation, habitualisation and embodiment. These concepts have the advantage of bringing often neglected bodily, pre-reflexive and non-linguistic processes to the fore, thereby avoiding the reduction of learning and education to cognitive processes and the acquisition of propositional knowledge (Buschmann & Alkemeyer, 2016: 9, 10).

The communities-of-learning perspective criticizes the fact that higher education institutions typically presume that learning happens through solely individual and mental processes, based on assumptions derived from psychological and cognitive theories (Wenger, 1998). However, according to this perspective, “being human is a relational matter, generated in social living” and, thus, “theories that conceive of learning as a special universal mental process impoverish and misrecognize it” (Lave, 1996: 149). Hence, the communities-of-learning perspective, instead, advocates a pedagogical understanding, in which students acquire academic qualities through a “process of facilitating the circulation of school knowledgeable skill” by participating in social learning settings (Lave, 1996: 96). Here, participation refers to becoming a member of an academic community through actively being part of shared learning and teaching practices together with students and teachers (Wenger, 1998).

Underlining the importance of social and communal dimensions as well as the embodied skill transmission and co-learning (for a similar discussion, see also Barrie, 2007), this pedagogical philosophy can be regarded as a credible alternative to hegemonic pedagogies of lecture-based traditional teaching, which fosters rigid, hierarchical, unidimensional knowledge transfer, and self-learning, which promotes isolated individual knowledge acquirement and self-actualization.

Finally, this philosophy also has implications for inter- and transdisciplinary learning contexts, which proliferate in contemporary higher education institutions (Park & Son, 2010). Since the ‘communities of learning’ perspective highlights the importance of co-learning among peers, distinct student backgrounds and skills become resources for knowledge production; instead of seeing them as a challenge to be addressed, they are celebrated as assets for learning (cf. Lattuca, 2002; Borrego & Newswander, 2010).

Making a Community of Learning

After my disappointment in the first course, which I described in the beginning of this chapter, and receiving complaints from students due to the anxiety they experienced and the high rate of failed papers, I decided to make some serious changes in the structure of the second course, which started three months later.

In this course, I attempted to apply the philosophy of ‘communities of learning’ pedagogical understanding by, first of all, increasing overall contact-hours particularly through introducing more seminars, workshops, and supervision. The logic behind this was to increase the opportunities for social co-learning, where students can learn together through ‘doing’ (cf. Schank et al., 1999). Acknowledging learning as a dynamic ongoing process, I framed learning and teaching moments¹⁰⁰ in the course as verbs – as practices, namely: ‘peer-learning’, ‘discussing’, ‘searching’, ‘applying’, ‘analysing’, ‘grading’, and ‘writing’, which are deliberated below (for a similar way of framing, see Macdonald & Twining, 2002).

Peer-learning

For the examination assignment, I asked students to write a group paper, for which I instructed them to write and sign a group contract serving as internal guidance in case of potential conflicts and discussions (Dolmans, et al., 2001). Additionally, I organised group supervision meetings to discuss and peer-review the papers-in-progress. Finally, before submitting their group paper, students also prepared a group presentation. In these peer-learning moments (Boud et al., 2004), students developed their academic vocabulary, conflict-solving skills, and analytical capability. Moreover, they also learned to be academic bodies (cf. Wacquant, 1990), in the sense that they embody their enhanced cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986), through practicing academic speech, and by having the chance to observe and eventually imitate and incorporate each other’s and my gestures and mimics performed in academic situations. Hence, we formed a temporary academic community by participating in these activities together in shared time and space, in interaction and in negotiation.

¹⁰⁰ Some of the formulated learning practices were further elaborated in the following academic year of 2019-2020.

Discussing

In order to address the problems concerning the reading of course literature and inspire classroom participation, I introduced text-seminars (Feyes et al., 2005). Students answered assigned questions on key course literature in written form, and submitted their texts prior to the seminar discussion. During the seminar, they first discussed the questions in pairs, then in larger groups, and finally as a whole class together with the teacher. The introduction of text-seminars helped them acquire the academic skills of reading and understanding literature, and in particular, of discussing texts. Taking part in discussions inherently requires some social skills, and it is important to create opportunities for such practice while designing a course (Parker, 2001). The planned phases of discussing the questions first in pairs, then in larger groups, and in the class with the teacher, also helped students develop slightly different discussion skills, scaling up from more private to public. In all, it ensured that every student participated in the practice of discussing.

Searching

Searching for relevant literature of their choice was one of the challenges I posed for the students. For that purpose, I invited a librarian to lead a practical workshop, in which students watched and practiced the search for literature by using google scholar, Lund University's own search engine, databases, and keywords, in order to find high quality, relevant scientific works. Obviously, academic knowledge is developed and produced in dialog with and against existing academic productions, in relation to 'the-state-of-art'. While we design courses as teachers, we provide this possibility through assigning high quality literature to students. However, searching for and finding relevant literature is a skill to be gained – and just like other academic skills, it is best learned by doing and doing together (Ren, 2000). Thus, the workshop in particular helped students gain skills to navigate among vast academic works under the practical guidance of an expert.

Working

Within the frame of the course, I organized a study visit in order to link the often abstract academic discussions and literature to a concrete case, where students observed and discussed the 'backstage' of an international company, including its layout and organizational structure. In addition, on another occasion, a guest lecturer was invited to tell students the story of establishing a company from scratch. Students also received a 'work duty' to critically investigate company's social media accounts, and compare

them with rival companies. The first learning moment helped students to bodily experience the labour and spatial organization of a major company, in addition to enjoying the possibility to listen and question first-hand statements. In the second learning activity, they had the chance to apply the skills and knowledge they gained during the course in a ‘real-life’ situation, by working (Jarzabkowski & Whittington, 2008).

Analysing

One of the workshops I organized for the course was about analysing an empirical text together in groups, and discussing the outcomes with me, in which they also had to chance to see how I analyse a text as an academic. On another occasion, the digital presence of different actors was analysed by the students together with another teacher, in a digital ethnography workshop. Since the course assignment was based on analysing empirical material, it was crucial to develop students’ analytical skills (Corti & Bishop, 2005). Giving a lecture on analytic methods and applying these techniques to concrete cases, as well as having the opportunity to compare their analysis process to that of experienced teachers, helped students develop this important academic skill – analysing, at least on a fundamental level. They did it through participating in a social learning activity together, thus through being part of a ‘community of learning’.

Grading

Additionally, I organized a workshop on grading, in which students received a student paper from previous years. After quickly reading the paper, students graded it according to the shared grading criteria and a template, and wrote feedback for different parts of the papers. At the end of the workshop, students made comparisons with each other regarding how they graded and commented, and discussed their reasonings before learning the paper’s actual grade and seeing the teacher’s comments. It is a common complaint that solely written documents cannot truly communicate what is asked and expected from students (cf. O’Donovan et al., 2006). Through grading actual papers written by previous students, students familiarized themselves with the grading criteria and template in detail, but also by comparing their grading practice with each other and with the teacher’s, they achieved a better understanding regarding how their work would be assessed. Thus, this workshop and the transparency provided around the grading of papers also helped the learning practices of writing and peer-learning.

Presenting

As a small part of their examination, I asked students to prepare group presentations, for which they were allowed to use a presentation media. In this way, they were required to work on and test their public presentation skills, which might include the preparation of written and visual presentation material, constructing arguments, and communicating key points. Evidently, the preparations were created in a group setting. Students were also expected to answer possible questions from the public, which necessitated formulating thoughts in the moment. Presenting is also by definition a social learning practice; in order to make an academic presentation one needs an audience. However, it is also much more direct, instant, and intensive than writing; it helps students crystalize their thoughts and arguments, and develop a coherent narrative (Craig & Amernic, 2006). In addition, by asking (or witnessing how the teacher asks) and answering questions, they could also develop their embodied discussing skills.

Writing

In order to assist students in their writing process I invited a pedagogist who led a workshop on academic language and writing, during which students discussed and evaluated different forms and styles of texts. Thereafter, students listened to a lecture on how they were expected to structure their papers, including detailed instructions concerning the content of different parts. In addition, I increased the number of supervision occasions and durations. Finally, a couple of days prior to submission date, I organized a 'community' writing-day, inviting the students to write in the classroom in structured sessions and pauses. However, students were allowed to ask me questions *in situ*, whenever they wanted, while they were actually busy with writing. Academic writing is typically seen as an individual practice, and it is often done in seclusion. By organizing these workshops, it became possible to provide a social and communal setting for writing (Kent et al., 2017).

Discussion

Structuring the course through the abovementioned social learning practices, that is peer-learning, discussing, searching, working, analysing, grading, presenting, and writing, I could co-create a temporary learning community with the students and other teachers despite the fact that we had different disciplinary backgrounds, where fundamental academic skills were circulated, absorbed, and embodied. Students showed more enthusiasm towards to course, their participation slowly improved both

qualitatively and quantitatively, which was also visible in the papers they wrote, and the course evaluation survey they filled out. On the other hand, increasing contact-hours, asking for enhanced student engagement, and introducing additional learning practices aiming to improve various academic skills also created an imbalance in regards to the course's position in the programme structure of the bachelor's degree. Consequently, some students complained that the course was too demanding and intensive compared to other courses they took which gave the same number of higher education credits.

Applying a teaching and learning perspective inspired by practice theory and the communities of practices literature, this course experience accentuated the indispensability and significance of contact-hours with students and teaching staff, without solely relying on traditional lectures, or a unidimensional, cognitive knowledge transfer. Yet, it also illustrated that the individualistic self-learning paradigm, where teachers are downgraded to 'coaching' students in their 'self-actualization journey', ignores the sociocultural and bodily dimensions of learning. However, another implication was that although pedagogical experiments and advances in an individual course might enhance learning outcomes for the related course and advance our accumulated pedagogical knowledge, it is important not to forget the institutional context and the overall programme organization. Thus, it is crucial to create platforms for broader pedagogical discussions and gradually aim for improvements at a more structural level.

Conclusion

The erosion of teaching's importance in favor of research (Berg et al., 2003), together with changes in the money allocation system for universities in Sweden (UKÄ, 2018), led to reduced contact-hours. In the meantime, the responsibility of learning shifted from teachers towards students by the means of celebrating self-learning, despite the alarming reports pointing out decreasing engagement and growing anxiety among students (cf. Holmström, 2018). In order to address these pedagogical challenges in such an institutional context, I relied on a relatively new social pedagogical understanding, 'communities of learning', while re-designing a course. Within this literature, the social and cultural aspects of learning are emphasised, along with their embodiedness (Lave, 1996; Wenger, 1998; Buschmann & Alkemeyer, 2016). In the course, I introduced or extended seminars, workshops, and supervision moments, thus increasing the total number of contact-hours, and I formulated learning moments and skills as active verbs, or as 'learning practices'. The adjustments led to better learning outcomes, higher quality student papers, and improved overall student engagement.

On the other hand, the changes I implemented generated also an imbalance among the courses in the bachelor programme in terms of requested student engagement.

The ‘communities of learning’ pedagogical perspective proved to be promising, however, further discussion and implementation in higher education is needed, since practical applications of the pedagogical philosophy is rather limited (O’Donovan et al., 2006). Likewise, a more theoretically informed engagement is required with more recent ‘practice theory’ literature to be able to nuance the formulation and analysis of learning practices, through for instance incorporating material and affective dimensions in the discussion (cf. Reckwitz, 2016; Strengers & Maller, 2018). As noted earlier, this perspective also has implications for inter- and transdisciplinary educational situations due to its emphasis on co-learning in social arrangements, in which students’ and teachers’ distinct cultural and disciplinary backgrounds, as well as their embodied skills, are appreciated and operationalised as learning assets (cf. Borrego & Newswander, 2010). Yet, similarly, further application and a more refined discussion is a prerequisite in order to explore and to assess the potential of the ‘communities of learning’ perspective in inter- and transdisciplinary higher education (Lattuca, 2002).

References

- Ambrose, S. A., Bridges, M. W., DiPietro, M., Lovett, M. C., & Norman, M. K. (2010). *How learning works: 7 research-based principles for smart teaching*.
- Baier, K., Hendricks, C., Gorden, K. W., Hendricks, J. E., & Cochran, L. (2011). College students’ textbook reading, or not. *American reading forum annual yearbook*, 31, 1-8.
- Baltodano, M. (2012). Neoliberalism and the demise of public education: The corporatization of schools of education. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 25(4), 487-507.
- Barrie, S. C. (2007). A conceptual framework for the teaching and learning of generic graduate attributes. *Studies in higher education*, 32(4), 439-458.
- Berg, E., Barry, J., & Chandler, J. (2003). Nice work if you can get it? The changing character of academic labour in Sweden and England. *Comportamento organizacional E gestao*, 9, 231-249.
- Biggs, J. (2012). What the student does: teaching for enhanced learning. *Higher education research & development*, 31(1), 39-55.
- Bligh, D. A. (1998). *What's the Use of Lectures?*
- Borrego, M., & Newswander, L. K. (2010). Definitions of interdisciplinary research: Toward graduate-level interdisciplinary learning outcomes. *The Review of Higher Education*, 34(1), 61-84.

- Boud, D., Cohen, R., & Sampson, J. (2014). *Peer learning in higher education: Learning from and with each other.*
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of a Theory of Practice*
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The Forms of Capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of Theory and Research for the Sociology of Education*, 241-258.
- Buschmann, N., & Alkemeyer, T. (2016). Learning in and across practices: Enablement as subjectivation. In Hui, A., Schatzki, T., & Shove, E. (Eds.), *The Nexus of Practices*, 20-35.
- Corti, L., & Bishop, L. (2005). Strategies in teaching secondary analysis of qualitative data. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung*, 6(1), art. 47.
- Craig, R. J., & Amernic, J. H. (2006). PowerPoint presentation technology and the dynamics of teaching. *Innovative higher education*, 31(3), 147-160.
- Dolmans, D. H., Wolfhagen, I. H., Van Der Vleuten, C. P., & Wijnen, W. H. (2001). Solving problems with group work in problem-based learning: hold on to the philosophy. *Medical education*, 35(9), 884-889.
- Fejes, A., Johansson, K., & Dahlgren, M. A. (2005). Learning to play the seminar game: Students' initial encounters with a basic working form in higher education. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 10(1), 29-41.
- Fox, D. (1983). Personal theories of teaching. *Studies in higher education*, 8(2), 151-163.
- Giddens, A. (1984). *The constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration.*
- Giroux, H. (2002). Neoliberalism, corporate culture, and the promise of higher education: The university as a democratic public sphere. *Harvard educational review*, 72(4), 425-464.
- Holmström, O. (2018). *Studentbarometer 2017: Kvalitet och Utvärdering Rapport.*
- Hui, A., Schatzki, T., & Shove, E. (Eds.) (2016). *The nexus of practices: Connections, constellations, practitioners.*
- Jarzabkowski, P., & Whittington, R. (2008). A strategy-as-practice approach to strategy research and education. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 17(4), 282-286.
- Kent, A., Berry, D. M., Budds, K., Skipper, Y., & Williams, H. L. (2017). Promoting writing amongst peers: Establishing a community of writing practice for early career academics. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 36(6), 1194-1207.
- Kugel, P. (1993). How professors develop as teachers. *Studies in higher education*, 18(3), 315-328.
- Lattuca, L. R. (2002). Learning interdisciplinarity: Sociocultural perspectives on academic work. *The journal of higher education*, 73(6), 711-739.
- Lave, J. (1996). Teaching, as learning, in practice. *Mind, culture, and activity*, 3(3), 149-164.
- Macdonald, J., & Twining, P. (2002). Assessing activity-based learning for a networked course. *British journal of educational technology*, 33(5), 603-618.

- O'Donovan, B., Rust, C., Price, M., & Carroll, J. (2006). Staying the distance': the unfolding story of discovery and development through long-term collaborative research into assessment. *Brookes e-Journal of Learning and Teaching*, 1(4).
- Park, J. Y., & Son, J. B. (2010). Transitioning toward transdisciplinary learning in a multidisciplinary environment. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 6(1), 82-93.
- Parker, W. C. (2001). Classroom discussion: Models for leading seminars and deliberations. *Social Education*, 65(2), 111-111.
- Reckwitz, A. (2002). Toward a theory of social practices: A development in culturalist theorizing. *European journal of social theory*, 5(2), 243-263.
- Reckwitz, A. (2016). Practices and their affects. In Hui, A., Schatzki, T., & Shove, E. (Eds.), *The Nexus of Practices*, 126-137.
- Reid, J. A. (2011). A practice turn for teacher education?. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(4), 293-310.
- Ren, W. H. (2000). Library instruction and college student self-efficacy in electronic information searching. *The journal of academic librarianship*, 26(5), 323-328.
- Schank, R. C., Berman, T. R., & Macpherson, K. A. (1999). Learning by doing. *Instructional-design theories and models: A new paradigm of instructional theory*, 2(2), 161-181.
- Schatzki, T. R. (1996). *Social practices: A Wittgensteinian approach to human activity and the social*.
- Schatzki, T. R. (2001). Practice theory: an introduction. In Schatzki, T. R., Cetina, K., & Savigny von, E. (Eds.) (2001). *The practice turn in contemporary theory*, 1-14.
- Schatzki, T. R., Cetina, K., & Savigny von, E. (Eds.) (2001). *The practice turn in contemporary theory*.
- Shapiro, F. R. (1997). They published, not perished, but were they good teachers. *Chicago-Kent Law Review*, 73, 835-846.
- Shore, C. (2010). Beyond the multiversity: Neoliberalism and the rise of the schizophrenic university. *Social Anthropology*, 18(1), 15-29.
- Shove, E., Pantzar, M., & Watson, M. (2012). *The dynamics of social practice: Everyday life and how it changes*.
- Spaargaren, G., Weenink, D., & Lamers, M. (Eds.). (2016). *Practice theory and research: exploring the dynamics of social life*.
- Stengers, Y., & Maller, C. (2018). Dynamic Non-humans in a Changing World. In Maller, C., & Stengers, Y. (Eds.) (2018). *Social Practices and Dynamic Non-Humans: Nature, Materials and Technologies*, 1-21.
- Trowler, P. R. (1998). *Academics Responding to Change. New Higher Education Frameworks and Academic Cultures*.
- Wacquant, L. J. (1990). Sociology as Socioanalysis: Tales of "Homo Academicus" [By Pierre Bourdieu]. *Sociological Forum*, 677-689.

Warde, A. (2005). Consumption and theories of practice. *Journal of consumer culture*, 5(2), 131-153.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*.

Online references

Eurostudent VI. (2018).

https://www.eurostudent.eu/download_files/documents/EUROSTUDENT_VI_Synopsis_of_Indicators.pdf

UKÄ (2018).

<https://www.uka.se/download/18.5817b17f16658cb9f755017/1540904435998/rapport-2018-lararledd-tid-i-den-svenska-hogskolan.pdf>

The workshop “Classroom as a contested space”

An analysis of the collaborative work towards a reflexive pedagogical practice

Arlette Garduño, Andrea Tock¹⁰¹ & Marta Kolankiewicz, Department of Gender Studies

Introduction: Difficult moments in the classroom

We often think of the classroom as a space in which knowledge is shared and created in dialogical form, both in conversations between teachers and students, among the students as well as in dialogue with texts and theories. The feminist classroom has often aspired to provide a space in which difficult questions about different forms of oppression and injustice can be discussed and analysed in a way that is safe and mindful (Halberstam, 2017; Ludlow, 2004). Despite these ambitions, in any classroom there are moments of tension, uncomfortable silence or sometimes of abrupt outburst. As Jyl Lynn Felman puts it: “The explosion in the feminist classroom is an intense emotional reaction that cannot be prevented or ignored. It must neither be feared nor thwarted by academic perfidy” (Felman, 2001: 26). The aim of this chapter is to describe and analyse a workshop that has been developed by a collective bringing together some students, alumni and a teacher from Lund University; the three authors of the chapter have been members of the collective. The workshop was inspired by disruptive moments that we experienced ourselves that resonated with Felman’s writing, and it was an attempt to address them and turn them into productive learning moments for all of us involved.

The disruptive moments that we were interested in could be instances of students challenging each other about who has the right to speak on issues that have to do with racism or homophobia. Others concerned calling teachers’ choices into question when

¹⁰¹ Alumnae of Social Studies of Gender Master Programme

it comes to the selection of course literature or other material that might cause pain and trigger traumas related to racism, sexism or other forms of violence. Still others had to do with students feeling compelled to come out during a pronoun round. These moments often involved strong emotions, discussions or quarrels that seemed to get out of control. In other words, these were the situations where a lecture or a seminar broke from its script and put into question pedagogical techniques used in the classroom. While such moments might be experienced on the spot as very challenging both for teacher and for students – a kind of crisis that needs to be dealt with somehow – the conclusion that we, as the collective, came to in our discussions has been that these moments indeed offer a great learning potential since they tend to encapsulate tensions of a particular significance. We came up with the idea that to depart from these moments and to work through them could help us, not only to rehearse before such future situations that might emerge in the classroom, but also to learn to turn them into moments of collective learning.

Background: The feminist classroom

The workshop analysed in this chapter was created in the context of the international Master Programme in Social Studies of Gender at Lund University. Gender studies is an inherently interdisciplinary field, not only because it draws from different social and human sciences, e.g. sociology, psychology, economy, anthropology, literary studies and history, both theoretically and methodologically, but also because many of the concepts developed by gender studies scholars have travelled back to those aforementioned disciplines. Furthermore, it also represents a very specific kind of interdisciplinarity, one that builds on synergies between thought and activism (Woodward & Woodward, 2015). It could be said that the interdisciplinarity of the field of Gender Studies has both institutional and epistemological bases. On an institutional level, Gender Studies departments did not become an institutionalised discipline in academe until the 1970s, therefore the field has tended to be shaped by academics from different disciplines with a common interest in feminist research; additionally, the departments often depend financially on bigger institutions such as Social Studies or Humanities (Fahlgren, Giritli-Nygren & Sjöstedt Landén, 2016). In an epistemological sense, feminist knowledge production has often criticised disciplinary borders and the fragmentation of knowledge for being arbitrary cuts in the body of knowledge. The feminist academics Liinason and Holm (2006) talk about “critical intersectionality” in gender studies, referring to “interdisciplinarity as a critical position, striving to challenge the borders of disciplines” (118). Due to this, gender

studies scholars have been able to identify tensions and contradictions that arise from interdisciplinarity, while at the same time have offered “productive possibilities for contributions to knowledge, which are distinctively interdisciplinary and go far beyond attempts to mainstream gender into conventional disciplinary structures” (Woodward & Woodward, 2015: 4-5). Thus, our approach to the theme of interdisciplinarity in this chapter, rather than merely promoting it, is to work through experiences of tensions and synergies arising from it.

Adding to the inherent interdisciplinarity of the field, gender studies classrooms have quite a specific character in several respects. First of all, courses deal to a large extent with issues of inequalities, injustices and oppression. They are rooted in critical traditions and are engaged in exploring relations between power in society and knowledge production, for instance in universities. In this sense, there is, at least theoretically, a dose of auto-reflexivity towards courses’ own teaching and learning practices in gender studies programmes. At the same time, the nature of the topics that these kinds of courses circulate around is very sensitive and potentially opens up for tensions, painful moments and reactions to the content of readings and discussions. Second, gender studies courses usually attract students who are interested and active in the issues they learn about – gender, class, race, sexuality, to name just some – in other forms, such as social movements or activist groups. Thus, students come to university with considerable knowledge of the issues they are to study, and are often fluent in particular vocabularies used in social movements and well aware of different approaches to and explanations of these issues as well as political implications thereof. Third, gender studies courses often bear with them a promise of feminist pedagogies, that is, pedagogies based on collective learning–teaching processes that are attentive to the personal and the emotional and clearly link these with the theoretical and the political.

While the above attributes and expectations shape the nature of any feminist classroom, the gender studies programme in which we have been engaged at Lund has in addition a couple of other features. It is an international programme, and the composition of the class makes visible not only some global trends in the feminist field but also differences in experiences, priorities and ways of articulating these in different contexts. Moreover, the programme at Lund is explicitly interdisciplinary, attracting students majoring in different social sciences and faculty coming from different disciplines.

Furthermore, the Swedish context entails a high level of institutionalisation of gender studies as a field of education (Liinason, 2011) and research, whilst the recent trend towards New Public Management and neoliberal academia has presented particular challenges to gender studies programmes (Berg, 2010) to keep their position in universities without losing their critical edge. These developments have also influenced the room for teachers to live up to the feminist pedagogical ideals (Garduño, 2018). All

these aspects contribute to particular dynamics in the classroom, the experience of which led to the creation of the workshop.

Theoretical frames: From safe space to contested space

Challenged by the complex character and composition of the gender studies classroom, when developing the workshop we sought inspiration from feminist pedagogies. Perhaps given that we were influenced by moments of tension and discomfort both for teachers and students in the classroom, one of the first concepts we analysed was *safe spaces*. The term is widely used in feminist circles, activist groups and even classrooms at different levels, as an aspiration – that the feminist classroom shall be a place in which members can feel *safe* to share and discuss personal experiences that can be related to oppression. Nonetheless, the concept of *safe spaces* has been questioned by critical educators for several reasons.

First of all, the notion of safety might lead to imagining a classroom free of emotions of discomfort, which, according to bell hooks (1994), is impossible to achieve because in a diverse classroom students' different positions often lead to conflict and tension with deeply emotional responses. Therefore, the idea of safety in the classroom aspires to prevent students from the pain and vulnerability that might come with critical reflection (Kishimoto & Mwangi, 2009). Instead, hooks (1994) suggests reminding students that the process of learning can be discomforting but that there is no reason for pain to result in harm. Second, there is no unified understanding of safety, but the term has different meanings for every student, often connected to their experiences and positionality. Therefore, *safety* becomes a catch-all word that should protect students against any expression of oppression, but also, inadvertently, against any kind of disagreement (Redmond, 2010), which is impossible.

In response to these problems with the term *safe space*, feminist scholar Jeannie Ludlow (2004) suggests trying to think about the classroom in terms of a *contested space* instead. According to her, a contested space is not defined by conflict, but acknowledges the possibility of it, and includes space for it to happen. By conceiving of the classroom as a contested space, it is possible to avoid imagining the classroom as a bubble free of racism, sexism, or any oppressive systems, but as a space as any other social space where different identities collide. With this understanding, the classroom can be a radical space for transformation, where it is possible to undo dominant discourses of oppression through collaboration, coalition-building, political education and an intersectional understanding of the identities that collide within the classroom. In line with this ideal, bell hooks (1994) suggests the creation of *learning communities* in which

the connecting point between their members is not their perspective on different topics but the desire to learn and create a learning context. In such spaces, students and teachers can not only share experiences but also be open about their vulnerabilities. When it comes to the power relations present in the classroom, the notion of learning communities does not intend to eliminate them or disguise them, but to open up for the possibility to acknowledge and reflect on them.

Description of the workshop: Memory-work and forum theatre

Based on this context and theoretical framework we developed the workshop. The form of the workshop has been changing as we have presented it to different audiences: university students and teachers, high school teachers, and anti-racist and queer activists. Also, as years passed, several members of our collective have come and gone, having enriched the reflections and the tools with their different feminist, anti-racist and queer readings and experiences. The first couple of times we held the workshop, it was based on cases from literature on the subject and discussion was the main method used. On the following occasions, inspired by one of the members of our collective who had experience in non-violent direct-action training (Herngren, 1993), we decided to change the method of the workshop and use forum theatre (Boal, 2002). Below we present this version of the workshop.

The workshop is designed to be held for up to 20 participants, who are divided into small groups of five, more or less. We have carried it out with three to six moderators, so that there was always one of us in every small group. Also one of us had a leading role of what Boal calls Joker: that is, a person who explains the rules and leads the workshop. The workshop requires at least two hours, but the optimal duration is three hours. It is divided into two main parts.

During the first part, the participants sitting in the small groups are asked to share their experiences of difficult moments in the classroom. This technique of sharing experiences has been inspired by a feminist method of memory-work that has been practised in women's groups, and has also become a research method (Haug, 1999). While the method often involves writing down a description of a particular event or scene, we limit ourselves to recounting these to each other. Next, we ask the small groups to select one of the stories and then to reconstruct the scenes: this is done by each of the workshop participants taking on one of the roles of the protagonists in the scene.

In the second part of the workshop, all the participants reunite and the small groups perform their scenes. This part of the workshop uses the technique of the forum theatre proposed by the Brazilian theatre practitioner, theorist and political activist Augusto Boal. Originally developed as a form of community theatre that encourages the participation of the spectators and provides a space to explore and find ways to counter different forms of social oppression, forum theatre has been widely used in educational settings and community trainings as a tool to rehearse real-life situations (Boal, 2002). Forum theatre is based on a dialogue with the audience that intervenes to develop alternative ways of unfolding the action. Using this technique, the scenes presented by the participants in our workshop are rehearsed rather than actually performed. First the small group in charge performs the scene in the way it was recounted in the memory-work. Then the scene is performed again and all other participants are invited to interrupt and intervene in order to transform the situation. The aim is not to find a solution and to close the scene, but to explore possible ways to go in this particular difficult moment in the classroom. Thus, rather than as a claim for how we should behave in such moments, as teachers or students, the technique is treated as a rehearsal for our future selves. By rehearsing, we are theorising and reflecting somatically, thus preparing our bodies and gestures for moments of discomfort that will come in the classroom in the future. The workshop then becomes a space in which the Cartesian dualism is shattered by performing a reflection through a bodily act. The workshop finishes with a shared reflection and discussion on the workshop itself, which is used in the future to further develop the workshop.

The workshop, by focusing on a rehearsal of difficult situations in the classroom, rather than just on a theoretical analysis of these, mobilises the performative aspects of teaching and learning that are always present in the classroom. At the same time, using the techniques that are tailored for collective ways of producing knowledge and confronting difficult situations, the workshop provides an opportunity to understand and approach these beyond the individual occurrences – as tensions characterising the classroom in a particular context and time, and teaching us something about the realities of today's university.

Besides the reflections that emerged after every workshop, the process of developing it has had a deep impact on the ways members of the collective think about our own educational practices. Furthermore, it has also prompted reflections about the ways we engage with the collective and its own power dynamics. We can say that the group itself has become a learning community for us, in which we have all played an active role in building a space for learning and reflecting about our teaching-learning experiences as teachers and students.

Reflections

The work in developing the workshop and carrying it out in different settings provided us with a possibility to bring in a meta-reflection about the classroom. This meta-reflection held varying significance for different participants and for us in different versions of the workshop, but one common factor is that in all the workshops there has been a great appreciation of having an opportunity for reflecting, analysing and acting through tensions and difficult moments in the classroom. What we discovered is that both students and teachers lack opportunities for addressing these moments, often during times of regular, scheduled learning and teaching, such as lectures and seminars. These moments, instead of being treated as integral sites of the emergence of knowledge, are made invisible or dealt with in ways that do not allow for addressing their core and potential in relation to collective learning. One of the crucial things that we have learned from the workshop is the centrality of the issue of power and responsibility in the classroom. Our understanding of the latter has been influenced by feminist scholars who talk about response-ability, that is, a necessity to cultivate an ability to respond to others. Response-ability is tied to processes of becoming different in/through the response and it is a collective process (Haraway, 2015). Power and responsibility are interconnected and necessary to make visible both for teachers and students, in order for learning communities to emerge.

The main outcome of the workshop becomes an opportunity for rehearsing our future selves, as teachers or students, and ways of reacting in these difficult moments in the classroom. By doing so we encourage somatic theorising and reflection. We do this by mobilising the performative aspects of teaching and learning, but we also do it while sitting together and sharing the experience of performing and being put in the role of spect-actors, which according to Augusto Boal is the “transformation of the spectator into the protagonist of the theatrical action”, the aim of which is “to try to change the society rather than contenting ourselves with merely interpreting it” (2002: 253). For us, there are two effects of the workshop. First, it leads to a realisation that the classroom is part of the social, often reproducing the very oppressive structures that we wish to understand and analyse. Second, it activates those present in the classroom, making them responsible for and aware of possibilities of action against these structures.

One of the points of departure in this chapter has been that the gender studies classroom is one in which diverse tensions are inherently present. At the outset, we identified interdisciplinarity as one source of these tensions and claimed that fields like gender studies, which have a long history of functioning across different disciplines, might be a source of inspiration for how to address tensions emergent in the interdisciplinary teaching. One of the lessons learned in our work with the workshop in regard to interdisciplinarity has been that these kinds of tensions should be taken

seriously and explored rather than ignored. In this regard, teachers interested in working across different disciplines might like to pose questions such as: Can tensions in the classroom be traced back to varied traditions of approaching, understanding and explaining issues of power and oppression that are dominant in different disciplines? How can these aspects of tensions be made visible and intelligible to those in the classroom? Should the ambition be to overcome these or rather to engage with them and make them into important sites of interdisciplinary work?

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all the members of our collective and the participants in the workshops who have contributed to its development in its different forms, with special thanks to Edwin Fondén. We are also grateful to the editors of the volume for their comments.

References

- Berg, E. (2010). Grasping the poisoned chalice: Higher education and managerial identities in Sweden. *GenderChange in Academia*. Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, pp. 137–147.
- Boal, A. (2002). *Games for Actors and Non-Actors*. London: Routledge.
- Fahlgren, S., Giritli-Nygren, K. & Sjöstedt Landén, A. (2016). Resisting ‘overing’: Teaching and researching gender studies in Sweden. *Women’s Studies International Forum*, 54: 119–128.
- Felman, J.L. (2001). *Never a dull moment: Teaching and the art of performance. Feminism takes center stage*. New York: Routledge.
- Garduño, A. (2018). *Teaching at the Borders: Exploring the pedagogical challenges of Gender Studies Departments in Sweden*. Lund University. Retrieved from: <http://lup.lub.lu.se/student-papers/record/8948282>
- Halberstam, J. (2017). Trigger Happy: From Content Warning to Censorship. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 42: 535–542.
- Haraway, D. (2015). Anthropocene, Capitalocene, Chthulhucene. Donna Haraway in conversation with Martha Kenney. *Art in the Anthropocene: Encounters among aesthetics, politics, environments and epistemologies*. Open Humanities Press, pp. 255–269.
- Haug, F. (1999). Memory-work as a method of social science research: A detailed rendering of memory-work method. Retrieved from: <http://www.friggahaug.inkrit.de/documents/memoryworkresearchguidei7.pdf>

- Herngren, P. (1993). *Path of Resistance: The Practice of Civil Disobedience*. New Society Publishers.
- hooks, b. (1994). *Teaching to Transgress: Education as the Practice of Freedom*. New York: Routledge.
- Kishimoto, K. & Mwangi, M. (2009). Critiquing the Rhetoric of “Safety” in Feminist Pedagogy: Women of Color Offering an Account of Ourselves. *Feminist Teacher*, 19(2): 87–102.
- Liinason, M. (2011). *Feminism and the Academy. Exploring the Politics of Institutionalization in Gender Studies in Sweden*. Lund University. Retrieved from: <https://lup.lub.lu.se/search/publication/1761928>
- Liinason, M. & Holm, U.M. (2006). PhDs, Women's/Gender Studies and Interdisciplinarity. *Nordic Journal of Women's Studies*, 14(2): 115–130.
- Ludlow, J. (2004). From Safe Space to Contested Space in the Feminist Classroom. *Transformations: The Journal of Inclusive Scholarship and Pedagogy*, 15(1): 40–56.
- Redmond, M. (2010). Safe Space Oddity: Revisiting Critical Pedagogy. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 30(1): 1–14.
- Woodward, K. & Woodward, S. (2015). Gender studies and interdisciplinarity. *Palgrave Communications*, 1, 15018.

Interdisciplinary pedagogy in higher education

This is the proceedings volume from the 7th biannual *Teaching and Learning Conference at Lund University*. The conference theme, *Interdisciplinary pedagogy in higher education*, is very timely as we see a steady increase, not only in interdisciplinary research and full teaching programmes, but also in new interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary courses and components in more traditional disciplinary education at Lund University. The conference highlighted some of the many challenges and opportunities of interdisciplinary education where educators meet students with different disciplinary, cultural and geographical profiles. In this volume, the authors share the thoughts, experiences and learning they presented at the conference.