EUROPEAN UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATION

TRENDS 2018

Learning and teaching in the European Higher Education Area

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ISBN 9789078997658

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Foreword

Learning and teaching is a core mission at Europe's universities and it has become a central topic of discussion when looking towards the future of the European Higher Education Area. While the first rounds of the Bologna Process focused on structural reforms, increasing mobility, collaboration and enhancing international visibility, today there is a strong emphasis on learning and teaching.

After mentions in the 2015 Yerevan Communiqué proved a shift towards recognising its importance, the 2018 Paris Communiqué gave prominence to the ongoing transformation of learning and teaching, such as pedagogical enhancement and changes in learning provision - including digitally-enhanced learning. Both Communiqués also point to the need to develop participatory approaches involving the higher education sector and other stakeholders.

The Trends 2018 report confirms and complements this, revealing that Europe holds many diverse and interesting experiences when it comes to learning and teaching. The findings reveal that while dynamics for change and transformation come from learning and teaching practice, their success and sustainability require support and coordination from the institution and the system. The Bologna Process and the Europe 2020 strategy are contributing to these developments by enabling shared policies, structures and funding for exchange and collaboration.

Trends 2018 also confirms that collaboration and exchange among European universities are an important catalyst in enhancing learning and teaching. While there is no blueprint for developing the quality of education, the focus should clearly be on exchange between peers and partner institutions. This explains the high interest in EUA's learning and teaching initiatives, including the European Learning & Teaching Forum. Now a regular event, it has received a strong response from the European and international higher education community.

EUA intends to explore this even more in the future by working with members and in partnership with governments and other stakeholder organisations to learn from their unique situations and approaches. In this regard, we hope that Trends 2018 will contribute to discussions on the enhancement of learning and teaching, and open new perspectives on how European higher education institutions can collaborate on this topic.

LESLEY WILSON
Secretary General

Acknowledgements

EUA is most grateful to the colleagues of the 303 institutions who responded to the Trends 2018 survey. It was a long questionnaire, and not easy to answer.

We would also like to thank the many experts who, through interviews, provided information on national strategies and practices for learning and teaching in Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Kazakhstan, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom.

As the Trends 2018 data collection coincided with that of the Bologna Process Implementation Report, we had fruitful exchanges during the preparation of the survey questionnaire with David Crosier and his colleagues from the Eurydice office of the European Commission's Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA). We are grateful for having had the opportunity to share Trends 2018 data in the chapter on learning and teaching in the 2018 Bologna Process Implementation Report that Eurydice produced.

We would also like to thank Andrée Sursock and Hanne Smidt, the authors of previous Trends reports, who provided advice on the draft questionnaire.

EUA friends and partners contributed to the dissemination of the questionnaire. In this regard, we would like to express our gratitude to the Association Européenne des Conservatoires, Académies de Musique et Musikhochschulen (AEC), the European Association of Distance Teaching Universities (EADTU), the European Association of Institutions in Higher Education (EURASHE), the Network of Universities from the Capitals of Europe (UNICA), the Mediterranean Universities Union (UNIMED), and the Coimbra Group.

Data and first findings from the Trends 2018 survey were published as slides and discussed during events and meetings with colleagues from institutions and national rectors' conferences, our partners from the EFFECT project, the members of EUA's Learning & Teaching Steering Committee and its Thematic Peer Groups. We would like to thank our colleagues in the European higher education community for their valuable feedback.

The Trends 2018 report is the result of a collective effort. At EUA's Higher Education Policy Unit, Henriette Stoeber compiled the data, provided the longitudinal analysis and ensured the data accuracy throughout the report. Luisa Bunescu conducted interviews with national experts and provided additional research to support some sections of the report.

Other colleagues at EUA were solicited for their expertise on specific points. Thomas Estermann and Enora Bennetot-Pruvot, Director and Deputy Director for Governance and Funding, co-authored the section on funding. Veronika Kupriyanova contributed to the Russian translation of the questionnaire. Finally, thanks go to the colleagues in EUA's Communication Unit, in particular to Jessica Carter and Christel Vacelet, who conducted the editing and publication process.

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Executive Summary

Trends 2018 provides an institutional perspective on the developments in the European Higher Education Area. It continues the work started by Trends 2015 in examining how European higher education institutions change and adapt their learning and teaching approaches in response to changing demand, technological and societal developments, and in consideration of European- and national-level policies and reforms.

A key point is how the implementation of learning outcomes and student-centred learning - central reform goals of the Bologna Process and the EU Modernisation Agenda - has contributed to the enhancement of learning and teaching, and how, in turn, this has impacted institutional strategies and structures that support learning and teaching.

Methodology

In 2017, EUA invited higher education institutions in 48 European countries to respond to an online survey. Responses came from 303 institutions from 43 higher education systems. Universities made up the largest group of the sample, which also comprised technical and specialised universities, universities of applied sciences (university colleges), music and art colleges, and open universities. The survey was supplemented by desk research and interviews with national experts in a selected number of countries. The only survey covering the EHEA region on the topic of learning and teaching, the Trends results also fed into the 2018 Bologna Process Implementation Report.

Main points

Chapter 1: Learning and teaching strategies

- Learning and teaching has become an institutional priority, generating dedicated strategies and structures, such as learning and teaching centres.

- Institutional strategies tend to focus on (a) international exchange and cooperation as a means for learning and teaching enhancement; (b) academic staff development; (c) other measures to improve teaching.

- National strategies, where existent, seem to give impetus and serve as a driver for institutions, although they do not stand out as the first source of inspiration for institutional learning and teaching strategies. Overall, institutions that have a learning and teaching strategy seem more influenced by university alliances at the national, regional, or international level.

- Many institutions have developed capacity for research on their own teaching through a variety of channels (faculty or department of education, learning and teaching centre as a coordination point, etc.).

Chapter 2: National steering of learning and teaching

- Seventy-eight percent of responding institutions confirm the existence of a national strategy for learning and teaching, usually as part of a broader higher education strategy. Strategies may take the shape of, or be embedded into, national "frameworks", "agendas", "action plans", or other large initiatives.

- In most systems, national steering of learning and teaching appears to be rather soft: For example, while national initiatives may require the development of learning and teaching strategies, or teaching enhancement measures, implementation is usually left to the institutions. Penalties are not very common. External quality assurance and funding are important trajectories and financial incentives and other support are reported by more than half of the Trends 2018 respondents.

- The vast majority of institutions believes that national approaches are useful. Despite, or likely because of their non-prescriptive and rather soft approach, they seem to have an impact on learning and teaching. For example, most institutions confirm that national-level initiatives helped them to develop and improve their teaching enhancement measures, though only a few countries have a proper national regulation on the issue. Generally, national measures were found to raise attention for learning and teaching, as well as improve parity of esteem between teaching and research. They provide a justification for systematic institutional change and help link national reforms to the European higher education reform processes.

- Conversely, there is quite some concern that national measures may result in more bureaucracy and restrict autonomy and academic freedom. National strategies and other initiatives, therefore, have to strike a delicate balance to ensure that top-down agenda-setting and guidance synergise with and support bottom-up initiatives.

- This also goes for funding: Additional funding streams, e.g. for dedicated excellence initiatives, could help support the institutional development process for learning and teaching, as well as signal a better parity of esteem between teaching

and research. However, this would not replace the sustainable funding resources that learning and teaching require.

Chapter 3: Study programmes

- Initially, the Bologna reforms focused on comparable degrees for mobility and cooperation. Over time, learning outcomes and student-centred learning were added. Learning and teaching have also been addressed through European instruments such as the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area and the European Qualifications Frameworks.

- While this raised pressure and contributed over the years to a steady increase in the implementation of learning outcomes, it has also left the institutions to decide how to translate them into learning and teaching practices and student-centred learning approaches.

- Three quarters of the institutions participating in Trends 2018 confirmed their use across the institution and for all study programmes. At least half of the institutions confirmed that learning outcomes have improved recognition (including for prior learning), led to revisions of course content and assessment, improved collaboration among teachers, contributed to methodological change, and raised awareness towards learning objectives among students. However, less than half of the institutions believe that they have reduced the dropout rate. Overall, responses reporting on the benefits of learning outcomes are clearly more positive than in Trends 2015.

- About one third of institutions still struggles with issues related to the implementation of learning outcomes, one third has solved them, and another third reported having never had them. Insufficient resources to support staff in implementing learning outcomes is one of the most frequently cited continuous problems (40%).

- Only 7% of institutions indicate having no measure in place to assess whether learning outcomes are implemented appropriately. The vast majority of institutions ensures adequate workloads through an interplay of mechanisms and responsibilities. This is commonly the responsibility of teachers and course coordinators, usually combined with other measures, for example a dedicated unit, and institutional and national guidelines. All but three institutions have such additional measures in place.

- As for learning outcomes, at most institutions curriculum development is perceived as a shared responsibility, involving teachers and course coordinators, and often a dedicated team or committee. The majority of institutions rely on institutional guidelines and frameworks, and sometimes on national ones. Many faculties and departments also have their own guidelines.

- While Bachelor's and Master's degrees are widely awarded today, and enjoy increasing acceptance, their implementation still causes problems that are described in the context of learning outcomes, teaching methods, and student support.

- While short-cycle programmes are important in some systems, overall, they play a minor role for the institutions in the Trends 2018 sample. A future increase in the short-cycle programme offer may depend on decisions at the system level (with an impact on the relation between higher education and vocational education) and on the institutional mission.

- By contrast, the vast majority of institutions confirmed interest and increased demand for more flexible provision of degree and non-degree education. Responses suggest a process of gradual change in the years to come towards more flexible education and digitally-supported learning.

Chapter 4: Teaching approaches, pegagogy, methodologies

- Improving teaching approaches and related processes is an area of increased priority and activity for European higher education institutions.

- Change in learning and teaching depends on the right combination of top-down guidance and structural support and bottom-up dynamism. The innovation push comes mainly from individual teachers, departments, and faculties. But institutional leadership, in particular vice-rectors and their teams, and dedicated structures, such as learning centres, have an important role to play in upscaling tested learning and teaching approaches, and making sure they become mainstream.

- Teaching should also be looked at as a collective process and responsibility. Individual teachers clearly play an important role and commonly decide what methods to use. But they also rely on collaboration and support, e.g. pedagogical coordination (for instance, between courses of the same module), teaching support staff, and student support services.

- Institutions explore a variety of active learning pedagogies, with differences regarding the speed in which they are taken up and made mainstream.

- Institutions tend to see digitally-enhanced learning as a strategic element in developing and innovating learning and teaching. Blended learning is very common, whereas the increase in online provision and online degree courses depends primarily on the mission of the institution and the type of learners it addresses.

Chapter 5: Teaching staff

- At most higher education institutions, responsibilities for teaching are shared among staff with different profiles. Depending on the system and type of institution, researchers, experts, and practitioners, as well as students, contribute to teaching, though with different levels of responsibility regarding teaching content and concepts. For example, 60% of institutions indicate that a substantial contribution comes from teaching support staff. Only 14% of institutions surveyed stated that professors take on more than half of the overall teaching load.

- An appointment at a higher education institution that includes teaching responsibilities may require four different elements: an academic degree, teaching experience, evaluation of teaching performance, and participation in teaching enhancement. However, these elements are not always necessary in all systems and institutions, and are interpreted in very different ways.

- The most common requirement is an academic degree, usually a doctorate. The vast majority of institutions confirms the need to emphasise teaching experience and teacher training as elements of doctoral education. However, the percentage of doctoral candidates who currently benefit from teacher training and experience seems to be quite low, as only 25% of the European systems take this into account. In addition, it is often not mandatory and subject to exceptions.

- Only half of the institutions have set formal requirements regarding teaching experience and the regular evaluation of teaching, and about one third requires participation in teaching enhancement (pedagogical development). However, these usually address only professors, lecturers, and associate professors, leaving out other types of staff that contribute to teaching.

- Teaching performance is commonly evaluated, but evaluation instruments are still being explored. Results from teaching performance evaluation have little or no impact on career progression. Institutions identify the lack of recognition for teaching in career progression as one of the top obstacles for improving learning and teaching.

- Teaching enhancement is often emphasised at the system level, but its actual development and implementation lies mostly with the higher education sector. Seventy-seven percent of institutions provide optional teaching enhancement courses, while 37% have made them compulsory. In addition, two thirds of institutions also encourage and support good teaching through other means, such as portfolios, self-evaluations, peer feedback, team-teaching, and research on learning and teaching.

- Most institutions confirm that international and national initiatives, supported by the government or the sector itself, as well as inter-institutional exchange and collaboration, are very useful in the development of teaching enhancement.

Looking forward

The Trends 2018 data shows that, despite the diversity among national systems and the socio-economic differences between countries in the European Higher Education Area, there are some shared development trends.

Results from this research and ongoing discussions in European policy arenas suggest that governments should support and strengthen institutional strategies and transformative processes in learning and teaching. Trends 2018 also points to the importance and value of partnerships and collaborations at all levels: within institutions, between institutions, within higher education systems, and with local, regional, and international communities engaged in learning and teaching.

Introduction

Aims and methodology

The Trends series has been published by the European University Association (EUA) and its predecessor organisations[1] since the signing of the Bologna Declaration in 1999, with Trends 2018 as the eighth edition. Since their inception, the Trends reports have shared the same purpose: Demonstrate how the European Higher Education Area and its policies, debates and recommendations are being implemented at institutions across the continent. Their aim is to contribute to the provision of reliable data on developments at Europe's universities, and to feed into the discussion on how to improve and enhance the joint work undertaken in the Bologna Process.

Of course, over the years, the number of countries involved in the Bologna Process has evolved, and the topics and areas of collaboration have changed. Throughout previous editions, the focus of Trends has shifted to include thematic reflections on how higher education institutions are responding to new developments and challenges, such as the economic crisis and demographic change highlighted in the previous edition. Trends 2015 discussed, amongst other themes, how such contextual changes lead to an adaptation of learning and teaching at European higher education institutions. Trends 2018 builds on this work by addressing some of the issues more in-depth, such as the impact of learning outcomes and student-centred learning. It also delves into new issues, such as the structures and approaches that higher education institutions develop to enhance learning and teaching.

The reason for maintaining and enhancing the focus on learning and teaching is evident: It is of continued importance for institutions and for governments. This was confirmed in the Paris Ministerial Communiqué in May 2018, as well as in ongoing discussions at policy levels. Comparable data on learning and teaching for the entire European Higher Education Area has been thus far inexistent. This is why the Trends 2018 data was fed into the respective chapters of the 2018 Bologna Process Implementation Report.

Learning and teaching is a wide field and, as the reports suggests, a quite dynamic one. For the first time, a chapter on funding has been included, while quality assurance and internationalisation, both very prominent in previous Trends reports, have taken a step back. This left more space for other traditional topics that have been growing in relevance, like the implementation of learning outcomes, as well as research on areas that are largely uncovered by existing European studies. These include the teaching approaches and pedagogy used at European higher education institutions and the overall situation of teaching staff.

1 EUA is the result of a merger in 2001 between the Association of European Universities (CRE) and the Confederation of European Union Rectors' Conferences. For further information about past Trends reports, see https://eua.eu/issues/10:bologna-process.html.

Over the past year, some results have been presented to and discussed with colleagues from universities, ministries, and higher education organisations, in various settings. Their questions, opinions, and examples from daily practice, contributed to sharpening the way some data-based trends are described in the current report. As usual in the Trends study, the data resulting from the survey to institutions at times pointed to straightforward trends and conclusions. But there were also many cases in which the data did not provide any easy-to-read conclusions – in particular concerning individual countries. It was decided nevertheless to share them – assuming that colleagues in the countries concerned may find them useful for analysis and discussion.

The Trends 2018 questionnaire

The Trends 2018 data is based on a survey conducted from March to August 2017. Both members and non-members of EUA from the 48 countries of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) were invited to participate.

The main aim of the survey was to collect comprehensive information on learning and teaching at European higher education institutions and to map national and institutional trends on the topic, in order to present a comparative review highlighting main developments, as well as common challenges in learning and teaching.

Core questions guiding the Trends 2018 research covered the following:

- How institutions view recent policy developments on learning and teaching at EHEA, European, and national levels.
- How such policies are translated into institutional strategies and practice.
- Whether recent developments in learning and teaching have influence on the design and implementation of study programmes.
- Which requirements institutions set for teaching staff in terms of pedagogical and didactic skills.
- Whether and how institutions support and enhance the teaching skills of their staff (teaching enhancement).
- How the findings of this report can inform the future priorities of institutions, national-level policies, and the Bologna Process.

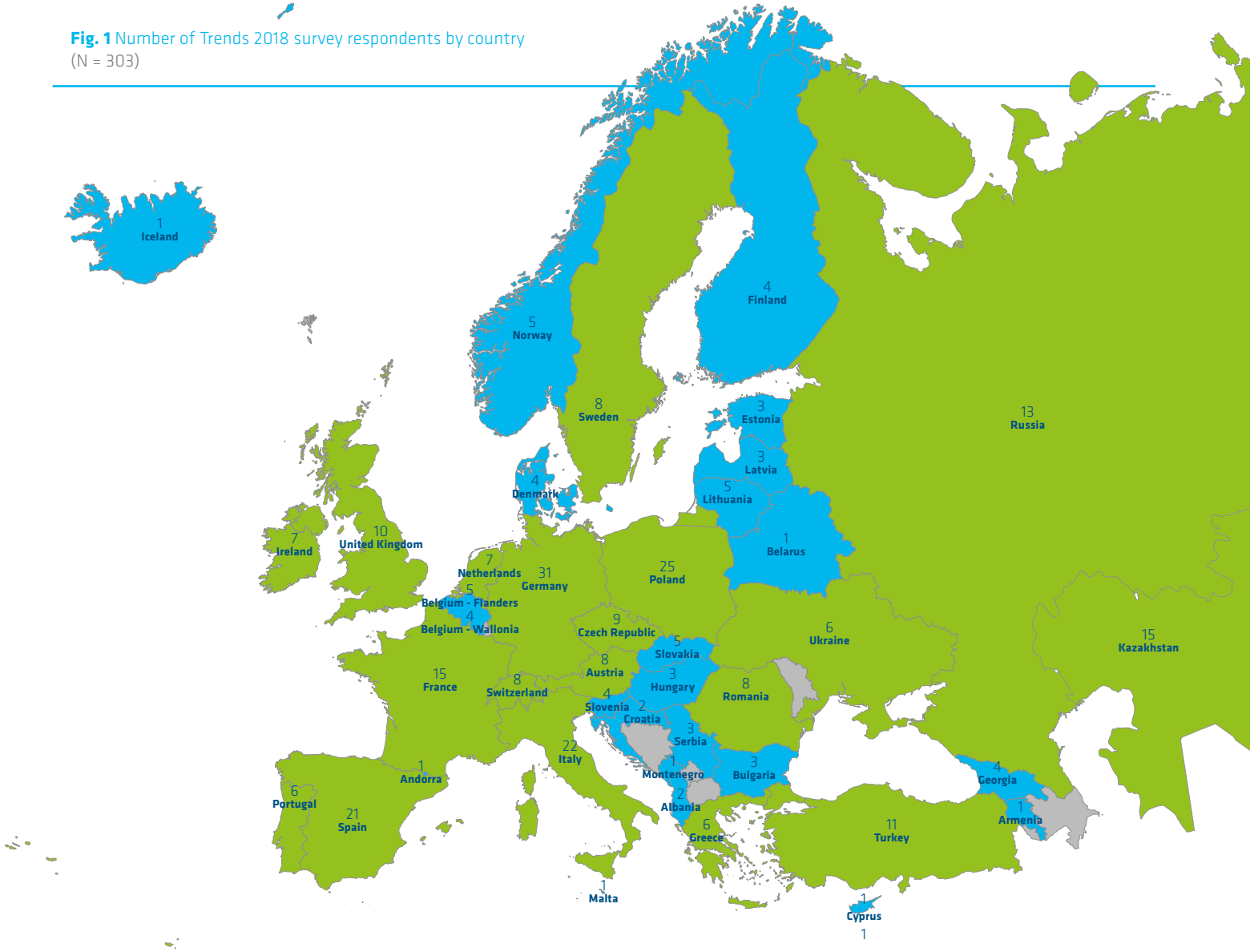
The survey sample

Forty-three higher education systems are represented in the Trends 2018 survey, with a total of 303 responding institutions. Only one response per institution, for which a senior institutional representative was asked to take responsibility, was collected. Countries with the most respondents included Germany (31 institutions), Poland (25), Italy (22), Spain (21), France (15), Kazakhstan (15), and Russia (13).

In the analysis of responses, only countries with six or more participating institutions were considered for the country breakdowns, i.e. when data from the overall sample is compared to aggregate national results, resulting in country specific data for a total of 19 higher education systems (Fig. 1).[2]

2 It was decided to disregard the devolved nature of some systems (Germany, Spain, and the UK), as this would have made the analysis too complex, with too small samples.

Fig. 1 Number of Trends 2018 survey respondents by country
(N = 303)



Country differences were further analysed and are cited in the report when they varied by more than 20% of the average response for the full sample.

In addition, the size of the institution in terms of the number of students enrolled at the time of data collection was considered during the analysis. Table 1 depicts (as in Trends 2015) that the size of the participating institutions was quite equally distributed across the sample, with a slightly higher representation of very small (up to 7 499 students enrolled) and very large (more than 25 000 students enrolled) institutions.

While the majority of the responses was collected from universities (63%), a diverse range of other institutional types also participated in the Trends 2018 survey: 13% of participants were from specialized universities, 9% from art and music colleges, 7% from technical universities,

Table 1 Size of the participating institutions in terms of number of students enrolled at the time of data collection (2015 N= 451; 2018 N= 303)

Number of students enrolled	Trends 2015	Trends 2018
very small (1 to 7 499 students)	23%	28%
small (7 500 to 14 999 students)	24%	22%
medium (15 000 to 24 999 students)	22%	21%
large (25 000 or more students)	25%	29%

7% from universities of applied sciences or colleges, and 1% from open universities.[3]

Similar to Trends 2015:

- Most institutions describe themselves as primarily serving their respective national communities (42%). It is especially the case in Greece (83%), Portugal, and Ukraine (both 67%), as well as for universities of applied sciences (81% across the entire sample).

- Seventy percent of UK and more than half of Dutch and Turkish institutions state a worldwide orientation, compared to only 23% in the overall sample. In addition, larger institutions are also slightly more likely to identify themselves as globally-oriented – 32% selected this option, compared to, for instance, 19% of the medium-sized institutions.

- Twenty-seven percent see themselves as primarily serving their region, especially in Germany (61%), Ireland (57%), Spain (43%), and Poland (40%).

The Trends 2018 sample is more "teaching" oriented: Whereas in 2015, 90% described their higher education institution as both teaching-oriented and research-based, in 2018 this was the case for only 63%. By contrast, 28% of institutions profiled themselves as more teaching-oriented compared to only 6% in Trends 2015. This comprises more than half of the institutions in the Netherlands and Turkey, and more than 40% of those in Ireland and Poland. This decrease might be at least partly due to a self-selection bias of the survey, which in its call for participation explicitly stated the focus on learning and teaching.

The size and type of institution also play a role: 54% of very small institutions indicated being teaching-oriented, compared to 15% of large institutions. Likewise, art and music colleges and universities of applied sciences are oriented towards teaching, at 81% and 62% respectively, compared to 28% of the overall sample.

The share of higher education institutions that describe themselves as more research- than teaching-oriented was relatively small at 9% (3% in 2015), with the exception of Swiss and Swedish institutions (50%) and the technical universities (27%).

3 Because of system differences, there is no consistent typology of the European higher education institutions. For the purpose of this study, the following categorisation has been used: Universities award degrees in all three cycles and are multidisciplinary (i.e. programmes in more than two subject areas/fields of science). Specialised universities award degrees in all three cycles and are specialised in a particular subject area/field of science. Art and music colleges are specialised in arts and/or music. Technical universities award degrees in all three cycles, and are specialised in technology, engineering, and natural sciences. Universities of applies sciences, or university colleges, offer more professional-oriented studies, usually at the first and second degree cycle only. Open universities offer mainly distance learning study, granting access to students without the formal entry requirements requested by conventional universities (i.e. upper secondary school certificate, academic degree).

Learning and teaching strategies

1

Main points

- Learning and teaching has become an institutional priority, generating dedicated strategies and structures, such as learning and teaching centres.
- Institutional strategies tend to focus on (a) international exchange and cooperation as a means for learning and teaching enhancement; (b) academic staff development; (c) other measures to improve teaching.
- National strategies, where existent, seem to give impetus and serve as a driver for institutions, although they do not stand out as the first source of inspiration for institutional learning and teaching strategies. Overall, institutions that have a learning and teaching strategy seem more influenced by university alliances at the national, regional, or international level.
- Many institutions have developed capacity for research on their own teaching, through a variety of channels (faculty or department of education, learning and teaching centre as a coordination point, etc.).

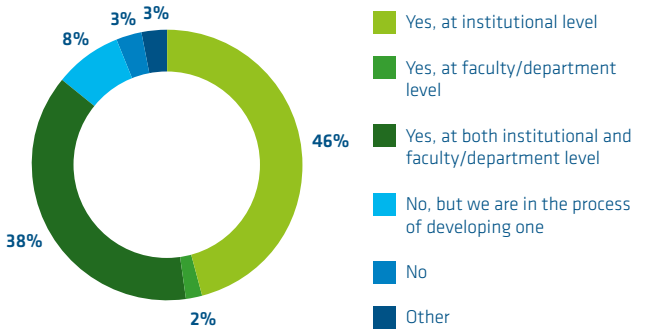
1.1. Institutional strategies

In Trends 2015, 94% of respondents agreed with the statement that there is a growing recognition of the importance of teaching (Trends 2015, p. 80). Trends 2018 confirmed this, as 92% of respondents agreed that their "institution is putting more emphasis on learning and teaching than in the past."[4] In Austria, Greece, Italy, Kazakhstan, Switzerland, Spain, and the UK, all institutions (100%) agreed with this statement. In the other countries, it may be the case that institutions either paid less attention to learning and teaching, or, on the contrary, that they have already been working on these matters for some time, and do not consider them as a new priority.

Eighty-six percent of the surveyed institutions have an institutional strategy or policy for learning and teaching, mostly at the central level (46%), or at both the central and faculty level (38%).[5] This confirms that learning and teaching stands as a priority. Overall, only 3% of institutions indicated that they have no learning and teaching strategy in place, and do not plan to develop one.

4 Trends 2018, Q. 18, with 55% fully agreeing with the statement and 37% agreeing to some extent.
5 Trends 2018, Q. 9. In the context of the survey, "strategy" is defined as [an] "overarching public document that outlines the major directions to be followed in a certain area of policy making, in an effort to achieve successfully an overall goal or objective. It provides a framework for measures and actions" (see Annex 1, glossary).

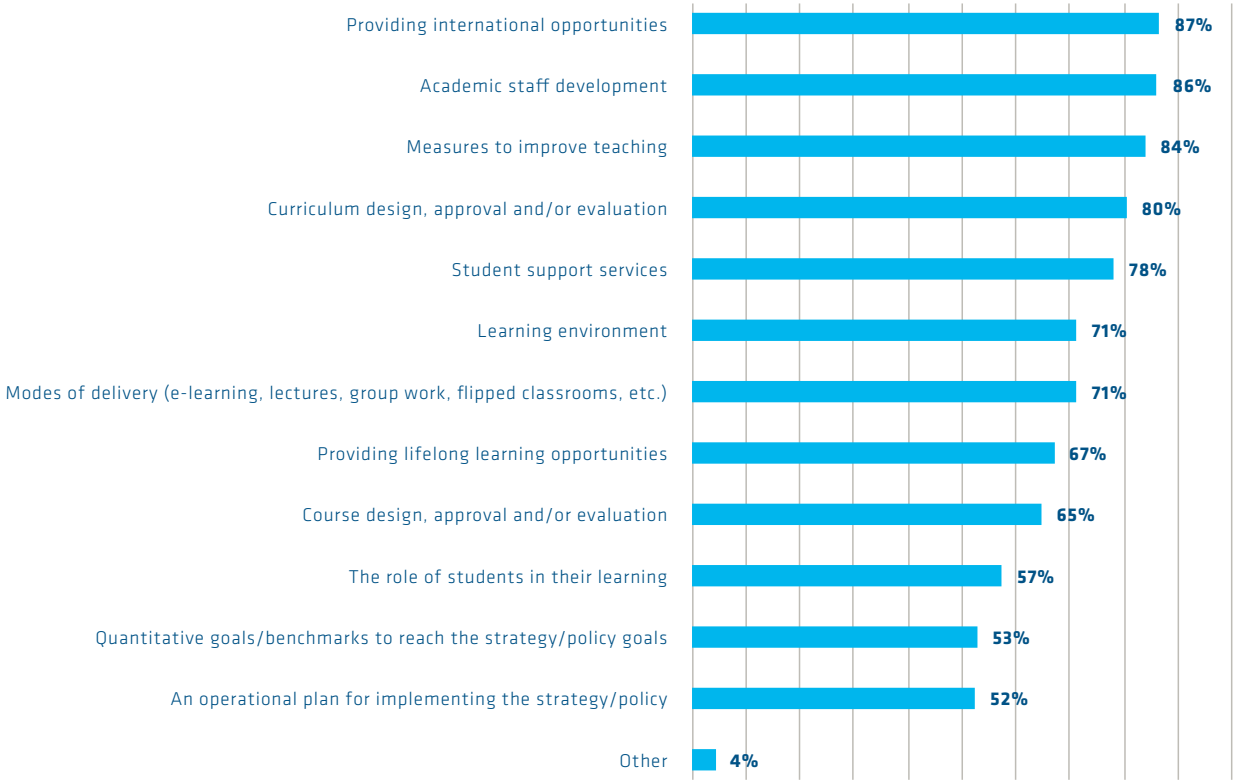
Fig. 2 Institutional learning and teaching strategy or policy
Does your institution have a learning and teaching strategy or policy? (Q. 9; N = 303)



The size of the institution seems to matter, as 95% of medium-sized institutions have a learning and teaching strategy or policy (at the institutional or faculty level, or both). This is 10% higher than at large or small institutions (see Table 1 for definitions of size). There are also differences between countries. In France, Greece, Ireland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Switzerland, Turkey, and Ukraine, all institutions (100%) answered that they have a strategy, either at the institutional or departmental level, or both. While institutional strategies appear as the most common in France (73%) and the United Kingdom (70%), in Ireland (71%), Greece (67%), and Russia (77%), it is a combination of institutional- and faculty-level strategies.

The top three elements included in the institutional learning and teaching strategies and policies are academic staff development (86% of respondents who have a strategy/policy), providing international opportunities (87%), and measures to improve teaching (84%). More than two thirds of institutional strategies also include the design, approval, and evaluation of curricula (80%), student support services (78%), the learning environment (71%), modes of delivery (e-learning, lectures, group work, flipped classrooms, etc. - 71%), and providing lifelong learning opportunities (67%).

Fig. 3 Elements included in the institutional learning and teaching strategy or policy
What elements does your institutional learning and teaching strategy/policy address or include? (Q. 9.1; N = 260)



Interestingly, only 57% of institutions mentioned "the role of students in their learning" as part of their institutional strategy or policy, whilst elements directly related to the student learning process, such as "student support services" or the "learning environment", are more frequently mentioned. It should be noted that for some institutions, the "learning environment" is first and foremost a matter of space and facilities dedicated to enabling the student learning process, whereas for others, especially in Anglo-Saxon countries where the student experience has been part of key performance indicators for years, it would also encompass student support services, academic advice and counselling, as well as tutoring.

Only 53% of institutions with a strategy or policy mentioned having quantitative goals or benchmarks in their implementation process.

Within national higher education systems, there is a certain convergence of what strategies comprise. In some countries, all institutions answered the same way or selected the same options (see Table 2).

Table 2 Elements of institutional strategies in learning and teaching – national convergences
(100% of all institutions with a national strategy)

	Austria	Czech Republic	Greece	Portugal
Improving teaching	x		x	x
Academic staff development	x		x	x
Learning environment	x		x	x
Curriculum design	x	x		
Approval and evaluation of study programmes	x			
Role of students in their learning			x	
Student support services		x	x	x
Lifelong learning opportunities		x	x	
International opportunities		x		x

One hundred ninety-five institutions submitted links to the learning and teaching section of their websites.[6] But the links gave access to institutional learning and teaching mission statements and strategies only in 64 cases; the strategies are obviously not always published and shared with a wider public.

In analysing these 64 cases, there is frequent use of the words "excellence in teaching", "excellent education", "top level", "outstanding", "world-class", "first-class", or "high-quality teaching", which shows institutional ambition and pressure to compete. The analysis also brought some convergence on content points, as nearly all referred to:

- research-inspired, research-based, or research-led teaching, as a general way to emphasise the importance of strengthening the link between research and teaching.

6 Trends 2018, Q. 10.

- quality assurance (QA) and quality management, with a general statement on quality teaching, the development of an internal QA system as a strategic goal for learning and teaching, concrete indicators and the accreditation awarded to study programmes. This is not surprising considering the adoption of the European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ESG, 2005), a common framework set for the European Higher Education Area, which has been translated into national legislation, and has served as the main reference tool for QA agencies and higher education institutions.[7]

- the place of graduates in society, with regard to values, skills, and competences resulting from the study experience, and as a consideration for curriculum development. About half of the strategies referred in more detail to graduate employability, careers, or the relation with industry and the world of work in general.

The most frequently mentioned areas of activity in the strategies were:

- innovation and improvement of teaching processes, teaching enhancement (pedagogical development), and better recognition and promotion of teaching.

- the importance of international experiences in developing and enhancing learning and teaching, with mobility opportunities for students and staff, international collaboration with other universities, measures for "internationalisation at home" such as recruiting international staff and students, improvements to the education offer in English, and generally, consideration for international trends in learning and teaching, such as active and student-centred learning, and full implementation of the Bologna reforms in the framework of the European Higher Education Area.

Institutions were also asked to give one example of a measure undertaken to innovate learning and teaching. The examples provided very much confirm these elements. They focus on academic staff development (initial teacher training, continued professional development), international opportunities (mobility periods for students and staff), and other measures to improve teaching (teaching prizes or excellence awards, earmarked institutional funds for learning and teaching innovation, and the creation of learning and teaching centres).

This suggests that strategic priorities have been underpinned by concrete and identifiable actions at the institution and contribute to enhancing learning and teaching in various directions and through various means, ranging from raising awareness towards staff training and investing in infrastructure, to developing QA approaches.

It is also important to understand that the institutional strategies are not developed in isolation, but seem to draw upon external exchange and collaboration:

- Fifty-nine percent of institutions with a learning and teaching strategy were inspired or influenced by national and regional university alliances, such as rectors' conferences or university clusters. This is particularly the case in Portugal (100%), Ireland (86%), Romania (86%), the Czech Republic (83%), the Netherlands (83%), Ukraine (83%), and Turkey (82%).

- For 48% of institutions, international university alliances are also a source of inspiration, and this is the case for all Portuguese and Ukrainian institutions.

7 In 2010, an EUA study found that internal QA processes most commonly cover learning and teaching activities, "which is quite understandable, as the creation of the European Higher Education Area – and the ESGs as an integral part of it – has focussed on this part of HEIs' mission. Thus, 98.2% of the respondents to our survey answered that their quality assurance processes cover teaching and learning […]" (Loukkola, L., and Zhang, T., 2010, p. 19.)

- Professional associations or bodies inspired 37% of institutional strategies, predominantly in Ireland (86%), Greece (67%), Kazakhstan and Turkey (64%) – which may be a characteristic of the higher education system, or relate to the mission and profile of the institutions, and the disciplines they offer.

- Interestingly, with some notable country exceptions, the contribution of national authorities scores slightly lower (42%) than that received from the sector.

Overall, this confirms the general importance of exchange and collaboration on learning and teaching, and of the added value that European and international partners can bring to institutional and national reform initiatives.

1.2. Implementing strategies: the role of learning and teaching centres

Dedicated strategies and generally increased attention likely have an impact on the structural support that the institutions provide to learning and teaching. The Trends 2018 survey results show that:

- sixty-five percent of higher education institutions have a dedicated learning and teaching centre or unit for the entire institution – of which 19% also have one at the faculty or departmental level.

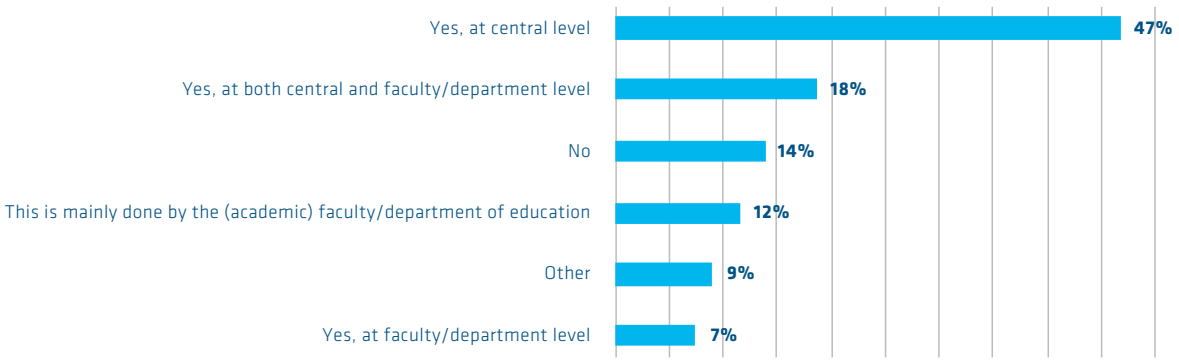
- all surveyed institutions in Switzerland, Sweden, Ukraine, and the UK indicated having such a unit or centre.

- only a small number of institutions have centres only at the faculty or departmental level (7%) – which leaves it open as to whether every faculty or department has such a centre, and whether and how they coordinate and cooperate.

- at 12% of institutions, the faculty or department of education supports learning and teaching development for the institution. This approach is the case at most institutions in Romania (63%), and still relatively common in Austria, the Czech Republic, Russia, and Turkey (about one quarter).

- overall, only 14% of institutions have not established a central or decentralised structure, nor has their faculty or department of education taken charge. This is especially the case for 50% of the Italian and about a quarter of the Czech and French institutions.

Fig. 4 Unit or centre for higher education teaching development
At your institution, is there a unit or a centre for higher education teaching development? (Q. 12; N = 303)



Apart from the fact that such structures exist, how are they organised, how do they relate to the strategies, and what are their tasks and their impact?

There is a strong correlation between institutional learning and teaching strategies and the existence of units or centres for learning and teaching: 89% of higher education institutions with a centre at the institutional level also have a learning and teaching strategy. Institutions that stated academic staff development as a goal in their institutional strategy also often have such a centre (85%). This suggests that institutional strategies and learning and teaching centres are mutually supportive, and that the centres (and similar structures) are an important resource for strategy dissemination and implementation, as well as possibly for their further development. The centres can support and link individuals, and initiatives of faculties and departments, as well as contribute to the development of dynamic institutional learning and teaching communities.

Regarding tasks, academic staff development courses and materials are the most commonly referred to (65%), followed by providing consultation and advice on improving teaching (62%), and support for innovative teaching initiatives (54%). In addition, many centres contribute to the analysis of student and teacher evaluations (45%), conduct research on learning and teaching (39%), facilitate exchange and collaboration among teachers on pedagogical practices (36%),[8] organise teaching prizes (31%) and support personalised staff development.[9]

Table 3 Role and function of the unit/centre for teaching development
What is the [unit for higher education teaching development's] role and function? (Q. 12.1; N = 254)

Offering academic staff development courses and material	65%
Providing consultations and advice to academic staff on improving teaching	62%
Supporting innovative teaching initiatives (through advice, financial incentives, logistical support, etc.)	54%
Analysing student feedback/performance and/or results of teachers' evaluations	45%
Conducting research in higher education pedagogy and didactics	39%
Organising teaching awards/prizes	31%
Developing and/or implementing personalised staff development plans	24%
Other	9%

Institutions with a learning and teaching centre generally also sustain a systematic effort to recognise good teaching through measures such as supporting innovative teaching initiatives with advice, financial incentives or logistical support (84%), developing and/or implementing personalised staff development plans (83%), providing consultations and advice to academic staff on improving teaching (79%), or conducting research in higher education pedagogy and didactics (76%).

There seems to be considerable convergence regarding the tasks of these centres throughout the European Higher Education Area: Only 9% of institutions added "other" activities that were not proposed in the questionnaire (see Table 3).

8 Chapter 4 will further examine if and how teaching is structured as a collective responsibility at institutions.
9 Institutions that do not have a centre but rely on their faculty or department of education are similarly likely to provide optional staff development courses (64%). Chapter 5 on teaching staff will further analyse how these learning and teaching centres impact teaching enhancement and continued professional development.

But there are variations between the role of these centres in different countries:

- All institutions in Switzerland, Sweden, and the UK, but only 25% in Romania, offer staff development courses and material.
- All institutions in the Netherlands, Sweden, and the UK provide consultations and advice to academic staff on improving teaching, but only a quarter of institutions in Greece and Romania do so.
- Almost all institutions in Greece, Spain, and Switzerland indicate that they support innovative teaching initiatives, whereas around a quarter or less do in Italy, Kazakhstan, Romania, and Sweden do so.
- All Irish institutions conduct research on higher education pedagogy and didactics – but none of the Turkish institutions do.
- At 90% of UK and 83% of Irish institutions, learning and teaching centres organise teaching awards or prizes. Only one of the learning and teaching centres in French, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, and Turkish institutions, organise such prizes, and none of the Romanian centres do.

Different governance structures, levels of institutional and faculty autonomy, academic traditions and demands, due to diverse national and international pressures, could explain the variations between systems in designing and operating these structures. Moreover, although tasks and roles of support structures converge across Europe, there are undoubtedly diverse cultures for intra-institutional communication and collaboration. On the one hand, centralised centres may encounter difficulties in building relations with all parts of the institution, and somewhat fail in supporting individual teachers. On the other hand, with faculty and department-based initiatives only, the institution may forego inspirational exchanges and important lessons learnt that cross-disciplinary dialogue and cooperation could bring, and invest more resources for less outcome.

While their roles, functions, and place within the institution may differ, the findings clearly indicate that learning and teaching centres are emerging across Europe and are growing in importance for the development of learning and teaching missions. Further research on learning and teaching centres, and the facilitation of exchange and collaboration between them, would be a clear direction for national and European actors to take.

1.3. Institutional research and data on learning and teaching

Trends 2015 found that "the institutional research function is developing quickly, partly as a response to multiple requests for institutional data, including for quality assurance and ranking purposes" and would assist "the university leadership and the academic staff in finding targeted ways of serving students and ensuring their success" (Trends 2015, p. 92).[10]

The Trends 2018 survey went a step further and enquired about how higher education institutions conduct research specifically on their own learning and teaching, and how they use the results. Overall, 67% of Trends respondents reported systematic research on learning and teaching (Q. 38), 6% planned to introduce it, and only 10% indicated to have none, and no plans to start it (see Table 4).

10 "Institutional research" refers to "collecting and analysing institutional data. This function, which is usually managed by statisticians, can be located in the quality unit, the planning unit, or be identified as a discrete entity."

Table 4 Research on higher education learning and teaching
Does your institution conduct research on higher education learning and teaching? (Q. 42; N = 285)

At the (academic) Faculty/Department of Education	50%
There are initiatives from different parts of the institution	38%
There is a structure (such as a learning/teaching lab or centre) coordinating this research	27%
We do it on the basis of learning analytics	13%
No	10%
No, but we are planning to do it	6%
Other	4%

Research is usually conducted at different levels and by different entities. At 27% of institutions that conduct such research, the learning and teaching centre coordinates it – which is very common in Ireland (71%). At half of institutions, the faculty or department of education conducts such research, either alone, or in collaboration with the learning and teaching centre (25% of them), or with other initiatives from different parts of the institution (45% of them).

Learning analytics as a means to enhance and innovate learning and teaching are still in their early stages in Europe (ET 2020 Working Group on Digital Skills and Competences, 2016, p. 2), compared to the US and Australia. This is confirmed by the first results from the SHEILA Project.[11] In the Trends 2018 survey, only 13% of institutions indicate using them, but around 40% of the Irish and Russian institutions do. There will likely be an increase in the coming years, as some countries, such as Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, and the UK, are reported to be working on national approaches to support learning analytics (*ibidem*).

An earlier study on tracking students and graduates (Gaebel *e.a.*, 2012, pp. 12 and 52) pointed out that data is frequently gathered, but not really used and followed up. In the Trends 2018 survey, about half of the institutions that carry out research on their learning and teaching stated that results are used to inform institutional and faculty leadership and are shared with the respective departments involved in the research. These results also feed into staff development and training courses (36%), are made accessible to all staff and students (34%), and inform internal QA (33%). Additional studies would be needed to clarify the actual impact of such research.

11 In 2016-2017, the project conducted a Europe-wide survey on learning analytics and encountered very low and very few positive responses. Only 21 of the 51 responding institutions had learning analytics, and only seven of them at the central level for the entire institution. But another 18 institutions intended to commence learning analytics (Tsai and Gašević, 2017).

National steering of learning and teaching

2

Main points

- Seventy-eight percent of responding institutions confirm the existence of a national strategy for learning and teaching, usually as part of a broader higher education strategy. Strategies may take the shape of, or be embedded into, national "frameworks", "agendas", "action plans", or other large initiatives.
- In most systems, national steering of learning and teaching appears to be rather soft: For example, while national initiatives may require the development of learning and teaching strategies, or teaching enhancement measures, implementation is usually left to the institutions. Penalties are not very common. External QA and funding are important trajectories and financial incentives and other support are reported by more than half of the Trends 2018 respondents.
- The vast majority of institutions believes that national approaches are useful. Despite, or likely because of their non-prescriptive and rather soft approach, they seem to have an impact on learning and teaching. For example, most institutions confirm that national-level initiatives helped them to develop and improve their teaching enhancement measures, though only a few countries have a proper national regulation on the issue. Generally, national measures were found to raise attention for learning and teaching, as well as improve parity of esteem between teaching and research. They provide a justification for systematic institutional change and help link national reforms to the European higher education reform processes.
- Conversely, there is quite some concern that national measures may result in more bureaucracy and restrict autonomy and academic freedom. National strategies and other initiatives, therefore, have to strike a delicate balance to ensure that top-down agenda setting and guidance synergise with and support bottom-up initiatives.
- This also goes for funding: Additional funding streams, e.g. for dedicated excellence initiatives, could help support the institutional development process for learning and teaching, as well as signal a better parity of esteem between teaching and research. However, this would not replace the sustainable funding resources that learning and teaching require.

It is evident that higher education institutions, as well as the responsible, usually national, authorities put emphasis on learning and teaching, given also that higher education in Europe is publicly funded to a large extent. The current chapter aims to show the means through which governments try to support and steer developments in learning and teaching.

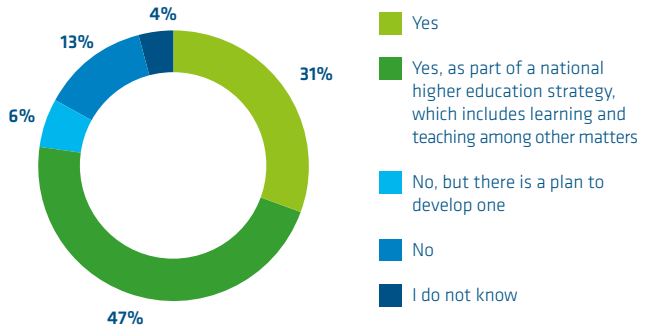
The results of the Trends questionnaire could not provide a sufficiently conclusive and detailed picture of the situation of national strategies and other steering instruments. Therefore, for this chapter, the Trends 2018 data is complemented by the work that EUA has done on funding and by a series of expert interviews (November 2017 - July 2018) on national strategies for enhancing learning and teaching, conducted under the European Forum for Enhanced Collaboration in Teaching

(EFFECT) project.[12] The interviews were conducted with national experts from Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Kazakhstan, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom.

2.1. National strategies for learning and teaching

Seventy-eight percent of respondents confirmed the existence of a national strategy for higher education learning and teaching, either as a dedicated strategy (31%) or as part of an overarching higher education strategy (47%). Only in four of these higher education systems (Kazakhstan, Russia, Turkey, and Ukraine), did all participating institutions confirm that there is such a national strategy. However, for 15 higher education systems, responses on whether such a strategy exists do not converge.

Fig. 5 National strategy for higher education learning and teaching
Is there any national strategy for higher education learning and teaching in your country/region? (Q. 8; 301)



While there might be a national strategy, it may not be implemented, launched recently, or too much time has passed for it to be well known. In other cases, it may not be identified by all institutions as a "strategy":

- Czech higher education institutions indicated alternatively the existence of a dedicated national strategy for learning and teaching, an overarching higher education strategy, or a planned strategy. As a matter of fact, there is no strategy for learning and teaching, but the Czech Republic has a "Strategic Plan for Higher Education Institutions 2016-2020".[13] In addition, the 2016 Higher Education Law obliges universities to enhance their learning and teaching missions, as part of internal QA, and in the framework of institutional accreditation.
- Half of the Swedish higher education institutions confirm a national strategy for learning and teaching, whereas 38% state that there is none. *De facto*, there is no national governmental strategy or regulation, as this competence was devolved to the higher education institutions with the 2011 autonomy reform. But the Association of Swedish Higher Education institutions (SUHF) has developed national recommendations on general learning outcomes required for academic teachers.[14] These are voluntary, but apparently Swedish higher education institutions implement them thoroughly, although quite differently from one another.

Data from the EFFECT mapping exercise confirms that stand-alone national strategies for learning and teaching are not very common. Of 27 systems considered, only five were found to have one (Austria, Ireland, Norway, Spain, and the Netherlands). In most countries, learning and teaching is addressed as part of a broader higher education strategy, alongside other issues, which may lend themselves better to governmental steering than learning and teaching does. This should also be seen in the context of different traditions for institutional autonomy and academic freedom, and the fact that the rather complex and diverse nature of education provision tends to enjoy high levels of subsidiarity, at the system level, but also within individual institutions. As a consequence, national strategies may take the shape of or appear related to a national law, a "framework", an "agenda", an "action plan", or large projects.

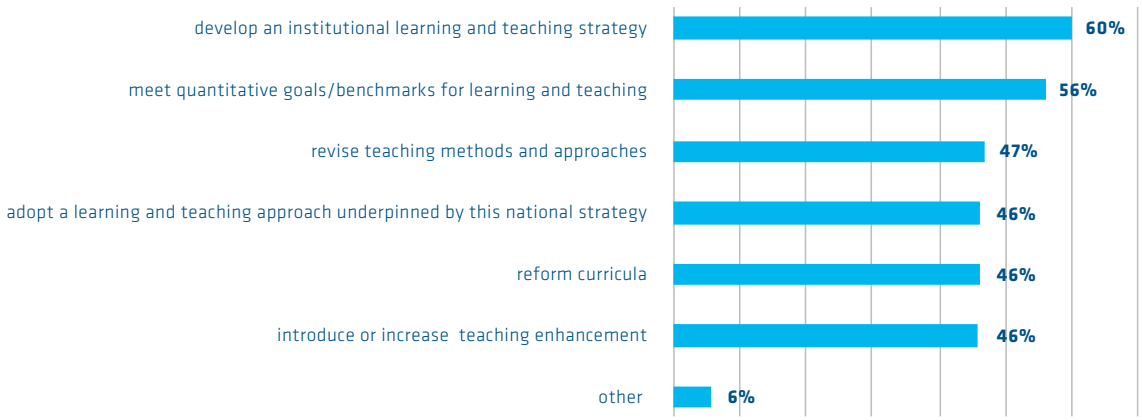
12 https://www.eua.eu/101-projects/560-effect.html.
13 http://www.msmt.cz/areas-of-work/tertiary-education/strategic-plan-for-higher-education-institutions-2016-2020?lang=2.
14 https://bit.ly/2LXcBjz

In addition, funding, and external QA may be perceived as national-level steering. For this and other reasons, not all institutions recognise the national "strategy", and responses from within one system do not always converge.

2.2. The impact of national steering

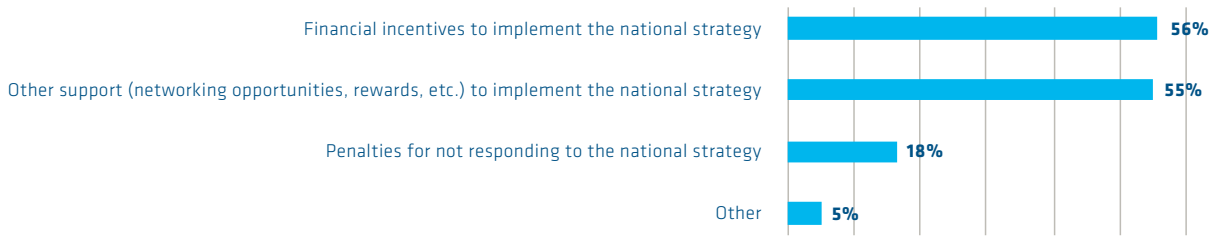
The goals in national strategies commonly comprise measures that institutions have to account for (e.g. quantitative goals and benchmarks, introduce and increase teaching enhancement), and others that are largely at the discretion of the institution and difficult to assess regarding their impact (e.g. the development of an institutional strategy, revision of teaching methods).

Fig. 6 Under the national strategy higher education institutions are expected to...
What does [the] national strategy imply? (Q. 8.1; N =234)



Only 18% of institutions, mainly in the UK and Ireland, face penalties for not implementing the national strategies. Meanwhile, more than half of the institutions stated that there are financial incentives for their implementation (56%, and particularly high in the Czech Republic and Switzerland) as well as other support, such as networking opportunities, rewards, etc. (55%, and particularly high in Germany, Romania, Switzerland, Turkey, and Ukraine).

Fig. 7 Steering through national strategies
Does [the] national strategy provide the following? (Q. 8.2; N = 234)



Overall, national approaches seem to render impact:

- Seventy-four percent (20% "fully", 54% "to some extent") stated that teaching enhancement is fostered by national-level reforms – despite the lack of a formal regulation in most countries.

- In some systems, there also seems to be a relatively strong correlation between national and institutional strategies for learning and teaching: 42% of institutions mentioned national initiatives as an inspiration for their institutional strategy (at the central and/or faculty level), including all French and 83% of Portuguese institutions. However, only 27% to 29% of Irish, Kazakh, Swedish, and Turkish institutions did so.

- Regarding the impact of recent national reforms on higher education learning and teaching, the responses give a rather mixed picture. While 54% acknowledged that recent national reforms were helpful to some extent, only 20% found them fully helpful, and 21% found them not helpful at all in enhancing learning and teaching. Again, institutions may have very different opinions, depending on their national situation. In Kazakhstan and Ukraine, all institutions found their national reforms useful (fully or to some extent).

These findings also demonstrate the rising importance of learning and teaching beyond the individual institution, and point to the potential of national, European and international sector organisations in innovating and transforming learning and teaching.

Again, there is usually no unanimity on these issues within countries, and expert interviews as well confirm the ambiguity of the national strategy promise: On the positive side, it could help raise awareness and promote better parity of esteem between teaching and research, bring financial incentives, and set the stage for long-term systematic and coordinated development processes, e.g. for teaching enhancement, within institutions and through national initiatives, as well as a better response to agreed Bologna Process reforms. On the down side, there is concern that national strategies might bring more bureaucracy, and more accountability pressure, at the expense of academic freedom and institutional autonomy.

2.3. Funding for learning and teaching

While funding models for public universities vary significantly across Europe, it is possible to distinguish between the main types of income sources and describe current trends in university funding – and how they may impact the institution's education mission and learning and teaching.[15]

The main sources of university funding are:

- direct public funding allocated by public authorities in the form of block grants – which represents on average close to three quarters of a European higher education institution's budget.

- competitive and targeted funding mechanisms used by public authorities.

- student financial contributions, such as fees.

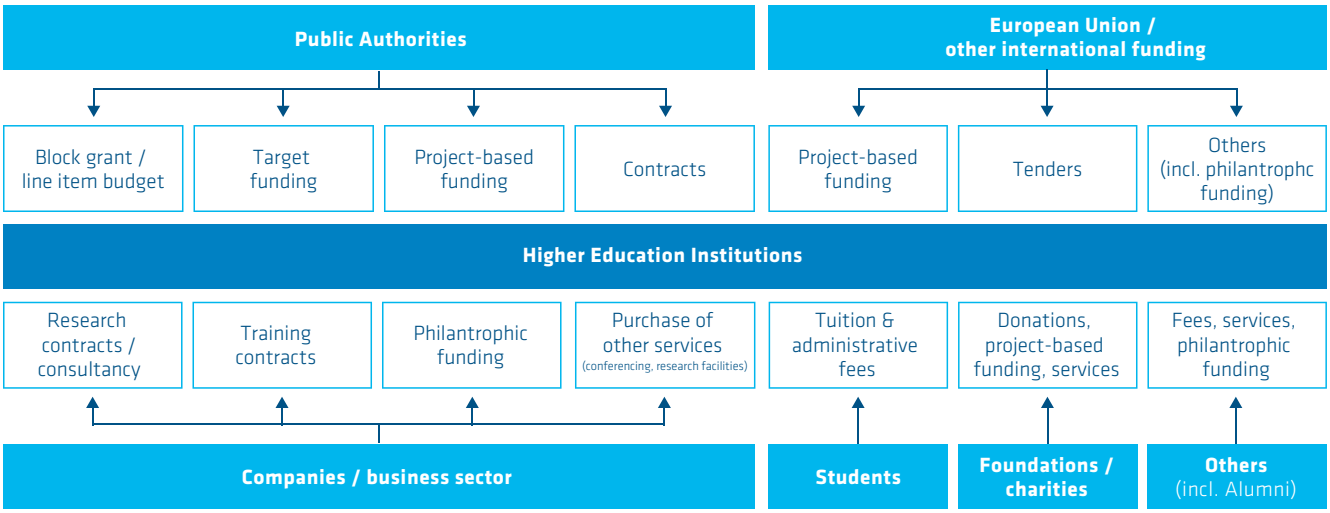
- other income from private sources, such as contractual research, fundraising, etc.

15 This chapter draws on the following EUA publications: *EUA Public Funding Observatory 2017*, website and report series (http://bit.ly/EUAPFO), *University Autonomy in Europe III: The Scorecard 2017* (Bennetot Pruvot and Estermann, 2017), *Designing strategies for efficient funding of universities in Europe* (Bennetot Pruvot, Claes-Kulik and Estermann, 2015), and *Financially sustainable universities II: European universities diversifying income streams* (Bennetot Pruvot and Estermann, 2011).

The main policy choice regarding the funding model is about the combination of public funding and tuition fees: Some systems regulate this, others leave the decision to the universities, and in a third model, no tuition fees are charged to the main student population (Bachelor and Master levels for national and EU students).[16]

Additional revenue sources may include contracts with business and industry, consultancy or philanthropic funding, and European Union and other international funding via grants and tenders (see Fig. 8). While these can be substantial, are important for strategic development, and facilitate international collaboration, they usually have a limited impact on the institution's core funding of learning and teaching.

Fig. 8 Income sources and funding modalities for universities



But on average, in Europe, direct public funding accounts for between 60 and 90% of universities' income structure, apart from England where it is lower since the system switched to indirect public funding (backing up student loans that pay tuition fees).

Various factors contribute to the change of the individual funding systems, most importantly the capacity of the public purse to invest in the sector, with effects on institutions themselves, whether in relation to student/staff ratio, (lack of) investment in infrastructure, research intensity, etc.[17]

16 Behind this simplified overview, the situations are both very diverse and subject to trends that make the overall picture a moving one. See Bennetot Pruvot and Estermann, 2017.

17 EUA's monitoring of the public funding allocated to universities since 2008 has shown diverse trajectories, including the impact of the financial crisis, with choices to (dis)invest in universities being made sometimes in contradiction with GDP trends and/or with the evolution of student numbers. For a more detailed overview, see EUA's Public Funding Observatory. This annual publication categorises, and further analyses approaches to the public funding of universities, in relation to evolving student numbers, as four groups: frontrunners, growing systems under pressure, declining systems under pressure, and systems in danger.

2.3.1. **Resourcing the learning and teaching mission: block grant funding**

In most systems in Europe, universities receive basic recurrent public funding for their core activities through a block grant covering several categories of expenditure such as teaching, ongoing operational costs and/or research.

In most systems, the block grant covers both teaching and research activities, while in some there is little to no basic funding for research. In the latter case, this is because research funding is mainly allocated on a competitive basis, indicating that not all universities always receive it (e.g. Italy, Romania).

While in principle block grant allocation gives higher education institutions the autonomy to distribute funds internally, some restrictions may still apply.

- Just over half of the systems surveyed in the EUA Autonomy Scorecard allow universities to allocate their funding internally without specific restrictions. This means that funding for learning and teaching activities cannot be directly identified at the system level, and that universities are able to make strategic decisions on funding priorities.

- Conversely, in about one third of the systems, the block grant is allocated by the public authorities and then pre-divided into broad categories such as teaching and research (Iceland, Sweden), teaching, research and infrastructure (Latvia, Lithuania), salaries and operational costs (Portugal), or investments and operational costs (France), with limited possibilities for the universities to move funds between these categories.

The methods used to determine the amount of the block grant have been evolving towards a more frequent use of funding formulas and performance contracts throughout Europe.

Funding formulas

- Funding formulas can be very diverse, both regarding the amounts distributed and the composition of the formula itself. The amount of the block grant received by the university is determined on the basis of a mathematical formula. Most formulas combine input- and output-related indicators, as well as others linked to specific policy goals, e.g. internationalisation, gender aspects, interaction with society, etc.

- Contrary to research, formulas for teaching funds are in most cases primarily input-oriented,[18] with student numbers (at the Bachelor and Master level) often playing the most important role in determining the amount of funding. The corresponding output-oriented indicators (number of Bachelor's and Master's degrees) are used less frequently and/or often have less weight in a formula. Among the countries in the Public Funding Observatory, only the Danish taximeter system is exclusively output-oriented, being largely based on the number of degrees awarded.

- In addition, doctoral degrees, international/European funding and external funding are considered the most important output-oriented criteria in funding formulas, followed by teaching-related output criteria of Bachelor's and Master's degrees and the number of credits obtained.

18 For systems that have one formula for teaching and research, the majority is primarily input-oriented.

Performance contracts

- While funding formulas always relate to past performance, performance contracts set out goals to be achieved. The goals can be specific to the university and aligned with its strategy or derive from more general higher education and research policy goals of the ministry.

- Goals may relate to issues such as the quality of the academic offer, student services, social inclusion, lifelong learning, internationalisation, interinstitutional collaboration, etc. Depending on the nature of the goals and targets, the evaluation might take place in the form of discussions between the ministry and the university or require sophisticated data collection.[19]

Funding formulas and performance agreements[20] can trigger major impacts on enrolment, teaching quality and completion:

- In systems where universities are free to decide[21] on student numbers, completion criteria linked to the number of graduates[22] provide a clear incentive to increase enrolment.

- Output indicators such as time to degree may put focus on learning outcome achievement, dropout reduction, student services and the general learning environment.

But either approach, if taken under a purely economic rationale and without consideration of the educational goals and institutional implications, could also render a negative impact:

- Pressure to graduate can result in lowering assessment criteria and deprive individual students from flexible learning paths and a full academic experience.

- Increasing enrolment could result in oversubscription of programmes and insufficient institutional resources, with a negative impact on the learning experience.

2.3.2. **Competitive funding**

In a context of constrained resources and enhanced competition between public sectors, public authorities have sought to optimise reduced investment capacity by increasingly resorting to competitive/targeted funding tools. These funds are usually attached to a project or are targeted towards the achievement of specific objectives or priorities defined by the funder.

In a framework where block grants stagnate or decrease, these competitions become highly relevant for universities as a source of income – and success rate in these competitions may even be included in the criteria of the funding formula of their block grant. While project-based competitive funding is most frequently found in research, it may also focus on learning and teaching activities or innovation and knowledge transfer.

Public authorities use targeted or earmarked funding for specific purposes, ranging from funding for infrastructures, research or teaching missions, among others. Examples are many, including the recently set-up Higher Education Access Fund in Ireland (2017), which supports regional clus-

19 For an illustration, see the case of the Netherlands in Bennetot Pruvot, Claeys-Kulik and Estermann, 2015, pp. 36-37.
20 For instance, at the Copenhagen Business School, the taximeter system on enrolment (incentive to maximise enrolment) leads to investment in ICT tools to maintain/enhance the quality of learning and teaching. This example is summarised in Bennetot Pruvot, Claes-Kulik and Estermann, 2015, p. 47.
21 According to the Autonomy Scorecard, only in seven out of 29 systems, are universities completely free to decide on student numbers (Estonia, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Norway, Sweden, and England).
22 This is different from the graduation rate, which divides the proportion of full-time students who graduate in a given timeframe by the total number of full-time students enrolled.

ters of higher education institutions in developing initiatives for improved student access to higher education. This type of funding may also be allocated directly to institutions. This is the case for the Higher Education Innovation Fund in the United Kingdom, which focuses on knowledge exchange, or the "Réussir en Licence" ("Successful completion of Bachelor's degrees") plan in France, which between 2007 and 2012 funded concrete measures aimed at improving the overall success rate in Bachelor's degrees (e.g. individual supervision, new teaching methods).

Competitive funding can stimulate quality enhancement, efficiency and innovation of learning and teaching, when used with due consideration. When coupled with reduced core funding for teaching, it can easily deviate from the institution's educational goals, endanger its financial sustainability overall, and lead to funding fragmentation.

2.3.3. **Excellence schemes**

A specific type of competitive funding is excellence schemes for the development of wider institutional strategies. For example:

- The French "IDEFI" scheme funded innovative teaching and was followed by the "New university curricula" scheme in 2016 that supports the diversification of the first-cycle academic offer.
- The "Quality Pact for Teaching" in Germany (2011-2020), aims to improve study conditions and the quality of teaching and student mentoring.
- Since 2011, the Norwegian Quality Assurance Agency, on behalf of the Ministry of Education and Research, promotes "excellence in R&D-based education" through renewable five-year grants of 400 000-800 000 euros for "Centres for Excellence in Higher Education" (SFU). Similar schemes existed in Finland and the UK, but apparently have been discontinued.

Excellence schemes are much more common in research. When they focus on education, they enable universities to carry out high-profile activities that, in turn, create high expectations and trigger the need for new equipment and personnel costs. They raise awareness on the importance of learning and teaching and may earn national and even international recognition. But as excellence schemes tend to be limited in time, and their activities targeted, they may not be the best means of driving continuous change and ensuring that the activities become mainstream. In addition, they would not make up for overall shortages in funding and resources for learning and teaching, and they may have extensive consequences on internal resource management. Their competitive and reputation-oriented nature might also restrict outcome dissemination and impact beyond the immediate beneficiaries.

2.3.4. **Tuition fees**

Tuition fees potentially represent the largest source of private income for universities, as they directly correspond to student numbers - a core component of institutions' cost structures. Control of tuition fees is usually exercised by governments, in particular for the main Bachelor-level student population, and with slightly more margin for manoeuvre at the Master level (Bennetot Pruvot and Estermann, 2017, pp. 24-27). Universities are typically granted more autonomy in setting tuition fees for international students. In general, this part of the student population is discussed differently, usually with less emphasis on the social and societal role of higher education.

Evidence collected by EUA in its work on university funding points to incremental differentiations in tuition fee policies and segmentation of the student population (full-time/part-time, national/international, in-time/late completion, socio-economic status, academic merit, etc.), rather than

major reforms in the field. The use of income-contingent loans, whereby graduates repay tuition fees once they reach a certain income level, also raises new questions regarding the cost-sharing model. Overall, there is a debate on whether tuition fees limit participation, in particular of candidates from socially disadvantaged backgrounds, or, on the contrary, if they are in demand to promote social justice or to win needs-based grants. There is also concern that paying high fees would turn students into clients, which would be the opposite of their role as active partners in the learning and teaching process – a vision promoted by student-centred learning. However, while there are alarming international examples, this is not a trend in Europe: Over the period analysed in EUA's Autonomy Scorecard,[23] the introduction of tuition fees in a small number of systems did not apply to domestic students, and several countries abolished fees altogether for the main student population (e.g., Germany, Austria).

2.3.5. **Other income streams**

Additional income may come from philanthropic funding, private sector contracts for the provision of services (consultancy, research, rental of facilities, libraries, museums, among others), and funding generated by financial activities. For the vast majority of the sector, these play a minor role in institutional budgets and certainly do not impact learning and teaching. However, they can be of key importance as a source of funding for national and international collaboration initiatives, projects, and other well-visible measures that promote developments in learning and teaching. For instance, this may include prizes for excellent or innovative teaching (such as the Ars Legendi Prize and the "Shape change" initiative of the Stifterverband in Germany), and initiatives to reward the broader institutional change management process, or supporting the inclusion of refugees through education and training. Other sources of philanthropic income include the business sector, as well as fundraising by alumni and individuals. Such fundraising often supports higher education institutions' teaching activities.

Similarly important is the impact of European funding (European Structural and Investment Funds, the EU Framework Programme for Research and Innovation (Horizon 2020), and the Erasmus+ Programme for Education, Training, Youth and Sport), though it represents less than 4% of universities' income structure (Bennetot Pruvot and Estermann, 2011, p. 36). In a few exceptional cases, usually relating to research, this can represent up to 20% (under the European Structural and Investment Funds).

Service-related income typically accounts for less than 5% of a European university's income structure and covers the management of conference facilities, the commercialisation of research results, or the provision of continuing and professional education, among others. The 2016 U-Multirank analysis shows that continuing professional development remains a marginal funding source for most universities, with only 5% of the surveyed institutions receiving more than 10% of their income for it.[24] These services are essentially paid for by employers and the individuals engaged in these courses.

While competitive funding schemes exist and can contribute to reinforcing investment in learning and teaching, this essential mission of universities must be financed through core public funding. This is of particular relevance considering that the lack of funding was cited by Trends 2018 respondents as the top obstacle for improving learning and teaching.[25] The funding mechanisms should be designed in a way that supports the strategic profiling of institutions in their

23 https://www.university-autonomy.eu/

24 U-Multirank, *Measures that matter: understanding income from continuing professional development*, 21 April 2016, http://www.umultirank.org/cms/2016/04/measures-that-matter-understanding-income-from-continuing-professional-development/ (accessed 20/072018).

25 Trends 2018 Q. 17. Aggregated positive answers, with 47% of institutions defining it as the most important obstacle, 16% as a very important one, and 10% as an important one.

learning and teaching activities. Attention must be given to the development of useful instruments that create relevant incentives, adapted to the specificities of the education mission. In this regard, further efforts at the national level to give value to investment in the education mission of institutions may contribute to better articulating national strategies for learning and teaching, and institutional strategies and endeavours. The overall funding environment of universities must be considered when addressing these questions. The complexity of higher education systems and the diversity of funding allocation mechanisms make a conclusive assessment and country comparison on the impacts on learning and teaching rather difficult. But given the high amounts of public funding that support learning and teaching, better data could help to inform more detailed analysis and exchange of expertise at the European level.

Study programmes

3

Main points

- Initially, the Bologna reforms focused on comparable degrees for mobility and cooperation. Over time, learning outcomes and student-centred learning were added. Learning and teaching have also been addressed through European instruments such as the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG) and the European Qualifications Frameworks (EQF).
- While this raised pressure and contributed over the years to a steady increase in the implementation of learning outcomes, it has also left the institutions to decide how to translate them at the into learning and teaching practices and student-centred learning approaches.
- Three quarters of the institutions participating in Trends 2018 confirmed the use of learning outcomes across the institution and for all study programmes. At least half of the institutions confirmed that learning outcomes have improved recognition (including for prior learning), led to revisions of course content and assessment, improved collaboration among teachers, contributed to methodological change, and raised awareness towards learning objectives among students. However, less than half of the institutions believe that they have reduced the dropout rate. Overall, responses reporting on the benefits of learning outcomes are clearly more positive than in Trends 2015.
- About one third of institutions still struggles with issues related to the implementation of learning outcomes, one third has solved them, and another third reported having never had them. Insufficient resources to support staff in implementing learning outcomes is one of the most frequently cited continuous problems (40%).
- Only 7% of institutions indicate having no measures in place to assess whether learning outcomes are implemented appropriately. The vast majority of institutions ensures adequate workloads through an interplay of mechanisms and responsibilities. This is commonly the responsibility of teachers and course coordinators, usually combined with other measures, for example a dedicated unit, and institutional and national guidelines. All but three institutions have such additional measures in place.
- As for learning outcomes, at most institutions curriculum development is perceived as a shared responsibility, involving teachers and course coordinators, and often a dedicated team or committee. The majority of institutions rely on institutional guidelines and frameworks, and sometimes on national ones. Many faculties and departments also have their own guidelines.
- While Bachelor's and Master's degrees are widely awarded today, and enjoy increasing acceptance, their implementation still causes problems that are described in the context of learning outcomes, teaching methods, and student support.
- While short-cycle programmes are important in some systems, overall, they play a minor role for the institutions in the Trends 2018 sample. A future increase in the short-cycle programme offer may depend on decisions at the system level (with an impact on the relation between higher education and vocational education) and on the institutional mission.
- By contrast, the vast majority of institutions confirmed interest and increased demand for more flexible provision of degree and non-degree education. Responses suggest a process of gradual change in the years to come towards more flexible education and digitally-supported learning.

As the introduction of the Bachelor and Master cycles took place at the beginning of the Bologna Process, their implementation has been one of the indicators of the success of the Bologna reforms, and of the process itself. This chapter will address how these reforms have also promoted the use of learning outcomes and, beyond the structural conversion of longer degrees into two shorter cycles, contributed to a genuine reform of study programmes and curriculum development. It will also look at the short cycle, which has been a priority of recent Bologna work programmes, and at the general trend towards the flexibilisation of the learning offer and lifelong learning.

3.1. From comparable degrees to curricula reform

Comparable degrees were, from the very beginning, a declared goal of the Bologna Process. They were also seen as an important prerequisite and means for achieving recognition, mobility, and further collaboration between universities. In the first phase of the process, in many systems, respective national reforms resulted in the division of long degree programmes into shorter cycles, often with some notable deficiencies, some of which still endure: The Bachelor's degree was not recognised as an employable degree and there was insufficient complementarity and articulation between Bachelor and Master programmes with regard to study content and learning outcomes. During this phase, at least at the Bologna Process level, this was not related to pedagogics or learning. Apart from its appearance in combination with "lifelong", "prior", and "language", the word "learning" is hardly ever present in the early Bologna documents, and neither is "teaching". The only reference in the Sorbonne Declaration is on "a framework for teaching and learning, which would enhance mobility and an ever-closer cooperation." The Bologna Declaration does not mention learning and teaching, but refers to "curricular development, interinstitutional co-operation, mobility schemes and integrated programmes of study, training and research." The use of "study" seems to suggest an affirmation of the then existing approaches towards learning and teaching. This may mean that the Bologna Process, in its early stages, did not intend to change the way students learned, or how they were taught.

This started to change with the arrival of learning outcomes, which first appeared in the Berlin Communiqué (2003). Again, the intention was not to change learning and teaching, but to achieve comparable degrees, also in view to the still-to-be-developed Qualifications Framework of the European Higher Education Area (QF-EHEA). In this respect, learning outcomes are mentioned in the Dublin Descriptors and also in the QF-EHEA, both developed between 2003 and 2005.[26] In about the same period, they were also explored and promoted through three European initiatives: in the pan-European Tuning Project, which through a bottom-up approach sought ways to adapt curricula based on learning outcomes and competences; in the 2004 European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) User Guide; and in the 2005 Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESGs). The ESGs clearly state that quality assurance has to include the "development and publication of explicitly intended learning outcomes," and point to the need of considering them in student assessment procedures and in public information about the study programmes. This was of course a strong driver in the implementation of learning outcomes at the institutional level, but also in generally enhancing knowledge and awareness about them in the higher education sector.

In the London Communiqué (2007), learning outcomes appeared in connection with student-centred learning and, hence, for the first time, pointed to purposes other than comparable degrees. In about the same period, the European Union Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning (EQF, 2007-2008), was developed, putting a strong emphasis on learning outcomes, skills and competences.

26 http://www.ehea.info/media.ehea.info/file/WG_Frameworks_qualification/85/2/Framework_qualificationsforEHEA-May2005_587852.pdf.

Stephen Adam, an expert closely involved in both the Bologna Process and the development of the EQF, welcomed learning outcomes as the "fundamental building block of the Bologna educational reforms." But he also pointed to the related challenges: "The problem is that their acknowledged importance stands in stark contrast to the poor level of understanding associated with them and their relatively rare practical implementation, at least in any explicit manner, across Europe" (Adam, 2007).

This is, looking at it today, actually not very surprising: Learning outcomes and student-centred learning were of course not an invention of the Bologna Process, nor of the EU, rather they had already existed for several decades. As mentioned, governments saw them mainly as a tool for degree harmonisation and a catalyst for mobility, as well as increasingly as means of accountability, and an indicator for reform success: Once the learning outcomes had been implemented, the reform process would have been achieved. But they were not really emphasised or explored as the pedagogical concepts that they were originally meant to be.

In addition, they were not commonly used in European higher education at the time, and not even known to many academics, unless they were educationalists. But as they rapidly became one of the main goals of pan-European governmental reform (EU and Bologna), enshrined in European and emerging national qualifications frameworks and QA processes, higher education institutions could not avoid working with them. They had to face the implications that learning outcomes and student-centred learning have when properly (not just *pro-forma*) implemented. They also had to design approaches for writing and assessing learning outcomes, as well as translate into the educational practice what student-centred learning actually means.

At many institutions, attention towards pedagogical change and innovation has increased. In turn, these developments, with their failures, short-comings, and successes, may have contributed to the growing attention to learning and teaching in the Bologna Process, as highlighted in the Yerevan Communiqué (2015) and the Paris Communiqué (2018). The revised 2015 ESGs state: "Since 2005, considerable progress has been made in quality assurance as well as in other Bologna action lines such as qualifications frameworks, recognition and the promotion of the use of learning outcomes, all these contributing to a paradigm shift towards student-centred learning and teaching." Compared to the 2005 ESGs, the emphasis on learning outcomes has increased and become prominent, as they are not only in the guidelines, but also in one of the standards (1.2): "Institutions should have processes for the design and approval of their programmes. The programmes should be designed so that they meet the objectives set for them, including the intended learning outcomes."

3.2. Degrees based on learning outcomes and student-centred learning

As both the 2015 and 2018 Bologna Process Implementation Reports (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2015, pp. 48-66; Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, pp. 93-100) indicated that in most countries, the three-cycle system has been implemented, though not fully or for all programmes, the goal of the three-cycle system took on a new significance: It was no longer only about mobility – which in 2009 began to be referred to as "learning mobility" – but about how the reform would impact curricula and learning and teaching. In this regard, learning outcomes, along with student-centred learning, became an important, though in some respects, problematic indicator. The 2015 Bologna Process Implementation Report describes this development as follows (pp. 72-73):

"Implementation of ECTS, student-centred learning, qualifications frameworks, internal quality assurance within higher education institutions and other important action lines all depend on successful implementation of learning outcomes. However, it should be kept in mind that the above action lines take more time to implement properly than introducing structural changes. The precondition for the proper introduction of learning outcomes and assessment processes is a change of paradigm from teacher to student-centred learning. Steering and encouraging the use of learning outcomes in curriculum development has substantially grown. It is stipulated in legislation in 32 higher education systems while 14 encourage learning outcomes through guidelines or recommendations. [...] Compared to previous years, seven more countries encourage the use of learning outcomes through laws or steering documents. This shows that the importance of learning outcomes in programme development has grown. [...]."

And it concludes that "the use of learning outcomes in student assessment, however, reveals room for development" and that "the importance of using learning outcomes in student assessment procedures is less widespread and has not yet been fully understood."

Fig. 9 Learning outcomes for all courses since 2010
Percentages of institutions that have developed learning outcomes for all courses – progression since 2010 (Trends 2010, Q. 19; Trends 2015, Q. 36; Trends 2018, Q. 22, N = 295)

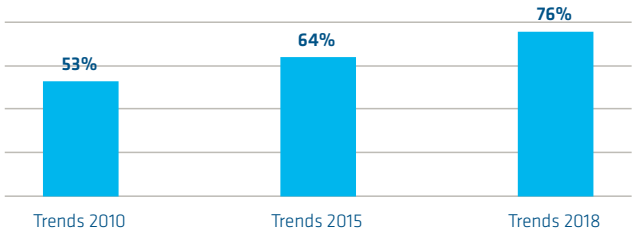
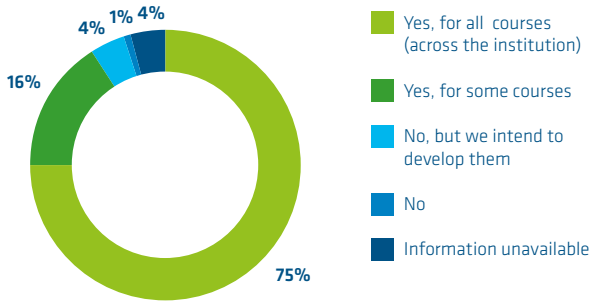


Fig. 10 Learning outcomes developed
Have learning outcomes been developed? (Q. 22; N = 295)



This is largely confirmed through the comparison of EUA Trends reports (2010, 2015, 2018), which show a steady progression in the implementation of learning outcomes in the past decade.

In Trends 2018, 76% of higher education institutions have developed learning outcomes for all courses – including 100% of participating institutions in the UK, the Netherlands and Sweden. This suggests that the institutions that had committed to developing learning outcomes and were still in the progress of implementing them in 2015, may have completed their work.

Sixteen percent still indicate having them for only some courses – compared to 21% in 2015, and 32% in 2010. The overall percentage of institutions that have not developed learning outcomes at all is under 5%, and therefore relatively low. However, it is comparatively high in Spain (24%) and Italy (14%) – though most institutions indicate that they intend to develop learning outcomes.

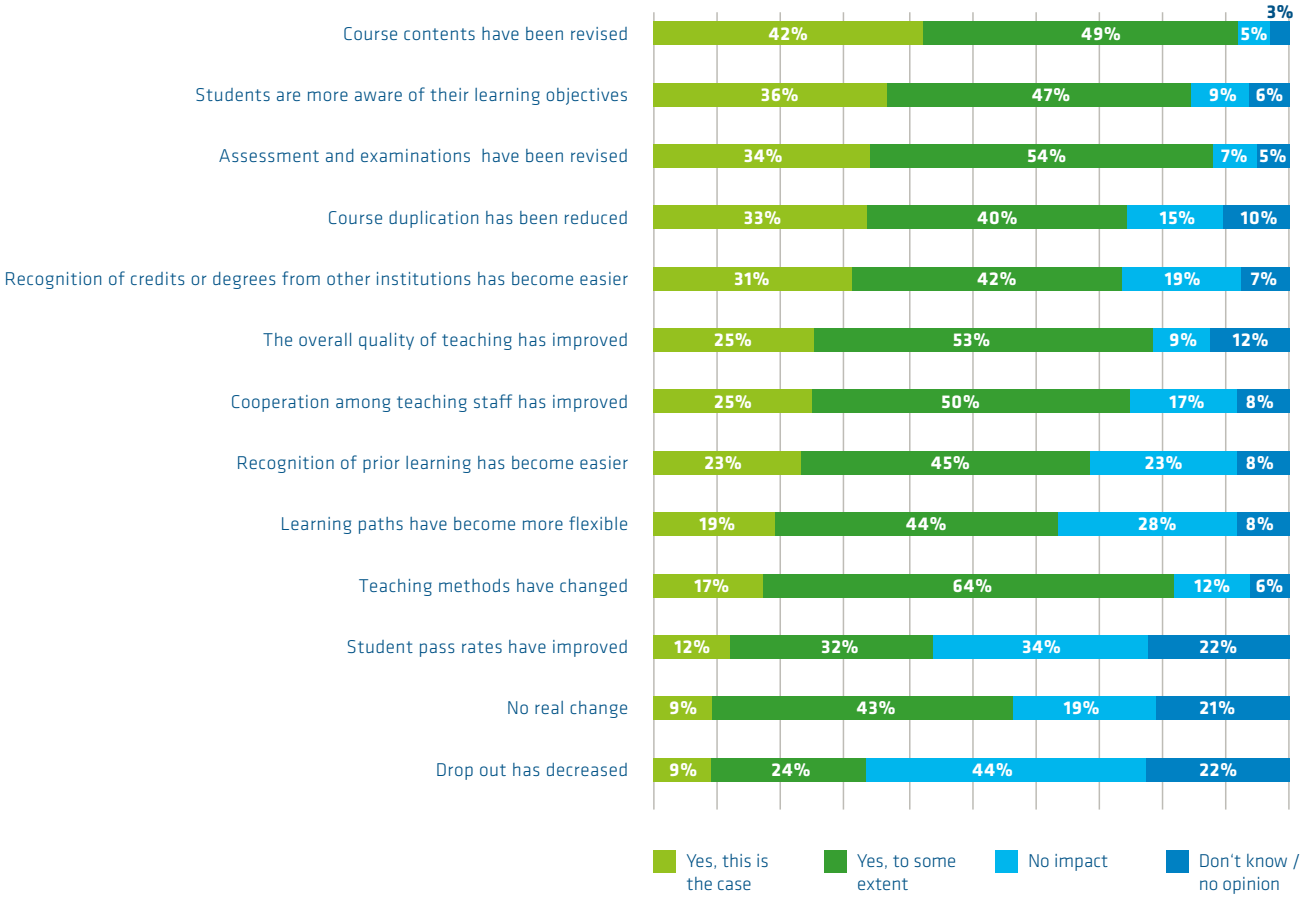
As an intergovernmental process, in which reform implementation depends on participating countries, the Bologna Process itself has not given much attention to the modalities for the successful implementation of learning outcomes. The findings of a recent CEDEFOP report suggest that the allocation of sufficient lead time is critical, as is a combination of top-down and bottom-up strategies to ensure that the institutions are actively involved and take ownership. Where this has not been the case, superficial change and other detrimental consequences could be observed (CEDEFOP, 2016, pp. 19-20). In a number of countries, the formulation and implementation of learning outcomes became criteria for accreditation, obliging higher education institutions to revise their study programmes. For instance, in Iceland, the 2006 New Higher Education Act explicitly linked the accreditation of a higher education institution to the formulation of programme-level learning outcomes, which hitherto were not in use. While the reform change was implemented to the letter, the involved academics felt alienated and, as a consequence, up-to-date "learning outcomes have not yet been seen as a useful tool in curriculum development" (Geirsdóttir and Schram, 2017).

There are similar observations from other systems, for example in Norway where the Bologna Process and other reform efforts have been perceived by teachers as "outside interventions", and have contributed to "a growing feeling of public distrust", preventing the realisation of any tangible benefit:

"the degree structure [...] should make programmes better attuned to working life demands and better serviced for the students through tighter guidance and follow-up. Dropout rates would improve and more students would complete their education inside the time norm. However, neither the statistics nor our informants' opinions bear witness to unqualified success on these scores. Completion rates have not improved significantly and although the informants agreed that more written work for students has also meant an overall increase in follow-up (and in teacher workload!), the intended increase in individual academic counselling has not occurred. Students still rate academic counselling as one of the weakest aspects of their programmes, although the teachers we interviewed would claim that students largely fail to make use of the counselling opportunities that are in fact available" (Amundsen and Haakstad, 2017b).

But the Norwegian experience also indicates some positive developments. For example, teaching has substantially improved, and there is more and better collaboration among teachers.

Fig. 11 Effect of the introduction of learning outcomes
What effect has the introduction of learning outcomes had on the institution so far? (Q. 22.1; N = 222)



Trends 2018 confirms this ambiguity for the entire EHEA:

- Institutions confirm that change took place, such as the revision of course content (91%) and the revision of assessments and examinations (88%) – which as such could be seen as positive. However, the impact on students and staff is left open for interpretation.

- More than half of the respondents did not confirm whether student pass rates have improved (56%) or if dropout has decreased (66%), either because they think it has not, or they simply do not know (in both cases 22%).

- The recognition of credits and degrees has improved (73%), as has the overall quality of teaching (79%). Teaching methods have changed (only 17% fully, but 64% to some extent) and there is more and better cooperation among teachers (25% fully, 50% to some extent). Course duplications have decreased (73%), students are more aware of learning objectives (83%), and studying has become more flexible, including the recognition of prior learning (68%).

Despite these overall findings, the situation and perception of learning outcomes can be quite different from country to country:

- Due to the implementation of learning outcomes, assessments and examinations have been revised in all institutions in Greece, Ireland, Kazakhstan, Sweden and Ukraine.

- Regarding the recognition of credits or degrees, 40% of Spanish institutions and 37% of UK institutions did not see any impact, whilst all institutions in Greece, Ireland, and Sweden stated that learning outcome implementation has made this type of recognition easier.

- Students are more aware of their learning objectives due to learning outcomes – this is supported by all Kazakh, Swedish, and Ukrainian respondents (fully or to some extent). But 33% of the respondents in Portugal and 20% of those in Spain believe they are not. The difference might be related to different national schedules in implementing learning outcomes and, subsequently, difficulty in perceiving impact at this stage.

All in all, and with a few exceptions (e.g. dropouts), these are quite positive findings, also given the relative recent and (in many countries) turbulent introduction of learning outcomes, as well as the reactions among staff. It may take some time to get to a more objective assessment of whether negative reactions to Bologna reforms were actually due to the impact of the reforms or to their

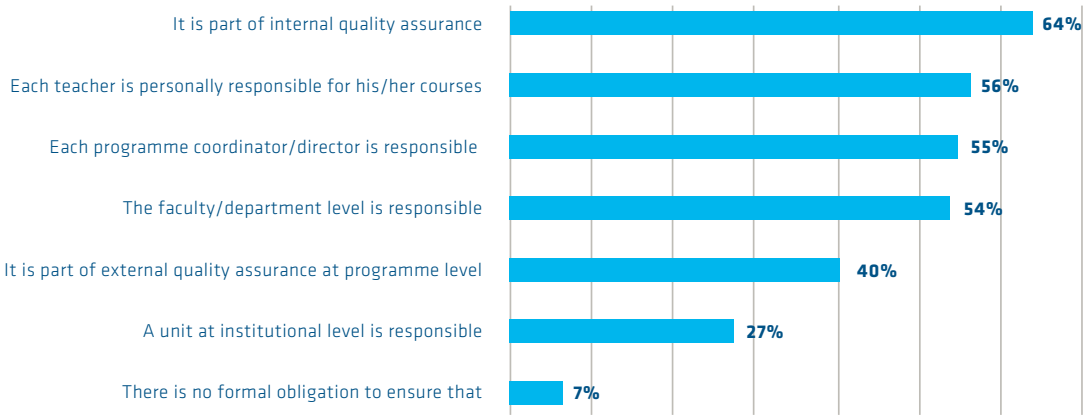
Table 5 Impact of learning outcomes in Trends 2015 and Trends 2018
(Trends 2015, Q. 36.1; Trends 2018, Q. 22.1; aggregated responses "yes" and "yes, to some extent")

	T2015	T2018
Revision of course content	78%	91%
Course duplication reduced	66%	73%
Assessments and examinations revised	67%	88%
Recognition of credits or degrees facilitated	65%	73%
Cooperation among teaching staff improved	64%	75%
Students are more aware of learning objectives	72%	83%

implementation process. But it seems that institutions have generally come to grips with learning outcomes and have started to reap the benefits, which is confirmed through comparison with the survey results from three years ago.

This makes it safe to say that the introduction and development of learning outcomes is not only steady and sustainable, but has also had some positive impact. It should be recalled that these figures display the view of institutional senior leadership and that the perception of staff and of students could be quite different. But according to the Eurostudent V survey, 65% of the students who participated said they were satisfied with the quality of teaching, with the highest rates registered in Ireland (84%), the Czech Republic (78%) and Estonia (77%). The survey also points to generally higher satisfaction levels among students at non-university institutions (Eurostudent V, 2015, pp. 213-214). Trends 2018 also asked how institutions would ensure the implementation and proper application of learning outcomes, with the following results:

Fig. 12 Ensuring that course provision is in line with the foreseen learning outcomes
How is it ensured that the actual provision of a course (i.e. content, methods, and examinations) is in line with the foreseen learning outcomes? (Q. 22.2; N = 222)



Results from the survey show that:

- Among the institutions that have implemented a learning outcome approach, the majority has taken measures to ensure that course provision is in line with the foreseen learning outcomes. Only 7% of respondents have no formal obligation to ensure this, including 29% of Austrian and 33% of Czech institutions.

- Most institutions deploy a combination of measures to ensure that course provision is in line with the foreseen learning outcomes. Importantly, only three institutions consider it as a task for teachers only. At all the other institutions, it is a shared task between teachers and programme coordinators and it is commonly part of QA, which is well established across the EHEA.

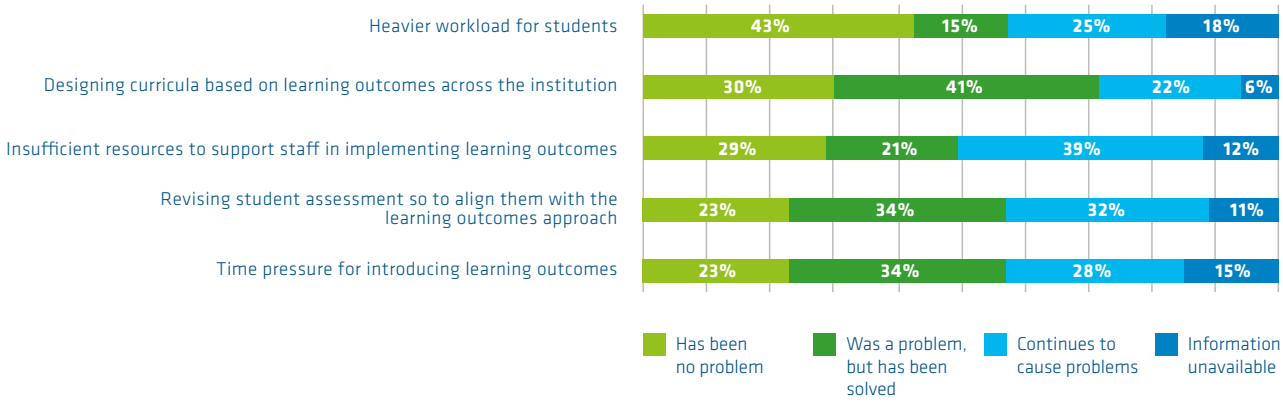
- Differences in governance and management, as well as in the QA system, may also influence the approaches: While on average, only slightly more than a quarter of institutions have a dedicated central unit, this is very common in the Czech Republic, Ukraine, Kazakhstan (67% each), and Greece (50%).

- At 64% of the institutions, the alignment between course provision and the foreseen learning outcomes is part of internal quality assurance, including at all institutions in the UK, Greece,

and Portugal. This is also the case for 80% of Spanish and 83% of Russian and Ukrainian institutions. While these percentages are high, it is not surprising as such alignment was proposed as a guideline of the ESGs in 2005 and has become a standard in 2015. The latter adoption as an ESG standard, combined with the fact that not all systems have programme-level QA, could explain why only 40% of institutions report that external quality assurance addresses the alignment between course provision and the foreseen learning outcomes, in particular in Spain (80%) and Portugal (83%).

- Institutions seem to be more involved and take more responsibility in developing programme curricula (67% of the respondents said that they have institutional guidelines for this), than in the actual implementation of the learning outcome approach. However, only 25% of higher education institutions offer systematic training for all teachers and for all courses/programmes on developing learning outcomes.

Fig. 13 Issues encountered when implementing learning outcomes
How would you describe issues encountered when implementing learning outcomes? (Q. 22.3; N =222)



When asked if problems were encountered in implementing learning outcomes, about the same number of institutions stated having problems, having solved them, or having never had them, depending on the challenge and with a few outliers.

Prevailing problems are:

- insufficient resources to support staff (39%), especially in Austria (57%), France (67%), Italy (56%), and Portugal (67%) where this continues to be a problem. Meanwhile, it has never been a problem at 57% of Swiss, 56% of UK, and 71% of Dutch institutions.

- aligning student assessment with learning outcomes (32%), in particular in Austria (71%) and Portugal (67%).

- time pressure (28%), especially in Greece and Russia (50% respectively).

- designing learning outcome-based curricula across the institution (22%). It is clearly a problem of the past in many places (41%), but is currently still a challenge in the Czech Republic (57%), Germany (48%) and Portugal (67%). It has never been an issue for more than half of institutions in the UK, the Netherlands, and Sweden (57% each).

While 43% deny that learning outcomes have resulted in a heavier student workload, about the same number (42%) refers to them as a current (25%) or solved problem (15%).

When asked about measures to cope with this, teachers are largely responsible (65%) for the workload of courses, especially in Germany, Ireland, Portugal, Switzerland, and Turkey (between 83% and 91%). However, apart from five institutions, this is combined with other measures such as:

- student feedback at the end of the course (71%), including at all institutions in Greece and Portugal.
- formal channels for students to report (68%, such as student representatives, an ombudsman, complaint mechanisms), especially at institutions in Portugal (100%) and Sweden (88%).
- internal QA (66%), especially in Greece, Portugal, and Ukraine (100%), as well as the UK (90%) and Romania (88%).
- QA agencies (28%), especially in Greece, Spain, the Netherlands, and Romania (50% or more).

Only 3% reported having no approach to ensure the volume of the student workload.

Trends 2018 findings seem to confirm that the vast majority of institutions ensures adequate workload through an interplay of mechanisms and responsibilities. A successful monitoring of student workload should come from an appropriate articulation between institutional procedures, official feedback mechanisms, and the personal responsibility of the teachers.

3.3. Organisation of study programmes and curriculum development

3.3.1. Curriculum development

Almost all responding institutions reported on formal procedures for developing programmes and curricula:

- Institutional guidelines (67%) seem to be very common in some systems, such as the UK (90%) and Sweden (100%), but less so in Italy (36%) and the Netherlands (29%).
- In the Netherlands (86%), but also in Greece (83%), faculties and departments tend to have their own specific procedures. Across Europe, this was the case at 41% of institutions, of which 65% stated they also rely on institutional guidelines.
- About half of the institutions (47%) have a team or committee tasked with or authorised to develop curricula, especially in Germany (68%), the UK (70%), and Ireland (71%). These are generally more likely to be found at universities of applied sciences (76%) and technical universities (64%), but rarely at art and music colleges (26%). All the institutions that have such a team or committee have also developed learning outcomes.

Trends 2018 surveyed the institutions on the ways they develop programme curricula. The findings show that:

- Individual staff members develop programmes at 22% of institutions, which is more common in Germany (45%), the Netherlands (43%), and Ukraine (50%). This is also the case at many universities of applied sciences (43%).

- In addition, the majority of institutions (68%) also refers to national guidelines or frameworks (see also Chapter 2). There are significant differences between countries, which might indicate that the national frameworks are either not compulsory (as the term "guideline" may suggest), or not enforced.[27] It may also have to do with autonomy of the institutions. For example, in Romania, while formally the institutions decide themselves on study programmes, they do so in line with national regulation, which requires them to follow programme compendia developed by the relevant ministry. In Sweden, by contrast, there are national guidelines, and interviews with national experts confirm that they are widely observed. These were originally proposed by the government and voluntarily adopted by the sector once universities were awarded full autonomy due to legal reforms. In both cases, this may explain why the answers received are incongruent.

Fig. 14 Programme curricula development
How are programme curricula developed? (Q. 21; N = 294)

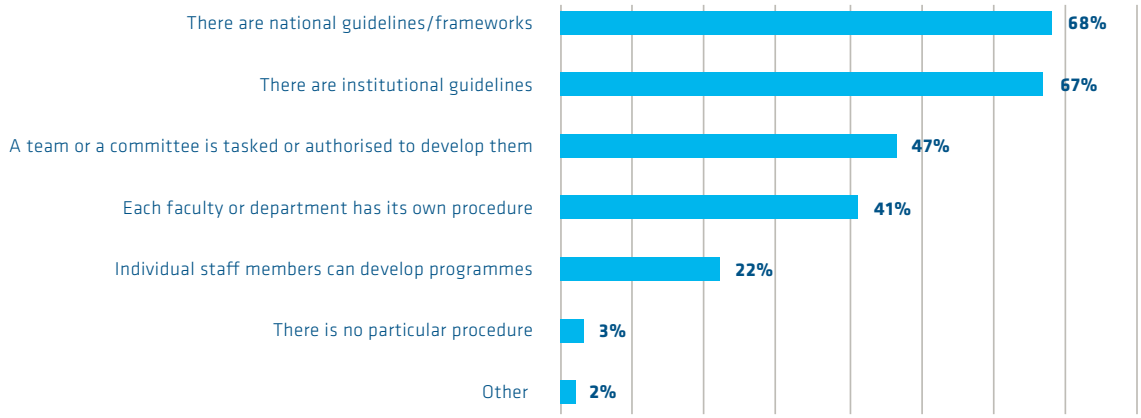


Table 6 Institutions relying on national guidelines for curriculum and programme development
How are programme curricula developed? (Q. 21; N = 294)

≥80%	51%-79%	≤50%
Czech Republic	Germany	Austria
France	Greece	Ireland
Italy	Kazakhstan	Netherlands
Poland	Portugal	Switzerland
Russia	Romania	United Kingdom
Spain	Sweden	
Ukraine	Turkey	

27 As mentioned on other occasions: Awareness and perception of national measures can differ significantly among institutions in the same system. But there may also be other reasons. The Trends data evaluation did not distinguish – with the exception of Belgium – countries with devolved systems, for example Germany, Spain, and the UK, where responsibility for higher education is devolved at a sub-national level.

The data does not grant an easy-to-read picture of how curriculum and programme development is done. Quite similar to the implementation of learning outcomes, at most institutions it is a shared responsibility involving different actors:

- There is only one institution in the survey that leaves curriculum development to teachers exclusively, and one that leaves it to teachers based on national-level frameworks. All others combined teacher responsibility with institutional (77%) and national guidelines (66%). Of the institutions that refer to national frameworks or guidelines, 74% follow institutional guidelines.

- Often this is combined with other additional measures. For example, more than half of the institutions with institutional guidelines (55%) also have a dedicated team or a committee in place.

- Governance models certainly have an impact. However, for example, on the question of whether faculties have specific procedures, affirmative responses range from 33% to 80% in 15 of the 19 countries where system-level data has been evaluated. This suggests that there is no predominant model within most of the systems, likely also due to diverse institutional missions, academic and disciplinary cultures, and different ways of responding to internal and external QA.

How the responsibilities for curriculum development are divided in detail may not be as important. But it would be critical to have a better understanding, also for the institutions themselves, of whether the approaches are actually fit for purpose: Do they support a systematic response to quality enhancement, changing study demands and pedagogical methods? Are they transparent, well-coordinated and effective? Are they sufficiently collaborative and participatory? An interesting finding in this regard is that all of the institutions that have a team or committee tasked or authorised to develop curricula, have also developed learning outcomes.

As there is some indication that the quality of learning and teaching will have to rely more and more on collaborative processes and shared responsibilities among teachers, student services and support structures and institutional leadership, curricula might be an interesting area for interinstitutional exchange and collaboration, and certainly for further study and research.

3.3.2. **Bachelor and Master programmes revisited**

How do the developments towards learning outcomes and student-centred learning impact Bachelor and Master programmes? The introduction of Bachelor's and Master's degrees was one of the initial goals of the Bologna reforms, yet, at the same time, polarised critics and supporters. Proponents predicted that it would drive quality and innovation in higher education learning and teaching, while opponents swore that they would bring the downfall of European higher education. Today, it is safe to state that neither has happened or will happen.

Already in Trends 2010, a vast majority of institutions indicated having implemented the Bologna degree structure, including Bachelor and Master programmes (Trends 2010, pp. 34-35). Therefore, rather than repeating the question, institutions where asked about the concrete problems they face with the two cycles:

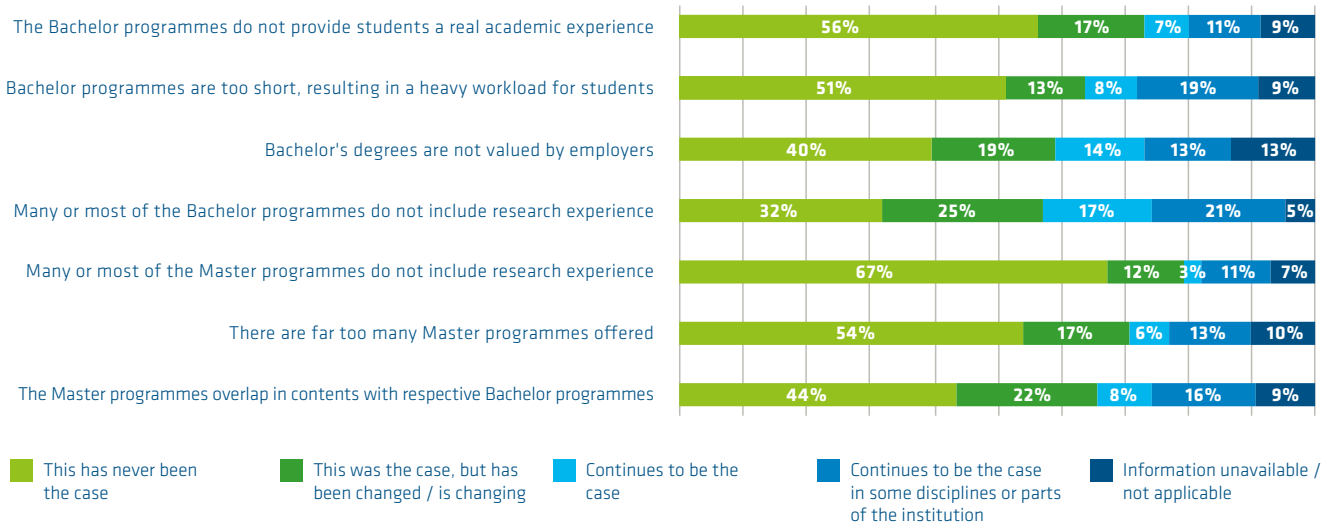
- Between 18% and 38% of institutions referred to ongoing problems (across and in parts of the institution) with the Bachelor level, while a quarter or less stated the same for the Master level.

- For both cycles, between 12% and 25% state that there have been problems in the past that have been solved – which is reassuring.

- Overall, for both Bachelor and Master cycles, between 40-67% state that there has never been a problem. This is quite high, given the controversial discussions that they have raised in the past. An explanation could be that as time has passed, there is no longer any institutional memory of these issues, as in most systems the introduction of the first two cycles took place some years back. It is possible that institutions still have problems with the two cycles, but did not find them reflected in the proposed response options. It may also be the case that problems might no longer be reflected and addressed in relation to the two cycles, but as difficulties with learning outcomes, teaching methods, and student attitudes.

Considering these points, the transition to Bachelor and Master cycles could be considered as successfully achieved, although institutions still face issues that deserve attention. These tend to differ between systems and, in some cases, also between types of institutions:

Fig. 15 Issues regarding Bachelor and Master programmes
Do you recognise any of the following issues regarding Bachelor and Master programmes at your institution? (Q. 19; N =293)



Looking at the responses, it appears that compared to Master programmes, Bachelor programmes concentrate more concerns:

- About one quarter recognises problems with the articulation between Bachelor and Master, either for all (8%) or at some (16%) of the programmes, especially in Russia, Sweden, Turkey, and the UK (between 44% and 54%), and at technical universities (about 10% above average). This has been a frequent student complaint, which the European Students' Union (ESU) highlights in its 2015 report on the Bologna Process.[28]

- The fact that Bachelor programmes do not include research experience prevails to be an issue at 38% of institutions, in particular at universities of applied sciences (53%), and technical universities (48%), as well as at more than half of the institutions in Italy, Poland, Portugal, Romania,

28 "There is no clear differentiation between the Bachelor's and Master's degrees and countries have reportedly simply divided their previous degree systems to fit the technical specifications" (Bologna with Students' Eyes 2015, p. 55). ESU's 2018 report, while not repeating this finding, states that there "has not been any significant development in the implementation of the three-cycle system since 2015", and that "criticisms on how 'old' degrees have been poorly translated into the 3-cycle system" prevails and even increases (Bologna with Students' Eyes 2018, p. 90).

Russia, Ukraine, and Turkey. Whereas it never was a problem at most Austrian (57%), Dutch (57%), Swiss (63%), and Swedish institutions (75%) – against the average of 32%.

- By contrast, the consideration that the Bachelor does not provide a real academic experience is a concern for only 18% of institutions, in particular in Central and Eastern Europe (Czech Republic 44%; Poland 40% across or in parts of the institution). This could be one of the reasons for the relatively high percentage of students, in particular in Eastern Europe, who indicate continuing to the Master level immediately after graduation. (Eurostudent VI, 2018, p. 77).

- More than a quarter of respondents (27%) report that Bachelor programmes are too short, resulting in a heavy workload for students, in particular in Austria (43%), France (47%), Switzerland (50%), and Portugal (50%). Many other institutions, however, indicate that this has never been a problem, e.g. in Ireland (86%), the Netherlands (71%), Sweden (100%), Turkey (91%), and the UK (89%). This result matches findings that at 25% of institutions, learning outcomes resulted in higher student workloads. But, overall, workloads seem to be mainly a problem for some of the disciplines or faculties (19%), as only 8% indicated it across the institution.

- More than a quarter of higher education institutions (27%) state that Bachelor's degrees are not valued by employers, either generally (14%), or at some faculties (13%). This issue is particularly pertinent in the Czech Republic (56%) and France (47%), whereas at more than 70% of institutions in Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden, Romania, and the UK, it has never been an issue.

Interestingly, overall, technical institutions tend to be more critical about Bachelor programmes than universities and colleges. One reason could be that in many systems, professional and technical disciplines perceived the Bachelor as too short to provide a recognised professional and employable qualification.

3.3.3. **Programme development: short-cycle programmes**

Short-cycle programmes are not easy to define, as they do not exist in all EHEA systems. The Trends 2018 survey described them as programmes that consist of less than 180 ECTS, and lead to a qualification below the level of first cycle programmes in higher education (Bachelor).

The European Union has promoted the short cycle as a means to enhance the overall participation in higher education, and to ensure a better prepared workforce for a European knowledge economy. They are also predicted to contribute to social equity and inclusion, as they tend to attract students from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, first-generation students, adult learners, and those from minority groups (Kirsch, Beernaert, and Nørgaard, 2003; Kirsch and Beernaert, 2011). According to the Eurostudent V survey, in all covered countries, the share of students in short-cycle higher education programmes is higher among delayed transition students than among all students, with the exception of France. Older students and those dependent on their earnings are also more likely to attend a short-cycle degree programme (Eurostudent V, 2015, p. 80).

More recently, under the Bologna Process, ministers committed to recognising the short-cycle (Yerevan Bologna Conference 2015), even if it does not exist in their own system, which is the case for about half of the EHEA countries (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, p. 101). At the Paris Bologna Conference 2018, it was also integrated into the EHEA-QF.

Short-cycle programmes tend to focus on applied and professional skills, which makes them more relevant for non-university institutions. The Trends sample, however, is dominated by

Fig. 16 Recognition of short cycle degree credits within first cycle programmes
[If short cycle degrees are offered] Can credits for these programmes be recognised within first cycle programmes? (Q. 20.1; N = 77)

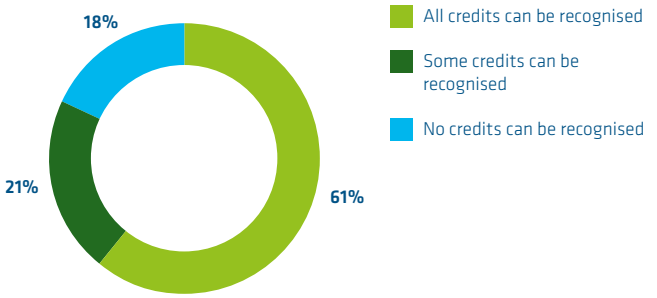
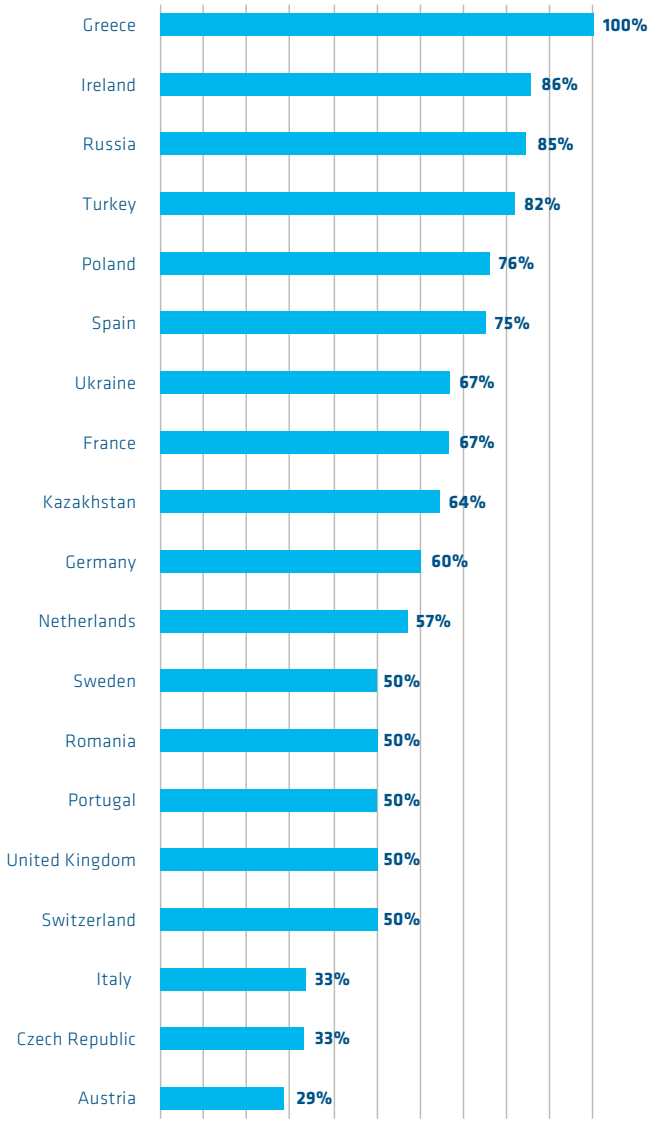


Fig. 17 Growing demand for non-degree short-term education
Do the following statements reflect the current situation in your institution? (Q. 29; aggregated answers "yes" and "to some extent, N = 290)



universities and university-like institutions. This may explain why less than a quarter (24%) of responding institutions indicate offering short-cycle programmes, and less than 3% said that they would in the future. For example, none of the institutions in Austria, Italy, Poland, Romania and Switzerland, offered short-cycle programmes or intended to. Higher positive response rates came from countries with a non-binary system, like the UK (78%) and Ireland (86%), or from systems where non-university higher education institutions are institutionally linked to universities, such as in France (73%), as well as in Kazakhstan (50%), Russia (46%), Sweden (50%), Turkey (46%), and Ukraine (60%).

Sixty-one percent of institutions that offer short-cycle programmes state that all credits can be recognised for a first-cycle degree (Bachelor), while 21% state that some credits can. In the latter case, recognition would mostly depend on the type or content of the short-cycle programme, and on whether the earned credits match the study field and subject of the first-cycle degree, as well as other criteria.

All Dutch and Ukrainian, as well as 89% of Kazakh and 80% Turkish institutions recognise all credits from short-cycle programmes towards a first-cycle degree. No recognition is possible at 67% of Russian institutions.

3.4. Flexibility in learning paths and modalities

While most of the institutions in Trends 2018 do not engage in short-cycle programmes, this should not lead to the assumption that they do not appreciate shorter and more flexible ways of providing learning.

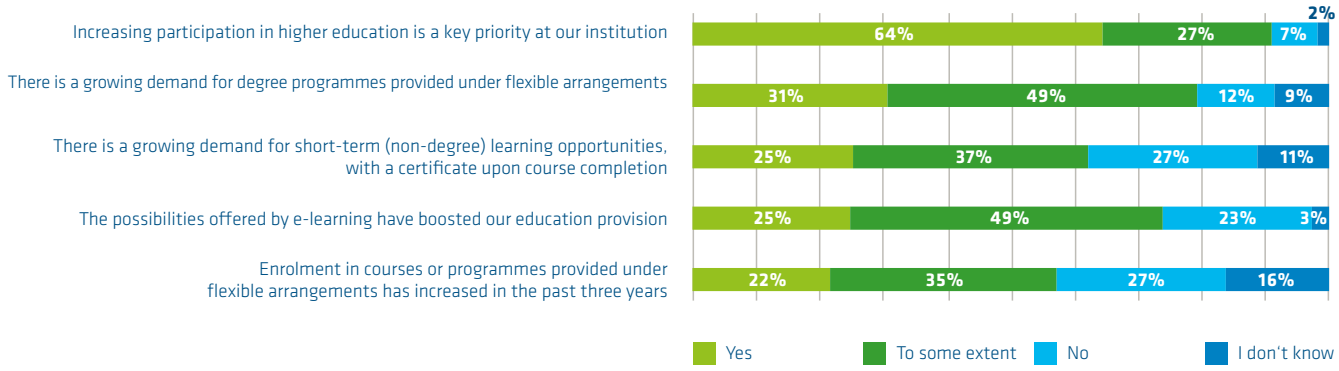
Sixty-two percent of institutions ("yes" and "to some extent") believe there is a growing demand for short-term (non-degree) learning opportunities. Whereas most Greek and Spanish institutions see this across the entire institution (67% and 50% respectively), in most other countries there is a substantial number of "to some extent" responses.

Even more respondents (80%, "yes" and "to some extent") saw the need for more flexible provision for degree programmes, with the notable exception of institutions in Sweden (25% "no") and Switzerland (38% "no").

This is supported by the fact that practically all institutions state increasing participation as a priority, and more than half have observed increased participation in flexible learning offers over the past three years.

Technology also contributes to this trend, given that almost three quarters refer to the positive impact of e-learning on their education provision (see also Chapter 4.3). It remains open whether the remaining quarter actually disagrees or has not yet explored e-learning.

Fig. 18 Inclusive education provision
Do the following statements reflect the current situation at your institution? (Q. 29; N = 290)



These findings are largely confirmed by the 2018 Bologna Process Implementation Report, which notes that in most EHEA countries, more than 50% of the institutions currently offer flexible or alternative learning paths. It also concludes that higher education institutions seem to enjoy sufficient autonomy to do so (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, Chapter 2.3.1, p. 66, Fig. 2.17; p. 23, Fig. 2.21; p. 24, Fig. 2.22; p. 25, Fig. 2.23). This is confirmed by the fact that the Trends 2018 results on these issues rarely fully converge across systems or across the different entities within the individual institutions.

A complex issue is the part-time student status, and whether it actually enhances lifelong learning and social equity:

- The Bologna Process Implementation Report refers to the fact that 37 systems have a part-time student status, and in some of them the law even prescribes that institutions have to offer it (Azerbaijan, Flemish Community of Belgium, Portugal, and Spain). However, the Eurostudent V report states that, overall, the number of part-time students remains relatively low: In more than half of the countries, at least 80% of students study with full-time status. The actual participation in part-time study ranges between less than 5% in Armenia, Germany, and Romania to more than 30% in Poland (Eurostudent V, p. 82). The Bologna Process Implementation Report also found that institutions from countries with no part-time status in the system, report to have part-time students (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, Chapter 2.3.1, p. 66, Fig. 2.17). This is also confirmed by Trends 2018 data.

- In Trends 2018, 71% of institutions indicate that students can switch between full and part-time status, but only at about half of them this seems to be common practice, whereas at the other half it is very limited across the institution. The most flexible in this regard are Portuguese and Ukrainian institutions (100% each). Also, in more than 75% of the institutions in the Czech Republic, Italy, Kazakhstan, and Sweden it is possible, whereas it is not possible at many institutions in Austria (50%), Greece (60%), Romania (50%) and Turkey (90%).

- The existence of a formal part-time status may not automatically enable flexibility and inclusion: For about half of the systems that provide it, part-time study is linked to higher tuition fees (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, p. 68).

- The absence of an official part-time status would require a higher level of flexibility in terms of degree completion, preferably with no or minimal financial implications for the students. Under Trends 2018, a flexible approach to study completion time was reported as commonly available at 41% of the institutions, with a further 34% stating it is possible with limitations, and predominantly from systems with no part-time student status. For example, 97% of institutions in Germany, 76% in Greece, and 100% in Sweden, indicated that they grant flexibility for degree completion without financial or other sanctions.

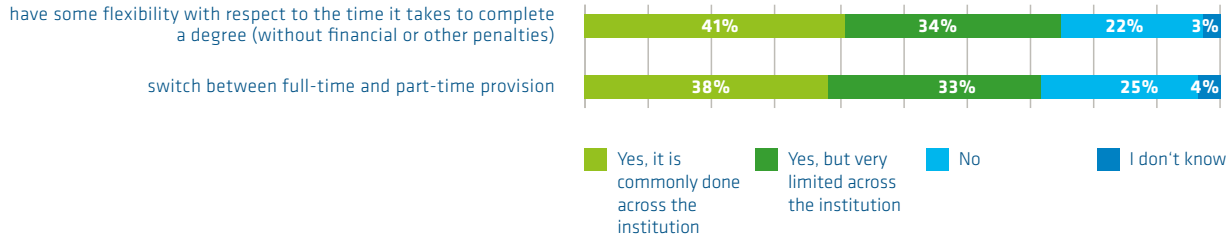
- Trends 2018 data show that, overall, 23% of institutions said that there is no flexibility with regard to completion time, including half of the institutions in Romania and Ukraine (which have a part-time status), and around a third of the institutions in France, the Czech Republic, and Russia (with no part-time status).

Closely linked to student-centredness, participants were also asked whether and to what extent students can decide or influence how they want to learn:

- Switching study programmes is possible for students in 49% of the participating institutions, particularly in Germany (70%) and Italy (73%), where this is possible across the institution. However, in Greece it is not possible at 80% of the institutions.

- Less than half of institutions (42%) commonly grant students some flexibility in choosing the sequence of their study courses. This is the case in particular in Austria (63%), Germany (77%), Greece (100%), Switzerland (75%), and the UK (80%), whereas it is not very common in France (20%), Kazakhstan (8%), Poland (20%), Russia (8%), Spain (19%), and Ukraine (0%).

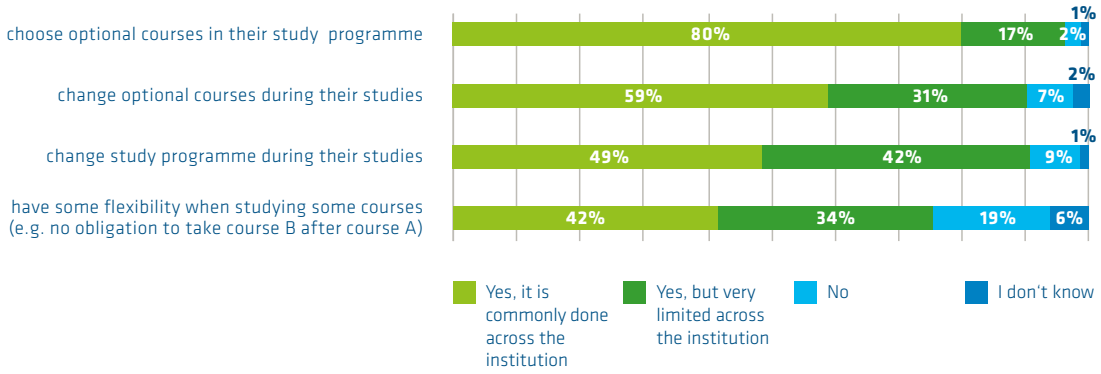
Fig. 19 Flexible learning paths (1)
Is it possible for students to... (Q. 16; N = 300)



- Students can decide whether they want to attend a class in person or online "commonly across the institution" in 36% of the institutions – another 33% said this is possible for some courses. Across the institution it is common in Germany (63%), Greece (80%), Romania (75%), Sweden (63%), and Switzerland (75%). It is not possible at half or more institutions in Kazakhstan (50%), Poland (52%), and Russia (62%).

- Most institutions (80% across the institution) provide students the choice of optional courses as part of the study programme, especially in Germany, France, Kazakhstan (93% each), and Greece (100%). Students may also change these courses (59% across the institution), especially in the UK (80%), Italy (91%), and Sweden (88%), but not at one quarter of the Austrian institutions.

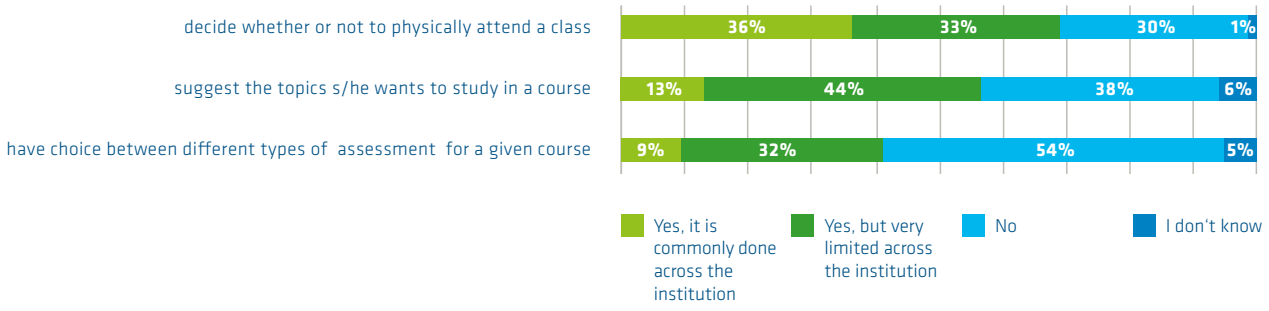
Fig. 20 Flexible learning paths (2)
Is it possible for students to... (Q. 16; N = 300)



- A systematic consideration of student suggestions on what they want to study is less common – only 13% stated this is done across the institution, while another 44% said that it is possible, but very limited across the institution. Institutions in Kazakhstan are the only outlier here (60% common across the institution). Overall, 38% said this was not possible at all – particularly in Spain (62%), Greece (60%), Ireland (71%), Italy (50%), Portugal (50%), and Russia (69%).

- Students can rarely choose the type of assessment for their course – 54% of institutions said this is not possible, and 32% said there are very limited cases, while only 9% offer it across the institution. "Across the institution" is more common in Kazakhstan, Portugal, and Ukraine, where around one third of institutions offer different assessment options to students. Less flexible systems in this regard are Austria, the Czech Republic, France, the Netherlands, Russia, and Switzerland where three quarters or more indicated that this was not offered.

Fig. 21 Flexible learning paths (3)
Is it possible for students to... (Q. 16; N = 300)



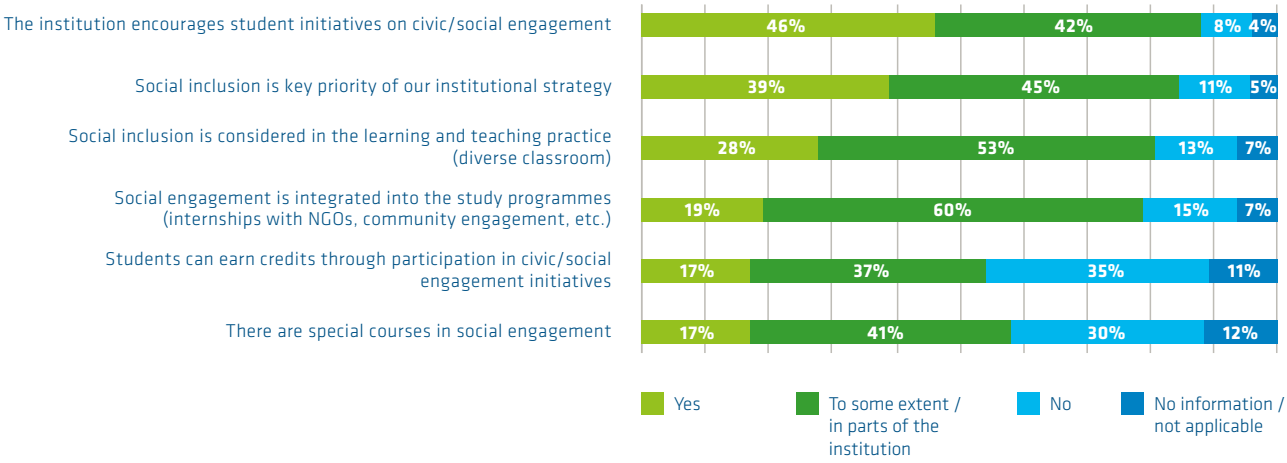
3.5. Social inclusion and equity

Social inclusion and equity enjoy high priority in European-level higher education policy documents, both regarding widening access and participation, and as a goal for learning and teaching. For example, the European Commission, in its "Renewed EU agenda for higher education" (2017), reiterates the call for building inclusive and connected higher education systems. Higher education institutions in Europe should ensure that the profiles of their student populations reflect the wider society. The Yerevan Communiqué (2015) states: "Study programmes should enable students to develop the competences that can best satisfy personal aspirations and societal needs, through effective learning activities." It adds: "making our systems more inclusive is

an essential aim for the EHEA as our populations become more and more diversified, also due to immigration and demographic changes."

Trends 2018 results confirm that social inclusion is a topic of importance for most institutions and that it is considered both in the context of widening access, and in learning and teaching activities.

Fig. 22 Impact of inclusiveness and social engagement on learning and teaching
At your institution, does inclusiveness and social engagement have any impact on learning and teaching? (Q. 28; N = 288)



However, while on all answer options, between 57 and 85% of institutions responded positively, most of them have embraced these measures only "to some extent, in parts of the institution". For example, only one quarter of institutions fully consider social engagement in their teaching, while less than one fifth has included it in all study programmes and awards credits for students' civic and social engagement.

Therefore, from the responses, it is difficult to assess the real impact of these measures on the institutions and their members.

3.6. **Lifelong learning**

Lifelong learning (LLL) has always been one of the declared goals of the Bologna Process. It was mentioned in the Sorbonne and the Bologna Declarations, and referenced in practically all Communiqués since. It was also a declared goal of the EU, from the late 1990s on, in view of the Common Market, and the larger numbers of higher education graduates that a European knowledge society would need. This also implied the need to change higher education: "Opening university studies to new and wider publics cannot be achieved unless higher education institutions themselves change – not only internally, but also in their relations with other 'learning systems'" (European Commission, 2000). In 2001, Mary O'Mahony, analysing for the European University Association the results of a consultation on the then-draft EU Memorandum for LLL, concluded that: "Discussion of the role of higher education in lifelong learning provokes some scepticism, within and outside the academic community" (O'Mahony, 2001, p. 9).

Subsequently, the acceptance of LLL in higher education has been growing. The period from 2007 to 2009 likely represents the height of political emphasis on LLL in Europe. With the EU Qualifications Framework for LLL,[29] and the Lifelong Learning Programme (2007-2013), the European Commis-

29 https://ec.europa.eu/ploteus/search/site?f[0]=im_field_entity_type%3A97#.

sion created two powerful and well-visible instruments, which contributed to the transformation of higher education structures and offers. This has been further underpinned by the 2020 targets of 40% higher education participation and 15% of adults aged 25 to 64 participating in lifelong learning (European Commission, 2009). Upon request of the French EU Presidency, in 2008 EUA developed the European Universities' Charter on Lifelong Learning (EUA, 2008), with recommendations for institutions and governments. At least to the higher education sector (individual institutions and dedicated networks and associations), the Charter provided guidance and some benchmarks for the coming years. Moreover, in the Bologna Process, the 2009 Leuven-Louvain Communiqué called for "strong partnerships between public authorities, higher education institutions, students, employers and employees," and referenced to the Charter as "a useful input for defining such partnerships." The Communiqué put a particularly strong and detailed emphasis on LLL, pointing to the wider socio-economic context and purpose, including innovation, European knowledge societies, the changing labour market, aging populations, and the need to "widen participation", "maximise talents and capacities of all its citizens" and "to empower them to become active and responsible citizens." It also refers to "globalisation and accelerated technological developments with new providers, new learners and new types of learning."

Since then, while the political emphasis on LLL has not decreased, its definition and the rhetoric around it has evolved. In view of rapidly-changing skills, there has been an emphasis on shorter periods of learning, non- and informal learning, in particular with EU policy initiatives focused on skills and skills recognition, usually without linking them to the broader concept of LLL that had been promoted previously. At the same time, LLL also received less attention in the Bologna process. [30]

While the arrival of digitally-enhanced learning could have resulted in a strong focus on enhancing the capacity of higher education institutions to provide lifelong learning, debates seemed to centre instead on whether universities, with their relatively long academic degree programmes, would need an overhaul, or if they should be substituted by other providers, with new and more flexible ways of learning provision. The emphasis has shifted from lifelong learning to rapid skills acquisition, in view of rapidly-changing labour market needs, also in the context of the European economic crisis, and stagnating if not decreasing public investments in most European countries.

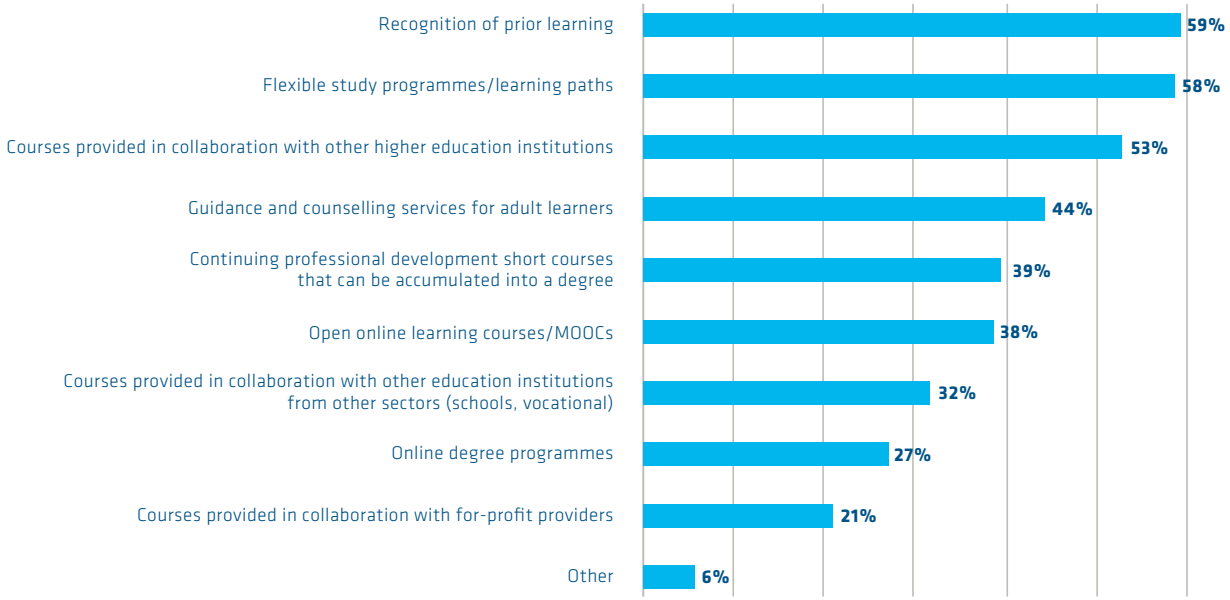
It is unlikely that these changes have revoked or put structures and measures on hold for LLL at the system and institutional level. But the fact that LLL seems to have expired as a political priority could have some impact on the attention that institutions grant it, and its conceptualisation as part of the institutional mission. Skills acquisition puts a strong focus on employability and did not find much appreciation in the higher education community, as it seemed to exclude other learning purposes. In the meantime, an emphasis on civic skills and values has been added, and the contribution of graduates to social developments is strongly pronounced, in particular as a result of the 2015 Paris Declaration.[31] However, LLL is linked to broader concepts that today are deeply-rooted in the universities: An EUA report on institutional case studies found institutional cultures linked to concepts such as the "civic" and the "engaged university" (Smidt and Sursock, 2011). In addition, previous Trends reports pointed to the growing numbers of institutions that have developed dedicated LLL strategies.

30 The Bucharest Communiqué of 2012 reaffirmed the role of lifelong learning. In 2012-2015, there was a Working Group on the Social Dimension and Lifelong Learning (http://www.ehea.info/cid104392/wg-social-dimension-2012-2015.html), but it focused more on the social dimension.

31 http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/20150316-paris-education_en.

Results from the Trends 2018 survey confirmed that LLL seems indeed embedded into European higher education institutions' strategies and their education offer, with 67% of institutions providing lifelong learning opportunities as part of their institutional learning and teaching strategy or policy.

Fig. 23 Measures offered for lifelong learners
Which of the following measures does your institution offer for lifelong learners? (Q. 30; N = 288)



Most often, lifelong learners are offered recognition of prior learning (59%), especially in France and Ireland where 100% of respondents said to do so, and flexible study programmes or learning paths (58%). The latter is the case particularly in Ireland (86%), and at technical universities (73%), as well as medium-sized institutions (71%). The 2015 Eurostudent study confirms that alternative access routes to higher education are provided in most countries participating in the study, although at least 70% of students have entered higher education via a regular route (Eurostudent V, 2015, p. 231).

Slightly more than half of the respondents said that they offer courses in collaboration with other higher education institutions, whereas 44% offer guidance and counselling for adult learners (three quarters in Sweden). However, only 9% of the respondents from Turkey and 17% from Greece and Portugal respectively said that they provide such guidance. This is important as the average age for entering higher education has grown in some countries, which nowadays have high shares of students who are 25 years or older[32] (Eurostudent V, 2015, pp. 63-64). This is not just a matter of age, but older students are more likely to be employed and to care for children and other dependents (*ibidem*).

More than a third of the respondents (39%) offer continuing professional development short courses that can be accumulated into a degree, especially in Switzerland (88%) and Ireland (86%), and open online learning courses/MOOCS (38%). In addition, more than a quarter of the respondents (27%) provide online degree programmes, mostly in the UK (80%) and Sweden (63%).

32 In Norway, Sweden and Finland, more than half of students fall into this age category. This is also the case for more than 20% of students in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Montenegro, the Netherlands.

Overall, very small institutions were found to have a below average offer of measures for lifelong learners. This was especially the case regarding open online learning courses and MOOCs (21% compared to 38% in the overall sample) and online degree programmes (14% compared to 27% overall) – which might be due to the learner group they target, and to the high cost and resource investment needed for setting up and running such programmes. Large institutions with more than 25 000 students, on the other hand, were around 20% more likely than the average to offer MOOCs and 10% more likely to provide online degree programmes. In the Trends 2018 sample, open universities, which target lifelong learners as part of their mission, are also by far the most likely to offer any of the measures listed.

Higher education institutions tend to manage their lifelong learning offer in a separate or distinct way compared to their conventional education offer. For 72% of higher education institutions, lifelong learning provision is – at least in parts – financed differently than other learning provisions. Studies such as the Tertiary Higher Education for People in Mid-Life (THEMP) research project tend to confirm this point.[33] Three quarters of the Trends respondents also agreed that lifelong learning is delivered in a separate way compared to the offer to conventional students – with 29% saying that this is the case to some extent, or in parts of the institution. In only 35% of institutions, lifelong learning provision is quality assured in the same way as conventional provision. This is mostly the case in Ireland (86%) and the UK (75%). At 45% of the institutions, lifelong learning programmes are taught by regular teachers, and in another 38% of them, they are taught by other teachers to some extent or in parts of the institution.

In 2011, an EUA report predicted that given changing skills needs, demographic developments, and the increased diversity of the student population, lifelong learning would become a regular choice for all higher education institutions – which, however, could take very different shapes, depending on their missions, and their national and regional environments (Smidt and Sursock, 2011). The fact that higher education institutions, in addition to degree programmes, increasingly address a more diverse learnership by offering open and continuous learning opportunities, is also confirmed by the 2018 Changing Professional Landscapes Report (Henderikx and Jansen, 2018). However, what still remains to be explored is whether and how within the universities these different offers synergise and cross-fertilise, including for content, pedagogics, and modes of delivery, and what would be the consequences for governance and management.

33 This project analysed the tertiary lifelong learning offer in seven EU member states and concluded that fees for lifelong learning provision are often paid by the employer rather than the individual learner in the Czech Republic, Spain, the Netherlands, and Germany, and in that in some countries like Spain, participation can be covered by private-public funding (Yang, Schneller and Roche, 2015).

Teaching approaches, pedagogy, methodologies

4

Main points

- Improving teaching approaches and related processes is an area of increased priority and activity for European higher education institutions.
- Change in learning and teaching depends on the right combination of top-down guidance and structural support and bottom-up dynamism. The innovation push comes mainly from individual teachers, departments, and faculties. But institutional leadership, in particular vice-rectors and their teams, and dedicated structures, such as learning centres, have an important role to play in upscaling tested learning and teaching approaches, and making sure they become mainstream.
- Teaching should also be looked at as a collective process and responsibility. Individual teachers clearly play an important role and commonly decide what methods to use. But they also rely on collaboration and support, e.g. pedagogical coordination (for instance, between courses of the same module), teaching support staff, and student support services.
- Institutions explore a variety of active learning pedagogies, with differences regarding the speed in which they are taken up and made mainstream.
- Institutions tend to see digitally-enhanced learning as a strategic element in developing and innovating learning and teaching. Blended learning is very common, whereas the increase in online provision and online degree courses depends primarily on the mission of the institution and the type of learners it addresses.

This chapter analyses the use of teaching approaches that are expected to foster active learning and how they are implemented across the institution. It also looks at progress made with regard to digital learning, and to the infrastructural changes that learning and teaching approaches require.

4.1. Towards student-centred learning: the state of play and challenges

As mentioned in Chapter 3, European policies and instruments have stimulated the take-up and implementation of learning outcomes and student-centred learning (SCL) at the system and institutional level. More recently, European and national policies and actions have started to address the "innovation of learning and teaching" and "active learning approaches" (Dakovic and Zhang, 2019) in relation to the concept of SCL. However, beyond referencing these as priorities in the Bologna Process and the ET2020, more concrete definitions and a more systematic follow-up on their implementation seem to have been challenging.

There have been attempts by European higher education stakeholder organisations to define SCL and to explore how it could be implemented in higher education institutions. EUA's Trends 2015 report refers to "pedagogies focused on the learner" making learning "not only, or primarily, about transfer of knowledge, but about deeper understanding and critical thinking, instead of focusing,

or prioritising, transfer of knowledge." Teachers become "facilitators" of learning who "share the responsibility for learning with their students, with a focus on their autonomy and pro-active attitude in constructing their own meaning and independently learn, discover, and reflect" (Trends 2015, p. 70; Trends 2010, pp. 31-32). Along similar lines, the European Students' Union (ESU) and Education International (EI) defined student-centred learning as both a mindset and a culture broadly related to, and supported by, constructivist theories of learning, and characterised by innovative methods of teaching, with students as active participants in their own learning (ESU and EI, 2010, p. 5). As pointed out by ESU, SCL should not be regarded as a methodology, rather as a cultural shift in the institution (ESU, 2015, p. 4). ESU and EI also underlined that a one-size-fits-all approach does not work for SCL (ESU and EI, 2010, p. 3). The Trends 2015 report confirms that efforts made to promote SCL take different shapes, depending on the type of programme, its level and its learning outcomes, discipline, and, very importantly, the profile and mission of the individual institution (Trends 2015, p. 96). The academic discussion on the notions of student-centred learning and competences contributed to raising awareness overall and of the necessity to reflect on SCL and the paradigm shift that it introduces in higher education.

Findings from Trends 2015 and other EUA work also show that SCL is still difficult for institutions to translate into institutional practice, for example with regard to improving the link between research and teaching, and offering more flexible, personalised learning suitable for diverse student bodies (Loukkola and Dakovic (eds.), 2017). A university representative describes the dilemma as follows: "In the Bologna Process, we have successfully managed to fulfil formal and structural requirements. But we are still on the way concerning the didactics. The challenge is to convince all professors of the need to work continuously on their didactics and to shift the focus on the learner perspective. On the other hand, this makes it rather difficult to assess and demonstrate its quality internally and externally."[34]

Reactions to, and take-up of, learning outcomes and student-centred learning in the higher education community have been quite different, depending on the system and the implementation approaches. In some systems, implementation took place top-down, with tight deadlines and little or no support for staff and institutions, and was often linked to other important development processes, such as external QA and national qualifications frameworks. As a result, teachers often saw such top-down reforms not only as an infringement of academic freedom and an intrusion in their sphere of competence, but also as an interference with their own efforts to adapt teaching towards a changing demand.[35] This was likely counterproductive, as student-centred learning is a context-sensitive and a complex, multi-faceted concept, that requires internal and external stakeholders to engage in developing a shared understanding and approach.

Without denying the differences between higher education systems and among institutions, it is probably fair to say that the European reform push on learning outcomes and student-centred learning could have been better communicated, and their implementation better supported and more collaboratively organised. This would have made it easier for the sector to link them to the existing and ongoing bottom-up approaches to innovate and transform learning and teaching.

34 This quote comes from a discussion that took place in the spring of 2018, in the framework of a pilot group meeting convened for the *European Principles for the Enhancement of Learning and Teaching*, designed during the European Forum for Enhancement Cooperation (EFFECT) project (https://www.eua.eu/101-projects/560-effect.html). This discussion will be further elaborated in the forthcoming EFFECT Feasibility Study (EUA, 2019b).

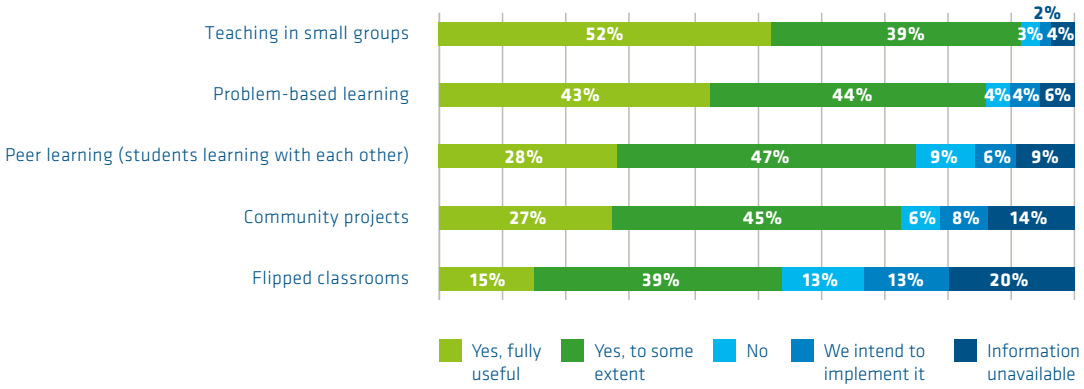
35 For example, see the case of Iceland, by Ásta Bryndís Schram and Guðrún Geirsdóttir (University of Iceland), https://assets.vlor.be/www.vlor.be/attachment/Gu%C3%B0r%C3%BAn%20Geirsd%C3%B3ttir.pdf (accessed 17/08/2018), and Norway (Amundsen, C. Y. and Haakstad, J., 2017).

As the Paris Communiqué puts more attention on learning and teaching, and demands that it is addressed in close collaboration with higher education institutions,[36] this could create opportunities to make up for and overcome these stumbling blocks of the past.

4.2. Pedagogies and approaches in institutional contexts

Given the lack of a common definition and the resulting challenges in surveying the presence and implementation of SCL, the Trends 2018 survey asked about the different active teaching approaches that institutions found useful in enhancing student learning.

Fig. 24 Useful approaches for enhancing student learning
Which of the following approaches has your institution found useful for enhancing student learning? (Q. 24; N =290)



Results show that all of the approaches were found useful ("fully" and "to some extent") by at least half of the respondents. Teaching in small groups was found useful by practically all institutions (91% "fully" and "to some extent"), closely followed by problem-based learning (87%), peer-learning (75%), community projects (72%), and the flipped classroom (54%). Only very few institutions stated that approaches are not at all useful ("no").

"To some extent" was the most frequently chosen response option for all approaches, with the exception of teaching in small groups. It is obviously difficult for institutions to assess the impact of these approaches and state their success or failure in absolute terms: They are used in combination and depend on various conditions. They may not be used throughout the institution, as individual teachers, programmes, departments, and faculties tend to drive the initiatives for innovating learning and teaching (Trends 2015, p. 85). This also explains why medium-sized and large institutions, in particular, found all approaches "useful to some extent": because of the institutional mass and capacity to explore new teaching approaches, but also because of the high diversity across entities, and the difficulty in making them mainstream throughout the institution.

In addition, respondents indicated using other approaches beyond the options offered in the questionnaire, such as gamification, work placements, and internships – confirming the dynamism in testing and implementing various teaching approaches.

The type and mission of the institution can play a role in the reception of teaching approaches. Universities of applied sciences gave above-average positive responses about some of the approaches, such as teaching in small groups (68% fully), and peer learning (47% fully). Art and music colleges, by contrast, are relatively small and rely to a large extent on one-to-one student-staff instruction

36 "develop new and inclusive approaches for continuous enhancement of learning and teaching across the EHEA (…) in close collaboration with the European higher education community, in full respect of academic freedom and institutional autonomy" (Bologna Paris Communiqué, 2018).

models. Therefore, they were across the board more likely to indicate that these approaches were not useful: teaching in small groups (13%), problem-based learning (26%), peer learning (29%), and the flipped classroom (48%).

The flipped classroom is found "fully useful" by only 15% of institutions, and to "some extent useful" by 39%. One fifth of respondents expressed having no information on this topic: This points to the fact that flipped classrooms are still relatively new in European higher education.[37] Research on it tends to be conducted with samples at the course level, which makes it difficult to compare, given the different approaches and shapes the flipped classroom can take, e.g. in terms of the concept, the type of homework provided, and how teacher-student face time is used. The flipped classroom model may "suffer from having a catchy name that invites oversimplification and the aura of being some kind of miracle cure."[38] But some systems seem to have been successful in adopting the flipped classroom: According to Trends 2018 data, they have been implemented "fully" and "to some extent" in Switzerland (100%), the UK (100%), Germany (77%), Ireland (83%), and Portugal (83%). Given its relatively recent arrival, the fact that more than half of institutions, and in some countries considerably more, can report hands-on experience, gives an indication about the time required for changes to take place in learning and teaching.

4.3. Institutional collaboration on teaching

Commonly, individual teachers decide what methods they use in their courses (77%). However, only at 42% of institutions, they take this decision alone:

- At 39% of institutions, the faculty or department is also involved.
- At one third of institutions, teachers are supported by institutional guidelines or policies.
- At 14%, there is guidance from authorities for some disciplines or programmes. Only 1% of institutions responded that the authorities would prescribe all or most teaching methods, and teachers would have no influence (see Table 7).

Table 7 Decision making on teaching methods to be used
At your institution, who decides which teaching methods are to be used? (Q. 14; N =301)

Each teacher can decide for his/her courses	77%
It is decided at the level of the faculty/department	43%
The institution has set up guidelines or policies on teaching methods for teachers	36%
Authorities specify some methods in some disciplines or programmes	14%
Authorities generally specify all or most methods	1%
Other	5%

37 It came into the European higher education debate around 2013, together with the Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), although it has been the subject of pedagogical research at higher education and school levels since the 1990s. See for instance Mazur, E., 1997, *Peer Instruction: A User's Manual Series in Educational Innovation* (Upper Saddle River, NJ, Prentice Hall), and Lage, M.J, Platt, G. J., and Treglia, M., 2000, "Inverting the Classroom: A Gateway to Creating an Inclusive Learning Environment". *The Journal of Economic Educatio*n, Vol. 21, N°1, pp. 30-43.

38 See Alastair Creelman's blog "The complexity of the flipped classroom", posted on 04/02/2018 (http://acreelman.blogspot.com/2018/02/the-complexity-of-flipped-classroom.html?utm_source=feedburner&utm_medium=email&utm_campaign=-Feed%3A+blogspot%2FQZxOx+%28The+corridor+of+uncertainty%29. His post refers to a special issue of *Education Sciences*, which discusses barriers and conditions for the success of flipped classrooms (Stöhr, Chr., and Adawi, T. (eds.), "The Flipped Classroom in Higher Education: Research and Practice", special issue, *Education Sciences*, 2018, 8 (1)).

The autonomy of teachers in deciding how to teach varies between countries.

- For instance, all institutions in Austria, Ireland, Romania, Switzerland, and Sweden confirmed that their teachers decide for their courses, whereas this was the case for less than half of Czech and one third of Russian institutions.

- Higher education authorities are more likely to specify teaching methods for some disciplines at French (33%), Russian (31%), and Ukrainian institutions (about 50%), compared to a general average of 14% for all higher education institutions.

- The influence of faculties and departments is particularly strong at Czech (89%), Portuguese (83%), Turkish (64%), and Ukrainian (67%) institutions.

- Institutional guidelines or policies for this matter are common at more than one third of institutions, and in particular at Austrian (63%), French (60%), Kazakh (67%), UK (70%), and Ukrainian institutions (67%). By contrast, they are hardly used in Germany (16%), Ireland (14%), and Italy (9%).

In some systems and institutions, teaching may have already been a shared and coordinated responsibility for quite some time. In others, this may have been fostered by the introduction of learning outcomes and the modularisation of study programmes following the Bologna reforms, as these required more exchange and collaboration between teachers, and with other structures in the institution. In addition, developments such as resource-intensive approaches for learning and teaching (digital learning, joint programmes), more systemic approaches to student support, and other quality-related measures to enhance the student experience seem to support this trend. The pressure to collaborate might be perceived as a constraint for academic freedom, but may also facilitate communities of practice on learning and teaching, and overall constitute a strategy to enhance and assure quality, resulting in a better learning experience for students.

The Trends 2018 survey examined how institutional collaboration on learning and teaching is organised and coordinated.

Table 8 Encouraging and supporting exchange and collaboration among teachers
Does your institution encourage and support exchange and collaboration among teachers on pedagogical practices? (Q. 40; N =285)

Teachers do this on their own initiative	58%
There are regular events (pedagogical days)	40%
This is the responsibility of programme directors or deans	38%
This is part of the missions of our learning centre	36%
There is an official platform (committee, group) for teachers to exchange	20%
Other	5%
I do not know	5%

These measures are usually employed in combination. For instance, while at the majority (58%) of institutions, teachers take the initiative of such collaboration, in three quarters of these cases there are also other measures in place, such as:

- regular events and pedagogical days (in 44%);

- an official platform for exchange (19%);
- responsibility given to deans or directors (43%) and the learning and teaching centre (35%).

Only 16% of institutions indicated that collaboration is exclusively driven by teachers.

While differences can certainly be found between individual institutions, Trends 2018 data suggests that there are system-specific preferences for certain measures and combinations. For instance:

- In Sweden, all responding institutions said that such collaboration is carried out by teachers upon their own initiative. In addition, at three quarters of them, it is the responsibility of the learning centre, and 88% of Swedish institutions hold pedagogical days.
- Seventy-one percent of Dutch and Irish institutions believe that it is the responsibility of programme directors or deans, while the same was confirmed by only 17% of Ukrainian institutions.
- Institutional platforms for teachers to exchange are not in use at any of the institutions in France, Greece, Portugal, Romania, and Switzerland. But 83% of Portuguese and about three quarters of Swiss institutions organise regular events such as pedagogical days.
- Sixty percent of UK and Kazakh institutions have an institutional platform for teachers to exchange. However, teachers have a proactive role in the initiatives only at one fifth of Kazakh institutions. This could indicate that these platforms can have very different purposes and uses, from facilitating and supporting grassroots initiatives, to more top-down coordination of teachers.

All of this suggests that institutions have developed different approaches for coordination and collaboration in learning and teaching. In systems where all or most institutions use the same approaches, they may originate from national initiatives, e.g. those launched by authorities or the sector itself. Such convergences could also result from the general institutional governance model, regulating the role of faculties and departments, and the ability to establish institution-wide support and coordination structures.

The institutions that would gain the most from such collaborations would probably also be those that synergise bottom-up and top-down initiatives. They are also likely to prioritise and upscale successful practices, as well as make them mainstream across the institution.

This would also require a consideration of the changing roles of all staff categories within the institution. Not only are the roles of teachers and students changing, but centralised structures for learning and teaching are taking on greater significance. The role of vice-rector in learning and teaching may develop more towards a strategic function, charged with the difficult task of spearheading and coordinating the institution's learning and teaching agenda, by facilitating a fruitful synthesis of bottom-up approaches with top-down steering. The *European Principles for the Enhancement of Learning and Teaching* emphasises learning and teaching as "a collaborative and collegial process involving collaboration across the university and with the wider community" (Principle 5) and point to the important role of institutional leadership to "drive, support and maintain the focus on learning and teaching" (Principle 4).[39]

39 The *Ten European Principles for the Enhancement of Learning and Teaching* were elaborated in the framework of the EFFECT project (https://www.eua.eu/101-projects/560-effect.html), by EUA together with partner universities and organisations. These Principles support the need to re-emphasise the education mission of the university. The Principles are available at: https://www.eua.eu/component/attachments/attachments.html?task=download&id=858.

4.4. **Digitalisation**

The arrival of Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) in 2012 (Gaebel, 2013 and 2014), brought attention to the issue of e-learning in higher education. Whilst the excitement and concerns about the disruptive transformation of higher education institutions and their teaching has quieted down, digitalisation in higher education learning and teaching still stands high on policy agendas, both at European and national levels, and for higher education institutions. In 2015, the ministers for higher education in the European Higher Education Area called for encouragement and support of higher education institutions and staff in fully exploiting the potential benefits of digital technologies for learning and teaching (EHEA, 2015, p. 2), and this has recently been renewed in the 2018 Paris Communique (EHEA, 2018). So far, more concrete actions of the Bologna Process towards digital learning are still to be developed.

The 2018 Bologna Process Implementation Report, for the first time, also monitored developments in digital learning: Out of 50 higher education systems examined, 38 were found to have a strategy or policies in place on the use of digital technologies in learning and teaching. Four countries (Estonia, Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands) have a specific strategy on the use of digitally-based teaching and learning methods in higher education (Bologna Process Implementation Report, 2018, p. 75, Fig. 2.26). While most strategies refer to general objectives and priorities for action, and some also to public funding allocation (mostly for providing access to relevant ICT infrastructure), none sets quantitative targets. Twenty-one higher education systems across the EHEA promote and support institutions in making the use of new technologies mainstream (*ibidem*, Fig. 2.27, p. 77, Fig. 2.27; p. 78, Fig. 2.28). However, only seven systems provide new resources for staff training on this (Croatia, Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Kazakhstan, and Poland).

The Bologna Process Implementation Report also confirmed that blended learning[40] is, by far, the most common across the EHEA: While full online degrees are offered in 18 countries, 39 countries stated that blended programmes are offered by some of their higher education institutions (*ibidem*, p. 79). The trend in higher education towards e-learning, and in particular blended learning, was already visible in 2014 when an EUA survey found that 91% of institutions offered blended learning (i.e. integrating e-learning into conventional teaching) and 82% offered online courses (Gaebel, Kupriyanova, Morais *et alii*, 2014b).[41] The Trends 2015 report largely confirmed these findings and pointed to the importance of these developments given that due to digital provision, higher education institutions can continue their "relationship with their students well beyond graduation, for example through developing alumni services." While assuming that the distinction between traditional students and lifelong learners has increasingly blurred, higher education institutions may well enter into areas of provision that have been dominated thus far by for-profit providers (Trends 2015, p. 96).

Both the 2014 E-Learning Study and the 2015 Trends report also found that the implementation and use of e-learning was somewhat patchy, with only parts of the institution and the student population having access. In addition, while the feasibility of ICT-supported learning was widely acknowledged, its comparative advantages to conventional learning and teaching were somewhat difficult to prove. Overall, in 2014-2015, discussions on e-learning, in and outside of higher education institutions, still tended to be rather polarised, based on beliefs and technical feasibility rather than on substantial experience and daily practice, and loaded with high expectations or concerns.

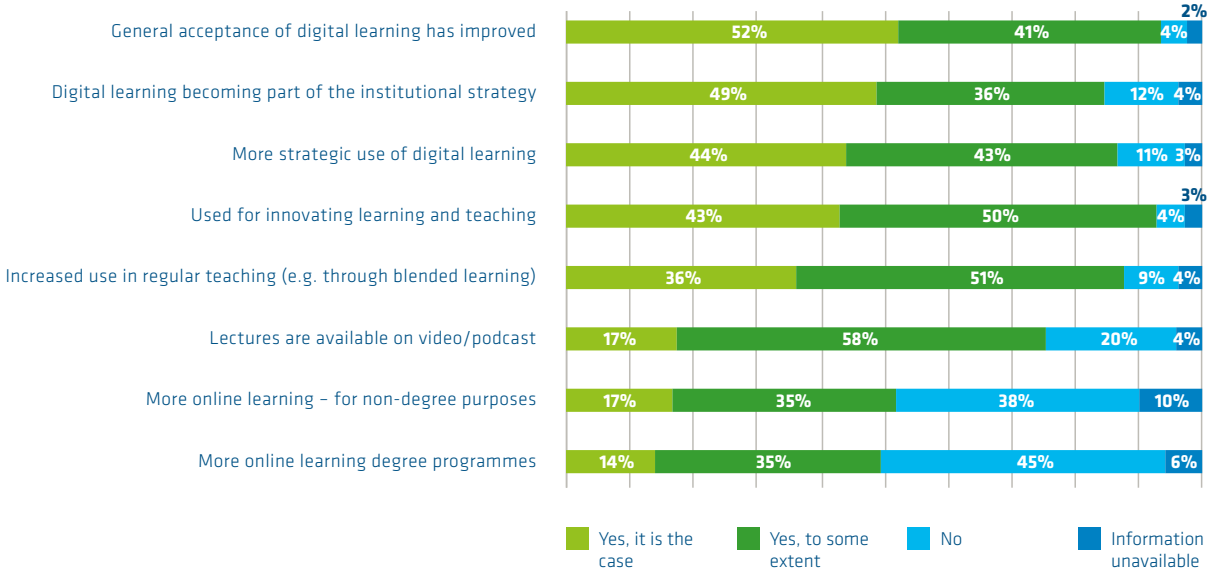
Results from Trends 2018 suggest that progress has been made. In the last three years, digital learning reinforced its presence at higher education institutions. They reported a high level of general

40 There is no common definition of "blended learning"; it just indicates the integration and use of digital learning into study programmes and courses.

41 The survey collected responses from higher education institutions from 38 systems in Europe.

acceptance of digital learning (93%), a more strategic use of it (87%), an integration into institutional strategies (85%), and its increased use in regular teaching (87%) (all figures are based on aggregated positive answers; see Fig. 25 for the breakdown).[42]

Fig. 25 Main institutional trends in digital learning during the last three years
What are the main trends at your institution regarding digital learning in the last three years? (Q. 25; N = 293)



Ninety-three percent confirm that digital learning is used in innovating learning and teaching, and in all countries, institutions also tend to see innovation in learning and teaching as being closely linked to e-learning and digitalisation. Among the examples that they provide for learning and teaching innovation, e-learning and other digital measures (blended learning, the creation of MOOCs, the use of e-learning platforms, etc.) were by far the most cited. It is interesting to observe that videotaped and podcasted lectures, which were vastly presented as the first and most easily implemented feature for digital learning, are less of a main trend than other options (Fig. 25). About half of the institutions also indicated developing more online learning for degree (49%) and non-degree purposes (52%) – which is relatively high, given that the sample consists mainly of conventional higher education institutions. However, this can also be read as confirmation that universities remain, at least for the moment, physical spaces.

There are some significant country differences:

- In the Czech Republic, Greece, Germany, Ireland, Kazakhstan, Portugal, Romania, Sweden, Switzerland, the UK, and Ukraine, all institutions reported that general acceptance increased.

- In Greece, Germany, Kazakhstan, Sweden, Switzerland, the UK, and Ukraine, all institutions also confirmed that it is becoming part of the institutional strategy – which has only been the case at a third of the Polish, a quarter of French and Italian, and a fifth of Czech institutions.

- While only a quarter (23%) of the responding institutions disagreed that the possibilities offered by e-learning have boosted their education provision, the response was higher in the Czech Republic (44%) and in Portugal (67%).

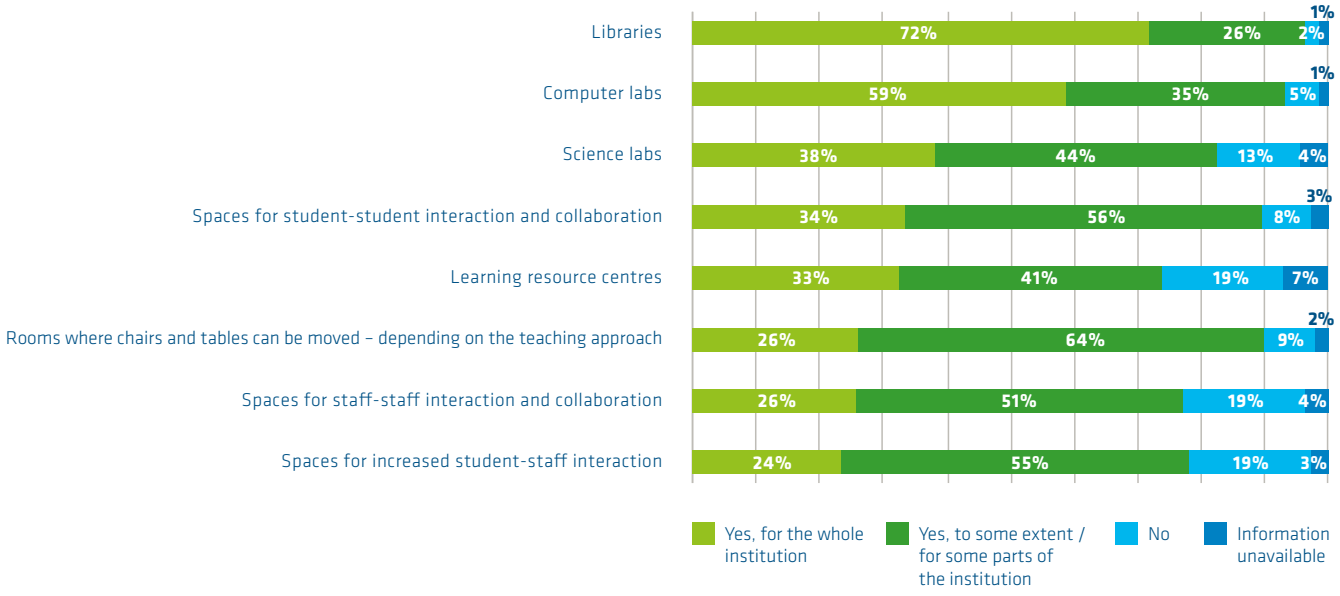
42 Aggregated positive answers under Q. 25 include answers "yes, it is the case", and "yes, to some extent".

Institutions seem to embrace more strategic and innovative uses of digital learning. This should provide an opportunity to share experiences and good practices regarding the impact on teaching approaches and curricula, as well as on staff, students, and the organisational structures dedicated to learning and teaching. A recent study from the European Association of Distance Teaching Universities (EADTU) also confirmed the enhancement of pedagogical approaches and institution-wide coordination of learning and teaching as benefits resulting from the increased use of blended learning and online courses (Henderikx and Jansen, 2018, pp. 3-5).

4.5. The learning environment

Changing learning and teaching approaches may require an adaptation of physical spaces within institutions. Trends 2018 data shows that nearly all institutions consider this for the more traditional parts of the learning environment, such as libraries and computer labs (Fig. 26). Providing spaces for student-to-student interaction and collaboration is also high on the agenda, with only 8% of higher education institutions stating that they do not have them.

Fig. 26 Adaptation of physical spaces to new forms of learning and teaching
Are the physical spaces at your institution well adapted to new forms of learning and teaching? (Q. 26; N =292)



Apart from libraries and computer labs, less than 40% of institutions provide these structures for the entire institution. Given the diverse institutional contexts and situations, it is not easy to draw conclusions on what this could mean for learning and teaching. The fact that 64% state having "rooms where chairs and tables can be moved" only partly available, could point to a shortage of suitable rooms, or just indicate that institutions still have theatre style rooms. In addition, arrangements for learning and teaching would often be decided and implemented at faculty and department levels, sometimes even differently for individual study programmes – which could explain why they are rarely implemented for the whole institution.

Teaching staff

5

Main points

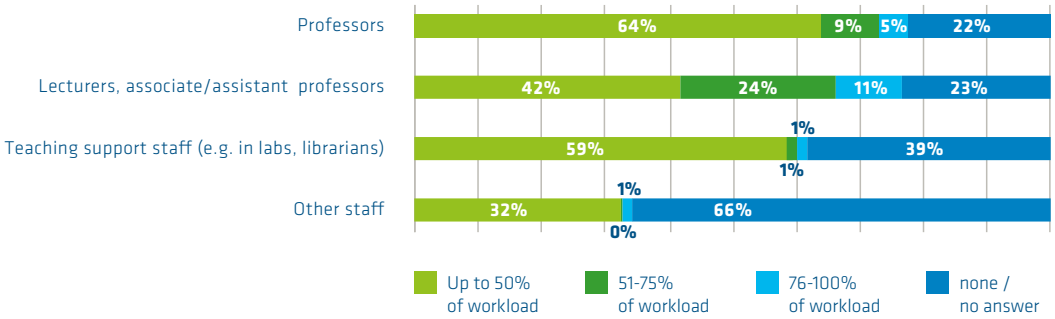
- At most higher education institutions, responsibilities for teaching are shared among staff with different profiles. Depending on the system and type of institution, researchers, experts, and practitioners, as well as students, contribute to teaching, though with different levels of responsibility regarding teaching content and concepts. For example, 60% of institutions indicate that a substantial contribution comes from teaching support staff. Only 14% of institutions surveyed stated that professors take on more than half of the overall teaching load.
- An appointment at a higher education institution that includes teaching responsibilities may require four different elements: an academic degree, teaching experience, evaluation of teaching performance, and participation in teaching enhancement. However, these elements are not always necessary in all systems and institutions, and are interpreted in very different ways.
- The most common requirement is an academic degree, usually a doctorate. The vast majority of institutions confirms the need to emphasise teaching experience and teacher training as elements of doctoral education. However, the percentage of doctoral candidates who currently benefit from teacher training and experience seems to be quite low, as only 25% of the European systems take this into account. In addition, it is often not mandatory and subject to exceptions.
- Only half of the institutions have set formal requirements regarding teaching experience and the regular evaluation of teaching, and about one third requires participation in teaching enhancement (pedagogical development). However, these usually address only professors, lecturers, and associate professors, leaving out other types of staff that contribute to teaching.
- Teaching performance is commonly evaluated, but evaluation instruments are still being explored. Results from teaching performance evaluation have little or no impact on career progression. Institutions identify the lack of recognition for teaching in career progression as one of the top obstacles for improving learning and teaching.
- Teaching enhancement is often emphasised at the system level, but its actual development and implementation lies mostly with the higher education sector. Seventy-seven percent of institutions provide optional teaching enhancement courses, while 37% have made them compulsory. In addition, two thirds of institutions also encourage and support good teaching through other means, such as portfolios, self-evaluations, peer feedback, team-teaching, and research on learning and teaching.
- Most institutions confirm that international and national initiatives, supported by the government or the sector itself, as well as inter-institutional exchange and collaboration, are very useful in the development of teaching enhancement.

This chapter analyses who is actually teaching at higher education institutions, what requirements they must meet to take on teaching responsibilities, how they are supported though staff enhancement, and how teaching influences academic careers.[43]

5.1. Who is teaching at higher education institutions

While professors are commonly perceived as the main protagonists in university teaching, they share this task at virtually all European higher education institutions with an array of actors. These include associate or assistant professors, researchers, experts and practitioners, teaching support staff and sometimes students. The Trends 2018 results show that at about two-thirds of the surveyed institutions, professors carry 50% or less of the overall teaching load. They carry more than half at only 14% of the institutions. Lecturers and associate or assistant professors[44] contribute to up to 50% of teaching at 42% of institutions, and more than 50% at 35% of institutions.

Fig. 27 Teaching workload distribution among staff categories
Within your institution, how is the total teaching workload distributed among these staff categories? (in percentage) (Q. 33; N = 282)



The 2017 Eurydice study on academic staff confirms that the percentage of professors in the overall academic staff varies significantly across European countries (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017, pp. 23-24, and Annex 1). According to the EUROAC study, professors (senior academic positions) represent around 50% of the academic staff in Poland and the Netherlands, 30% in Austria, Hungary, and the UK, and 20% or less in Finland, Germany, Portugal, and Switzerland (Ates and Brechelmacher, in Teichler and Höhle, 2013, p. 25).

Trends 2018 data shows that there are remarkable variations in the distribution of teaching among the different types of institutions. At technical, and even more so at open universities, the contribution of lecturers and associate or assistant professors is higher than average. Meanwhile, at art and music colleges, as well as at universities of applied sciences, it is significantly lower.

The task of teaching support staff[45] is likely seen in most cases as a responsibility carried out in collaboration with professors and lecturers, rather than independent, self-directed teaching. However, the fact that 59% of institutions acknowledge that such support staff conducts up to

43 In addition to Trends 2018 data, this chapter also relies on a Eurydice study on the situation of academic staff in Europe (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017), EUA's study on doctoral education (EUA, 2019, forthcoming), and the EUROAC study (Teichler and Höhle, 2013; Fumasoli, Goastellec and Kehm, 2015). The EUROAC study was based on the results of two surveys. The first one, the "Changing Academic Profession" (CAP) survey, was conducted between 2007 and 2008 in 18 countries worldwide, including six European countries (Finland, Germany, Italy, Norway, Portugal, and the UK) with the Netherlands added in 2010. A second survey, called EUROAC, was undertaken in 2010, and included six additional European countries (Austria, Croatia, Ireland, Poland, Romania, and Switzerland). The methodology consisted in quantitative online surveys, combined with semi-structured interviews of employees, researchers, and teachers working at universities, universities of applied sciences, and non-university research organisations. The results provide a large and systematic European dataset on the academic profession.

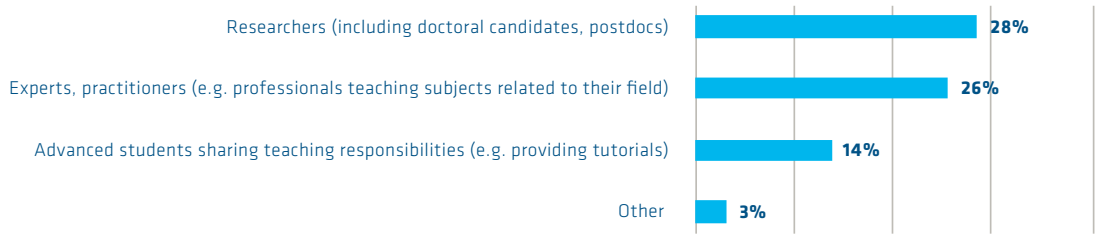
44 "Lecturers and associate or assistant professors" are academic staff with teaching responsibilities who are not full professors. Depending on the system, they may go by other names.

45 Defined as lab technicians, librarians, or related.

50% of the teaching, shows that they are an important and indispensable element. This also confirms the assumption that teaching is seen as a shared task. The contribution of teaching support staff is common at all types of institutions. However, at technical universities it is slightly above average, while at art and music colleges, as well as open universities, it is slightly lower than the average (Fig. 27).

At one third of institutions, "other staff" carry up to 50% of the teaching workload. These "other staff" may comprise researchers (including doctoral candidates and postdocs), experts and practitioners (professionals teaching a subject related to their professional field), and graduate students.

Fig. 28 Other categories of staff with teaching responsibilities
What other categories of staff have teaching responsibilities at your institution? (Q. 33.1; N = 91)



Trends 2018 did not ask about the types of contracts and employment engagements the different staff categories have, or how this would impact teaching. While experts and researchers might engage in teaching only on a part-time basis, they may have an important role to play in the teaching content and in the overall student experience. However, it is unlikely that they contribute systematically to the development of programmes, curricula and teaching methods. The EUROAC study (Ates and Brechelmacher, in Teichler and Höhle, 2013, p. 25) points out that "permanent employment (or continuous employment without permanent guarantees, or with no pre-set term) [would prevail] in Europe for senior academics,"[46] and for most of the junior academics in Ireland, the Netherlands, Poland, and the UK. By contrast, the majority of junior academic staff responding to the survey in Austria (68%), Finland (51%), Germany (79%), Norway (75%), Portugal (69%), and Switzerland (79%) is employed on short-term contracts. Interestingly, non-university higher education institutions seem to be more likely to provide long-term or permanent contracts to both senior and junior academics (*ibidem*, pp. 25-26). In a recent study conducted among members of trade unions in nine European countries, almost half of the respondents (48%) stated having no permanent contract,[47] which could suggest a tendency towards limited-term and temporary contracts.

The EUROAC study also analysed how different staff categories balance teaching with other tasks. Whilst both junior and senior academics clearly devote more time to research than to teaching, considerable country differences can be found. Senior academics in Portugal devote 36% of their time to teaching, and junior academics even 41%. That is compared to 23% and 12%, respectively, in Switzerland. Differences between universities and non-university institutions are less pronounced than one might expect: Compared to university professors, senior academics at non-university institutions spend two hours more per week teaching (Teichler and Höhle, 2013, pp. 79-108).

46 For more than 90% of senior academics in Germany, Ireland, Norway, and the UK – with some variations (fixed-term or other contracts for one third of senior academics in Finland and Poland).
47 Clarke, 2015, for Education International (EI)/ the European Trade Union Committee for Education (ETUCE). The study adopted the EUROAC survey questionnaire and is based on data collected in 2013-2014, with around 9 000 respondents from Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Portugal, Romania, Serbia, and the UK.

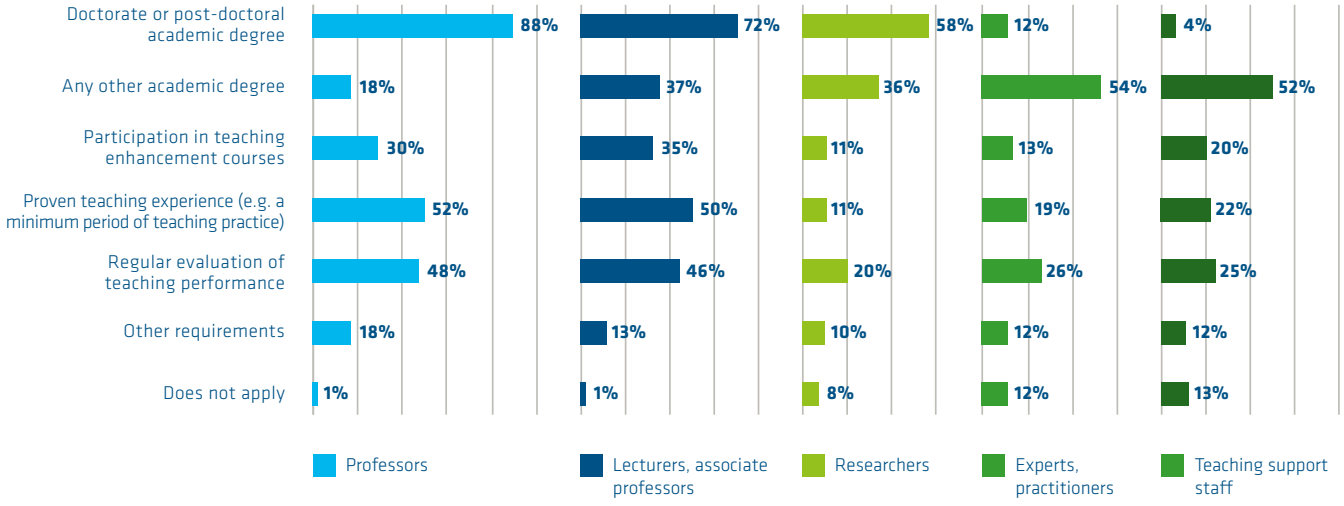
All of this gives insight into the complexity of the "human resources" situation in higher education teaching, which can vary significantly depending on the system and the type of institution. The fact that about one quarter of Trends 2018 respondents could not provide information on how the teaching load is distributed among their various staff categories suggests both a lack of centralised data and, likely, that the question has not been of relevance so far in institutional planning.

5.2. Qualifications and experience required for teaching

As shown in Fig. 29, a combination of different requirements is usually needed in the appointment and engagement of positions with teaching responsibilities:

- Practically all positions with teaching responsibilities require an academic degree. For professors, lecturers, assistant professors, and researchers, this is usually a doctoral degree.
- For professors, lecturers, and associate professors, around half of the institutions require proven teaching experience and evaluate their teaching regularly. For other staff categories, neither is very common.
- About one third of institutions requires participation in teaching enhancement courses (teacher training) for professors, lecturers, and associate professors.

Fig. 29 Formal or most common requirements needed for holding a position with teaching responsibilities
In your institution, what formal or most common requirements are needed for holding [a] position with teaching responsibilities? (Q. 34; N = 289)

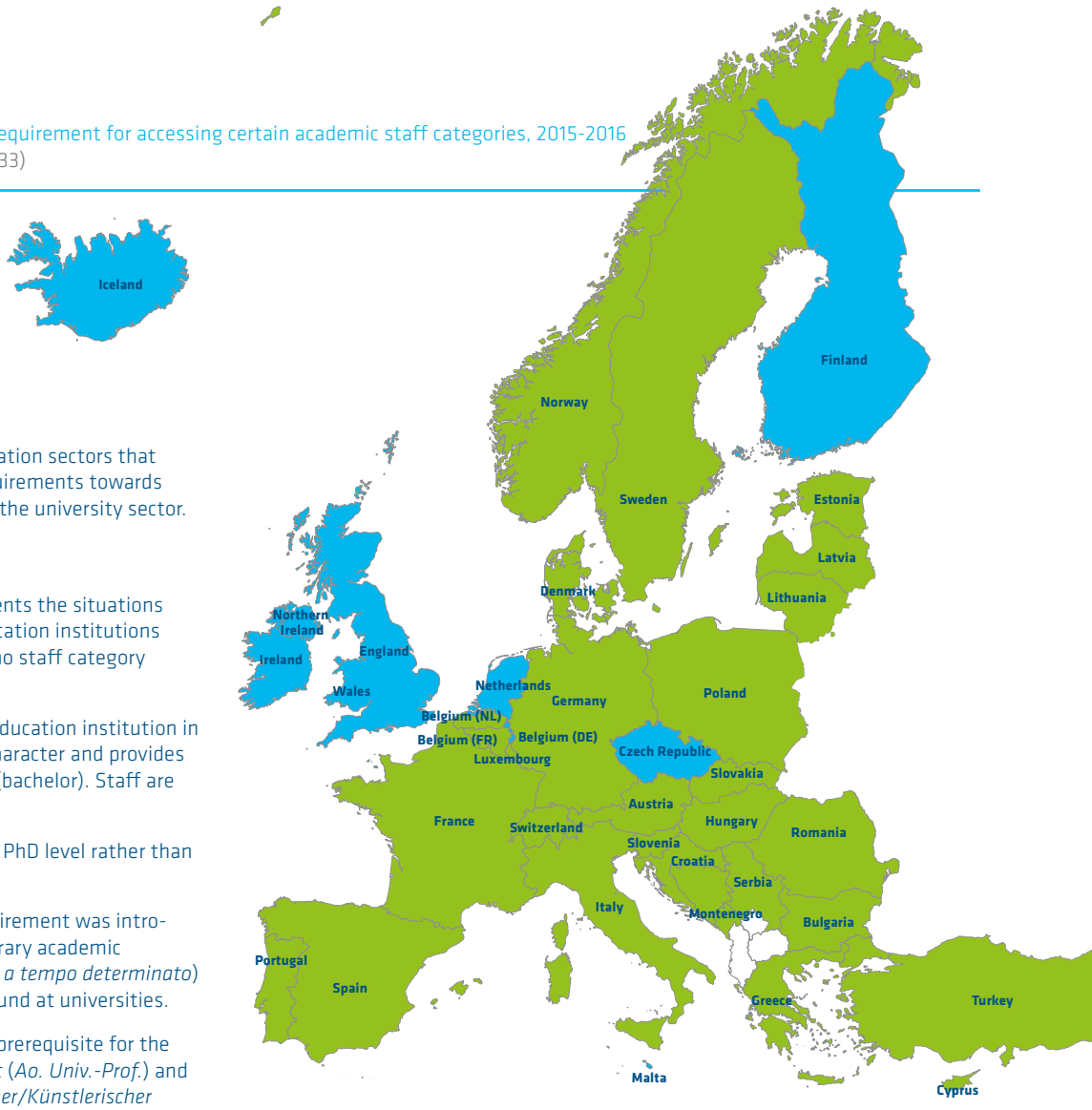


5.2.1. The doctorate and other academic degrees as a requirement for higher education teaching

The most common requirement for a higher education position that includes teaching is a higher education degree. For full professors, associate or assistant professors, and researchers, this usually means a doctorate. However, not all systems and institutions require a doctorate, and even where required, it may not necessarily bring with it teaching experience or teacher training.

In most European countries, a doctorate is legally required to access senior and intermediate academic staff positions at universities (see Fig. 30) – although this is less the case at university colleges and art and music colleges. In some systems, it also applies to junior positions (European

Fig. 30 Doctoral degree as a legal requirement for accessing certain academic staff categories, 2015-2016
(Source: Eurydice, 2017, Fig. 2.2, p. 33)



Explanatory note:

Countries with several higher education sectors that differ in terms of qualification requirements towards academic staff are represented by the university sector.

Country-specific notes:

Belgium (BE fr): The figure represents the situations in universities. In other higher education institutions (*Hautes Écoles* and arts colleges), no staff category needs to hold a doctorate.

Belgium (BE de): The only higher education institution in the system has a non-university character and provides programmes at ISCED 2011 level 6 (bachelor). Staff are not required to hold a doctorate.

Denmark: Legislation refers to the PhD level rather than to the PhD degree.

Italy: The doctorate as a legal requirement was introduced in 2010. It applies to 'temporary academic researchers' (*ricercatori universitari a tempo determinato*) – the staff category that can be found at universities.

Austria: Doctoral degree is a legal prerequisite for the staff categories *Universitätsdozent* (*Ao. Univ.-Prof.*) and *Nicht-habilitierter Wissenschaftlicher/Künstlerischer Mitarbeiter*. These categories are being phased out.

Slovenia and **Switzerland**: The figure represents the situations in universities. It does not apply to other higher education institutions.

Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017, Annex 1, pp. 209 *et seq.*).[48] In addition to the doctorate, a post-doctoral qualification[49] for becoming a professor may be required. The EUROAC study shows that about 75% of university professors in Germany and Austria, as well as two thirds in Switzerland, hold such a title, but only half of the professors in Poland and the UK do (Ates and Brechelmaker, in Teichler and Höhle, 2013, pp. 15 and 32).

The EUROAC study points to country variations: Almost all senior academics in non-university higher education institutions in Poland, and 80% in Germany, Norway, and Portugal hold a doctorate, but

48 The Eurydice study defines "senior positions" as the "highest ranks of academic staff, including professors, and in some countries also categories such as senior researchers and scientific directors." "Intermediate positions" are defined as "including academic staff with substantial research and/or teaching experience that, typically, grants them the right to direct research projects and to teach at the postgraduate level." The "junior positions" are "initial/early stage categories of academic employment, typically including young researchers/teachers who may intend to progress towards higher ranks in the academic profession."

49 The glossary attached to the Trends 2018 questionnaire defined "post-doctoral academic degree" as "any post-doctoral academic degree that would be required to teach independently and supervise students at a university. Examples: *habilitation, habilitation à diriger des recherches*, etc."

only 16% of senior staff in non-university higher education institutions in the Netherlands hold a doctorate (Ates and Brechelmaker, in Teichler and Höhle, 2013, p. 15).

In systems where the doctorate is not a legal obligation, institutions may make it a condition for appointment, or require that the candidate will be awarded one within a certain period of time upon engagement (*ibidem*). The EUROAC study notes, for instance, that 90% of university professors in Finland hold doctorates, as do between 60-80% of university professors in Ireland, the Netherlands, and the UK (Teichler and Höhle, 2013, p. 252) – all countries with no legal requirement (see Fig. 30). Another specific case is Italy, where the doctorate became the typical entry qualification to the academic profession only recently. While the doctorate in Italy is a legal requirement for new appointments, currently, only one third of all professors holds a doctorate. This is particularly the case among junior academics (65%, *ibidem*, pp. 13 *et seq.*).

The majority of institutions that responded to the Trends survey requires researchers who teach to hold a doctorate (58%) or another degree (36%), with country variations. A doctorate is a requirement for researchers at all Portuguese institutions. The same is true for 80% or more of French, Greek, Romanian, Swedish, and UK institutions. By contrast, the doctorate is rarely required for experts and practitioners (12%) and teaching support staff (4%). But more than half of institutions require the latter to have an academic degree, particularly in Ireland (100%), the Netherlands (71%), Switzerland (88%), and Turkey (73%).

5.2.2. **Teaching experience and teacher training as part of doctoral education**

Whilst the doctorate may be required for an academic position, it may not necessarily include teacher training or teaching experience.

Doctoral candidates receive formal teacher training in only 11 of the 49 EHEA systems, and mainly in Eastern Europe (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017, pp. 35-40; Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, pp. 85-86). While it may be defined as a requirement, it is often formulated in a rather flexible fashion, for instance as an expected outcome of doctoral training, leaving it to the higher education institution to decide how to ensure this. In addition, the obligations may not apply to or be implemented for all doctoral candidates. For instance, in Slovakia, by law, full-time doctoral candidates must teach an average of four hours per week, but *de facto*, this applied to only 56% of all doctoral candidates in 2015-2016. In Poland and Bulgaria, teaching while completing the doctorate is mandatory, but not for "independent students", meaning those who do not participate in any organised doctoral training (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017, p. 35). But even if it is not nationally regulated, institutions may still decide to include teaching components (teacher training and/or a requirement to teach) in their doctoral programmes. Overall, only 25% of EHEA countries indicated that, in their system(s), doctoral programmes generally do not include teaching components (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, p. 86).

Teaching practice and training as part of doctoral education might be an area of ongoing change: In 2007-2010 across 11 countries,[50] less than 20% of academics reported that their doctoral training comprised instruction in teaching skills and methods (Ates and Brechelmacher, in Teichler and Höhle, 2013, p. 19). But according to a survey conducted by EUA's Council for Doctoral Education (EUA, forthcoming, 2019), 82% of European higher education institutions found teaching competences (e.g. pedagogy, didactics) to be an important element of doctoral training. This is, however, lower than the importance allocated to research competences (99%) and generic academic competences (grant writing, publishing, ethics; 95%).

50 In Austria, Croatia, Finland, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Switzerland, and the UK.

Future research should also consider whether and how doctoral candidates are supported in their first teaching experience.

5.2.3. **Teaching qualifications**

In addition to academic qualifications proven through a doctorate, full professors, lecturers, and associate professors could be expected to (see Fig. 29):

- have proven teaching experience at about half of institutions. This is commonly the case for full professors at Austrian (75%), Russian (92%), and Ukrainian institutions (100%).

- undergo regular evaluations of teaching performance. About half of the institutions indicated that they conduct these for full professors (48%), as well as for lecturers and associate professors (46%). Lecturers, associate, or assistant professors are more likely to undergo such evaluations in Kazakhstan (87%), Russia (69%), Switzerland (75%), and Ukraine (100%).

- participate in teaching enhancement. This is required at about one third of institutions for full, associate and assistant professors. In some systems, the share can be higher. For instance, it is required for full professors at half or more of the Kazakh (53%), Romanian (50%), Russian (69%), UK (50%), and Ukrainian institutions (83%).

More formalised teaching qualifications also exist in some systems for non-university higher education institutions and are mandatory, for instance, at universities of applied sciences and teacher colleges in Switzerland, and at non-university higher education institutions in the French-speaking Community of Belgium (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, p. 86).

Experts, practitioners and teaching support staff are usually not required to have any qualification for teaching:

- Only 19% of institutions ask that experts and practitioners have teaching experience, while 22% require it for teaching support staff. But it is required for teaching support staff at most Greek institutions (67%).

- Approximately a quarter of institutions conducts regular teaching performance evaluations, e.g. for teaching support staff. This is particularly true at Greek (50%), Kazakh (60%), Russian (54%), and Ukrainian (83%) institutions.

- Some institutions require experts (13%) and teaching support staff (20%) to participate in teaching enhancement. In the case of experts/practitioners, this is more common particularly in the Netherlands (43%), the UK (40%), and Ukraine (67%).

For researchers contributing to teaching, the requirements tend to be similar or even lower. Given that only about half of the institutions expect them to hold a doctorate, they are probably the category with the lowest requirements – with some notable country exceptions:

- In the UK, 50% of institutions commonly require them to have teaching experience and to undergo regular evaluations of teaching performance.

- Evaluations of teaching performance are also required at half of Greek and Ukrainian institutions.

There is question as to why so few institutions require researchers, experts, and teaching support staff to participate in teaching enhancement courses, or to undergo evaluation of their teaching.

It may be due to the fact that their engagement is temporary, and rather limited in terms of responsibilities, at least in the case of experts and researchers. Whether such requirements are actually feasible and in the interest of enhancing learning and teaching is another question. In the case of experts and practitioners, in particular, institutions may not be willing to impose additional requirements on professionals. Their contracts may be subject to decisions at the faculty or department level, and they may not appear as a formally regulated staff category. The situation may be similar for teaching support staff, although they constitute a much larger group, which is likely more integrated into institutional processes, compared to experts. But researchers may not constitute a real staff category in all European higher education systems and may comprise very different profiles with very different tasks, such as students serving as tutors, doctoral candidates, who have just earned, or are about to earn their degrees, and staff with particular skills such as in the areas of language or technology.

Overall, the qualifications for teaching remain rather low key, including for full professors, lecturers, and associate professors, as only about half of institutions require teaching practice at appointment and carry out regular evaluations of teaching performance, while only one third makes teaching enhancement compulsory. Moreover, the required academic qualification (doctorate and other post-doctoral titles) may not include a strong emphasis on teaching skills development, apart from actual teaching practice. As shown in Chapter 5.2.2, for the doctorate this may be in the process of changing, at least in some systems. This may also be a valid strategy in the professionalisation of teaching, and its better recognition and integration in academic career development.

These conclusions should take into consideration that senior academic positions usually combine teaching and research, as well as other complex tasks involving collaboration in and coordination of activities in the institution's local or international environment. Therefore, rather than separately emphasising competences for teaching (intercultural competences, teaching in another language, improved pedagogical and didactic skills, etc.), research (skills in writing successful grants, managing project teams), and third mission activities (participation in governance structures, interaction with the community) (Kehm, in Fumasoli, Goastellec and Kehm, 2015, p. 192), one might consider how these actually overlap, and develop staff enhancement programmes with a more comprehensive approach.

5.3. Evaluation of teaching and its recognition for career advancement

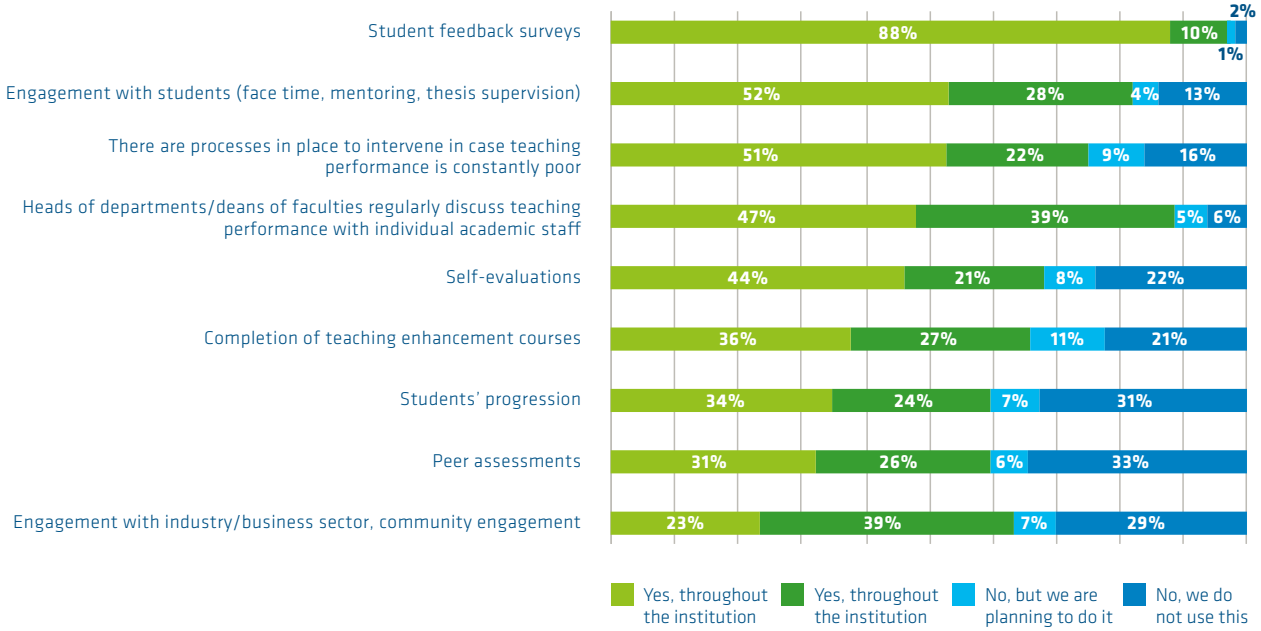
Trends 2015 found that, despite the importance of research for careers, institutions commonly assess teaching slightly more often than research.[51] The 2017 Eurydice study found the evaluation of academic staff to be "a compulsory element of institutional management," and usually "an integral part of internal quality assurance" in the 38 European higher education systems assessed (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017, p. 91).[52] Trends 2018 data confirms that at most institutions, staff evaluations usually consider teaching performance: 87% stated that teaching performance plays a role in the promotion and career development of teaching staff (39% fully, 48% to some extent). Only 12% stated it would not play any role, in particular at French institutions (53%).

When examining the means and criteria used, student feedback surveys appear as the most common way of assessing teaching, with a slight increase compared to three years ago (98% compared to 93% in Trends 2015, p. 83). Student feedback surveys are used throughout the institution in all Austrian, Dutch, Irish, Kazakh, Romanian, Swedish, Swiss, and UK institutions.

51 89% of institutions indicated to do it for teaching, compared to 84% for research (Trends 2015, p. 83).

52 This study does not cover all EHEA countries, but 38 systems (counting three devolved Belgian and two UK systems) in 35 EU, EEA, and candidate countries.

Fig. 31 Means and criteria used for the assessment of teaching
Which of the following means and criteria are used for the assessment of teaching? (Q. 36; N = 275)



Other findings include:

- Engagement with students (direct contact, through mentoring, supervision etc.) accounts for the assessment of teaching at 52% of institutions, and at all Greek, Irish, Kazakh, Dutch, Romanian, Russian, and Ukrainian institutions. Another 28% of institutions uses it "in some parts of the institution".

- Three quarters of institutions have processes in place to intervene in cases of low teaching performance. These processes are common "across the institution" in Kazakhstan (93%), the Netherlands (83%), Russia (69%), Switzerland (75%), and the UK (88%). Another 9% are planning to set up such processes.

- Eighty-six percent of institutions indicate that deans and heads of departments regularly discuss teaching performance with individual academic staff members, but at half of them (41%) this is done only "in some parts of the institution", and probably at the discretion of individual faculties or departments.

- Sixty-five percent of institutions use self-evaluations to assess teaching. In 46%, this is commonly done "across the institution". This is especially the case in Kazakhstan (93%), the Netherlands (67%), Romania (71%), Russia (70%), and the UK (71%).

- Peer assessment is used by 57% of institutions in assessing teaching. However, peer feedback systems, where teachers provide feedback on each other's teaching, are less widespread and established in only 38% of institutions.

- Sixty-two percent of institutions consider engagement with industry and society in teaching assessments, which is more common "in some parts of the institution" (39%). This suggests that it is reserved to or common in faculties or departments that teach applied skills and require practical experience, and indeed, technical universities are also more likely to consider this kind

of engagement in the assessment of teaching performance (71%). It is also commonly done in Greece (75%), Ireland (86%), Kazakhstan (93%), the Netherlands (84%), Romania (100%), Russia (92%), and Ukraine (84%).

Besides student feedback surveys, which are widely used - though generally, their reliability and impact is contested -, there is a high diversity of measures, used at different institutions, and in different ways across faculties and departments. While institutions surveyed under Trends 2018 seem determined to enhance learning and teaching, also as a way to respond to rising pressures from QA procedures, national authorities, and growing competition, they also commented that they are not yet fully satisfied with the present approaches in evaluating teaching performance and would like to enhance them.

Even though teaching performance is commonly evaluated, it seems that in most EHEA higher education systems good teaching usually plays only a minor role in career advancement, whereas research performance remains the most important factor (Trends 2015, p. 80, Fig. 22; see also Loukkola and Dakovic (eds.), 2017, pp. 5-6; p. 19). The Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018 found that, in 34 out of 49 EHEA systems, research is higher valued in the career progression of academics than teaching. In another 12 systems, teaching and research are regarded as equally important, and in only one system teaching is generally of higher importance than research (Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, p. 89).

The EUROAC study makes the point that "less than a quarter of academics at universities believe that [personnel decisions regarding recruitment and promotion] are strongly based on the presumed *teaching quality* of the respective persons" (Teichler and Höhle, 2013, pp. 91-92).

Trends 2018 found that teaching staff may still use successful evaluations when applying for positions or negotiating benefits. However, even this might not be the case in systems with no career advancement due to austerity measures, or where the legal situation does not allow the institution to consider teaching for career advancement. Almost half of the institutions (47%) identified the lack of recognition for teaching in staff career development as one of the three top obstacles for improving learning and teaching.[53]

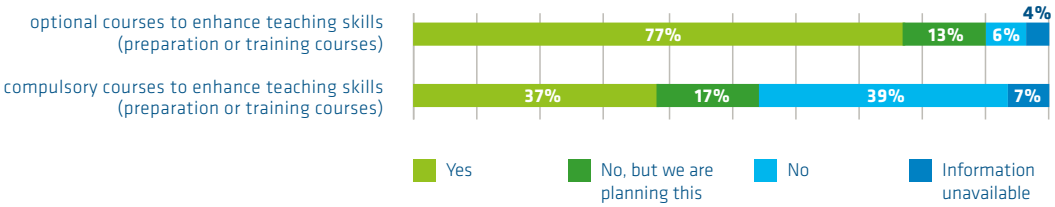
5.4. Teaching enhancement and continued professional development

The Trends 2015 report defined staff development as a pivotal aspect in improving learning and teaching, and staff commitment towards it (Trends 2015, p. 97). At the same time, the professionalisation of academic work has profiled as a major theme, with a focus on training and support schemes, to enhance academics' experience in pedagogy, curriculum development, research management and knowledge transfer (see for instance Fumasoli, Goastellec and Kehm, 2015).

Across Europe, the most common initiatives are pedagogical training and continued professional development of academic staff provided by individual institutions, with optional courses being the typical approach (77%).

53 Trends 2018, Q. 17. Aggregated answers with 19% identifying this as the most important obstacle, 15% as a very important obstacle, and 13% as an important obstacle. Only the lack of funding was ranked higher in the list of obstacles to improving learning and teaching.

Fig. 32 Systematic effort to establish...
Has there been a systematic effort to establish the following at your institution? (Q. 38; N = 287)



Compulsory courses are offered by 37% of institutions, but they are compulsory for all staff at only one third of them (32%), and include, for example, experts or practitioners, whereas at the rest they are offered only to permanently employed staff (26%), newly-hired staff (50%), and early stage teachers and academics (35%), and are embedded in doctoral programmes (25%). In Ukraine, 50% of institutions have compulsory courses for all teaching staff, and in the UK, teaching enhancement courses are compulsory for all newly-hired staff at 78% of institutions. Clearly, courses could be compulsory at the discretion of individual institutions, or due to an external obligation or incentivisation.

There are also differences according to the type of institution: Optional courses for teaching enhancement seem to be more common at specialised universities (87%) and open universities (100%). In comparison, art and music colleges are less likely to offer them (38% do not have such offer). Compulsory courses are also more common at specialised (44%) and open universities (75%), and less so in art and music colleges (52% do not offer them).

Institutions that explicitly address academic staff development in their learning and teaching strategy are more likely to offer teaching enhancement courses and other measures aimed at recognising good teaching, such as awards and prizes. They are also more likely to conduct research on their learning and teaching. Similarly, institutions that have a learning and teaching centre tend to develop teaching enhancement more systematically than others: 93% offer optional staff development courses and 50% offer compulsory courses.

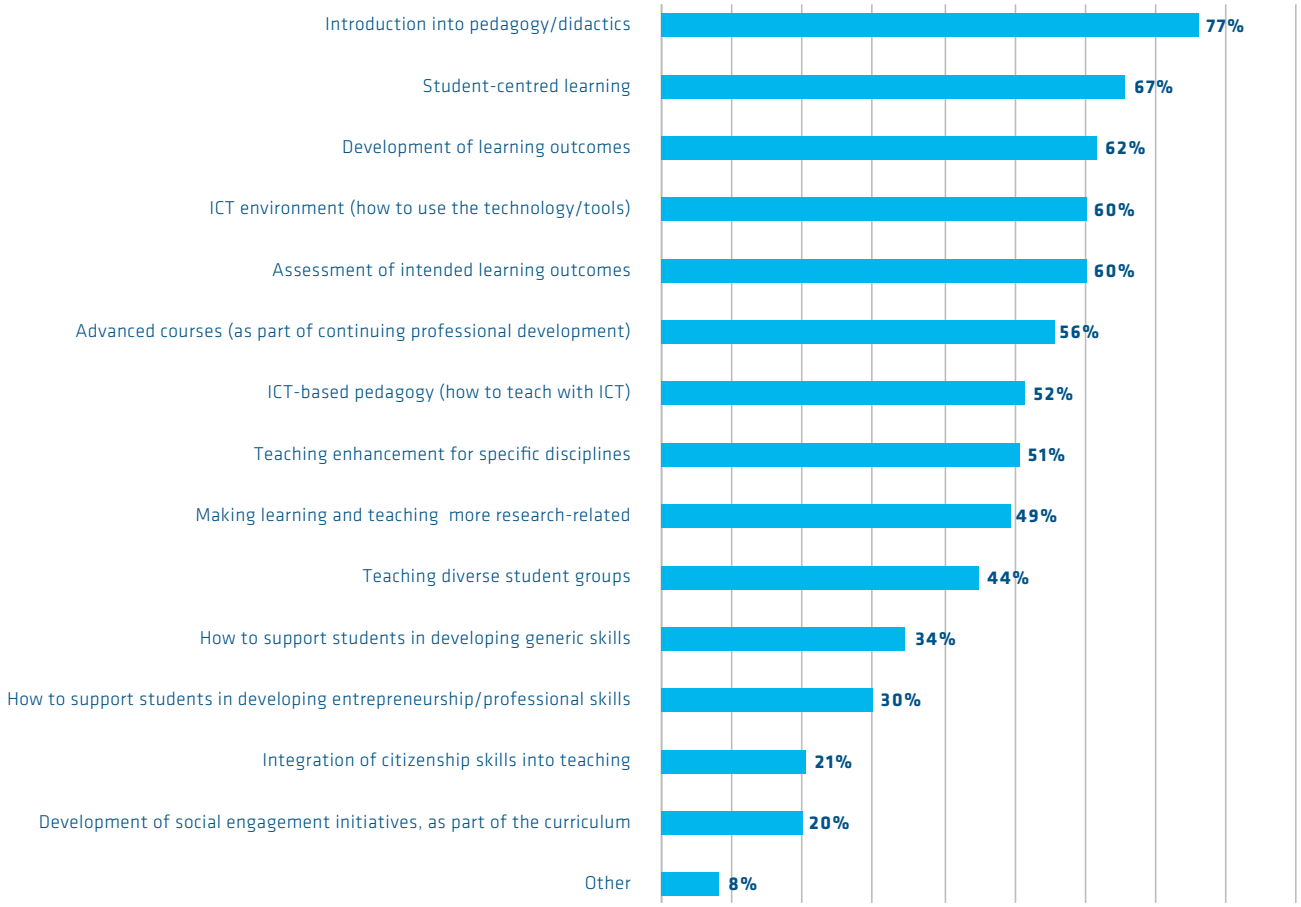
The topics of compulsory enhancement courses tend to converge across institutions:

- There is a strong focus on pedagogy and didactics (77%), student-centred learning (67%), the development (62%) and assessment of learning outcomes (60%). This is quite in line with the European reform priorities and the challenges that emerge from learning outcome and student-centred curricula.

- Issues relating to digitally-enhanced learning, with more interest in the use of technology, are more common (60%) than the related pedagogies (52%).

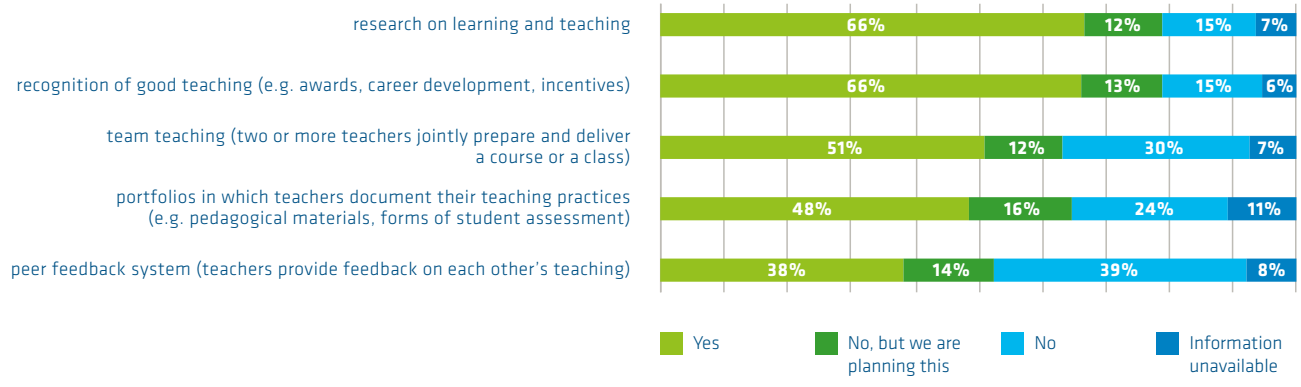
- Courses related to generic skills, citizenship skills, social inclusion and diversity, and entrepreneurship are less common.

Fig. 33 Topics addressed by compulsory enhancement courses
What do compulsory enhancement courses address? (Q. 38.2; N = 106)



Two-thirds of institutions that responded to the Trends 2018 survey also referred to other systematic efforts in recognising and supporting good teaching.

Fig. 34 Systematic effort to establish...
Has there been a systematic effort to establish the following at your institution? (Q. 38; N =299)



- The most common measure is team teaching, where teachers jointly prepare and deliver courses or classes. Two thirds of the institutions use it and another 12% plan to do so.

- Portfolios in which teachers document their teaching practices are also commonly used by 48% of institutions, with another 16% planning to implement them.

- By comparison, peer feedback systems, in which teachers provide feedback on each other's teaching, are less widespread (38%). Peers seem more frequently involved in the assessment of teaching than in feedback systems with the purpose of enhancing teaching.

- Research on learning and teaching holds the potential to enhance the institution's self-awareness towards its own education offer. Therefore, it is a positive sign that two-thirds of institutions are systematically trying to establish this.

Teaching prizes awarded to individuals or, less commonly, to teams is another means to raise attention on teaching. In Trends 2018, 31% of those with a learning and teaching centre stated that the organisation of such prizes is part of the tasks of their centre. However, according to a 2017 survey carried out under the EFFECT project, beyond the awards, usually not much further action takes place to disseminate the result or promote the recipient's work, and many institutions do not even have a public award ceremony (Efimenko, Roman, Pinto *e.a.*, 2018).

5.5. External incentivisation and collaboration on teaching enhancement

National-level initiatives for teaching enhancement (pedagogical development) and the recognition of teaching as part of the academic profession usually result from legislation, funding provided by the government, quality assurance procedures, professional training standards, and from a self-imposed voluntary commitment from the higher education sector (see Chapter 2.2).

The 2017 Eurydice report on academic staff, which covers 38 systems in 35 European countries, points to the fact that top-level authorities usually do not get involved in providing frameworks for continued professional development, but would provide subsidies directly to the institutions. As a result, there are almost no larger-scale teaching enhancement offers to higher education teachers, with the exception of a few countries (e.g. Bulgaria, Ireland, and the UK) (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017, pp. 77-78).

According to Trends 2018, only 46% of institutions indicated that a national or system-level learning and teaching strategy prompts them to introduce or increase teaching enhancement, but half of the institutions (55%) indicated that they cooperate specifically on teaching enhancement through participation in national initiatives – in particular in Greece (83%), Portugal (100%), Sweden (88%), and Switzerland (88%).

Higher education authorities usually leave the higher education institutions, respectively their sectoral associations, to organise teaching enhancement. However, funding provision and other measures often give authorities a means for steering:

- For example, in Austria, teaching enhancement is part of the performance contracts between the university and the national authorities, but every university can propose how to implement it.

- In the Netherlands, universities, through the Association of Universities in the Netherlands (VSNU), have created their own reference framework for teaching, namely the University Teaching Qualification (*Basis Kwalificatie Onderwijs*, BKO), which certifies the didactic competences of lecturers in higher education. This is also the case in Sweden, where universities, when granted autonomy in 2011, continued to develop and implement the guidelines established in previous years by the government.

- In Ireland, the National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education has commenced with strong financial support from the government. However, it is a sector-driven structure as the Forum's staff is delegated by the higher education institutions. In 2016, the Forum issued the *National Professional Development framework for all Staff who Teach in Higher Education*,[54] with which all higher education institutions in Ireland are mapping their professional frameworks.

- The UK Professional Standards Framework for teaching and supporting learning in higher education[55] has supported initial and continued professional development of teaching staff across the UK. In addition, the Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF), launched in 2017, also aims at recognising and rewarding good teaching, and to entitle awarded universities and colleges in England to charge higher tuition fees.[56]

- Norway, by contrast, has a longstanding tradition of higher education teaching enhancement, and a new law expected in the autumn of 2018 is likely to make participation in teaching enhancement and continued professional development a requirement for teachers.

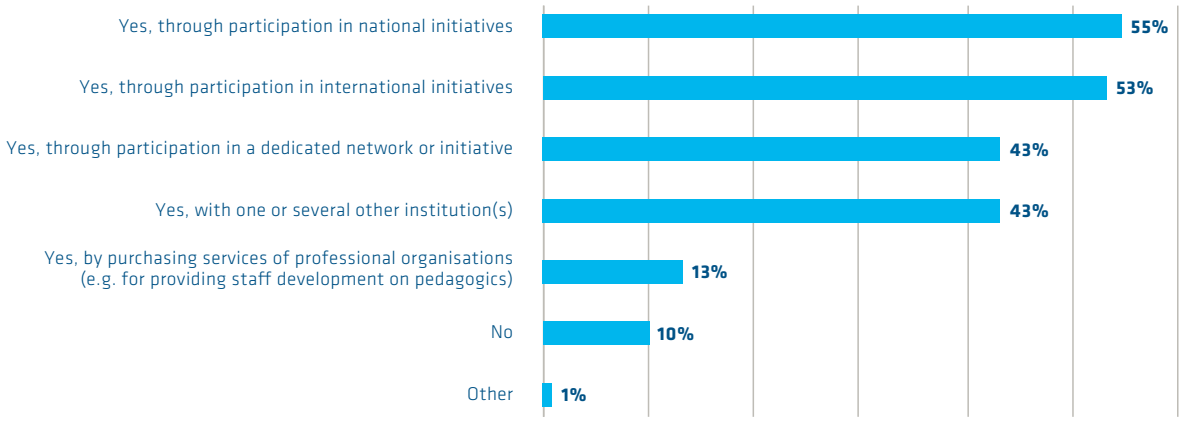
- In Germany, the government has encouraged and incentivised institutional enhancement and teacher training, among others, through the *Qualitaetspakt Lehre* and the Nexus project.

National approaches can generate strong pressure on performance and compliance with training standards – which to most of the higher education sector feels rather alien. However, they can also have a positive impact in providing institutions and their members with a common platform for learning and teaching issues.

In addition, more than half of the institutions indicate that they participate in international initiatives (53%) on teaching enhancement, through dedicated networks or initiatives (40%). Bilateral cooperation between universities is at 43%, and used by three quarters of institutions in Sweden and Switzerland. A relatively small number of institutions (13%) also purchases the services of professional organisations, mainly in the UK, where half of institutions do so, and where organisations such as the Higher Education Academy (Advance HE since 2018) have played a role in teaching enhancement and promoting a professional standards framework. Only 10% indicated that they do not participate in any external collaboration on teaching enhancement – and this is more often the case in Austria (25%), Italy (27%), and Turkey (36%).

54 https://www.teachingandlearning.ie/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/PD-Framework-FINAL-1.pdf.
55 https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/system/files/downloads/uk_professional_standards_framework.pdf.
56 The link between the TEF award and the fee increase is being tested and is still under development. At the time of this report, higher education institutions were only allowed to increase their tuition fees in line with inflation.

Fig. 35 Cooperation on teaching enhancement with outside parties
With what outside parties does the institution collaborate on teaching enhancement? (Q. 41; N = 286)



External exchange and collaboration seem to be of vital importance for higher education institutions in order to develop and improve teaching enhancement, and more generally measures to improve learning and teaching. This suggests that European and national funding spent on related project and mobility measures is a good investment, as well as a call for governments and sector organisations to support these developments through soft steering measures.

Conclusions and ways forward

In Europe, attention to learning and teaching has increased significantly in recent years at the national and institutional policy level. Several factors may play a role, such as increased labour market demand for higher education graduates, the pressure to have higher and more socially-inclusive participation, the higher investments that this requires from public and private sources, increased awareness towards the role of education in citizenship and critical skills, as well as the opportunities that technological developments hold.

Some of these developments are also observed in other parts of the world and might indicate a global trend. But in Europe, the Bologna Process and the Europe 2020 strategy provide a common framework for policy debate and reform. This could explain the strong convergence in some of the Trends 2018 results, despite differences in the educational systems, the national approaches for implementing European reforms, and the general diversity of political systems and socio-economic levels.

While European reforms did not include concrete pedagogical methods and blue prints for curriculum reform, the implementation of reforms in quality assurance, credit systems, as well as degrees and qualifications frameworks, emphasised the use of learning outcomes and student-centred learning approaches. Through longitudinal data collected over the years, Trends demonstrates that learning outcomes are being increasingly developed across institutions, for all study programmes.

Institutions also report more and more positive effects resulting from learning outcomes. However, overall, it is difficult to assess from the data whether and how their actual implementation has led to a paradigm shift in learning and teaching. What may have happened is the following: Institutions, due to structural reforms and the European instruments launched, had to translate learning outcomes and student-centred learning into day-to-day teaching practice, and to develop the necessary support structures for their success and further development. This must have fallen on fertile ground at many institutions, as it came to support grassroots-level initiatives by staff and departments, which were exploring active learning approaches.

Trends 2018 data shows that institutions are in the process of establishing more systematic and strategic approaches, with central structures for better support for and coordination of bottom-up developments in learning and teaching. There is also a clear indication that the quality of learning and teaching will rely more and more on collaborative processes and shared responsibilities among teachers, student services and support structures, as well as institutional leadership. The role of leadership is important and the vice-rector in charge of learning and teaching, in particular, seems to gain a more strategic profile with the responsibility of spearheading the development of the institution's vision and educational offer. Curricula development

is an interesting area for inter-institutional exchange and collaboration, as well as for further study and research, as it shows how different parts of the institution collaborate on learning and teaching.

The vast majority of institutions also confirmed interest and increased demand for more flexible provision of degree and non-degree education. Responses suggest a process of gradual change in the years to come towards flexible education and digitally-supported learning.

The assumption is that there has been innovation and transformation in learning in parts of the sector, and this has often happened long before being addressed at the different policy levels. For example, the 2015 Yerevan Communiqué is the first official Bologna document to mention e-learning. However, a 2014 EUA study on e-learning found that nearly all higher education institutions had some kind of digitally-supported learning and teaching initiative in place - though at most institutions, they had not been made mainstream.

Learning and teaching innovation and transformation come from the institutional grass-roots level, but rely on institutional-, national-, and European-level support. The Trends data shows that perceptions on the added value of national steering in this area differ, likely due to different degrees of institutional autonomy and different governance systems, among other things. However, the majority of institutions in the survey see national approaches to enhancing learning and teaching as principally useful. In addition, institutions welcome exchange and collaboration with a wider range of external parties, including partner universities, as well as industries and schools.

At the May 2018 Bologna Ministerial Conference in Paris, the ministers of higher education confirmed their commitment towards learning and teaching. The questions now are: What would be the next chapter at the European level to further support ongoing developments? What would a European agenda for higher education learning and teaching look like? What should it include and what should it leave aside? So far, the European reform processes have not attempted or managed to develop more concrete reform agendas or instruments for learning and teaching. Attempts to establish comparable achieved learning outcomes, and attention to include learning and teaching in international rankings have not significantly impacted higher education.

In this context, one first suggestion would be to realise what ministers recently stated in the Paris Communiqué: to strengthen and support institutional strategies and transformative processes in learning and teaching. It is not only a question of what needs to be achieved, but also – and perhaps more importantly – a question of how to achieve it. Trends 2018 demonstrates the importance and value of partnership and collaboration at all levels: within institutions, between institutions, across higher education systems, and beyond. In this regard, university alliances and associations also play a role in enabling collaboration and cooperation between institutions, and ultimately contributing to transform them into learning communities, at local, regional, national, and global levels.

This sets a rather positive agenda for the reform of learning and teaching through collaboration between governments and the higher education sector, at national levels and across Europe – which is confirmed by the sector's strong interest in the European Universities Initiative of the European Union, as well as new ways of collaboration announced in the Bologna Process.

A question that has not been addressed here, but which marks discussions in the European Union, in the Bologna Process and in the collaboration among European higher education institutions is: Will this be sufficient to continue the European Higher Education Area?

Europe has been successful in overcoming the challenges resulting from differences in its higher education systems, as well as the political and socio-economic differences. The assumption was likely that the latter would diminish, and that higher education would actually contribute to easing existing tensions, enhancing understanding, as well as achieving more social equity and political participation. In recent years, it became evident that while this might still happen, it cannot be taken for granted as an automatic development.

This has led to a reconsideration of the role of higher education: While it has been identified as a means to enhance democracy and civil society, it is also an obvious target if one wanted to roll these back. Therefore, in addition to learning and teaching and the various topics linked to it, more discussion and debate are likely to come on academic freedom, institutional autonomy, and the values that both Europe's societies and higher education institutions require.

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Databases and websites

European Commission's Strategic framework for Education and training 2020 – http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/strategic-framework_en
EUROSTAT – http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat
EUROSTUDENT – http://database.eurostudent.eu/
EUA Autonomy Scorecard – https://www.university-autonomy.eu/
EUA Public Funding Observatory – http://eua.be/activities-services/projects/eua-online-tools/public-funding-observatory-tool.aspx

Trends 2018 questionnaire

Annex 1

Structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire is divided into seven sections:

1. The institution and its context
2. Learning and teaching (L&T) policies and developments
3. Study programmes and L&T practices
4. Responding to society
5. Profiles, careers and regulations of teaching staff
6. Teaching enhancement
7. End of questionnaire

Glossary

In alphabetical order

Assessment

A general term that embraces all methods used to judge the performance of an individual, group or organisation. By contrast, **evaluation** should be understood as the process of examining and passing a judgement on the appropriateness or level of given standards.

Authorities

Any external authority (e.g. ministries, funding councils, higher education councils, quality assurance agencies, etc.) that issues regulatory frameworks for higher education institutions, policies or practices, including educational contents.

Course, programme

The use of "programme" and "course" differs across systems and institutions. In the context of the Trends survey, programme means a degree **programme** and is made up of a number of **courses**.

The content of a programme or course refers to what is taught in the programme/course. The teaching methods refer to the way it is taught.

Early stage researchers

Doctoral candidates and post-doctoral fellows, who conduct research and are considered as starting their academic careers.

Executive Head

The highest academic leadership level at the higher education institution.

Flipped classroom (or inverted classroom)

A pedagogical approach in which the typical lecture environment is reversed: students acquire instructional contents outside of the classroom, by reading assignments, watching short video lectures, conducting research tasks, or collaborating in online discussions, before the class session. In-class time is dedicated to exercises, projects, or discussions.

Incubator (business or social)

A **business incubator** is a facility or a company that support entrepreneurs or new and start-up companies. Some universities have incubators to encourage knowledge transfer, among others, by supporting start-ups of student and graduates.

A **social incubator** functions along similar principles, with the aim to support social entrepreneurs.

Learning analytics

Measurement, collection, analysis, and reporting of data about learners and their contexts, for purposes of understanding and optimizing learning and the environments in which it occurs.

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs)

MOOCs can be characterised as free of charge online courses, with no formal entry requirement and no participation limits.

Online degree programmes

Degree study programmes that can be completed online, with no or low residence study requirements.

Postdoctoral academic degree

Any post-doctoral academic degree that would be required to teach independently and supervise students at university. Examples: *habilitation, habilitation à diriger des recherches, etc.*

Remediation courses

Support courses designed to assist students who want to enter a degree programme, but lack some of the required skills and knowledge. These courses would usually not earn credits.

Research-related teaching

There are various terms to define different approaches of how research related to L&T. In the context of the Trends survey, "research-related teaching" refers to an educational approach where students learn through research: they experience learning, acquire knowledge, and develop skills and competences by doing research themselves, starting from bachelor level.

Science park

A science park is a physical area that hosts companies, and is designed and managed to promote innovation, mostly through supporting university-industry collaboration. Typically, such parks offer incentives, such as shared resources, incubators, collaboration opportunities, and various facilities, in order to attract companies.

Strategy

Overarching public document that outlines the major directions to be followed in a certain area of policy making, in an effort to achieve successfully an overall goal or objective. Provides a framework for measures and actions.

Teaching enhancement

Activities that aim at providing support, advice, training and/or guidance to staff in learning and teaching.

1. The institution and its context

This section asks for the contact details of the person answering the questionnaire and some basic information on your institution. This will help us to gain a better understanding of the answers you will provide later on in the questionnaire.

1. Please provide the name and contact details of the person filling in the questionnaire.

First name:
Last name:
E-mail:

2. Please select the profile of the person filling in the questionnaire on behalf of the institution: *please select your main position.*

Executive head (rector, president, vice-chancellor)
Adviser to the rector / rector's cabinet
Vice-Rector, Vice-President, Deputy Vice-Chancellor
Dean, Director of an academic department/institute, Director of a study programme
Administrative staff at institutional level
Administrative staff at faculty or department level
Professor, lecturer
Other (please specify, max. 400 characters)

3. Please select your country/ higher education system and institution from the drop down menu below. *If your institution does not appear in the list of institutions, please choose "other" from the list and provide the requested information on the next page.*

Country/ higher education system	
Institution	

3.1. If "other", please provide the name of your institution.

In the original language:
In English:
Web address of the institution:

4. Which community do you see your institution primarily as serving? *Please choose one option.*

Local	
Regional	
National	
European	
Worldwide	

5. How would you describe the profile of your institution? *Please choose one option.*

More teaching than research oriented	
More research than teaching oriented	
Equally teaching and research oriented	

6. What is the number of full-time equivalent (FTE) staff employed by your institution? *Please provide approximate and available figures based on the 2015-2016 academic year.*

Academic staff	
Administrative and technical staff	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	
Total number of staff (FTE)	

6.1. What is the number of university hospital staff (FTE), if included in the above?

7. What is the total number of students enrolled at your institution? *Please provide approximate and available figures based on the 2015-2016 academic year.*

	Full-time	Part-time
Short cycle degree		
Bachelor (first cycle)		
Master (second cycle)		
Doctorate (third cycle)		
Non-Bologna degrees		
Studying for non-degree purposes		
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)		
Total number of students		

2. Learning and teaching policies and developments

8. Is there any national strategy for higher education learning and teaching (L&T) in your country/region? *Please choose one answer.*

Yes	
Yes, as part of a national higher education strategy, which includes L&T among other matters (e.g. research)	
No	
No, but there is a plan to develop one	
I do not know	

8.1. What does this national strategy imply? Higher education institutions are expected... *Please select all applicable options.*

To develop an institutional L&T strategy	
To adopt a L&T approach underpinned by this national strategy	
To meet quantitative goals/benchmarks for L&T	
To reform curricula	
To revise teaching methods and approaches	
To introduce or increase teaching enhancement	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

8.1.1. What are the most important quantitative goals/benchmarks for L&T implemented in your institution? *Please select the three (3) most important benchmarks by indicating 1, 2 or 3 in the following list (1 being the most important).*

Student satisfaction	
Continuation rates (retention and/or dropout)	
Employment and/or destination of graduates/leavers	
Training and employment of staff (e.g. proportion of teaching staff under permanent contract, with determined teaching qualification, etc.)	
Teaching intensity (e.g. time spent studying or proportion of total staff time spent on learning and teaching)	
Student mobility rates	
Staff mobility rates	
Proportion of flexibility in learning provision (e.g. through part-time programmes, blended study programmes, etc.)	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

8.2. Does this national strategy provide the following? *Please select all applicable options.*

Financial incentives to implement the national strategy	
Other support (networking opportunities, rewards, etc.) to implement the national strategy	
Penalties for not responding to the national strategy	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

9. Does your institution have a learning and teaching strategy or policy? *Please choose one option.*

Yes, at institutional level	
Yes, at faculty/department level	
Yes, at both institutional and faculty/department level	
No, but we are in the process of developing one	
No	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

9.1. What elements does your institutional L&T strategy/policy address or include? *Please select all applicable options.*

Measures to improve teaching	
Academic staff development	
Learning environment	
Student support services	
The role of students in their learning	
Modes of delivery (e-learning, lectures, group work, flipped classrooms, etc.)	
Curriculum design, approval and/or evaluation	
Course design, approval and/or evaluation	
Providing lifelong learning opportunities	
Providing international opportunities	
An operational plan for implementing the strategy/policy	
Quantitative goals/benchmarks to reach the strategy/policy	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

9.2. Is your institutional L&T strategy/policy inspired or influenced by any of the following? *Please choose all applicable options.*

Authorities	
National/regional university alliances (e.g. national rectors' conferences, university clusters)	
International university alliances we take part in	
Professional associations/bodies	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

10. If your institution's website has a section in English on learning and teaching and the institutional mission in teaching, please provide the link here:

11. Could you give one example of measure that your institution has undertaken or plans to undertake in order to innovate teaching and learning (max. 350 characters)?

11.1. Is this already being implemented? *Please choose one answer.*

Yes	
No	

12. At your institution, is there a unit or a centre for higher education teaching development? *Please select one option.*

Yes, at central level	
Yes, at faculty/ department level	
Yes, at both central and faculty/department level	
This is mainly done by the (academic) Faculty/Department of Education	
No	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

12.1. What is the unit's role and function? *Please select all applicable options.*

Offering academic staff development courses and material	
Providing consultations and advice to academic staff on improving teaching	
Conducting research in higher education pedagogy and didactics	
Analysing student feedback/performance and/or results of teachers' evaluations	
Developing and/or implementing personalised staff development plans	
Organising teaching awards/prizes	
Supporting innovative teaching initiatives (through advice, financial incentives, logistical support, etc.)	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

12.1.1. Have teaching awards/prizes had any benefit for your institution? *Please choose one answer.*

Yes, very positive	
Yes, to some extent	
No	
I do not know	

12.1.2. Could you provide a web link with information on this/these teaching prize(s)?

13. To what extent can your institution decide the content of degree programmes? *Please choose one option.*

Without constraints	
There are constraints in some specific disciplines or programmes (e.g. for regulated professions)	
Authorities prescribe some of the contents for all disciplines or programmes	
Authorities prescribe all or most of the contents for all disciplines or programmes	
Other restrictions (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

14. At your institution, who decides which teaching methods are to be used? *Please select all applicable options.*

Each teacher can decide for his/her courses	
It is decided at the level of the faculty/department	
The institution has set up guidelines or policies on teaching methods for teachers	
Authorities specify some methods in some disciplines or programmes	
Authorities generally specify all or most methods	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

15. In your institution, is there a policy determining the student-teaching staff ratio: *Please select all applicable options.*

Yes, determined at institutional level	
Yes, determined at faculty or programme level	
Yes, determined by authorities	
Yes, determined by external QA standards	
No	
It is determined by other factors/stakeholders (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

16. Is it possible for students to: *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes it is commonly done across the institution	Yes, but very limited across the institution	No	I do not know
Change study programme during their studies				
Choose optional courses in their study programme				
Change optional courses during their studies				
Have some flexibility when studying some courses (e.g. no obligation to take course B after course A)				
Have some flexibility with respect to the time it takes to complete a degree (without financial or other penalties)				
Switch between full-time and part-time provision				
Decide whether or not to physically attend a class				
Have choice between different types of assessment for a given course				
Suggest the topics s/he wants to study in a course				

17. What would you see as obstacles for improving learning and teaching at your institution? *Please select the three (3) most important drivers by indicating 1, 2 or 3 in the following list (1 being the most important).*

Lack of financial resources	
Lack of infrastructure	
Not enough teaching staff	
Insufficiently qualified teaching staff	
Lack of recognition for teaching in staff career progression	
Internal governance structure	
Resistance among teaching staff	
National (system-level) regulations	
Other external constraints from authorities	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

18. In general, do the following statements reflect the current situation at your institution? *Please choose one option per line.*

	Yes	To some extent	No	I do not know/ not applicable
Recent/ongoing reforms at national level help us to enhance learning and teaching.				
Our institution is putting more emphasis on learning and teaching than in the past.				
Teachers are increasingly incentivised to improve their teaching.				
Teachers do have not enough time to cope with all their duties (teaching, research, administration) in an optimal way.				
The increase of student numbers is a challenge to teachers.				
The increasing diversity in the study body leads to a change in the way teachers envisage learning and teaching.				
Students' expectations towards teachers are increasing.				
Expectations from employers and/or professional sectors towards teachers are increasing.				

3. Study programmes and L&T practices

19. Do you recognise any of the following issues regarding Bachelor and Masters programmes at your institution? *Please select one option per line.*

	This has never been the case.	This has been the case, but has been changed/ is changing.	Continues to be the case	Continues to be the case in some disciplines or parts of the institution	Information unavailable/ Not applicable
Bachelor programmes are too short, resulting in a heavy workload for students.					
Many or most of the Bachelor programmes do not include research experience.					
The Bachelor programmes do not provide students a real academic experience.					
Bachelor degrees are not valued by employers.					
The Masters programmes overlap in contents with respective Bachelor programmes.					
Many or most of the Masters programmes do not include research experience.					
There are far too many Master's programmes offered.					

20. Does your institution offer programmes of less than 180 ECTS leading to a qualification below the level of the first cycle/bachelor? *Please choose one option.*

Yes	
No	
We are planning to	

20.1. Can credits for these programmes be recognised within first cycle programmes? *Please choose one option.*

All credit scan be recognised	
Some credits can be recognised (please specify – max. 400 characters)	
No credit scan be recognised	

21. How are programme curricula developed? *Please select all applicable options.*

There are national guidelines/frameworks	
There are institutional guidelines for this	
Each faculty or department has its own procedure	
Individual staff members can develop programmes	
A team or a committee is tasked or authorised to develop it	
There is no particular procedure for this	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

22. Have learning outcomes been developed? *Please choose one option.*

Yes, for all courses (across the institution)	
Yes, for some courses	

No, but we intend to develop them	
No	
Information unavailable	

22.1. What effect on the institution has the introduction of learning outcomes had so far? *Please choose one option per line.*

	Yes, this is the case	Yes, to some extent	No impact	Do not know/ no opinion
No real change				
Course contents have been revised				
Course duplication has been reduced				
Learning paths have become more flexible				
Teaching methods have changed				
Cooperation among teaching staff has improved				
The overall quality of teaching has improved				
Assessment and examinations have been revised				
Recognition of credits or degrees from other institutions has become easier				
Recognition of prior learning has become easier				
Students are more aware of their learning objectives				
Student pass rates have improved				
Drop out has decreased				
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)				

22.2. How is it ensured that the actual provision of a course (i.e. content, methods, and examinations) is in line with the foreseen learning outcomes? *Please select all applicable options.*

A unit at institutional level is responsible	
It is part of internal quality assurance	
It is part of external quality assurance at programme level	
The faculty of department level is responsible for that	
Each programme coordinator/director is responsible for that	
Each teacher is personally responsible for his/her courses	
There is no formal obligation to ensure that	
I do not know	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

22.3. How would you describe issues encountered when implementing learning outcomes? *Please choose one option per line.*

	Has been no problem	Was a problem, but has been solved.	Continues to cause problems	Information unavailable
Designing curricula based on learning outcomes across the institution.				
Revising student assessment so to align them with the learning outcomes approach.				
Heavier workload for students.				
Insufficient resources to support staff in implementing learning outcomes.				
Time pressure for introducing learning outcomes.				

23. How does your institution ensure that student workload is appropriate? *Please select all applicable options.*

Each teacher is responsible for that in his/her courses	
Students are asked to provide feedback on this aspect after the course finished	
Students can report difficulties through student representatives or a formal complaint mechanism	
This is part of our internal quality assurance procedures at institutional level	
This is examined by the quality assurance agency	
No particular approach to ensure that	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

24. Which of the following approaches has your institution found useful for enhancing student learning? *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes, fully useful	Yes, to some extent	No	We intend to implement it	Information unavailable
Peer learning (students learning with each other)					
Teaching in small groups					
Problem-based learning					
Community projects					
Flipped classrooms					
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)					

25. What are the main trends at your institution regarding digital learning in the last three years? *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes, it is the case	Yes, to some extent	No	Information unavailable
General acceptance of digital learning has improved				
More strategic use of digital learning				
Digital learning becoming part of the institutional strategy				
Increased use in regular teaching (e.g. through blended learning)				
Used for innovating learning and teaching				
Lectures are available as video/podcast				
More online learning degree programmes				
More online learning – for non-degree purposes				
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)				

26. Are the physical spaces at your institution well adapted to new forms of learning and teaching? *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes, for the whole institution	Yes, to some extent / for some parts of the institution	No	Information unavailable
Rooms where chairs and tables can be moved depending on the teaching approach				
Science labs				
Computer labs				
Libraries				
Learning resource centres				
Spaces for increased student-staff interaction				

Spaces for student-student interaction and collaboration				
Spaces for staff-staff interaction and collaboration				

4. Responding to society

27. What other areas of strategic activity cross-fertilize and inspire the development in learning and teaching at your institution? *Please choose one option per line.*

	Yes	To some extent/ in parts of the institution	No	No information/ not applicable
International collaboration				
Presence of international staff and students				
Staff exchanges with other higher education institutions				
Benchmarking with other higher education institutions				
Social inclusion				
Collaboration with local community				
Collaboration with employers				
Collaboration with primary/ secondary schools				
Collaboration with vocational institutions				
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)				

28. At your institution, does inclusiveness and social engagement have any impact on learning and teaching? *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes	To some extent/ in parts of the institution	No	No information/ not applicable
Social inclusion is key priority of our institutional strategy				
Social inclusion is considered in the learning and teaching practice (diverse class-room)				
Social engagement is integrated into the study programmes (internships with NGOs, community engagement, etc.)				
There are special courses in social engagement				
Students can earn credits through participation in civic/social engagement initiatives				
The institution encourages student initiatives on civic/social engagement				
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)				

29. Do the following statements reflect the current situation in your institution? *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes	To some extent	No	I do not know
Increasing participation to higher education is key priority at our institution				
The possibilities offered by e-learning have boosted our education provision.				
There is a growing demand for degree programmes provided under flexible arrangements.				

Enrolment to courses or programmes provided under flexible arrangements has increased in the past 3 years.				
There is a growing demand for short-term (non-degree) learning opportunities, with a certificate upon course completion.				

30. Which of the following measures does your institution offer for lifelong learners? *Please select all applicable options.*

Flexible study programmes/learning paths	
Open online learning courses / MOOCs	
Online degree programmes	
Continuing professional development short courses that can be accumulated into a degree	
Guidance and counselling services for adult learners	
Recognition of prior learning	
Courses provided in collaboration with other higher education institutions	
Courses provided in collaboration with other education institutions from other sectors (schools, vocational)	
Courses provided in collaboration with for-profit providers	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

31. Does your institution manage lifelong learning provision in a different way than other learning provision? *Please select all applicable options.*

Lifelong learning provision is...	Yes	To some extent/ in parts of the institution	No	No information/ not applicable
separate from the one offered to conventional students				
taught by other teachers than our regular ones				
financed differently				
under a different QA regime than our conventional provision				

32. What measures does your institution offer to enhance students' employability? *Please select all applicable options.*

	Yes, for the whole institution	Yes, in some faculties/ departments	No	I do not know
Students career support/counselling services				
Targeted services to specific groups of students to boost their employability				
Job and career fairs				
Voluntary courses on entrepreneurship				
Aspects of entrepreneurship as part of study programmes				
Preparation for entering employment (e.g. writing a C.V.)				
Work placements				
Monitoring alumni's employment rates				
Opening a social incubator for students' projects				
Opening a business incubator for students' projects				
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)				

5. Profiles, careers and regulations of teaching staff

33. Within your institution, how is the total teaching workload distributed among these staff categories? *Please provide an estimate by indicating a percentage for each category of staff.*

Professors	
Lecturers, associate/assistant professors	
Teaching support staff (e.g. in labs, librarians)	
Other	

33.1. What other categories of staff have teaching responsibilities at your institution? *Please select all applicable options. Categories of staff may considerably differ across the EHEA: the categories described below are phrased in the broadest sense in order to encompass as many different situations as possible. If there are significantly different categories of staff with teaching responsibilities in your institution, please use the "Other" option to comment.*

Researchers (incl. doctoral candidates, postdocs)	
Experts, practitioners (e.g. professionals teaching subjects related to their field)	
Advanced students sharing teaching responsibilities (e.g. providing tutorials)	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

34. In your institution, what formal or most common requirements are needed for holding one of the positions below with teaching responsibilities? *Please select all applicable options for each category of staff.*

Teaching position	Doctorate or post-doctoral academic degree	Any other academic degree	Participation to teaching enhancement courses	Proven teaching experience (e.g. a min. period of teaching practice)	Regular evaluation of teaching performance	Other requirements (please specify – max. 400 characters)	Not applicable
Professors							
Lecturers, associate professors							
Researchers							
Experts, practitioners							
Teaching support staff							

35. Do teaching performance evaluations play an important role in the promotion and career development of teaching staff? *Please choose one answer.*

Yes	
To some extent	
No	

I would like to comment my answer (max. 400 characters):

36. Which of the following means and criteria are used for the assessment of teaching? *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes, throughout the institution	Yes, in some parts of the institution	No, but we are planning to do it	No, we do not use this
Self-evaluations				
Peer assessments				
Student feedback surveys				
Students' progression				
Heads of departments/ deans of faculties regularly discuss teaching performance with individual academic staff				
Completion of teaching enhancement courses				
Engagement with students (face time, mentoring, thesis supervision)				
Engagement with industry/business sector, community engagement				
There are processes in place to intervene in case teaching performance is constantly poor				
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)				

37. Are the following strategic goals for staff recruitment at your institution? *Please select all applicable options.*

Enhancing gender balance among staff	
Hiring staff who have international experience	
Hiring staff who have studied or worked in another institution	
Hiring staff who are engaged with the industry/business sector	
Hiring staff who are engaged with society (e.g. professional sectors, NGOs)	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

6. Teaching enhancement

In the framework of the Trends survey, teaching enhancement is understood as all activities that aim at providing support, advice, training and/or guidance to staff in learning and teaching.

38. Has there been a systematic effort to establish the following at your institution? *Please select one option per line.*

	Yes	No, but we are planning this	No	Information unavailable
Optional courses to enhance teaching skills (preparation or training courses)				
Compulsory courses to enhance teaching skills (preparation or training courses)				
Peer feedback system (teachers provide feedback on each other's teaching)				
Team teaching (two or more teachers jointly prepare and deliver a course or a class)				
Portfolios in which teachers document their teaching practices (e.g. pedagogical materials, forms of student assessment)				
Research on learning and teaching				
Recognition of good teaching (e.g. awards, career development, incentives)				

38.1. For which categories of staff are the enhancement courses compulsory? *Please select all applicable options.*

All teaching staff	
All teaching staff excepted those not permanently employed (such as experts)	
Newly hired teaching staff	
Mainly younger teachers and early stage researchers	
Doctoral candidates, as part of their education	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

38.2. What topics do compulsory enhancement courses address? *Please select all applicable options.*

Introduction into pedagogy/didactics	
Advanced courses (as part of continuing professional development)	
Teaching enhancement for specific disciplines	
Student-centred learning	
Development of learning outcomes	
Assessment of intended learning outcomes	
ICT environment (how to use the technology/tools)	
ICT based pedagogy (how to teach with ICT)	
Making learning and teaching more research-related	
Teaching diverse student groups	
Integration of citizenship skills into teaching	
Development of social engagement initiatives, as part of the curriculum	
How to support students in developing entrepreneurship/professional skills	
How to support students in developing generic skills	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

39. Please indicate how teachers receive training in developing learning outcomes. *Please choose one option.*

In a systematic way (for all teachers and all courses/programmes)	
In a systematic way for new teachers (only)	
In a systematic way for new courses/programmes (only)	
Teachers can receive assistance or get training on request only.	
There is no such training offered.	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

40. Does your institution encourage and support exchange and collaboration among teachers on pedagogical practices? *Please select all applicable options.*

There is an official platform (committee, group) for teachers to exchange	
This is part of the missions of our learning centre	
This is the responsibility of programme directors or deans	
There are regular events (pedagogical days)	
Teachers do this on their own initiative	
I do not know.	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

41. Does your institution cooperate on teaching enhancement with outside parties? *Please select all applicable options.*

Yes, through participation in a dedicated network or initiative	
Yes, with one or several other institution(s)	
Yes, through participation in national initiatives	
Yes, through participation in international initiatives	
Yes, by purchasing services of professional organisations (e.g. for providing staff development on pedagogics)	
No	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

42. Does your institution conduct research on higher education learning and teaching? *Please select all applicable options.*

Yes, at the (academic) Faculty/Department of Education	
Yes, there is one structure (such as a learning/teaching lab or centre) coordinating this research	
Yes, on the basis of learning analytics	
Yes, there are initiatives from different parts of the institution	
No, but we are planning to do it	
No	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

42.1. How are the research results used? *Please select all applicable options.*

They inform leadership (rector, deans, etc.)	
They are made accessible to all staff and students	
They are shared with the academic departments that are involved in the research	
They inform internal QA	
They feed staff development or training schemes/courses	
Other (please specify – max. 400 characters)	

7. End of questionnaire

43. Would you or one of your colleagues be available to answer any follow-up questions to this survey?

Yes, please contact me for future queries	
Yes, please contact my colleague for future queries	
No	

43.1. If we may contact you, please confirm your contact details.

First name:
Last name:
Position:
E-mail:

43.2. If we may contact your colleague, please provide his or her contact details.

First name:
Last name:
Position:
E-mail:

44. Would you like your institution to be listed as a contributor to this study in the annex of the report?

Yes
No

Thank you very much for taking part in this survey. We will notify your institution as soon as the report has been published.

For any questions, please do not hesitate to contact trends@eua.be.

Please click **SUBMIT** below. You will be redirected to a new page where you can view and pint your survey responses report.

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE

List of institutions participating in the Trends 2018 survey

Annex 2

The following higher education institutions participated in the Trends 2018 survey. An additional 43 institutions participated in the survey, but preferred not to be listed.

For a map with number of respondents per country, see Figure 1.

Albania
Epoka University

Andorra
University of Andorra

Armenia
Yerevan State University

Austria
JAM MUSIC LAB Private University
MCI Management Centre Innsbruck
University of Applied Arts Vienna
University of Graz
University of Innsbruck
University of Salzburg
Vienna University of Economics and Business

Belarus
Belarusian State Academy of Music

Belgium-Flanders
Free University Brussels (VUB)
Ghent University
KU Leuven
University of Antwerp

Belgium-Wallonia
Catholic University of Louvain
Free University of Brussels (ULB)
University of Mons

Bulgaria
Academy of Music, Dance and Fine Arts Plovdiv
Angel Kanchev University of Rousse
D. A. Tsenov Academy of Economics

Croatia
Josip Juraj Strossmayer University
University of Dubrovnik

Cyprus
University of Nicosia

Czech Republic
Academy of Performing Arts in Prague
Brno University of Technology
Czech University of Life Sciences Prague
Masaryk University
Palacký University Olomouc
University of Hradec Králové
University of Economics, Prague
University of West Bohemia

Denmark
Aarhus University
Copenhagen Business School
Roskilde University
Technical University of Denmark

Estonia
Tallinn University
University of Tartu

Finland
Aalto University
University of Jyväskylä
University of Tampere
University of Turku

France
Aix-Marseille University
Conservatoire Bourgogne-Franche-Comté
Ecole Normale Supérieure de Paris-Saclay
Montpellier University
University Lille 3 Charles-de-Gaulle
University of French Guiana
University of Nice Sophia Antipolis
University of Poitiers
University Paris-Est Marne-la-Vallée
University Pierre and Marie Curie (UPMC)
University of Toulouse Jean-Jaurès

Georgia
David Tvildiani Medical University
Georgian Technical University
Iakog Gogebashvili Telavi State University
V. Sarajishvili Tbilisi State Conservatoire

Germany
Aachen University of Applied Sciences
Aalen University of Applied Sciences
Alice Salomon University of Applied Sciences
Augsburg University of Applied Sciences
Carl von Ossietzky University of Oldenburg
Darmstadt University of Technology
Frankfurt University of Applied Sciences
Friedrich Schiller University of Jena
Fulda University of Applied Sciences
Leipzig University of Applied Sciences
Saarland University
Technical University Berlin
TH Köln - University of Applied Sciences
Trier University of Applied Sciences
University of Applied Sciences Berlin
University of Duisburg-Essen
University of Freiburg
University of Hagen
University of Kassel
University of Konstanz
University of Regensburg
University of Siegen
University of Stuttgart
University of Wuppertal

Greece
Aristotle University of Thessaloniki
Hellenic Open Universisty
National and Kapodistrian University of Athens
University of Macedonia Economic and Social Sciences
University of Patras
University of the Aegean

Hungary
Central European University
Pazmany Peter Catholic University

Iceland
University of Iceland

Ireland
Dublin City University
Dublin Institute of Technology
Letterkenny Institute of Technology
National University of Ireland Galway
The University of Dublin – Trinity College
University College Cork
University College Dublin

Italy
Alphonsian Academy Higher Institute for Moral Theology
Free University of Bozen
Polytechnic University of Turin
Roma Tre University
Sapienza University of Rome
Second University of Naples
University of Bologna
University of Cassino
University of Lumsa-Libera Università Maria SS. Assunta
University of Milan Bicocca
University of Padua
University of Pisa
University of Salento
University of Trento
University of Turin

Kazakhstan
Academician E.A. Buketov Karaganda State University
Joint Stock Company "South Kazakhstan State Pharmaceutical Academy"
Karaganda Economic University of Kazpotrebsoyuz
Karaganda State Medical University
Kazakh National Agrarian University
Khoja Ahmet Yassawi Kazakh-Turkish International University
M. Auezov South Kazakhstan State University
M.Utemissov West Kazakhstan State University
S. Toraighyrov Pavlodar State University
S. Ualikhanov Kokshetau State University
Sarsen Amanzholov East Kazakhstan State University

Latvia
Riga Stradins University
Riga Technical University
University of Latvia

Lithuania
Lithuanian Academy of Music and Theatre
Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences
Lithuanian University of Health Sciences
Mykolas Romeris University

Malta
University of Malta

Montenegro
University of Montenegro

Netherlands
Codarts Rotterdam
Erasmus University Rotterdam
Hanze University of Applied Sciences
Open University of the Netherlands
University of Arts in The Hague
University of Groningen

Norway
MF Norwegian School of Theology
Norwegian Academy of Music
Norwegian University of Life Sciences
University of Oslo

Poland
Adam Mickiewicz University
Bialystok University of Technology
Collegium Civitas
Cracow University of Economics
Gdansk University of Physical Education and Sport
Koszalin University of Technology
Kozminski University
Lodz University of Technology
Medical University of Silesia in Katowice
Nicolaus Copernicus University
Police Academy in Szczytno
State School of Higher Education in Chełm
The general Tadeusz Kościuszko Military Academy of Land Forces
Jagiellonian University
Podhale College of Applied Sciences
Silesian University of Technology
The State University of Applied Sciences in Elblag
University of Agriculture in Krakow
University of Information Technology and Management in Rzeszow
University of Life Sciences in Lublin
Warsaw School of Economics
Warsaw School of Information Technology
Warsaw University of Technology
Wroclaw University of Technology

Portugal
Lisbon Music Superior School - Lisbon Polytechnic Institute
New University of Lisbon
University of Coimbra
University of Porto
University of the Algarve

Romania
Alexandru Ioan Cuza University
Babes-Bolyai University
Ion Ionescu de la Brad University of Agricultural Science and Veterinary Medicine
Lucian Blaga University of Sibiu
Ovidius University of Constantza
University of Bucharest
University of Craiova
University of Medicine & Pharmacy Iuliu Hatieganu Cluj-Napoca

Russia
Federal State Budgetary Educational Institution of Higher Education
"Tyumen State Medical University" of the Ministry of Healthcare of the Russian Federation
Kazan Federal University
Moscow State Linguistic University
Moscow State University of Geodesy and Cartography
Moscow Technical University of Communications and Informatics
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Russian State Social University
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Stavropol State Medical University

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University of Kragujevac
University of Nis

Slovakia
Constantine the Philosopher University
Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica
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Higher Music Education Conservatoire of the Basque Country
International University of Catalonia
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King Juan Carlos University
La Laguna University
Las Palmas University
Málaga University
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