

“The training and the challenges of Social Work in the XXI Century”
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In my presentation I will explore the situation of social work education in Europe, underlining the effects and the demands arising after the application of the Bologna process .

Looking at the challenges of the XXI Century, I will stress the importance of developing innovative experiences in training, that focus more on competences and on an international dimension in education

Social work education initially grew in Europe at different stages from the beginning of XX th century till the end of the second world war, but also had a new and important “rebirth” after the crash of the communist regime in the central eastern part of Europe. In the last two decades the creation or re-opening of social work education in eastern European countries has been of considerable significance. What does ‘social work’ mean today and what currently are the social professions being referred to in different European countries? Authors like Lyons, Lawrence (eds.2006) and Lorenz (2006), among others, deal with the topic of social professions in Europe, with a particular focus on the role covered by education in preparing social workers. Education in social work is worthy of such a sustained focus, because of its unique nature in reflecting specific cultural and contextual dimensions. Historical backgrounds, social policy trends, pedagogical and disciplinary relationships and ‘politics’ all have implications for the way in which training in social work has been established in different countries. Local factors and European policy developments are all important elements in determining in what way social work education is evolving in terms of structure, curricula and pedagogical issues.

1-The state of the art

Many initiatives have been taken during the last decade in social work education, and our intention here is to offer an, albeit impressionistic, overview of the situation of social work education in Europe, from different actors in the field. We can refer to some that have involved many different countries, such as the thematic networks ECSPRESS (1999) and EUSW (2002/2008). In the book ‘European Social Work. Commonalities and Differences’ (Campanini, Frost 2004) representatives of 24 different European nations presented the ‘state of the art’ of social work in their countries. Through this work it was possible to have a clear image of some commonalities and also many differences in social work education at different levels. Other research has been undertaken following this, for example by Martinez (2007), specifically on social education in the wake of the Bologna process and structures across Europe and on fieldwork education/ placements in fifteen European countries (Campanini, forthcoming).

From these studies it is evident that meaningful differences between European countries persist in a number of ways:

– in the kind of institutions which provide this education. Besides countries that have entrusted the formation in more or less recent times to the university sector, there are countries that have also developed learning routes in higher private or public institutes. In some nations (such as Poland ,Lithuania, Portugal) there is the simultaneous presence of various educational contexts. The church has significant involvement in social work education in Eastern European countries such as Hungary and Romania where the social work training can be linked with the preparation to become a deacon.

It is also important to note how the type of educational context can influence the consideration given in the society to the title , e.g. ‘social worker’, and how it is linked to the relevance and meaning that are attributed to every type of formative institution in the

various nations. It is interesting to note how the insertion into the university rather than in other contexts, not only produces one different legitimation of the social worker role (as happen in the Italian experience), but also leads to a more or less elevated status of the profession. Moreover, access to advanced courses (e.g. research doctorates) can be more difficult if the students have not undertaken a university degree, but have attended educational institutions such as the Fachhochschulen in Germany or the Hogeschoolen in the Netherlands.

– in the duration of the training/education period. In some places, at the time of the first research done in the EUSW context, there were curricula of only three years for example in Spain and in Belgium, while other countries responded, in accordance to the guidelines issued by the Bologna Declaration and social work education, articulating the educational path in a three years-plus-two years pattern (e.g. Italy, Norway, Estonia). Some states maintained a curriculum of four years (the Netherlands, Greece, Cyprus, Germany, Iceland) while in other countries the title of social worker was awarded after the attendance of a five year course (Portugal). At the present many changes have happened due to the need to restructure the education path in accordance with the Bologna Process and the situation appears still fluid and in a continuous change, but not always having successfully harmonized the differences of duration of the first and the second cycles (eg. Sweden decided for a 3+2 pattern, while Spain defined the curriculum in 4+ 1).

– in the disciplinary components of the curricula. It is generally true that the disciplines which form the base of social work education make reference to the human sciences of sociology, psychology and pedagogy. These are placed side by side with social policy and legal studies. In some Eastern European countries, such as Romania and Hungary, theology is studied. The different emphasis given to these disciplines prepares students to undertake different roles and contributes to professional differentiation. Where some countries show an awareness of counselling and therapeutic social work activities (such as the Scandinavian countries), others focused their contribution on educational and pedagogical issues (such as Germany, Denmark, Luxembourg and the Netherlands). Some countries give specific attention to community and youth work or probation (Great Britain); others follow a more generalist approach in social work (Italy, Finland). Some countries discuss activities more connected with practical and economic help (many Eastern countries such as Estonia and Lithuania, where there is a major fight against poverty), or with advocacy (social advocates in the Netherlands) and work (occupation, employment) problems.

- in professional practice preparation – variously referred to as ‘placement’, ‘fieldwork’ or ‘practice education’ -there are many differences both in relation to the number of hours dedicated to social work theory and supervised practice and regarding the modalities within which the training is carried out.

In a recent analysis (Campanini, forthcoming) of 18 curricula in 15 different European countries we found a variation of number of hours dedicated to field placements from 2050 (in France) to 210 (in Estonia) with a different criteria in the definition of the relationship between number of credits and number of hours. Also different is the articulation of this experience along the curricula: some times the field placement is full time in one block (Sweden, Germany) but in many other countries it is spread throughout the whole curricula with some amount of hours for each year. Differences are also evident in the role of other personnel involved with the student in ‘placement’ experience: supervisor, tutor, practice teacher, field instructor are some of the different names with which the same function can be designating, or in other cases these titles designate the specific roles being played by

the same person. Further differences are notable in the evaluation processes that can range from being quite general and not impacting greatly on the attainment of the degree, regardless too of the quality of the experience (for example in Italy) to being strictly regulated in terms of quality, learning and student achievement, (e.g. G.B.).

- In relation to teaching methodologies. The role of teachers on social work courses can be quite different and is strictly related to the idea of “learning process” predominant within a national context. Active learning has a very strong background and presence in Scandinavian countries, with specific tools and evaluation processes more oriented to help the student to be the principal actor in their own learning process and to develop a critical and self reflective attitude. Contrary to this, in Italy more conventional methods are used, based on : the traditional notion of an expert lecturer imparting knowledge to educable and eager lg students. . Interestingly within specific systems even the lay out of rooms can reinforce the specific philosophy. In Italy it can be very difficult to find flexible shapes and settings away from the formal auditoria which restrict teachers in allowing the development of more participative methods. ITC technologies are slowly entering into social work education, for example in the Norwegian led initiative of a virtual classroom: ‘Virclass’ and are very useful for organisng pan-european modules with mixed teachers and students from different countries (see the Virtual Campus experience www.virclass.net)
- In research and theory production. These aspects are mentioned as important elements for the enhancement of social work education. In some nations, such as Sweden, a long tradition of PhD studies links to intensive publication of research in social work. In some other countries (e.g. Estonia, Czech Republic, Italy and Spain) this process is seen as a fundamental challenge for the future of social work. There are problems linked with the positioning of education in social work inside or outside the university, both in relation to having the possibility of students achieving research degrees, and also in relation to the expectation that teachers will be research active (Lyons, 2006)

- In the European orientation. Involvement and participation in European projects and activities is rather high in nearly all countries and In various ways social work has been pursuing and realizing the aim of opening itself to inter-European comparisons in social work education. In many countries the opportunities made available by the European Community (such as Erasmus, Socrates, Leonardo) are being used. Many countries have involvement in student mobility and teaching staff exchange.

These activities have also been developed in some places in relation to periods of intensive study on specific topics (such as the intensive programs) and to the particular initiatives such as international weeks, which are open to contributions from teachers of various nations. The attempt to open education to a wider vision is also demonstrated by the insertion within the curricula of modules that address various aspects of social work from a comparative perspective. There are some interesting experiences of summer schools (eg. FachhochSchule Alice Salomon in Berlin, Yliopisto University in Rovaniemi, Finland, but also the ones held in Parma and in Dornbirn by the EUSW TN), some international master courses (MACESS in Maastricht, Goteborg University) and also some attempt to create a specific course which awards the title of ‘Bachelor of intercultural and international social work’ (as in Copenhagen). In spite of these initiatives, some difficulties still remain. Primarily these are: the students and staff’s insufficient knowledge of languages (eg. France, Great Britain, Italy, Spain); problems of the temporal structure of the courses and the economic costs of studying abroad, all of which can limit the mobility of the students. Some reluctance to operate transnationally might also be pointers of an

inward facing attitude, whereby European engagement and dimensions are still not perceived as opportunities. Students then fail to develop intercultural and international professional competences, which are now seen as core competencies in many parts of Europe.

2- The Bologna Process

Currently we are witnessing a particular phase within higher education. Since the 1980s, the European Commission has defined a series of measures with the key objective of developing and improving the European component within the teaching world, alongside further enabling the geographical mobility of students. The Socrates and Erasmus mobility programmes have had, and are having, without any doubt, great impact upon the creation of a European identity; they have helped develop better understanding of any underlying problems, and have encouraged a shared knowledge base to evolve. One of the needs identified, a need which moved the European Union to highlight the importance of an intercultural dimension within student learning, has been the need to prepare younger generations for life in a society increasingly characterized by cultural and linguistic diversity, so that they may identify concrete actions with which to fight racism and xenophobia. The Socrates Erasmus programme measures have made possible to enhance the student mobility and the ECTS system, to develop Joint Programmes to encourage academic acknowledgment and contribution toward the exchange of experiences and innovation processes, therefore enhancing the quality of teaching; to support teaching staff exchanges and intensive programmes.

Through the Bologna declaration (1999), an initiative of 29 European Governments, a process was established, with the objective of creating a European Space of Higher Education by 2010. The aim was to increase both the employment prospects and geographical mobility of European citizens, and enhance the concept of European higher education in the world. This required a concrete shift towards:

- Easily readable and comparable systems of degrees
- The creation of a structure founded upon two cycles (BA & MA), using the European credits system (ECTS)
- Promotion of geographical mobility for students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff, and recognition of experiences within a European context
- European co-operation in quality assurance with a view to develop comparable criteria and methodologies.

The Bologna Declaration has been followed by three communiqués: Prague (2001), Berlin (2003) and Bergen (2005). Each of these steps brought further developments in the harmonisation process, and highlighted different aspects. The Prague Communiqué stressed the importance of lifelong learning as an essential strategy within the European Higher Education Area; enabling social work to face the challenges of competitiveness and new technology, whilst also improving social cohesion, equal opportunities and quality of life. The Berlin Communiqué emphasized the importance of research, alongside research training and interdisciplinarity, in maintaining and enhancing the attractiveness of higher education in Europe. Another aspect highlighted was the need to develop an agreed set of standards, procedures and guidelines relating to quality assurance, to ensure an adequate peer review system had been put into place. Connected with the topic of comparability, the communiqué invited the member states to develop a framework of comparable and compatible qualifications for their higher education systems, which would seek to describe qualifications in terms of workload, level, learning outcomes, competences and profile. It is also interesting to note the fact that the different levels of degree should have different orientations and varying profiles, in order that they accommodate a diversity of individual, academic and labour market needs. First cycle degrees should give access, in the Lisbon

Recognition Convention sense, to second cycle programmes. Second cycle degrees should give access to doctoral studies. The Berlin Communiqué recommends the introduction by 2005 of a universal “diploma supplement”; this must be annexed to each certificate. The intention being, to facilitate recognition of titles across all European countries, in accordance with the Lisbon Convention (1998). In the diploma supplement, the types of institution for example, and the level of the degree, are described in greater detail, allowing both greater confidence and comparability between countries.

An important step within this harmonisation process could be identified through the “Dublin Descriptors”; the product of an informal group of specialists originating from different countries, who unite under the banner of “The Joint Quality Initiative” (www.jointquality.org). The expected attributes of a student are clarified within these descriptors. Knowledge and understanding, application of this knowledge and understanding, making judgements, communication skills, learning skills: this list further refines the description of the expected attributes of a student. These specific qualities are graduated and matched to the demands of the perceived successful completion of the first, second and third Bologna cycles, and highlights the progressive steps between these cycles. In many countries, discussions of the changes required to revise the educational systems in order to meet the demands of the Bologna process, let alone the action required to implement these, are still ongoing. Yet in parallel, at the end of 2000, the project ‘Tuning Educational Structures in Europe’ was submitted to the European Commission, and is still working toward an overall objective of implementing discussion and reflection upon the changes Bologna has brought to educational structures and study content. The process of reforming; a direct effect of the political decision making of education ministers to converge, requires a ‘tuning’ of curricula, in terms of structures, programmes, and actual teaching. Although is very important to protect the rich diversity within European education, at the same time, it is necessary to identify competences and learning outcomes, and to design, construct and assess the qualifications provided throughout this education. Four lines of approach have been developed:

- generic competences
- subject-specific competence (skills, knowledge and content)
- the role of ECTS as a transfer and accumulation system
- approaches to learning, teaching, assessment and performance in relation to quality assurance and control

The final reports 1 (2003) and 2 (2005), from the Tuning project, contain guidelines and practical examples. Of great interest to social work could be the specific analysis made of nursing education, which contains many similarities, and has therefore considerable potential for transferability.

An aspect of considerable importance is that of quality assurance. ‘The European Network for Quality Assurance in Higher Education’ was established in 2000, in order to promote European co-operation in the field of quality assurance. In November 2004, the General Assembly transformed the Network into, the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA). The idea of the association originates from the European Pilot Project for Evaluating Quality in Higher Education (1994-95) which demonstrated the value of sharing and developing experience in the area of quality assurance.

Following this idea, but also looking at the document on Global Social Work Standards (2005), approved by international social work organisations (IASSW and IFSW), the European Association of Schools of Social Work promoted, together with other associations, a specific agency, ENQASP (The European Association for Quality Assurance in Social Professions). Their aims are to develop a frame of reference for study programs within the European field of social professions, and to establish the principal of awarding a European quality label for social-work study programs. The Bergen meeting of

the education ministers (2005), see above, took note of the significant progress made in three priority areas: the degree system, quality assurance, recognition of degrees and periods of study. The communiqué emphasized the importance of higher education in further enhancing research, and stressed the importance of this research in underpinning higher education, bringing economic and cultural development within our societies, and providing social cohesion. It is also noted that efforts to introduce structural change and improve the quality of teaching should not detract from the effort to strengthen research and innovation. As was explored in the recent book, *Social Work in Europe: Educating for change* (Lyons and Lawrence, 2006), the past two decades have witnessed significant changes, not only in the construction of Europe, but also within the education of the social professions in many countries. This changing process also affected social work education, though the consequences were different. On the one hand, it provides a strategic opportunity to augment professional growth and progress within social work. As Juliusdottir (2006) argues, through a reflexive process of becoming more academic, conditions are created for a dialogue to emerge between social work and academic culture, which could lead to interdisciplinary understanding and mutual respect. Being a part of the culture of other academic disciplines facilitates fresh motives for training and active participation in the social worker's own knowledge production through research and other theoretical activity, bringing social work both confidence and status in society. Lastly, this may also lead to both increased compatibility and mobility in times of increasing globalization and shared labor markets. Christine Labonté (2004) also emphasizes the possibility, which emerged through the introduction of a tiered academic structure, of retaining a generic program at Bachelors level, then providing a greater degree of specialization, required particularly for the new professional fields, by offering specially tailored Masters programs. The 'advanced' study program is thus conceptualised as part of specific 'skilling' or reskilling and lifelong learning. However, one simultaneous disadvantage of the three plus two structure is that it contains, 'the danger of reducing the professional element of training, by subjecting it to purely academic quality criteria, and what is more, academic criteria that are largely not defined from within an 'indigenous' discipline' (Lorenz, 2006, p.54).

Other problems might arise from the differing levels of importance accorded to the BA and MA in different countries; connected to the historical and cultural context of education in each country. Moreover, one set of trends would promote the awarding of the social work qualification after an overall five year academic package, whereas the other views the MA as an area for specialisation, often connected with 'advanced' (for example, managerial) tasks. On a connected but somewhat different point, Walliman (2004) emphasizes the dangers of an educational structure too exclusively responsive to, and tied up with market needs. He links this with the dangers of out and out competition between education providers, which might lead to a process of privatisation within education, analogous with the suggestions driven by the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS).

This could lead to a creation of university programs for elites with higher level of costs and less offer of equal opportunities of access for everybody.

3. Global challenges

In Europe we are facing different challenges: the ageing of populations with both the risk of exclusion from participation in mainstream society, and also problems connected with care for illness, disability or loneliness; migration processes with their controversial and complex effects and their impacts on societies in terms of social inclusion and the embracing of diversities; the effects of globalization in lifestyle; relationship structures that can cause individual and family problems; the poverty that is still present in many countries; managerialism and its influence on the organization of welfare systems. Taking into

account these challenges, social work has to deal with a general shift from state to civil society, from welfare to workfare logic, with an increased presence of third sector and no-profit social services and a service delivery market. The impact of globalization at local level requires “cross-cultural understanding, comparative social policy, concern with global problems, a general worldview, knowledge of a common profession worldwide, international practice, intergovernmental social welfare, and a sense of collegiality with social workers in other countries” (Healy 2001) but also as the document on Global Standard underlines, we have to stress the importance of the inclusion of cultural, ethnic diversity and gender issues in the training.

‘Racialised’ identities, are considered by Lena Dominelli as new challenges for Social Work Education. Focusing on anti-racist social work, the author proposes a model useful in helping students in “focusing on their own individual agendas” [2006, p.100] and working on these personal concerns. Starting from this point, she argues, it is possible to facilitate a deeper understanding of the meaning of difference, diversity, structural inequality and thus orient them towards an anti-racist practice.

In this scenario there is a great need for a committed social work in communities to support personal and social responsibility and to contribute to social cohesion. It requires social workers who are able to invest in the development of resources of individuals and of local communities, involving all the major participants in elaborating and verifying processes and the means of constructing actions, able to work with whole subjects and not simply user categories, to engage fully with their points of view and their systems of thinking.

The key questions this raises, then, are : how to teach students to face this complexity; how to improve their own consciousness and ability to respond at the social work mission to enhance human rights and social justice; how to help students to acquire a non bureaucratic attitude and to develop a ‘political’ role in the most useful sense of the term? The problem is, as Morin (1977) states, “transforming the discovery of complexity into a method of complexity”.

Given these perspectives, the use of competences and modularization structure in the social work training curricula can become an important tool. Leaving the logic of teacher oriented processes and shifting the paradigm to student learning process is very important. This can improve their reflective and critical attitudes and their ability to connect theory and practice in a knowledge spiral. Work on competences is something very different to simply teaching skills. It involves knowledge, insights, IIs and attitudes which can be used in a professional setting to handle different situations.

Modularisation requires the integration of different disciplines in relation to research, methodology and practice, not only a mixture of a variety of discourses related to the subject.

Open intercultural perspectives in education are also an important aspect in relation to the two fundamental actors within the process: The teacher and the student.

The exchanges that can be undertaken stimulate the teachers to become acquainted with theoretical approaches different from the ones typical of their home Country, to compare their knowledge with new didactic methodologies, but also to consolidate those common bases that have a transnational value and can constitute a corpus of scientifically validated and shared knowledge. Moreover, the difference of both contexts and social policies, allows a close understanding of specific elaborations of problems. From this, lecturing and tutoring staff will be able to draw material to enhance the content and range of teaching in that particular subject in their own country which will allow the future social workers whom they are educating a broader range of practice competencies and theoretical knowledge for working with just such problems.

To end the isolation of merely operating at a national level, to feel part of an international community facilitates a "curiosity" of attitude (' what is different here, how is it and what can I learn from it?', for example), as well as a mental receptiveness to change and innovation. Therefore, the concrete possibilities offered by exchanges: to activate networks and through these understand comparatively, for example, relevant theory, formative methodologies, problems, interventions is establish.

It can be asserted that the semi-permanence of the student in a foreign Country offers important opportunities in itself; not only because of learning a whole range of new ideas, but also in relation to the processes of acquisition of the same knowledge. Steeped in a new situation, the student is encouraged to test their ability to orient him/herself in a new context, to collect information, to ask questions in order to understand a different reality from the one he/she is accustomed to and of which they have no existing orientation.

Moreover, this experience facilitates the process of correlation and comparison between different situations, characterizing the common aspects and the specific elements of each situation; it speeds up the abandonment of rigid premises, pre-constituted certainties, and stereotypes, and instead opens the mind towards multiple hypotheses in relation to both solutions and participation. It also helps the student to understand the links between theoretical frames of reference and concrete actions and between the constraints of social policies and the choices of organization of the services.

A further and not less important aspect of student's exchange visits, is the possibility offered from the extended stay in another nation to learn and/or to consolidate knowledge of a language different from the mother tongue. At the level of personal education, then, the experience of being in a foreign country in this way introduces many triggers particularly meaningful to you.

The first necessary step to encouraging students to undertake this productive experience can be understood as helping to 'cut off of the umbilical cord', sometimes still much in evidence in our students. In Italy e.g. the average of the age of the students enrolled into the Degree course in Social work is quite low, often students have concluded their advanced education, without any experience of work and, in the vast majority, they still live at home with their family. We know for example in Italy the phenomenon of the so-called "long adolescence of the young adult " is formative and that this might lead to autonomy and differentiation from the parents becoming somewhat problematic. This aspect is not negligible; there can be resistance by students to receiving the idea of a period in a foreign country. Perhaps we can assume that those who take up this opportunity are already walking in the road of autonomy, and perhaps we can also consider that even at its most simple, this experience offers a student the possibility to reflect on his/her personal orientation and problems.

The decision to undertake the experience of exchange may well force the student to detach from their certainties and from habits, to face a change, to experience the unknown; it puts him/her in the situation of having to take decisions, to face daily problems without the support of the family, friends and the group of reference. It confronts him/her with another culture that may open up different models of living, other rules and habits. New adaptations may be demanded which call for the qualities of initiative and mediation. The student is placed in a position for reorganizing his/her own points of reference, to interrogate him/herself on the adequacy of their own systems of meanings and respect for a new world that introduces elements and characteristics not automatically referable to the mental maps of the observing subject. The ability to understand the differences, to insert them inside a wider context for giving a sense of alternative parameters referred to in an other culture, is an extremely useful exercise, in that it prepares the student concerned with fundamental abilities for the future profession. The lived experience of `

diversity' can render far deeper and more acute reflection on possible discriminatory attitudes to several types of diversity: of race, sex, age, social condition, physical or psychical handicap..

Other important experiential and formative dimensions for social work students in becoming 'the foreigner' are for example that of understanding the experience of functioning in a different language and hence losing the "power" embedded in a language well known and interiorised. This connects to experiencing the difficulty of listening and decoding. The frustration regarding the restriction of the ability to express him/herself, can help the student to understand better and to identify the difficulties of others he/she will meet; for example, service users coming from other cultures. The problems deriving from the professional use of 'technical' languages – specialised, potentially incomprehensible to those outside 'the know' and sometimes misused - in the social work field are also made obvious.

Within the European context this kind of experience, needs to be improved and structured in a more regular way in our curricula, to be able to enhance the level of social work , helping both teachers and students to develop the kind of intercultural attitudes so necessary in this new century. As Walter Lorenz states: "Internationalising social work means critically questioning the conventional boundaries of solidarity, questioning the ideological assumptions, dressed up as economic arguments , behind measures of exclusion, pushing out the boundaries of solidarity beyond the European to a global perspective and ultimately contributing to a shift from the welfare discourse to the human rights " (Lorenz 1994, p. 168/169).

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