

Teaching EU Law outside the EU: An explorative analysis of 8 case studies in Asia¹

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Abstract:

This chapter investigates the state of EU law teaching in Asia. It chooses 8 countries/regions as case studies (mainland China, Macau, Hong Kong, South Korea, Japan, India, Pakistan, Singapore) based on their capacity to represent different regions in Asia (East Asia, South Asia, South East Asia) and to include both countries/regions with a colonial past with the EU and without. Given the limited and, to a good extent, dated nature of the literature on the topic, the research relies on primary sources for data collection, namely websites and syllabus and elite interviews with EU law professors. The finding shows that firstly, EU law teaching is offered in at least one, and in some cases significantly more than one, academic institutions in each of the surveyed countries/regions. Both the basics of EU constitutional law and substantive policies of EU law (e.g., among others, EU competition law, EU environmental law, EU data protection law) are taught. Secondly, we found a gap between scholarly and students' interest in EU law. On the staff side, the interest in offering EU law teaching in countries where EU law does not directly apply, primarily stems from a strong scholarly interest in EU law research, and from the role of the EU as a normative global actor in certain fields of law. This makes inclusion of EU law teaching unavoidable in law schools where comparative law methodology is used extensively as a pedagogical tool. We interpreted this as a spill over effect on the legal education sector of the EU's well-known norm-diffusion efforts. Students' reasons for taking, or not taking, EU law courses are however mainly pragmatic, and job-market related, and are based on a pre-conception as to EU law's irrelevance for their career. This was interpreted as a failure to highlight the existing practical relevance of EU law and how also non-European job markets can reward this type of expertise. Students appear to maintain a fairly neutral vision of the EU and the legacy of colonisation by European countries does not play a role in shaping their views. If anything, it fosters more exchanges with European countries.

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The teaching of EU law is generally adjusted to a non-European audience. This influences the areas of EU law which are taught, but also the level of depth with which these are taught. An added value is identified in relying on non-western readings on EU law. However, there does not seem to be a structured effort to deliver EU law teaching from a non-Eurocentric perspective. This might be one explanation why students' critical view of the EU does not, always, seem to be strongly developed.

Keywords:

EU Law teaching, mainland China, Macau, Hong Kong, South Korea, Japan, India, Pakistan, Singapore.

I. Introduction

European Union (EU) law is a long-established scholarly discipline, and a compulsory subject in most law degrees in EU Member States since the early days of the EU. This is obviously unsurprising, as aspiring lawyers wanting to practice law in an EU Member State will have to pass bar exams that is likely to include EU law as a compulsory subject (as in Italy or Ireland, and to date still England and Wales), or will encounter EU law in their practice anyway. Yet, the interest in EU law research and teaching does not stop at the boundaries of Europe. Well-established EU law scholars, programmes, and research centres exist for instance in EU neighbouring states, but also in the United States. For instance, the University of Oslo offers several courses on different aspects of EU law;² and one can mention, among many in the US, the European Legal Studies Centre at Columbia University,³ or the European Legal Studies Programme at Michigan Law School.⁴

Given the lack of obvious link with the legal practice job market, the teaching of this region-specific subject outside the borders of the EU has triggered quite some intellectual reflection. The question has been raised as to why and how EU law should be taught in a country where it does not apply to its citizens' everyday life. Interesting reflections exist, among others, by US based scholars (Nicola and Davies, 2017); Norway and Switzerland based scholars (Maiani, Pozdnakova and Progin-Theuerkauf, 2019); and Turkey based scholars (Basar, 2021). Similarly, research exists also on how EU law should be taught in a recently enlarged Europe (Selanec, 2015), and in candidate countries (Krstevska, 2018). Furthermore, Brexit has understandably triggered a significant increase in debates on how to teach EU law outside the EU given the sort of 'existential

² <https://www.uio.no/english/studies/courses/law/jus/>

³ <https://european-legal-studies.law.columbia.edu/>

⁴ <https://michigan.law.umich.edu/academics/centers-and-programs/european-legal-studies-program>

crisis' British EU law academics were thrown in (Cotter and De Whurst, 2019; James and Koo, 2018; Barnard and Craig, 2019; Flear and Mac Síthigh, 2019; Clear Cahill and Clifford, 2019; Visvizi, Field, and Pachocka, 2021).

However, we find limited discussion on the teaching of EU law outside Europe and North America, and especially in the Global South. This is despite the fact that several universities in this part of the world, especially in Asia, offer stand-alone courses, or even LLM programmes, on EU law as it is illustrated in this contribution. As our literature review below shows, there is but a handful and, mostly, dated publications on the teaching of EU law in Asia. Our work aims to fill the specific gap of research on the teaching of *EU law* in Asia. It provides a first mapping of the existing offering for EU law teaching in 8 countries/regions in Asia chosen as case studies, of the topics covered, the rationales for staff and students respectively for setting up and for taking EU law courses, and of the different teaching approaches to this discipline. To our knowledge, no up to date study similar in scope and methodology has been conducted so far.

Our findings shows that EU law teaching, both of the basics of EU constitutional law, and EU substantive policies, is offered in at least one, and in some cases significantly more than one, academic institutions in each of the surveyed countries/regions. There is however a gap between scholarly and students' interest in EU law. Academic staff's interest in setting up EU law courses stems from a strong scholarly interest in EU law research, and from the need to incorporate EU law as a comparator in those area where the EU acts as a normative global actor especially. This is particularly important in in law schools where comparative law methodology is used extensively as a pedagogical tool. We interpreted this as a spill over effect on the legal education sector of the EU's well-known norm-diffusion efforts. Students' reasons for taking, or not taking EU law courses are conversely mainly pragmatic and job-market related and are based on a pre-conception as to EU law's irrelevance for their career. This was interpreted as a failure to highlight the existing practical relevance of EU law and of how non-European job market can reward this type of expertise. Students appear to maintain a fairly neutral vision of the EU and colonial legacy by European countries does not play a role in shaping their views, if anything it fosters more exchanges with European countries. The teaching of EU law is generally adjusted to a non-European audience. This influences the areas of EU law which are taught, but also the level of depth with which these are taught. An added value is identified in relying on non-western readings on EU law, however, there does not seem to be a structured effort to deliver EU law teaching from a non-Eurocentric perspective. This might be one explanation why students' critical view of the EU does not, always, seem to be strongly developed.

II. Literature Review

We are aware of seven publications which discuss, among other aspects, the teaching of EU law in Asia. Two of these are publications by Chinese scholars dating to the early 2000s (Shen, 2000; Zeng and Yao, 2002). Several years later, in 2016, 5 articles on research and teaching on the EU in the Asia-Pacific Region were published in a feature issue of the Japanese Journal of European Studies, titled 'How to teach about the EU effectively and excitingly in the Asia-Pacific Region'. Among them, 4 pieces focused on Asian countries, 3 on Japan (Nakamura, 2016; Bacon and Yoshizawa, 2016; Day, 2016) and 1 on South Korea (Park and Lee, 2016). Finally, a contribution from 2020 exists on the journey of Symbiosis Law School (India) to internationalisation and Europeanisation in particular (Gurpur, Mohanty, Arya 2020).

These scholars have mainly focused on mapping the state of and the direction of EU studies, including discussion on the teaching and research on EU Law in the relevant countries, with some analysis of the different forces motivating the setting up of EU law courses outside the EU, students' interest in EU studies, and EU law specifically and, or lack thereof, and different teaching approaches to EU law. The literature will first be analysed by country, and then a few general conclusions will be drawn on common trends where present.

Chinese scholars have conducted quantitative studies on publications by academics in mainland China on the subject of EU law and EU studies from the 1980s till the early 2000s. If compared to interest in European Studies in general, interest in EU law is more limited with respects to interest in EU politics and economics. Between 1990 and 2002, 919 articles were published in the field of European studies, which is already informative data as to the volume of interest in the discipline, and among these 257 articles were written on European politics (27.9% of the total), 203 articles were written on European economics (22% of the total), and 52 articles written on European law (5.6% of the total) (Shen, 2000). Nonetheless, EU law was identified to be one of the most dynamic and fastest-growing fields in Chinese legal research in that period. Five reasons for the increased academic interests in EU law were identified: 'China's reform and opening-up' since the 1970s; the EU's increasing political, economic, and legal status; the development of China-EU relations since the 1970s; the uniqueness of the EU legal system; and the rise of exchanges and cooperation projects with the EU both at the governmental and university level (Zeng and Yao, 2002). These authors argue in favour of stronger government intervention for quite ambitious initiatives to foster the teaching and research on EU *law* specifically, including further exchanges with European Scholars and support the setting up of EU law courses, European research institutes and European documentation centres in China (Zeng and Yao, 2002).

In terms of future directions for EU studies, Chinese scholars put emphasis on developing European studies as a discipline which Chinese characteristics, thus being guided by Marxism-Leninism and Deng Xiaoping Theory (Shen, 2000) also relying on comparative study of EU law and Chinese law (Zeng and Yao 2002); on interdisciplinary research on EU law (Zeng and Yao 2002 and Shen 2000); and to include further reflections on legal issues in Sino-European economic and trade relations (Zeng and Yao 2002).

In terms of teaching, as of 2002, what the authors refer to as the most influential law schools in China all introduced EU law courses, and several of them have developed series of courses focusing on specific fields of EU law (Zang and Yao, 2002). Wuhan University was identified as an exemplar of EU law teaching where 6 EU law courses were developed, which include introduction to EU law, EU and international organisations, EU human rights law, EU environmental law, EU banking law, and EU external relations. Moreover, it was reported that EU law is referenced during courses on, among others, private international law, international trade law, and company law (Zang and Yao, 2002).

South Korean scholars similarly focused on mapping the teaching and research of EU law in South Korea, reporting that 18 Korean universities offered EU law or EU related courses as of 2016 (Park and Lee, 2016). The reason for introducing these courses was identified as stemming from personal interest of academic staff in the discipline – often due to having studied or having had academic experience in EU Member States. Scholars with this background are inclined to teach EU law as a self-standing discipline. Other scholars educated abroad but not in Europe arguably show an interest in EU law and the EU but as a part of public international law or law of international organisations. Similar to what had been reported by Chinese scholars, there has been a growing interest on the side of South Korean scholars in many fields of EU law, including EU contract law, EU human rights law, EU investment law, EU public procurement law, EU sports law, EU competition law, EU commercial law, EU IP law, and EU anti-terrorism law; and a growing number of academic publications, both articles and textbooks, written by Korean scholars, or written by European scholars and translated by Korean scholars. But again, as in mainland China, most South Korean societies and research centres researching the EU focus on EU studies, including EU history, economy, politics and culture rather than EU law. Only the European Constitutional Law Association, founded in 2006, was listed as a law society interested in the EU in South Korea. Despite such flourishing of academic interest in EU law, the authors nonetheless record a declining interest in EU law teaching on the side of the students. The reason the authors identify for this is primarily the lack of relatability and usefulness in practice that students associate with EU law. They then further suggest that a more practical approach to the teaching of EU, and

a more institutional organisation between research centres, might improve EU law teaching in South Korea.

Some Japanese scholars report a similar situation in terms of decline in students' interest in EU law courses in their country. This is attributed to students' perception that EU law might not be relevant for their future professional careers, and a nationalised vision of Europe as composed of nation states which makes the EU as a supranational structure look complex and alien. Similar to what was stated for South Korean universities, these Japanese authors suggest a more practical approach to the teaching of EU law, which exposes the students to the relations between the EU and Japan and allows them to interact also with EU officials (Nakamura, 2016). Examples of such more proactive approaches as implemented in Japanese universities are "Model EU" (Bacon and Yoshizawa, 2016), and an Active and Blended learning approach (Day, 2016). Other approaches to the teaching of EU law include comparative regionalism, presenting EU law as a discipline at the crossroad between international law and comparative public law, and adopting a law in context approach (Nakamura, 2016). The literature on EU legal studies in India to which we had access focuses on the pioneering journey of Symbiosis Law School Pune, which was the first to introduce courses on EU law (Gurpur, Mohanty, Arya 2020). Drawing on abundant literature on internationalisation of legal education, the authors map the process in the law school which has gone from introducing elements of Europeanisation through ad hoc activities, to creating policy frameworks for internationalisation across the whole institution, embedding an internationalisation and Europeanisation ethos in staff and students, and equipping students with the competence and the skills to work in an interconnected and intercultural job market. The reasons listed for introducing EU courses include on the one hand strong personal motivation of the University Chancellor, towards internationalisation as a tool to allow universities to cater for the needs of the economic forces that transcend national borders. On the other hand, the focus on *European* legal studies is justified in light of the growing importance the EU acquired as an actor on the global scene (Gurpur, Mohanty, Arya 2020), which, as mentioned above, is something that echoes the rationales for introducing EU law studies in mainland China.

To sum up, the key aspects that emerge from this, although limited, number of publications is that there is an interest in researching and offering teaching of EU law, in these four Asian countries, although in general it is more within disciplines such as economics, history, cultural studies or area studies that a strong interest for the EU is displayed. Nonetheless, there seem to be a divergence between scholarly and students' interest in EU law. Mainland China seems to exhibit an increasing interest in EU law teaching and research, while Japan and South Korea appear to experience a decline in interest mainly due to students' perception of limited usefulness of EU law expertise. However, it should be noted there might be a temporal factor as the Chinese publications

are 15 years older than the Japanese and South Korean ones. They date to the early 2000s when the EU's economic and political relevance at the global level was at a particular peak given the completion of the internal market, and the introduction of the Euro, and the authors themselves link the raise of interest in EU law teaching to specific historical events such as the widening of EU-China relations. Publication in India also insist on the global resonance of the EU as a factor originally justifying and driving Europeanisation. But there is no comment on whether the current relevance, or lack thereof, of the EU on the global scene influences students' interest.

Lastly, a discussion exists as to how to teach EU law to a non-European audience, both in terms of theoretical framework, see the references to Marxist theories, but also simply as to the classification of EU law as part of international law courses as opposed to comparative law ones, and of concrete teaching approaches.

These findings are informative to our research. They are nonetheless, for the most part, dated. This chapter aims to build on those and provide a more up to date picture of the state of EU law teaching in these four countries (China, Japan, South Korea, India), and broaden the study geographically to other 4 countries/regions in Asia. Moreover, as better explained below under research questions, it will explore more in-depth aspects such as the topic covered by the EU law courses and the rationales for scholars' and students' interest in EU law, and teaching approach to EU law.

III. Research Methods

A. Research Questions

The broad research question of the study is the state of the teaching of EU law in Asia. More specifically the study is built around these 4 questions:

RQ1 - Is EU law taught in these 8 Asian countries/regions, i.e., mainland China, Macau, Hong Kong, South Korea, Japan, India, Pakistan, and Singapore?

RQ 2 - What are the universities' rationales for setting up EU law courses?

RQ 3 - What policy areas of EU law are covered in these courses?

RQ 4 - What degree of interest students show in taking EU law courses, and what are their motivations?

RQ 5 - Is EU law teaching somehow adjusted to the local context, is there a non-western approach to EU law teaching?

B. Data Collection

1. Data Selection Criteria

The criteria for the selection of the case studies include exhaustiveness and accessibility. 8 countries/regions have been selected among those where information existed, and interviews were possible in either English or Mandarin, the languages spoken by the two researchers, so to obtain representation from as many regions as possible within the Asian continent, namely South Asia (Pakistan and India), Southeast Asia (Singapore), and East Asia (mainland China, Hong Kong, Macau, Japan, and South Korea).⁵ Moreover, a choice has been made to include countries or regions which have a colonial past involving a European country which is (or has been) a member of the EU and thus participated in the drafting of EU law - such as Pakistan, India, Macau, Hong Kong and Singapore - and countries which do not have such historical ties with EU Member States. This factor was considered relevant as, it was hypothesised, it might have an influence on the former colonised countries/regions' relation with European legal systems, and indirectly EU law.

2. Data Collection Methods

In terms of methods, the research collected primary data through analysing primary sources (university webpages, syllabus, and reading lists) and conducting expert interviews. These are interviews with the professional elite who possesses expertise in the specific research area (Littig, 2009).

The choice in favour of primary data collection and analysis, especially through interviews, as opposed to using secondary sources ensures the data is closely linked to the purpose and the exploratory nature of the study. Considering the very limited literature on the matter, analysis of primary data makes for an indispensable methodological choice.

The interviewees are all scholars who both research and teach EU law, or EU studies that include a legal component, as further explained below, or are informed as to the interest in EU law within universities in the selected countries because of their position (e.g. head of school). Since the study covers both lecturers' opinion on the rationale for EU law teaching and students' opinion, an alternative choice could have been to interview both lecturers as expert interviewees and conduct qualitative interviews with students. The choice to only rely on lecturers' opinions,

⁵ Hong Kong and Macau have been treated as separate case studies from mainland China, although part of the same country in light of their different colonial past which - the study posited as a research hypothesis - might have an impact on the legal education system.

including on students' perceptions, is determined by reason of limitation of resources and efficiency. Reliance on expert interviews allows the collection of data as to both the structure of the courses and the state of the research-informed teaching in the relevant country as well as of the lecturers' impression of the students' reaction to the offering of EU law teaching. Gathering similar information through interviews with students in all the relevant countries/regions would have required extensive qualitative studies for which at present there were no resources.

Moreover, the choice is also justified in light of the nature of the study, which is meant to be a pilot one aimed to identify relevant themes among students' perception and rationale for taking EU law and EU studies courses. Current data can inform the design of more in-depth research on students' perception in the future, which can be conducted through larger scale quantitative research and qualitative interviews with students directly. The present study relies on responses from 18 scholars coming from academic institutions in the 8 countries/regions chosen as case studies.

More in detail, the interviewed scholars came from mainland China (Whuan University, Beijing University of Foreign Studies - BUFS), Macau (University of Macau - UM, Macau University of Science and Technology - MUST), Hong Kong (City University of Hong Kong - CityU, HK), South Korea (Seoul National University - SNU), Japan (Waseda University, Tokyo University, Hitotsubashi University) India (Symbiosis Law School Pune, O.P. Jindal Global University, Manipal Academy of Higher Education), Pakistan (National University of Modern Languages - NUML), and Singapore (National University of Singapore - NSU). Details about scholars' names, position and expertise are included in the table in appendix 1.

All the interviewees were forwarded the same 5 questions included in a questionnaire also including open-ended questions. These are included in appendix 2.

15 interviewees were interviewed via zoom through semi-structured interviews, which were based on the circulated questionnaire but expanded beyond it. 3 scholars answered the questions in writing via email correspondence. The replies to the interviews and to the questionnaires begin with a focus on the teaching of EU law in the academic institution where the interviewed scholar is currently at, but then further expanded to a discussion of the situation in the country's higher education sector in general. The information gathered therefore goes beyond the specific institution.

Except for Singapore and Pakistan, in each of the remaining 6 case studies the study includes interviews from at least two scholars so as to be able to compare the results. Where available, e.g., Japan and South Korea, we also relied on secondary literature on the topic to triangulate the results. Reliance on only one interview in Singapore and Pakistan is due to the fact that, to the best of our knowledge, our interviewees were the only ones teaching EU law, or EU studies, in the country,

which in itself was considered relevant information. The interviewees are all legal scholars teaching in law schools, or political scientists teaching in the political science department in universities who incorporate EU law content in their courses. The choice to include both is motivated by the need to expand the pool of interviewees. Interviews with political scientists focused on their law teaching, which therefore makes the data comparable across different interviews.

C. Data Analysis

The quantitative data gathered through analysis of websites and courses' syllabus, as well as interviews was organised in tables in file with the authors.

The analysis of the interview transcripts and questionnaires has been a thematic one done through coding. All 15 semi-structured interviews were transcribed upon their completion based on zoom recording or zoom transcription and the researchers' interview notes. Subsequent thematic analysis of data in interview transcripts and questionnaires took an inductive approach, allowing themes to emerge from the data without any prior expectations from the researchers. A deductive approach, with expected and predetermined themes, was neither possible nor advisable, as the researchers in this study did not have any preconceived judgments about the findings due to the lack of existing theories and limited prior research in this area as mentioned in the literature review section.

Reflexive thematic analysis was adopted during the inductive coding process, as opposed to using a set of predetermined codes, in light of the flexibility it allows to edit codes as the researchers work through the data.

The analysis distinguished quantitative data and qualitative data gathered through the data collection process. Quantitative data, which was quantifiable or already presented in the literature as percentages, includes the answers to whether EU law is taught in the interviewees' universities, the characteristics of the course, e.g., optional or compulsory, the topics that are covered in the course, and if there is no standalone EU law courses, in what courses is EU law referenced. Such data is quantifiable, and therefore considered forming the basis of quantitative research, to the extent that similar answers popped up and the percentage of their frequency could be quantified. Where possible, the data was verified and supplemented with information from university websites and course syllabus. Qualitative data includes responses to questions such as the rationale for setting up EU courses, the level of student interest from the interviewees' perspective, the most attractive areas of EU law for teaching and research, the different teaching approaches, including merits of a non-western approach to EU law, and if no EU law courses were set up, the rationale

for this situation. Qualitative data was collected mostly through expert interviews and triangulated with information within existing literature, which supported our findings.

In the process of coding the qualitative data, reoccurring opinions were highlighted in each transcript. These were then colour coded to enable the compilation of general themes that reoccurred among all interview transcripts. The themes that emerged from the data will be presented and explored in detail in the following sections.

III. Findings

A. Quantitative Data

This section focuses on answering RQ1 (Is EU law taught in these 8 Asian countries/regions, i.e., mainland China, Macau, Hong Kong, South Korea, Japan, India, Pakistan, and Singapore?). The study found that there is an interest in EU law teaching in Asia, which can be evidenced by the setting up of EU law courses and master programmes in the surveyed Asian universities. The table below describes the offerings of 41 universities in the 8 countries/regions surveyed both through website analysis, and through interviews and questionnaires.

As far as Macau, Hong Kong, South Korea, Japan, India, Pakistan and Singapore, the information as to the presence of EU law courses is, to the best of our knowledge as based on the replies of our interviewees and independent research, exhaustive. It covers all the institutions in the country which offered EU law courses in the 2021/2022 academic year which is when the data was collected, or where EU law featured in EU studies courses. The information about law schools in mainland China is not exhaustive. Surveying the whole of law schools in mainland China, which has over 620 law schools (Li and Feng, 2020), seemed an impractical task. The inclusions of the listed 9 universities in mainland China which we were informed by our interviewees, or from whose website it can be gathered that they, offer EU law teaching is meant to be illustrative of the interest in teaching EU law in mainland China.

The data shows that EU law teaching was featured, in the selected academic year, in 34 universities across the 8 Asian countries/regions object of the study.⁶ While EU law was mostly offered as an optional course, there are at least two examples in which it is compulsory on paper (Symbiosis International University, India) or de facto (MUST, Macau). At least 3 universities offer specialised EU law master programmes (1 in India, 1 in Macau, 1 in mainland China), to these one

⁶ This is with the caveat that the offerings of optional EU law courses are subject to change every year according to the availability of professors and the circumstances of the universities. For example, in the 21/22 academic year, and incidentally 22/23 NUS (Singapore) did not offer EU law course due to the course leader professor Damian Chalmers unavailability, though the course is still listed on the website.

should add the 7 universities in mainland China which offer such specialised EU law programmes through exchange programmes with European universities. Among the universities surveyed, Symbiosis International University (India) has developed the most comprehensive set of EU law courses with 28 modules covering various aspects of EU law and introducing a LLM specialisation in EU legal studies. Following that, Doshisha University (Japan) and UM (Macau) have 9 and 7 EU law courses on offer respectively.

	Country/ Region	Name of University	Courses on EU law ⁷	Optional or Compulsory	Undergraduate (UG)/ Postgraduate (PG) Level	EU law master programmes
East Asia	Mainland China	Wuhan University	Yes ⁸	Optional	PG	No
		Beijing Foreign Studies University	Yes ⁹	Optional	UG and PG	No
		China University of Political Science and Law	Yes ¹⁰	Optional	UG and PG	Yes
		Tongji University	N/A ¹¹	N/A	N/A	Yes ¹² (in partnership)
		Renmin University	N/A ¹³	N/A	N/A	Yes ¹⁴ (in partnership)
		Xiamen University	N/A ¹⁵	N/A	N/A	Yes ¹⁶ (in partnership)

⁷ Include both EU Law courses and EU Studies courses that contain some EU law content.

⁸ 1 course: EU Law

⁹ International Institutional law and European Union (UG course for the School of European Languages at BFSU), and Seminar on International Institutional Law (including EU Law) PG course for law students at BFSU.

¹⁰ EU Law Courses are offered by the EU China School of Law which includes a Master in European and International Law. The are two core modules that cover EU Law. The first 'European Union Law' covers are Legal Foundations of EU Law and European Political Systems, Internal Market, Area of Freedom Security and Justice, Competition Law and External Relations and Common Commercial Policy. The second one 'European Business Law', covers European Private Law, and European Company Law, Insolvency Law, Litigation and Arbitration Law, Financial Markets and Regulation.

¹¹ Although the university offers a specialised EU law master programme in partnership with European universities, due to limited information that can be found regarding the master programme, whether EU law is only taught in partner universities is unknown. Thus, we are unable to ascertain whether EU law is offered as a standalone course in the Chinese university.

¹² Tongji University offers a dual-degree programme with Humboldt University of Berlin and University of Konstanz, focusing on Chinese law, German law and European law.

¹³ See supra n 12.

¹⁴ Renmin University law school offers exchange LLM programmes in Chinese and European Law in partnership with the University of Geneva, Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (Spain), Aix-Marseille University (France). Renmin University law school also has a joint PhD programme with the University of Munich.

¹⁵ See supra n 12.

¹⁶ Xiamen University offers an exchange LLM programme which features EU law with the University of Amsterdam and Leiden University.

		Chongqing University	N/A ¹⁷	N/A	N/A	Yes ¹⁸ (in partnership)
		Northwest University of Political Science and Law	N/A ¹⁹	N/A	N/A	Yes (in partnership)
		University of International Business and Economics	N/A ²⁰	N/A	N/A	Yes (in partnership)
	Macau	Macau University of Science and Technology	Yes ²¹	Compulsory ²²	UG and PG	Yes
		University of Macau	Yes ²³	Compulsory/ Optional	PG	Yes
	Hong Kong	Chinese University of Hong Kong	Yes ²⁴	Optional	PG	No
	South Korea	Seoul National University	Yes ²⁵	Optional	PG	No
		Yonsei University	Yes ²⁶	Optional	PG	No
		Korea University	Yes ²⁷	Optional	PG	No
		Sungkyunkwan University	Yes ²⁸	Optional	PG	No
		Ewha Women University	Yes ²⁹	Optional	PG	No

¹⁷ See supra n 12.

¹⁸ Chongqing University, Northwest University of Political Science and Law and the University of International Business and Economics offer exchange LLM programmes in Chinese and European Law with Paris 2 Panthéon-Assas University. These programmes are administered by the Ministry of Education of China and the Chinese Scholarship Council.

¹⁹ See supra n 12.

²⁰ See supra n 12.

²¹ 1 EU Law course at UG and 1 EU Law course at PG level.

²² Chen (MUST, Macau) states the EU law course although optional on paper, could be seen as semi-compulsory due to the limited number of optional courses offered within the law school. Students have to choose the course to fulfil their graduation credits.

²³ 7 courses on EU law: Treaty reforms in the EU, Institutional law of the European Union, Economic law of the European Union, External law and policy of the European Union, EU competition law, EU environmental law, EU natural resources and energy law.

²⁴ 1 course on EU law: European Union law.

²⁵ 3 courses on EU law: EU law, EU company and security law, EU international relations law.

²⁶ 2 courses on EU law: EU law, European legal history.

²⁷ 8 courses on EU law: European Union Law, Special topics in European Union law, EU trade law and policy, European economic law, Special topics on EU cooperation law, European tax law, EU administrative law, European Union criminal law.

²⁸ 2 courses on EU law: EU law, EU contract law.

²⁹ 1 course on EU law: EU internal legal governance law.

		Kyung Hee University	Yes ³⁰	Compulsory/Optional ³¹	PG	No
		University of Seoul	Yes ³²	Optional	PG	No
		Chung-ang University	Yes ³³	Optional	PG	No
		Hankuk University of Foreign Studies	Yes ³⁴	Optional	PG	No
		Sogang University	Yes ³⁵	Optional	PG	No
		Konkuk University	Yes ³⁶	Optional	PG	No
		Inha University	Yes ³⁷	Optional	PG	No
		Chungnam National University	Yes ³⁸	Optional	PG	No
		Kyungbook National University	Yes ³⁹	Optional	PG	No
		YOUNG NAM University	Yes ⁴⁰	Optional	PG	No
		Pusan University	Yes ⁴¹	Optional	PG	No
		Chonam University	Yes ⁴²	Optional	PG	No
		Chonbuk University	Yes ⁴³	Optional	PG	No
	Japan	Tokyo University	Yes ⁴⁴	Optional	UG and PG	No
		Waseda University	Yes ⁴⁵	Optional	UG and PG	No ⁴⁶

³⁰ 2 courses on EU law: EU law, EU private law.

³¹ The course 'EU law' is compulsory for the postgraduate global business law pathway.

³² 1 course on EU law: Korea-US/EU free trade agreement.

³³ 1 course on EU law: EU law.

³⁴ 3 courses on EU law: EU law, EU law (specialisation), EU law (practical).

³⁵ 1 course on EU law: EU finance law.

³⁶ 1 course on EU law: Introduction to EU law.

³⁷ 5 courses on EU law: Freedom of speech in Europe, The great court decisions in Europe, The process of creating the EU, European intellectual property (practical), European intellectual property studies.

³⁸ 1 course on EU law: European private law.

³⁹ 5 courses on EU law: The law of the European Union, Theory of European constitutional law, European constitutional law, EU law, US & EU immigration law.

⁴⁰ 1 course on EU law: European human rights seminar.

⁴¹ 1 course on EU law: Economic foundation of US/EU antitrust laws.

⁴² 1 course on EU law: EU law.

⁴³ 1 course on EU law: EU civil law.

⁴⁴ 1 Course on EU law: EU Law, and one Seminar on EU Law.

⁴⁵ At the EU Law (I) and EU Law II (UG), then 1 Seminar: Anglo-American Law/EU Law, and 6 courses Foreign Legal Systems (EU Law), Introduction to EU Law, Special Study on European Law (I), and Special Study on European Law (II), EU law, and Comparative Law of Regional Integration (PG).

⁴⁶ One should note however that Waseda University offers an LLM programme titled 'Asian Economic Integration and Law' which, Prof. Nakamura informed us, has a focus on comparative regionalism and EU law is featured in the curriculum design as a comparator for macro-regional institutions.

		Hitotsubashi University	Yes ⁴⁷	Optional	UG and PG	No
		Doshisha University	Yes ⁴⁸	Optional	UG and PG	No
		Keio University	Yes ⁴⁹	Optional	UG and PG	No
		Chuo University	Yes ⁵⁰	Optional	UG	No
South Asia	India	Symbiosis International University	Yes ⁵¹	Compulsory/ Optional	UG and PG	Yes
		O P Jindal Global University	Yes ⁵²	Elective	UG	No
		Manipal Academy of Higher Education	No ⁵³	N/A	PG	No
	Pakistan	National University of Modern Languages	No ⁵⁴	N/A	UG and PG	No

⁴⁷ European Union Law, and European Union Law seminar (both undergraduate courses); European Union Law (open to graduate school students, students of the law school, both master and doctoral students); European Union Law seminar (graduate school students); the Substantive Law of the EU, and EU workshop.

⁴⁸ 9 courses on EU law: Introduction to EU criminal justice cooperation, European legal history I and II, European law -1 (Competition law and policy), European law -2 (Private International law), International integration, Special topics A – EU law, Special topics B – EU competition policy as a vehicle of integration of European market, Special topics B – 32 – Introduction to EU policy.

⁴⁹ 1 Undergraduate Course in the Faculty of Law: Foreign Law (EU Law), and one postgraduate course in the Law School: EU Law I (EU Constitutional Law).

⁵⁰ 1 Undergraduate Course in the Faculty of Policy Studies: (International Organisation Law, Special Lectures (European Integration and Law: EU Law and Policy)), and 1 undergraduate course in the Faculty of Law: EU Law.

⁵¹ 28 courses on EU law: EU Human Rights Law, EU Competition Law, EU Data Protection and Privacy Law, E-justice in the EU, Life and Message of Mahatma Gandhi towards global peace and conflict resolution, EU Environmental Law, Principles and Foundations of EU Law, Legal Environment of Doing Business in EU, Family Law in EU and India, EU Culture Entertainment and Law, Migration and EU Legal Issues, Intellectual Property Rights in EU, Healthcare Law and Ethics in EU, Legal methods, Legal research and Cases (Moot Cases/Interlinking common law) in EU, Law and Culture in EU, Prosecution Policies in Europe and Asian Nations, Law and Diplomacy: India and EU Perspectives, Principles and Practices of Fair Trial in Europe and Asia, Trade and Environment Law in EU, Sports and Law - India EU comparative aspects, Innovation Laws and Policies in EU and India (with special reference to Artificial Intelligence), International Investment Law in EU, EU- Intellectual Property violation on Internet, EU India Free Trade Agreement, Law Relating to Financial Fraud: EU and India, Contemporary Business and Human Rights in EU, Business Strategies for launching green products in single market (European Union).

⁵² There are 5 courses offered under the framework of Jean Monnet Chair held by Professor Gupta, which specifically focus on EU Law, these are "Understanding the EU Structure of Informational Privacy", Building a Global Consensus through EU GDPR: An Assessment of Data Privacy Legislation in Asia (India, China, Philippines and Thailand), The Demands of Business: Data Needs v/s Data Privacy, Privacy and New Technologies – The EU Paradigm and Data, Data, Platforms and the Digital Economy : An E.U. Competition Law Perspective, Privacy and New Technologies – The EU Paradigm.

⁵³ The Manipal Academy of Higher Education offers a MA in EU studies with specialisation in Business and Management, Culture and Literary Studies, Education Policy and Management, and Politics and International Relations. The courses in this latter specialisation while not law courses per se, include a strong legal component, a good example being the course "Democracy Human Rights, and the Rule of Law in the European Union".

⁵⁴ 2 courses on EU international relations that incorporate legal aspects: International politics of the EU, The EU as an actor in South Asia.

Southeast Asia	Singapore	National University of Singapore	Yes ⁵⁵	Optional	UG and PG	No
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Table 1 - EU law courses taught in the 38 universities object of the study

Among the topics that are covered under EU law courses in Asian universities, introduction of the EU and EU constitutional law are the two most commonly taught areas, with 24 courses among the 28 universities incorporate them as teaching content.⁵⁶ Because of student audience's general unfamiliarity with the EU and with EU law, it is not surprising that the EU's social and historical background and EU constitutional law, which are the foundation of learning EU law, are taught the most. Other common areas of teaching include EU environmental law,⁵⁷ EU internal market law,⁵⁸ EU competition law,⁵⁹ and EU external relations⁶⁰.

We have found through interviews that EU law is featured in courses on other fields of law, including intellectual property and data protection law,⁶¹ competition law,⁶² environmental law,⁶³ and WTO law.⁶⁴ A particular interest in EU legal standards among scholars that are researching and teaching the areas listed above is not surprising considering the EU is a global normative actor acting as a trendsetter at least in environmental law (Kelemen, 2010; Mazur-Kumric and Zeko-Pivac, 2020), data protection law (Benediek and Römer, 2019; Kuner, 2021), and competition law (Bradford et al., 2019; Blauburger and Krämer, 2013).

Courses which are not specifically on EU law but on European studies put more emphasis on topics such as European political and economic integration. Courses on EU political integration incorporates aspects of EU constitutional law when introducing various EU institutions and the policy-making procedures within the EU.⁶⁵

B. Qualitative Findings

⁵⁵ 1 course on EU law: EU law.

⁵⁶ Excluding South Korea: Chonbuk University, Youngnam University, Sogang University, and University of Seoul.

⁵⁷ E.g., India: Symbiosis International University; Macau: UM; Japan: Tokyo University and Hitotsubashi University; Singapore: NUS.

⁵⁸ E.g., India: Symbiosis International University; Macau: UM; South Korea: Korea University, Ewha Women University; Japan: Waseda University and Hitotsubashi University; Singapore: NUS.

⁵⁹ E.g., India: Symbiosis International University; Macau: UM; Japan: Doshisha University, Tokyo University and Hitotsubashi University.

⁶⁰ E.g., India: Symbiosis International University; Macau: UM; South Korea: SNU; Singapore: NUS.

⁶¹ India: O.P. Jindal Global University; Hong Kong: CityU, HK; Japan: Hitotsubashi University; Macau: UM; Mainland China: Beijing University of Foreign Studies.

⁶² Hong Kong: CityU, HK; Japan: Tokyo University; Mainland China: Beijing University of Foreign Studies.

⁶³ Japan: Tokyo University; South Korea: Seoul National University; Macau: UM; Mainland China: Beijing University of Foreign Studies.

⁶⁴ South Korea: Seoul National University.

⁶⁵ South Korea: Seoul National University; Pakistan: NUML; India: Manipal Academy of Higher Education.

The findings below are based only on the interviews and questionnaires excluding internet search findings, because qualitative data pertinent to the aim of this study is not usually listed on university websites. As was mentioned before, the interviews and questionnaire responses had a main focus on the academic institution where the interviewee is affiliated, but also occasionally expanded to general considerations as to the state of EU law teaching in the country. In what follows it is clearly indicated if the relevant finding pertains to a specific institution or it can be generalised to the whole higher education sector in the country.

The following sections will present the findings around 4 themes: the universities' or staff's rationales for setting up EU law courses which incorporate also a discussion on the topics covered (answer to RQ2 and RQ3); the students' motivations to take an EU law course (answer to RQ4); students' general degree of interest in, and perception of, EU law and the EU (answer to RQ4); the teaching approaches adopted by Asian universities in EU law teaching, especially if a non-western approach to teaching EU law can be identified (answer to RQ5).

a. Universities' or staff's rationales for setting up EU law courses

2 macro-reasons for introducing an EU law course were identified. The first reason relates to scholars' individual research interest in EU law, which is defined by the current study as a scholarly rationale for the teaching of EU law. The second reason is linked to the added value EU law teaching can bring for students in light of the specific qualities of EU law. This is defined as a pedagogical rationale.

1. Scholarly Rationale

The scholarly rationale is the most common reason for introducing EU law courses in Asian universities. Individual scholar's interest in EU law is often linked to personal circumstances and educational background, which translates to a motivation to set up an EU law course. This rationale was identified behind the setting of EU law courses in 8 universities across 6 countries/regions.⁶⁶

To give a few examples, our interviewees have traced the interest for the teaching of EU law in China, Japan, India back to one leading and pioneering figure which inaugurated interest to this scholarly field, which eventually translated into teaching.

⁶⁶ The 8 universities include BUFS (mainland China), UM and MUST (Macau), Waseda University (Japan), SNU (South Korea), NUML (Pakistan), Symbiosis Law School and Manipal Academy of Higher Education (India).

Yao (BFSU, mainland China) mentioned her PhD supervisor Professor Zeng Lingliang was one of the first Chinese professors who studied and published on EU law, which led to the setting up of an EU law course in Wuhan university. That course later developed to become a series of EU law courses covering various aspects of substantive EU law. Similarly, Suami (Waseda University, Japan) noted that in 1970s Japan, EU law courses were rarely set up in Japanese universities, with Sophia University being the only exception, where an EU law course was introduced already at the time by Professor Okamura, who is a well-known Japanese EU law scholar.

But this scholarly rationale can also account for more recent introduction of EU related courses, which include some EU law content, and research supervisions in NUML (Pakistan). In this case, the setting up of an EU studies course stemmed from Shad's research interest in the EU. The same is true for EU law courses in Indian universities. Gurbur (Symbiosis International University, India), Poojary (Manipal Academy of Higher Education, India), and Gupta (O.P. Jindal Global University, India) all agree that the setting up of EU law courses in India is, to a large extent, individual-driven, as opposed to a result of an institutional policy. For instance, Gurbur acted as the pioneer in introducing EU law teaching in her law school. However, it should be specified that the introduction of such courses in Symbiosis International University was part of a broader institutional effort to internationalise the whole university following the vision Dr S B Mujumdar professor in botanic, founder and chancellor of the university, who was a leader in the process. And that Europeanisation of legal education at Symbiosis Law School Pune acquired institutional width, in that not only single elective EU courses, but a whole LLM course on EU legal studies was developed (Gurbur, Mohanty, Arya 2020).

A similar individual-driven rationale can also be observed in Korea. Han (SNU, South Korea) said his interest in applying European electoral theories to Korean elections have led him to open courses on the EU at the Graduate School of International Studies at SNU.

Professors' individual research interest can originate from intellectual interest, but also from their educational and personal background, the three rationales naturally being intertwined. For instance, non-European scholars, who are European educated, are more likely to develop an interest in EU law, which then translates into EU law teaching in the university that they currently work in. This can be seen in NUML (Pakistan), MUST (Macau), and Symbiosis Law School (India)'s experience.⁶⁷ Macau is an interesting case where the legacy of Portuguese colonisation remains till today, including the presence of tight exchanges between Macau and Portugal and the presence of Portuguese citizens, or other EU citizens, teaching in Macau.⁶⁸ These scholars not only

⁶⁷ Shad obtained his PhD from the University of Bucharest in Romania; Chen obtained his PhD from the National University of Ireland; Gurbur spent post-doctoral research periods in Edinburgh and had teaching experience in Ireland.

⁶⁸ E.g., Miguel Ângelo Loureiro Manero De Lemos, Paulo Canelas de Castro at University of Macau.

have a research interest in EU law, but also have a personal link with the EU, which accounts for the higher interest in EU law teaching, as highlighted by the presence of specialised master programmes and a relatively higher regard for EU law teaching in Macau universities (e.g. EU law is de facto a compulsory course at MUST).

Overall, like Koo (SNU, South Korea), said, “when [EU law] courses are set up, it’s because a professor has certain interests, then it’s kind of a snowball effect”.

Such a snowball effect can be further appreciated when scholars with an interest in EU law succeed in capturing EU funded Erasmus+ Jean Monnet actions. These constitute of grants offered by the European Commission's Erasmus+ programme to promote EU related teaching and research. Thanks to this funding, universities can host a teaching post for professors who specialise in EU studies,⁶⁹ which - Ito (Tokyo University, Japan) reported can be particularly important for private Universities in Asia that do not receive public funds such as Waseda or Doshisha University in Japan. And university professors who have an interest in EU studies can apply and receive Jean Monnet chairs allowing them, among other things, to set up EU law courses or EU law research centres. One could mention Prof. Katsuhiro Shoji who was a pioneer of EU law studies in Japan and received an *ad Personam*, Jean Monnet Chair while at Keio University (he is now an emeritus professor at Keio University, and Professor at Chuô University. Gupta (O.P. Jindal Global University, India) stressed that the grants and funding support provided under the Jean Monnet chair is a main driver for setting up EU law courses in Asian universities. And indeed, many interviewees who are responsible for setting up EU law courses within their respective universities were awarded Jean Monnet chairs. For example, Gupta received the 2020 Jean Monnet chair, and he teaches EU law in a comparative fashion in two courses, focussing on law and technology and IP law at O.P. Jindal Global University (India). Shad was awarded Jean Monnet chair in 2020 and introduced the course titled ‘the EU as an actor in South Asia’ in NUML (Pakistan). Yao (BFSU, mainland China) states her supervisor the late professor Zeng who introduced EU law courses in Wuhan University (mainland China) also received a Jean Monnet chair. Similarly, Chen (MUST, Macau) also identified Jean Monnet chair as one of the main drivers for setting up EU law courses, as evidenced by the comprehensive EU law courses and programmes in University of Macau, which are coordinated by Jean Monnet Chair Paulo Canelas de Castro.

Jean Monnet actions also include broader, collaborative, Jean Monnet projects. These are usually a collaboration between different universities and are coordinated by Jean Monnet chairs, which boost the promotion of EU law research and teaching but can also be one university’s endeavour.

⁶⁹ Further information available at: <https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/opportunities/organisations/jean-monnet-actions/jean-monnet-chairs>

For example, the University of Macau has a Jean Monnet Action titled ‘European Union Law in the Global Context’, whose one of the main objectives is to feature EU law teaching in the curricula at all levels of higher education in Macau.⁷⁰ The University of Hong Kong had a Jean Monnet project titled ‘The EU as a Global Actor and EU-China Relations’, which aimed to establish an undergraduate module that analyses the EU's global role and presence and to explore the particular relationship that has evolved between the EU and China.⁷¹

Another example is the project ‘EU-China Legal and Judicial Cooperation’ which involves 8 universities across 6 countries. Three universities are located in Asia, which are Beijing Normal University, Tsinghua University (mainland China), and the City University of Hong Kong. This project aims to advance research in rule of law-based concerns arising from EU-China partnership, which facilitate teaching in this area.⁷²

As a confirmation of the relevance of the scholarly rationale and the individual-driven nature of EU law teaching in Asia, the absence of any faculty members with EU law expertise or interest was quoted as the reason why some universities would not offer an EU law course. There does not seem to be any institutional efforts to proactively seek experts in EU law to offer these courses. Koo (SNU) clearly identified the lack of European educated scholars in South Korea as one of the challenges to set up standalone EU law course in South Korea. This point was echoed by Chen (MUST), who commented the reason many universities outside Europe do not offer standalone EU law course like his university in Macau, is probably because ‘there’s no suitable faculty member who can lead the course’. Such an individual-dependent character of EU law courses is confirmed by the NSU's example. Because of the module leader Chalmers’ unavailability in 2021/2022 and 2022/2023 the course was and is not offered during these academic years. A partial exception to this pattern seem Symbiosis Law School Pune, where Europeanisation of the curriculum was originally individual driven, but has become quite institutionalised at present. And a proper exception seems to be law schools in mainland China, where a large range of partnerships are established with European Universities so as to offer Chinese students the teaching of EU law (see Appendix 1). It is worth noting that also in this case the teaching of EU law is mostly outsourced to Europe-based colleagues, and not taught by local scholars.

2. Pedagogical Rationale

⁷⁰ Further information available at: <https://jmchaireulawglobalcontext.fl.um.edu.mo/>

⁷¹ Further information available at: <https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/projects/search/details/575459-EPP-1-2016-1-HK-EPPJMO-MODULE>

⁷² <https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/projects/search/details/599857-EPP-1-2018-1-UK-EPPJMO-NETWORK>

The pedagogical reason for the teaching of EU law is linked to the role of the EU as a normative trendsetter in certain policy areas, and to the innovative features of the EU legal order.

Interviewees teaching in Japan, India, mainland China, and Macau recalled the emphasis which is put on comparative law teaching in their universities, and the ensuing need to incorporate teaching of EU law also in courses covering substantive fields of law. Japanese scholars, Nakamura and Suami (Waseda University), and Nakanishi (Hitotsubashi University), Ito (Tokyo University) identified comparative legal analysis as a tradition in Japanese legal research and '[...] what the school encourages students to do' as phrased by Suami. '[B]ecause EU law covers a range of areas' continues Suami, 'EU law cannot be ignored when doing comparative study'. Therefore, to further students' own research agenda in various areas, the teaching of EU law becomes a necessity. As an example, Suami states 'for international law students who study security issues, they *have* to examine the EU's common foreign and security policy'. Ito refers to teaching of EU law, as a social science, not as a field of positive law, speaking of an EU Law in context approach, which is meant to give students a broader intellectual perspective.

Similarly, Yao (BFSU, mainland China) said in mainland China 'we always make a comparative study', and similarly, Gurpur (Symbiosis International University, India) and Gupta (O.P. Jindal Global University, India) both reported comparative law plays a huge role in legal education in India. This is qualified as an integrative approach to Europeanization, to the extent that EU law is not only taught as a separate elective, but incorporated in mainstream teaching (Gurpur, Mohanty, Arya 2020). Briefly, the comparative dimension in these countries' legal education combined with EU law being the pioneer and trendsetter in various fields of law makes EU law an unavoidable topic to learn, thus justifies its teaching in Asian universities.

It is worth noting that under this rationale, teaching EU law is not done for the teaching of EU law's sake but to facilitate students' own research agenda and learning. This leads to approaches of EU law teaching that differ from European universities. For example, Suami (Waseda University, Japan) said the content of his EU law teaching to master students actually depends on students' requests. This is because at the master level, each student has an area of research specialisation, and his EU law course serves to enrich and further each student's own research. Interestingly, Suami said for 20/21's EU law cohort, the diversity of students' interests made finding a common ground, i.e. unified teaching content, too difficult, so he assigned individual reading to each student that catered to their area of research. While this specific approach is only workable for small cohorts of students, the broader idea of adjusting the content of EU law courses to facilitate students' different areas of research was also reported in courses hosting larger cohort of students. Chen said in MUST (Macau), the EU law course focuses more on the basic constitutional structure of the EU rather than on substantive EU law, and 'the purpose is to support students' own research

agenda'. By focusing on the foundation of EU law, this course gives students the basis to further explore the area of substantive EU law that is relevant to their own research. Ito similarly shared this opinion with respect to the courses taught at Tokyo University (Japan).

Even outside policy-specific courses, EU law courses are set up, or EU law teaching is incorporated in other courses, to expand students' knowledge by exposing them to foreign jurisdictions. Chen (MUST, Macau) said, 'the most attractive part [about the EU] is the new model of governance and the EU's deep level of integration', and an EU law course 'shows students there is another model of working together', especially with east Asia being the least integrated region in the world. Gupur points out one of the reasons for introducing EU law courses at Symbiosis Law School (India) is that it aligns with the university's ideology – 'promoting international understanding through quality education', and to achieve 'internationalism' it is important to feature EU law in the legal curriculum. Briefly, in our view EU law is regarded by scholars as of pedagogical relevance in light of its 'quality'. Yao (BFSU, mainland China) nonetheless also noted that by exposing Chinese students to EU law, 'when they become lawyers, they can have the competence or some link with the European market'. We will see in the next section, that this sort of practical rationale is preeminent in triggering students' interest in EU law courses.

b. Students' reasons for taking, or not taking, EU law courses

This section explores why students choose, or do not choose, to take EU law courses. As was mentioned in the methodology section, the findings below are grounded in lecturers' understanding of students' motivations. Some asked their students this question, but most comments are made from general observation of students' reactions in class. This study has identified three reasons for students to take EU law courses.

1. Pragmatic, job-prospect related, reasons

The first and most mentioned factor influencing students' choice to study EU law is a pragmatic one, which was identified by 7 interviewees across 4 countries/regions.⁷³ Depending on their perception of whether EU law would help their job prospects or not, students would choose to either take or not take EU law courses.

⁷³ Japan: Ito at Tokyo University, Nakanishi at Hitotsubashi University, Nakamura at Waseda University; India: Gupta at O.P. Jindal Global University, Gupur at Symbiosis International University; Mainland China: Yao at BFSU; Macau: Svetlicinii at UM.

Students in Japan and India perceive their domestic job markets to value EU law knowledge more than students in other countries/regions surveyed. For what concerns Japan, Ito (Tokyo University), Nakanishi (Hitotsubashi University), and Nakamura (Waseda University) all stated knowledge about the EU is important, or at least advantageous for job interviews in Japan. Nakamura in his 2016 article said when students start to focus on finding employment, they will realise the importance of the EU in both business and political matters and become ‘suddenly-interested’ in European affairs, which motivates them to take his EU law courses. Similarly, for what concerns India, Gurpur (Symbiosis International University) and Gupta (O.P. Jindal Global University) reported that students would see studying EU law as a way to increase their job prospect thus choosing the course.

Three reasons were mentioned by Gupta (O.P. Jindal Global University, India) when explaining why EU law knowledge is important when seeking employment in India. First, against the background of a global market which India partakes, knowledge about foreign jurisdictions such as the EU are sought after by law firms. Second, because of the competitiveness of Indian law firms, background in EU law gives students an advantage over other candidates and serves to facilitate their everyday tasks within the firm. Third, because networking is one of the main ways of securing an employment opportunity, knowledge about current issues around the world – including the EU, helps them to make informed conversations and connect with other people who are in a more senior position. Furthermore, as identified by Gurpur (Symbiosis International University, India) knowledge of EU law can also open up employment opportunities in Europe and can be ‘life-changing’ for a student if that job allows them to immigrate to one of the EU Member States. And in fact, these reasons match the original rationales, namely prepare students for an interconnected and global job market, for which internationalisation and especially Europeanisation of legal studies had been undertaken in Symbiosis Law School (Gurpur, Mohanty, Arya 2020).

Consistently, where students perceive that EU law knowledge is irrelevant when it comes to job seeking this discourages them from taking EU law courses. Macau serves to be an example of this. Compared to other regions, EU law teaching in Macau is more established as mentioned before, however, Svetlicinii (UM, Macau) said ‘promoting [EU law courses] is quite a challenge’, because students in Macau universities mainly come from mainland China, and most students ‘want to complete their master study then go back to their home jurisdiction to practice’, where EU law is not a requisite subject for the bar exam. Most students who take the course are ‘interested in an international career or interested in continuing their study in Europe’. This point was corroborated by Chen (MUST, Macau) who also said EU law knowledge not being necessary for legal practice in China is what demotivate students from taking his course.

However, Yao (BFSU, mainland China) said knowledge about the EU can help students in their future career, because it enables them to have the competence to understand the European market – a quality which is sought after by commercial law firms. Therefore, it can be seen that there is a gap between the value placed on EU law knowledge by the domestic job market in reality and students' perception of the importance of EU law in employment seeking. However, it is the latter that ultimately determines whether students will take EU law courses.

To put these findings into context, it is also interesting to observe that Poojary (Manipal Academy of Higher Education, India) reported it is difficult and takes much convincing to get student enrolment for the EU studies programme in general, because of the perception that such programme has low job prospects. However, she added such difficulties are not faced solely by courses on European studies in India but all humanities and social science subjects in general. Because India is highly focused on developing science and technologies, job opportunities are concentrated in such fields. This makes humanities and social science subjects less desirable for students who aim to find employment after graduation.

The relevance of this pragmatic rationale is well summarised by Nakamura (Waseda University, Japan)'s observation that (Japanese) students often become 'suddenly interested' in EU law when they start seeking employment, at which point they have a more comprehensive understanding about the significance of EU law through their personal experience.

Factors mentioned above can also explain the absence, or the difficulty in setting up standalone EU law courses in Asian universities, for instance in Hong Kong. Students' lack of interest in EU law is relevant because it is the number of students who register the course that contribute to determining whether it is offered (Park and Lee, 2016).

The background to this is that, as one can expect, EU law has no apparent domestic relevance in Asian countries. This emerged in interviews in India, Macau, and Hong Kong. As pointed out by Gupta (O.P. Jindal Global University, India), it is difficult to gather enough student interest for a standalone EU law course when it is not a mandatory subject for obtaining a law degree in India, although as mentioned students still perceive the job market as valuing EU law knowledge. Indeed, Chen (MUST, Macau) said legal education is 'more professional training than social science, the subject's relevance to students' future careers needs to be taken into account'. This point is echoed by Tan (CityU, HK) who said law students are mostly aiming for entry into the legal profession. With EU law knowledge not being mandatory for degree qualification or the bar exam in Hong Kong, he 'does not see much scope for teaching EU law in any material way'.

When interest is shown for legal systems and areas of law which are not strictly relevant to domestic legal practice, for students in Asian universities, other regions in the world may appear more attractive than the EU. The US is a point of reference for South Korean students, due to

South Korea's 'path dependency', as Koo (SNU) reported. Whereas China and Chinese law are the main centre of interest for students in Hong Kong and Japan, due to reasons of geographical proximity and China's growing political and economic significance. This was reported by Tan, He (CityU, HK) and Nakamura (Waseda University, Japan).

Similar trend can be observed in European studies courses. Han (SNU, South Korea) said student numbers for European studies courses are shrinking compared to 10 or 15 years ago. He reported most students who take European studies as their postgraduate major study European languages at the undergraduate level. However, in recent years, the size of the European language department is shrinking because students are more interested in Japanese and Chinese, thus leading to declining student number for European studies at the postgraduate level.

2. Personal interest in European States

The second reason for students to take an EU law course is their personal interest, which can consist of both a general interest in Europe, and an academic interest in EU law. This rationale was identified by 4 interviewees across Japan, South Korea, and Macau.⁷⁴

As far as a general interest in Europe, none of the interviews reported students, especially undergraduates, as having a strong understanding and perception of the EU as a specific organisation. Those who are interested in that part of the world are rather interested in Europe as a continent, or in the culture of single EU Member States. As was mentioned already, such a 'nationally compartmentalised' view of Europe can on the one hand lead the EU appearing to students as 'extraneous' and 'difficult and complex to understand' (Nakamura, 2016), which discourages students from taking EU law course. On the other hand, it can also have a virtuous effect and trigger further interest in EU law or EU studies courses. For example, Koo (SNU) said many South Korean students become interested in Europe because of a popular South Korean TV drama (Memories of Alhambra) which is set in Spain, which translated in higher interest in EU studies.

The exception is master students specialising in a certain area, especially in academic institutions which encourage comparative legal research, who would take EU law courses, in light of an academic interest in EU law. They would learn about EU law and use the EU as a comparator for the purpose of improving and fostering their research. This reason was reported as motivating students in Japan both by Suami (Waseda University), Nakanishi (Hitotsubashi University), and in Macau by Chen (MUST) and corresponds with the third rationale for setting up EU law courses

⁷⁴ Japan: Suami at Waseda University, Nakanishi at Hitotsubashi University; South Korea: Koo at SNU; Macau: Chen at MUST.

mentioned above, namely to further students' research agenda. This feeling is however, not universally shared, and contrasts with Nakamura (Waseda University, Japan)'s observation in his 2016 article that 'even motivated [Japanese] students do not seem to have any specific academic interest in the EU'.

3. Course characteristics

The third reason for students to choose EU law courses are the characteristics of the course and the assessment format, which is identified by 3 interviewees both in respect to Japanese students and students in Macau.⁷⁵ In general, at least a portion of students tend to choose courses that are easier to get credits and high marks on. Suami (Waseda University) said Japanese undergraduate students who choose his EU law course probably did it because the exam is open book, which lessens students' workload to a certain extent. Similarly, Nakamura (Waseda University, Japan) said most students who take the course are 'just for credits'. Another aspect of this is the language in which the course is taught. For example, Chen's EU law course in MUST (Macau) is taught in English, and he said it serves as an incentive for students who want to improve their English skills, especially those who want to pursue further study abroad.

C. Students' perception of the EU

Students' perceptions of the EU are really varied, ranging from neutral to positive yet critical ones. Both Nakamura and Suami (Waseda University, Japan) reported that because students in Asia usually do not have any substantial pre-existing knowledge about the EU, they often feel indifferent about the system.

However, a distinction can be drawn between political science students who take EU studies courses and law students taking EU law courses. International relations scholar Poojary (Manipal Academy of Higher Education, India) said students who take her courses which focus on European Politics, EU Policy-Making and EU external relations, often find the EU 'fascinating' but also have a sceptical view about it. Especially when the concept of regional integration and unified European identity are introduced, students often struggle to understand the rationales for setting up a supranational system like the EU, which is evidenced from students asking 'why are they even doing this'. Law professor Ito also said 'law students accustomed to positive law analysis find it fascinating to gain a wider politico-social perspective'. One aspect in particular that triggers

⁷⁵ Japan: Suami and Nakamura at Waseda University; Macau: Chen at MUST.

diverging reactions among political science students and scholars is the EU's practice of human rights promotion in its external relations policies (Cremona, 2011; Meissner and McKenzie, 2019). Koo (SNU, South Korea) said one of his students who comes from Sri Lanka voiced positive views about the EU's interest in promoting human rights in Sri Lanka using the Generalised Scheme of Preferences (GSP)+ scheme.⁷⁶ Conversely, Shad (NUML) reported that local scholars in Pakistan have voiced criticisms on the EU's GSP system with human rights conditions, as it does not take into account the local and cultural compulsions of the specific country, and argued some margin should be given to them. Admittedly, this is a scholarly view rather than students' attitudes. However, such professors' view could have an impact on their teaching content delivery, thus influence students' perspective. Pakistani scholarship on EU affairs is otherwise, reportedly, greatly appreciate the EU's rules-based and ethics-centered external policies.

One hypothesis to explain the difference in attitudes between law and political science students can be traced back to the content of EU law courses in Asian universities. Especially considering most law students in Asian countries do not have any prior knowledge of the EU, and the EU legal system being unique and complex, the course content on EU law is 'simplified a lot', as reported by Svetlicinii (UM, Macau), Chen (MUST, Macau), and Nakamura (Waseda University, Japan). EU law's course content is thus often confined to the basic structure and institutions of the EU, i.e. EU constitutional law.⁷⁷ So, in an introductory course, law students may not have the opportunity to investigate and critically discuss issues relating to the rationale for the EU's set up and its external relations policies, which would be the main teaching content in an international relations class.

D. Approaches to EU law teaching, and value in a non-Western approach

Finally, when interviewees were asked about whether they adjust their teaching to a non-western audience and whether they think there is value in a non-western approach to EU law teaching, their responses again vary. Svetlicinii and Neuwirth, both working at UM (Macau), answered in negative to the question. The reasons to their response however differ. Neuwirth said he 'doesn't think there is a non-western approach to teaching in general' and believes 'the greatest value in legal education to be the chance to study and experience as many different teaching styles as

⁷⁶ This is an EU external relation scheme which removes import duties from products coming into the EU market from vulnerable developing countries. The GSP+ system is an evolution of the GSP one, and it slashes these same tariffs to 0% for vulnerable low and lower-middle income countries that implement 27 international conventions related to human rights, labour rights, protection of the environment and good governance.

⁷⁷ EU constitutional law is the area of EU law that is taught the most in Asian universities' EU law courses, see section 3.1 on quantitative findings.

possible'. Svetlicinii said he is 'not sure' there is a non-western approach to EU law, and he does not adapt his teaching approach too much, because one of the purposes of the EU law course in UM is to give non-European students a better understanding of European culture, system, and value, which includes experience with western teaching approach.

However, many scholars acknowledged they teach EU law differently to their current students as they would to European students and identified the values in viewing the EU from a non-western perspective.

First, a non-western approach to teaching EU law can be reflected in the teaching content. This was reported in interviews with scholars from Macau and Japan. As mentioned before, EU law courses for Asian students are often introductory and simplified in consideration of students' background. Chen (MUST, Macau) said he would add more internal market content when teaching to European students, because of internal market's domestic relevance to European students. Although Svetlicinii (UM, Macau) expressed doubts as to the existence of a non-western approach, he pointed out that when teaching European students, the content would be normally more detailed, case based, and much more technical. Their reasoning is based on teaching the law in a way which is more relevant to the specific cohort of students. The same rationale would justify the choice to teach external relations to Asian students. For example, Chen (MUST, Macau) said that to further students' understanding of the role of the EU parliament, he would use EU-China Comprehensive Agreement on Investment, which is a draft EU external agreement whose ratification was blocked by the Parliament. Svetlicinii (UM, Macau) also said when teaching in Macau, external relations of the EU is emphasised more, thereby making the course more relevant to students. Japanese scholars Nakamura (Waseda University) and Nakanishi (Hitotsubashi University) also said EU law teaching in Japan puts more emphasis on the EU's external relations.⁷⁸

The second aspect to the non-western approach is the diversity of reading materials. From interviews with Japanese scholars and Park and Lee's 2016 article on EU law teaching in South Korea, it can be concluded that EU law courses in Japan and South Korea are rarely delivered in English. Aside from primary law, secondary reading materials are often written by local scholars in Japanese and Korean respectively. The same holds true for many mainland China universities; although there would be an attempt to deliver the majority of the course content in English, many reading materials are written by Chinese authors in Chinese. In these three countries, although including local scholars' materials is often done for necessity to accommodate the average students' English skills, such choice is thought by the module leader to also offer a non-western perspective to students to some extent because of the authors' background. Similarly, in India, Poojary

⁷⁸ It should be noted this is however, not a widespread opinion, see above Ito's opinion that EU law should be taught only as a social science for its intellectual value not for its relatability to daily life.

(Manipal Academy of Higher Education) said when compiling reading lists, she will actively search for materials that are written by authors from different countries, institutions, and school of thoughts. She acknowledged that for certain topics like the EU institutions, it is hard to move beyond European scholars, but she still tries to see whether any Asian scholars have written on the subject which might give a different perspective.

Our interviewees reported that the difference between European and Asian scholars' perspective, and the added value of a non-western approach to the study and research of EU law can be appreciated in three respects. First, third country national (TCN) scholars are thought as more likely to write about the EU in a more neutral and objective fashion than European scholars. This is identified by Japanese scholars Ito (Tokyo University), Suami (Waseda University), and Nakanishi (Hitotsubashi University). Nakanishi said her impression is that European scholars might in some cases still have 'an affiliation with their national legal system which can sometimes constitute a bias and make it more difficult to see the EU legal order in a wholly objective way'. She also points out that she has not noticed a lot of cross-referencing between literatures written by European scholars in different European languages. This compounds the issue regarding the lack of comparison between different views and school of thoughts. Whereas TCN scholars usually do not have any affiliation with any EU Member States' domestic legal system, thus as 'outsiders', Suami said TCN scholars can provide a more objective viewpoint.

Second, TCN scholars can provide a more local based and non-western analysis on the EU's external relations policies. This is identified by both Pakistani and Japanese scholars. For example, Shad (NUML) pointed to Pakistani scholars' criticisms of the EU's 'export' of its human rights policies' to other countries without taking into account socio-cultural considerations. As an example of a Japanese perspective on the EU's external relations policies, Nakamura (Waseda University) pointed to the EU's anti-dumping duty calculation was considered unfair to Japanese companies by local scholars, something which he could not find as widely acknowledged in EU scholarship. (See among the very few scholars who addressed the topics Messerlin, 1989; Van Bael, 1990; Hindley, 1996. The van Bael and Bellis law firms was the one Japanese company would resort to defend themselves against EC anti-dumping measures).

Thirdly, the study of EU law, and of the EU outside Europe often occurs in the context of a comparative methodology, which equally contributes to developing a non-western perspective. As mentioned before, comparative legal research is a tradition in India, Japan, and mainland China. But it is also at times a necessary teaching approach for students who are not familiar with the EU system. Yao (BFSU, mainland China) and Gurple (Symbiosis International University, India) both said they often compare the EU with their domestic legal system to further students' understanding. Such a comparative approach can also be applied when looking at the EU's external actions.

Nakanishi (Hitsubashi University, Japan) reported that comparing the EU-Japan free trade agreement with trade agreements that Japan concluded with other countries/regions, allows to move away from a Eurocentric approach to EU analysis and provide further insights. Ito (Tokyo University, Japan) echoed this point stressing the added value that the view of non-European scholars can bring to critically analyse the position of states that regularly interact with the EU but are not fully integrated in the EU, such as states part to the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), or states that are part of a less integrated system such as the Council of Europe. By way of example, he recalled that US-based scholars have made important contributions to EU studies.

IV. Discussion

The findings of this study confirm and amplify what emerged from the literature review. Even if mostly dated, the existing articles on EU law teaching in Asia identified trends in terms of offering of EU law teaching, degree and rationales for staff and students' interests in EU law teaching, and specific teaching approaches to EU law, which persist today in the countries surveyed by the literature (mainland China, Japan, South Korea, and India). And similar trends can be found in the additional case studies included in this study (Hong Kong, Macau, Singapore, Pakistan). More in detail, the following general observations can be made.

Firstly, the finding we find of the most relevance is that EU law teaching is offered as self-standing or as part of EU studies courses, in some cases even as compulsory subject, in all the eight countries/regions surveyed (mainland China, Japan, South Korea, India, Macau, Hong Kong, Singapore, Pakistan). This we find remarkable considering that EU law does not directly apply to the territory of these countries/region.

Secondly, there seem to be a number of gaps between staff and students' interest in EU law, but also between students' perception of the usefulness of EU law knowledge and the reality of the job markets. It was highlighted that, with the exception of mainland China where there seem to be institutional investment in promoting the teaching of EU law, and to a certain extent in India, where Symbiosis International University has an institutional focus on internationalisation, the setting up of self-standing EU law courses is to a large extent determined by individual staff members' interest in EU law. This is due to, among other aspects, their fascination with an ad hoc and original legal system. The relatively large offering of EU law courses attests to this scholarly interest. However, academic interest in the discipline does not feature at all among students' rationales for taking courses on EU law, whereas the pragmatic rationale is on top of the list. With the exception of India possibly, EU law is not universally regarded by students as a 'useful' subject for job market prospects, hence the students' declining interest which in turn influences the

teaching offering which naturally depends on students' attendance. Yet, staff members highlight how this is a misconception and that job markets, for instance in Japan and mainland China, would actually reward expertise in EU law. It is not surprising then that the suggestions on how to improve the teaching of EU law one finds in literature include highlighting practical relevance and exposing students to the practical side of EU law also having them interact with EU officials.

Thirdly, this research highlighted how the EU's normative power, which has been widely documented in literature (Manner, 2002; Bradford, 2013) has an impact not only on the law of foreign countries, which has been the main focus of the norm diffusion literature, but also on legal education beyond the EU. It was highlighted how EU law is not only studied as part of international law or the law of international organisation, or in general from a constitutional law perspective, but discussion of the law of substantive policies of the EU also features in different law courses. Such courses which are structured following a comparative methodology are widespread in legal education in the countries/regions surveyed. This was interpreted as a spill over effect of the normative influence that EU law has in the selected areas such as competition law, data protection law, and environmental law. Moreover, a more direct, and intentional, effect of EU soft power can be appreciated in the impact that Jean Monnet Actions have on legal education outside Europe. It was highlighted how these are a key factor influencing and supporting the expansion of EU law teaching in Asia. While our research was not framed under the angle of the EU norm diffusion literature, we believe these findings to be of high relevance for those discussions.

Fourthly, it has clearly emerged from this study that some adjustments to the teaching of EU law to non-EU audiences do takes place. Such adjustments can concern the degree of simplification of the EU law that is taught, which might be higher than when teaching a European audience; the interdisciplinarity of the courses which relies on a law in context approach looking at also European politics to entice students' interests; and the topics to focus on. For instance, there seem to be a stronger emphasis on EU external relations. The teaching of EU law in the universities surveyed thus appears at the same time more simplified but also richer in other aspects if compared with the teaching provided in Durham Law School (UK) where one of the authors is based. Such adjustments, however, cannot be said to amount to a deliberate effort to structure and organise the teaching of EU law in a non-western way. Our interviewees recognized that an added value, in the sense of a more objective and critical perspective, can come from relying on non-European literature and from their background as non-European scholars. And they provided positive examples of this for instance when discussing EU external relations and EU power dynamics with third states. However, if this alleged more objective perspective influences the content of the courses and the teaching approaches, this seems more an unintended positive

consequence of pedagogical choices which are made because different reasons. For instance, the need to resort to literature in Japanese, Chinese or Korean, which arguably could bring a non-western perspective, was rather justified in light of the limited linguistic skills of the students, rather than to purposely transmit a less western approach to students. This obviously does not mean that EU law is taught in an uncritical way, but that the emphasis is not necessarily put on a non-western perspective. Moreover, it was highlighted that, at least in some cases, the need to simplify, or even just identify the key concepts, for non-European audiences the contents of EU law might actually hamper the fostering of critical thinking around the EU.

V. Conclusion

This study is, to the best of our knowledge, the first of this size bringing to light the interesting finding that there is scholarly interest in EU law in Asian universities and that this translates to the offering of EU law teaching in all the 8 countries/regions surveyed. The study has built on previous literature investigating further the rationales for setting up such courses and their content, the rationales for students' interest or lack thereof, and the different types of approach to teaching that one can appreciate in the 8 countries/regions surveyed.

It is important to nonetheless acknowledge the limitations of the study which helps highlighting future research directions. The first important limitation is that the findings on students' reaction and interest in EU law are based on their lecturers' perception. The methodological choice for this was justified in the research methods section. However, this points to the first future research avenue – a larger study that can be developed conducting qualitative research directly interviewing students in the relevant countries.

Secondly, the study focuses only on 8 Asian countries/regions. To further generalise our findings as to EU law teaching in Asia the scope of the geographical study should naturally be expanded. Further countries to consider could be other ASEAN countries beyond Singapore (e.g. Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam). Given these countries experienced a form of regional integration, it can be hypothesised that at least in some of them there might be some appetite for studying the EU and its legal system. It would also be important to carry out longitudinal studies which chart the evolution of the interest in EU law in these jurisdictions and the transitions these go through. This would allow a more comprehensive understanding of the future of EU studies in Asia, which is the subject matter of this volume.

A third limitation is the reduced number of interviews conducted for what concerns mainland China, the research being mainly based on literature review and website searches and two

interviews. This study has highlighted the presence of a great interest for the teaching of EU law in mainland China, which therefore should deserve a further autonomous study based on empirical data collection.

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Appendix 1 - List of interviewees

	Country/ Region	Name of University	Name of Interviewee	Expertise
East Asia	Mainland China	Wuhan University	Huang Deming	International Law, Law of Armed Conflict, Foreign Relations Law
		Beijing Foreign Studies University	Yao Yanxia	EU Law, Public International Law, Public Procurement Law
	Macau	Macau University of Science and Technology	Chen Bo	EU Law, Labour Law and Social Security Law, Civil Procedure Law, Disability Law and Policy, International Human Rights Law
		University of Macau	Alexandr Svetlicinii	EU Law, Competition Law, International Economic Law, Business Law.
			Rostam Neuwirth	EU Law, International Trade Law, WTO and International Trade Law, International Trade Law, Intellectual Property Law in the Creative Economy, Transnational Law
	Hong Kong	City University of Hong Kong	Tan Chenghan	Agency, Contract, Corporations Law, Legal Education
			He Tianxiang	European Criminal Law, Intellectual Property Law, Chinese Criminal Law
	South Korea	Seoul National University	Koo Min Gyo	East Asian political economy and maritime affairs
			Han Jeong Hun	European Union Politics, Korean Politics, Legislative and Party Politics, Comparative Politics
	Japan	Tokyo University	Yoichi Ito	EU Law, European Administrative Law
		Waseda University	Tamio Nakamura	EU Law, English Law, Comparative Regionalism

			Takao Suami	EU Law, International Law
		Hitotsubashi University	Yumiko Nakanishi	EU External Relation Law, EU Environmental Law, European Union Law, Law of Regional Organizations, EU Constitutional Law
South Asia	India	Symbiosis International University	Shashikala Gurpur	EU Law, Jurisprudence, Media Laws, International Law and Human Rights, Teaching and Research Methodology, Feminist Legal Studies, Biotechnology Law, Law and Social Transformation
		O.P. Jindal Global University	Indranath Gupta	Copyright, Information Technology Law, Contract Law and Labour Law, Data Protection Law.
		Manipal Academy of Higher Education	Priya Vijaykumar Poojary	European Politics, Policy-making in the European Union, EU's foreign policy, India-EU relations, Migration Governance, and Higher Education Regionalism
	Pakistan	National University of Modern Languages	Muhammad Riaz Shad	Politics of European Union, International Politics of Middle East, Cyber Security Research Methodology, Theories of International Relations
Southeast Asia	Singapore	National University of Singapore	Damien Chalmers	EU Law Law and Comparative Regional Integration International Economic Law

Appendix 2 - Questionnaire forwarded to the interviewees

If there is a specific course on EU Law in your university

1. Is the course on EU law a compulsory or elective?
2. Is EU law taught at the undergraduate or postgraduate level?

3. What topics does the EU law course cover (just a brief overview) and what aspects do student find more or less interesting?
4. Do you think EU law should be taught differently to different cohorts of EU, and non-EU students and in EU based and not EU based universities?
5. Does your university have researchers active in the field of EU law? Whose scholar active in this area from your country would you recommend reading?
6. What would you understand as a non-Western approach to the teaching/research of EU law? and do you think there is value in such an approach in both the teaching and research of EU law?

If there is not a specific course on EU Law in your university

1. Does any other course at your university (e.g. international law or international relations) cover any aspect of EU law?
2. Do you think EU law should be taught, either as an individual course, or part of other curriculum, at your university?
3. Do you think EU law should be taught differently to different cohorts of EU, and non-EU students and in EU based and not EU based universities?
4. Does your university have researchers active in the field of EU law? Whose scholar active in this area from your country would you recommend reading?
5. What would you understand as a non-Western approach to the teaching/research of EU law? and do you think there is value in such an approach in both the teaching and research of EU law?



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