

# **Internationalization and Student Mobility in Teacher Education:**

**Internationalization Models, Diffusion Barriers, and  
Recommendations for Policy and Higher Education Institutions**

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# **Internationalization and Student Mobility in Teacher Education:**

Internationalization Models, Diffusion Barriers, and Recommendations for Policy and  
Higher Education Institutions

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## Abstract

For the field of teacher education, a particularly wide discrepancy exists between (1) higher education discourses and policies advocating a wide diffusion of international dimensions, specifically of study-related mobility (such as Erasmus stays abroad), within higher education degree programs; (2) the ideals and demands placed upon teacher education graduates to possess relevant international competences and experiences in view of their role as multipliers and professionals in increasingly multicultural and global societies; and (3) the ground-level practices, as evidenced by comparatively low mobility rates in teacher education degree programs in Europe. The study reverts to the question where this discrepancy is actually produced and how it could be addressed, thereby closing a gap in student mobility and higher education internationalization research on the diffusion barriers at work in the field of teacher education.

The thesis is set in the field of international and comparative education, and pursues a multilevel and contextualized comparative approach, involving two strands of investigation: (1) a theory-based and process-oriented quantitative inquiry into relevant obstacles for eventual participation in study-related mobility among students in teacher education degree programs; (2) and a multilevel (policy, institutions/staff, students) inquiry into the trajectories of internationalization in teacher education, in view of current higher education internationalization models. By linking and contextualizing findings from different levels and investigation strands, the study draws conclusions and gives recommendations on ways to foster study-related mobility in teacher education degree programs. Through the study's conceptualization of participation in study-related mobility as a process, and through its reflections on strategically managing internationalization, its findings are also relevant to the higher education sector in general.

Keywords: *international education, comparative education, higher education, teacher education, internationalization, student mobility, short-term mobility, mobility obstacles, management of internationalization, diffusion theory, Rubikon model of action phases*



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## List of Abbreviations

ATEE	Association for Teacher Education in Europe
BLR	Binary Logistic Regression
DAAD	Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst
EACEA	Educational, Audiovisual & Culture Executive Agency
EAIE	European Association for International Education
EC	European Commission
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
ENTEP	European Network on Teacher Education Policies
EQF	European Qualifications Framework
ERA	European Research Area
ET 2010	Education and Training 2010
ET 2020	Education and Training 2020
ETUCE	European Trades Union Committee for Education
EU	European Union
EURASHE	European Association of Institutions in Higher Education
FL	Foreign language
GATS	General Agreement on Trade in Services
HE	Higher education
HEI	Higher education institution
HR	Human resource
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
KMK	Kultusministerkonferenz
LLP	Lifelong Learning Programme
NAFSA	NAFSA: Association for International Educators
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
TE	Teacher education
TEPE	Teacher Education Policies in Europe

TNTEE	Thematic Network on Teacher Education in Europe
TSM	Temporary study-related mobility
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
US	United States of America
WTO	World Trade Organization

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In this research project, it has from the beginning been my interest to conduct, as a matter of course, the best possible research and also to give back realizable recommendations to the field of higher education on ways to further promote internationalization and student mobility—in higher education in general, and in teacher education degree programs specifically. In this sense, I hope that the choice of an open, electronic publication of my work will facilitate access to research-based insight and in this way, help to advance higher education practices.

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# 1. Introduction

## 1.1 Background, Problem and Purpose of the Study

### 1.1.1 Background of the Problem

Internationalization (Knight, 2004) has been identified as one of *the* major trends in higher education (Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley, 2009; Teichler, 2007; Streitwieser, 2014; Sursock & Smidt, 2010). Being a major trend, internationalization in the 21st century can be described to have seen a massification and diversification of the activities commonly subsumed by the term. The rationales guiding internationalization are not only manifold, but also vary according to different actors, sectors and fields (Knight, 2004; Wit, 2002). This is increasingly the case given massification and diversification. In the European arena, strengthening *international dimensions*<sup>1</sup> in higher education (HE) degree programs and in particular the element of temporary study-related mobility (TSM) have since long been supported through specific programs (for a historical overview see European Commission, 2006b). Today, fostering TSM (as well as other forms of study-related mobility such as degree mobility) is being increasingly addressed by distinct European and national policies (Ferencz & Wächter, 2012), and has been core to important European-level HE policies such as the Bologna process aimed at establishing the EHEA—the European Higher Education Area (Eurydice, 2010; Wächter, 2014). The 2009 Leuven Communiqué, for example, states that “mobility shall be the hallmark of the European Higher Education Area (. . . .) In 2020, at least 20% of those graduating in the European Higher Education Area should have had a study or training period abroad” (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009, p. 4). An increasing number of European countries explicitly pursue specific mobility targets. These targets are in several European countries even higher than the goal of 20% (Eurydice, 2010; Lam & Ferencz, 2012): Germany and Austria as well as the Czech Republic, for example, have established a 50%-target (Lam & Ferencz, 2012). Denmark’s minister for higher education was even quoted saying that he wanted all students to have experiences abroad (Myklebust, 2012).

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<sup>1</sup> The expression „international dimensions in higher education degree programs“ is in this thesis used to refer to the inclusion of a broad array of structural and/or content-related elements of internationalization (such as elements of study-related mobility but also curriculum-based elements and academic courses), as described in more detail in the following (in particular in Chapter 1.3 and 2.1).

The internationalization of HE degree programs at large and study-related mobility in particular are thus widely acclaimed at the policy level. The most important and highly successful European program supporting internationalization and temporary study-related mobility, Erasmus, is nowadays widely known in the general public. Both in policies (Lam & Ferencz, 2012; Wächter, 2012) as well as in institutional strategies (European University Association, 2013, pp. 9–11), study-related mobility is given a particularly important role among the range of elements of internationalization. This is due to a plethora of benefits seen in study-related mobility (see, e.g., argumentation in the EHEA mobility strategy 2020: European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2012b, p. 1) which include knowledge transfer and innovation, competence development, improving the quality of education, and notions of social development, building multiculturalism and global citizenship. The European Commission (2009) *Green Paper on Promoting Learning Mobility of Young People*, for example, summarizes the relevance of study-related mobility as follows:

Learning mobility, i.e. transnational mobility for the purpose of acquiring new skills is one of the fundamental ways in which individuals, particularly young people, can strengthen their future employability as well as their personal development (. . .). Studies confirm that learning mobility adds to human capital, as students access new knowledge and develop new linguistic skills and intercultural competences. Furthermore, employers recognise and value these benefits (. . .). Europeans who are mobile as young learners are more likely to be mobile as workers later in life. Learning mobility has played an important role in making education and training systems and institutions more open, more European and international, more accessible and efficient (. . .). It can also strengthen Europe's competitiveness by helping to build a knowledge-intensive society, thereby contributing to the achievement of the objectives set out in the Lisbon strategy for growth and jobs. (p. 2)

Future teachers have been identified as a group for whom international experiences, study-related mobility, and the benefits expected thereof are particularly relevant; *international experiences and competences*<sup>2</sup> at large are increasingly used to define (desirable) characteristics of teachers (e.g., Buchberger, Campos, Kallos, & Stephenson, 2000;

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<sup>2</sup> The expression „international experiences and competences“ will be used to subsume those competences that carry an international dimension (such as dealing with multicultural classrooms) which are seen as relevant in the context of the teaching profession as well as first-hand experiences which can be relevant to building such competences—this implies first-hand international experiences abroad (such as through TSM) but also includes any relevant at-home components of internationalization.

Council of the EU, 2007a; Council of the EU, 2008; Council of the EU, 2009b; European Commission/DG EAC, 2005; in a national context, e.g., Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2013 Rådet for Internationalisering af Uddannelserne, 2008). This includes students who study to become teachers in foreign languages, a group for whom first-hand international experiences provide an almost logical path of professional development, but it goes far beyond this group. International experiences and competences among (future) teachers are seen as relevant for several reasons: Multicultural societies in Europe and classroom settings coined by increasing cultural heterogeneity require teachers not only to “be able to recognise and respect different cultures” (European Commission/DG EAC, 2005, p. 2); beyond that, they need to possess professional competences to manage learning in culturally and socially diverse settings. In this respect the Council of the EU (2007a), for example, has concluded that “the ability of teachers to meet the challenges of increasing social and cultural diversity in the classroom is crucial for the development of more equitable education systems and for progress towards providing equal opportunities for all” (p. 7). Another important perspective (referred to, e.g., in Buchberger et al., 2000; European Commission, 2009; Oser, 2011; Vranješević, 2011) is teachers’ function as role models to students and as multipliers of desirable “citizen orientations”, such as intercultural respect, openness towards Europe, the world and global challenges at large, as well as an intrinsic orientation towards (lifelong) learning both at home and through periods abroad. In relation to teachers’ function as multipliers for periods of learning abroad, the *Green Paper on Promoting the Learning Mobility of Young People* (European Commission, 2009), for example, states that

an enthusiastic teacher, trainer or youth worker who has been mobile him or herself, can be an important motivator for young people to undertake a mobility period abroad. Such individuals have the credibility to explain the benefits of and act as an ambassador for youth mobility. (p. 19)

At the same time, and in view of the relevance of international experiences and competences of future teachers, teacher education (TE)<sup>3</sup> is criticized as a field with a weak institutionalization of international dimensions (Zgaga, 2008; Huisman & File, 2006; Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009) and has been diagnosed to display relatively low levels of temporary study-related mobility (Allen & Velden, 2007, p. 208; Melink, Pavlin, &

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<sup>3</sup> The study uses the term teacher education (not teacher training as the field is also referred to) to emphasize the scope of TE degree programs as professionally oriented academic degree programs at higher education institutions.

Grigić, 2012, p. 126; Netz, 2013). A recent comparative study revealed that students in the subject area *education*<sup>4</sup> have significantly lower odds of both planning as well as realizing a study abroad period than students of other subject fields<sup>5</sup> (Netz, 2013). This is despite the fact that a considerable portion of students in teacher education study to become teachers of a foreign language, a group—as said—for whom immersion experiences in the relevant native-speaking countries are particularly standing to reason and who—if measured outside the teacher education sector—are indeed particularly mobile during higher education studies (Allen & Velden, 2007; Orr, Gwosc, & Netz, 2011). Also, it must be doubted that the demanded professional competence of working with and in culturally diverse settings is successfully addressed in TE degree programs across the board: A study among Swiss graduates, for example, revealed that only 2% of the young teachers felt that they had actually “developed a portfolio [on how to integrate foreign students] and knew what skills this competence would require” (Oser, 2011, p. 3).

In teacher education there is thus a particularly wide gap between the general discourse of widely diffusing international dimensions and specifically TSM within HE degree programs, between the relevance to foster international experiences and competences among future teachers due to their professional situation, and the ground-level practices, as evidenced, for example, by comparatively low TSM rates. Societal and policy ideas and ideals are thus currently not mirrored in the practices and realities within TE degree programs. If TE degree programs in Europe educate young teacher graduates who are underproportionally experienced in international settings, who seldom have first-hand experiences abroad, who (therefore) have only limited knowledge about education systems and practices in other countries, and who during their studies encountered few chances to develop intercultural competences and competences to teach in culturally diverse settings, then teacher education graduates will not be able to take on their envisaged role in schools—a role as multipliers of ideas and competences that our society values, as professionals in managing intercultural settings, and as in-school innovators who enact education based on their nationally and internationally inspired knowledge portfolio. It is in this sense that the gap between ideas and

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<sup>4</sup> The subject area education comprises, according to the commonly used ISCED-97 classification both degrees in teacher education as well as studies of education science. See more details in chapter 2.5.1.2.

<sup>5</sup> The reference group were students in the subject field *arts and humanities*. This field includes foreign language students who are known to be a particularly mobile group (e.g., Allen and Velden (2007)). The result is therefore hardly surprising. However, contrary to other subject areas compared to the reference category, the results (lower odds) for the subject area education were highly consistent in all countries (representative samples of four countries were used) and at both thresholds (plans and realization).

ideals on the one side and practices on the other constitute a problem of societal and political relevance.

Where is this gap actually produced and how can it be addressed?

### **1.1.2 Rationale and Purpose of the Study: Reducing the Lack of Empirical Knowledge to Address the Internationalization and Student Mobility Gap in Teacher Education**

For as long as two decades ago, calls for fostering mobility among teacher education students have been articulated in European discourses, for example, in the course of the work of the Sigma project which evaluated the relevance of the Erasmus program and future opportunities to enhance internationalization through it in different subject areas (Sigma Project, 1995). In European policies and programs that support internationalization we can observe a particular attention to the teaching profession since 1976 when the first action program (at that time mainly focused on fostering professional mobility) was installed (European Commission, 2006b).

In recent years we can witness a yet increased public attention to internationalization and TSM in teacher education (e.g., European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2015). Over the past two decades we have seen the increased prevalence of dedicated higher education internationalization and mobility policies (Ferencz & Wächter, 2012; Teichler, 2007), the influence of the supranational European Bologna process and the importance of mobility in it (Eurydice, 2010; Wächter, 2014), and a renewed focus of national governments and European-level institutions on education policies and the field of teacher education (as noted already in 2000 by Buchberger et al.). The conduct of several assessment exercises and studies (e.g., Sursock & Smidt, 2010; Westerheijden et al., 2008; Huisman & File, 2006; Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009) paralleled the development of internationalization, study-related mobility and teacher education being placed higher and higher on the (education) policy agenda. Results of such studies in turn certainly were instrumental in pointing to teacher education as a field with—to express it casually—problems with respect to institutionalizing study-related mobility, internationalization and Europeanization. In this vein Huisman and File (2006) have, for example, commented that “the whole European movement in teacher education seems to expand, but at an almost embryo-state of development“ (p. 40). As for temporary study-related mobility, critical comments and indications regarding (comparatively) low levels of TSM in the field of teacher

education (e.g., Zgaga, 2008; Melink et al., 2012; Netz, 2013) accumulated in recent years. Such observations were, in turn, instrumental to renewed and intensified calls to increase internationalization and in particular TSM levels in teacher education as we can observe them today: Internationalization and mobility have not only become a matter of discussion prominent at national and international practitioner conferences such as NAFSA (NAFSA: Association for International Education) and EAIE (European Association for International Education) or topics of staff development weeks (see, e.g., NAFSA Association of International Educators, 2016; Imotion project, 2016). Fostering study-related mobility in teacher education has even received mention in the most recent Bologna Communiqué and the topic has thus accessed the highest-level and most impactful European HE-policy-cooperation processes.

However, despite these partially longstanding and recently intensified calls for increasing internationalization and TSM in teacher education degree programs, the empirical base allowing to understand relevant factors that contribute to low TSM levels and a weak institutionalization of international dimensions in TE degree programs is still largely lacking today. As a result, the knowledge to tackle a socially unsatisfactory situation, as it exists in teacher education, and to define relevant strategic and operational action is missing. Currently, research-based knowledge hardly extends the scope of diagnosing the field with low and underproportionate levels of TSM and a weak institutionalization of international dimensions in the field at large. Beyond such diagnosis of the observable facts, no empirical studies have been conducted that reveal and allow understanding in more detail how observable results are actually brought about: What are the factors? How do the goals, strategies, orientations and characteristics of the relevant entities and actors in teacher education (but also in higher education in general, as its broader context) interact to actually co-create the observable results of low internationalization in teacher education and low mobility rates among teacher education graduates? Which environments, options and limitations for internationalization and TSM are created by these different entities and actors and their paradigms? Which environments, options and limitations are students in teacher education—as a result—met with and which are actually the relevant obstacles to gaining first-hand experiences for them?

Discursive explanations for the gap between student mobility and internationalization ideals and what is factually observed in TE degree programs often revert to the notion of *national framing* (cf. Zgaga, 2008; Huisman & File, 2006; Kerr, 1990; Netz, 2013). It is clear that a national framing exists in teacher education (see, e.g., Zgaga, 2008 for an account on

this topic), in the sense of teaching being a profession and teacher education being a field where curricula are often regulated at the nation state level, and where employment is primarily foreseen in national markets (Eurydice, 2013; Gordon, Halasz, Krawczyk, Leney, & Michel, 2009). Beyond its (possibly too) immediate plausibility, however, the national-framing explanation is of limited value since it lacks concreteness, and therefore the potential to derive viable strategies on how to effectively foster internationalization in teacher education from it. If the aim is to strengthen international dimensions in TE degree programs and the adoption of TSM among students, the more relevant question is to understand the operational implications of any given national framing in these respects. Such studies have, however, not been conducted for the field of teacher education.

We thus currently lack analytical and empirical data to sufficiently answer the question of where the gap between discursive ideals and policy demands on the one side, and practices in TE degree programs on the other is actually produced and how this gap could be addressed by adequate strategies. The overall purpose of this study is therefore to provide a better understanding of a problem in higher education that is of social and political concern—the gap between internationalization and TSM ideals and demands, and the factual situation in teacher education. The purpose is also to derive an understanding on the basis of an analytic and empirical account that situates the distinct practical realities in TE degree programs within 21<sup>st</sup> century policy contexts in teacher education and higher education internationalization in Europe, in order to be able to identify concrete barriers and practically relevant strategies for strengthening international dimensions and specifically TSM in teacher education degree programs. Given this purpose, the aims of the study are both descriptive-analytic (arriving at understanding and explanation) and meliorist (deriving conclusions and recommendations) in nature.

## **1.2 Overview: Approach of the Study, Methodological and Theoretical Bases**

Aiming to close the gap in (mobility and internationalization) research on the obstacles at work in the field of TE, the thesis pursues a multilevel and contextualized comparative approach that is based in *comparative and international education* and which involves two strands of investigation: (1) A multilevel comparative inquiry into the trajectories and gaps of strengthening internationalization and TSM in teacher education, as co-determined by different entities and actors, namely the macrolevel (HE and TE policies and discourses), the

mesolevel (institutions/staff in TE) and the microlevel (students in TE degree programs). This investigation strand is described in more detail in Chapter 1.4.1 and 1.4.2. (2) An inquiry into the concrete obstacles to temporary study-related mobility as relevant to students in teacher education degree programs. This investigation strand is described in more detail in Chapter 1.4.3 and 1.4.4. By linking the findings from different levels of inquiry and the two investigation strands, the study aims to draw contextualized conclusions (see in more detail Chapter 1.4.5) on the (limiting) factors at work in the field and to outline recommendations on ways to foster temporary study-related mobility in teacher education, thus satisfying a meliorist concern in current discourses on teacher education and internationalization.

The data used in this study has to satisfy several demands: Due to a lack of previous research on (the concrete factors limiting) internationalization and TSM in teacher education degree programs in view of their setting in 21<sup>st</sup> century higher education, teacher education, and internationalization policies, the study pursues a comprehensive, yet concrete, approach. In order to derive recommendations on ways to foster TSM in teacher education the study also needs to be elaborate and accurate in particular as regards the identification of concrete obstacles to the implementation of TSM. For this reason an approach based on multifaceted data has been chosen. Data used includes:

- document analysis data to reveal internationalization models in higher education and teacher education at the macrolevel (European-level policies and policy-making discourses),
- survey data among staff in teacher education and core data on internationalization collected at six higher education institutions (HEIs) to analyze internationalization and TSM at the mesolevel (staff and institutions), and
- survey data among students in teacher education at six HEIs to analyze the situation at the microlevel (students).

The thesis relates to the field of comparative and international education both in content and approach. Topics studied in this field (for an overview see, e.g., Cowen & Kazamias, 2009) include, for example, the international diffusion, transfer and adaptation of educational concepts or (comparative) studies on educational systems as well as the thematic areas of globalization, internationalization and international education. Dolby and Rahman noted in 2008 that “over the past 10 years, the pressure to ‘be international’ and to ‘internationalize’ has dramatically intensified in all aspects of education” (p. 676) and that this

had put international education to the center stage of educational research. By investigating the phenomena of internationalization and TSM in teacher education, the thesis thematically stands in the tradition of this development. Methodologically, the thesis draws upon traditions, principles and developments in comparative education (see, e.g., Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007 or Adick, 2008). The multilevel and contextualized comparative inquiry also responds to criticism of frequent shortcomings in comparative studies (see Allemann-Ghionda, 2010, pp. 23–24; Bray & Thomas, 1995; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007, pp. 82–101) such as an overemphasis on the nation state level in analyses, or lacking multilevel perspectives that allow for a contextualized understanding of results. The comparative study is based on the theoretical interest to describe and understand “the specifics” (*idiographic* concern, theoretical purpose) of internationalization and TSM in teacher education. This interest, as mentioned, also carries a practical-(political) stance (*meliorist* concern, practical purpose) related to identifying ways forward to strengthen internationalization in teacher education. It is in this sense that it relates to the different purposes and functions of comparative inquiry (as described, e.g., in Hörner, 2004, 2012, 2013; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007, pp. 14–25).

The thesis also has a strong base in a field with close links to comparative and international education: in higher education research on internationalization and mobility (for overviews see Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Teichler, 2005; Tight, 2012). It does not only make a contribution to this field but also strongly draws upon knowledge, concepts and theories of internationalization and mobility research. Using a multilevel and contextualized comparative approach, the thesis reverts to the established concepts of *rationales*, and *program and organization strategies* (the elements) of internationalization (Knight, 2004; Wit, 2002) as core concepts to describe internationalization through the different layers of the approach (the macro-, meso- and microlevel). An *innovation perspective* on internationalization (as introduced by Wende, 1999 reverting to Levine, 1980) is used as a reflective frame in the study. Internationalization is conceptualized as an innovation—a specific idea, practice or object that will reach or has reached a certain extent of diffusion in different settings (in this study: the HE sector and the field of teacher education), depending on how well it matches with the needs of potential adopters such as students, staff or organizations as a whole (on innovation diffusion theory see in particular Rogers, 2003). Together with the body of knowledge of previous internationalization and mobility research, *management models of internationalization* (reviewed, e.g., in Hahn, 2004; Wit, 2002) provide a theoretical perspective guiding relevant foci of inquiry, and a framework for reflections on existing gaps

and (potential) drivers to advance internationalization in TE degree programs from the perspective of managing internationalization at the institutional level. When investigating the concrete obstacles to TSM as relevant to students in TE degree programs, the study draws extensively upon previous research on study-related mobility and obstacles to mobility. Research on (temporary) study-related mobility has a certain tradition in Europe (e.g., Teichler, 2002a; Orr et al., 2011), not least as part of evaluations of large European programs such as Erasmus. When investigating obstacles to TSM, the study takes up recent criticism and developments of TSM research (e.g., a tendency for the comparatively largest group—non-participants in TSM—being underresearched; see, e.g., Souto-Otero, Huisman, Beerkens, Wit, & Vujic, 2013; Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011) and puts equal focus on participants and non-participants. It also responds to most recent calls for theoretically better underpinned and theoretically more fine-grained approaches in TSM research (Souto-Otero et al., 2013; Netz, 2013), and employs the very well-confirmed but in TSM research only recently introduced (see Netz, 2013) *Rubikon model of action phases* (originally published by Heckhausen and Gollwitzer in the late 1980s; described in detail, for example, by Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010 in Heckhausen & Heckhausen, 2010). This psychological model provides theoretical guidance for the detailed inquiry into the obstacles to TSM among students in teacher education degree programs.

### **1.3 Definition of Internationalization and Temporary Study-Related Mobility**

#### **1.3.1 Internationalization at Higher Education Institutions**

With increasing importance and prevalence of internationalization, the activities or phenomena referred to as internationalization have also broadened (see also Kehm & Teichler, 2007). No single accepted definition of internationalization in higher education exists. Furthermore, we can note (increasing) diversity of terms, conceptual vagueness as well as changes in the use of terms such as internationalization, Europeanization and globalization (see also Teichler, 2007 Chapter 3; Wit, 2002, p. 103; on the evolution of terms see Knight, 2010 and Knight, 2004). Such developments create a new need to define and precisely conceptualize internationalization. Knight (2004) has described globalization as “positioned as part of the environment in which the international dimension of higher education is becoming more important and significantly changing” (p. 8). This differentiation will be used in the thesis. Social, cultural and economic globalization as macrolevel developments are thus

conceptualized as a relevant context to internationalization in higher education. The term Europeanization will be used to refer to increasing European-level cooperation and (policy) coordination in higher education, as it is, for example, visible in the Bologna process. Processes of Europeanization themselves are not the focus of this thesis. Rather, they are, as globalization, seen as relevant contextual developments having implications for the relevance, prevalence and nature of international dimensions that we find in higher education.

To define and operationalize internationalization for the purposes of the thesis, a combination of two approaches is used: An abstract, broad and process-oriented definition is combined with an operationalization based on observable, concrete activities (the elements of internationalization) at the level of higher education institutions.

Internationalization is defined according to Knight (2004): “Internationalization at the national/sector/institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (p. 11). This definition, probably the one most widely used in HE research, is chosen because of the breadth and neutrality it provides. In particular, it has two strengths: First, internationalization is defined as a process. As such, it is independent of goals and content and therefore neutral at first. This is a major difference to most other definitions that have been suggested. Second, the definition, while focusing on international dimensions in education as offered by higher education institutions, incorporates related activities at the macrolevel (national level and different sectors) and at the mesolevel (at higher education institutions). Thus, it links well to a multilevel and contextualized perspective as pursued in this study. These strengths, however, also provide for weaknesses: Problematic with the broad definition is that internationalization as a *process* is unspecified, apart from a relatively tautological reference which describes internationalization as international, intercultural and global. Such tautologies are, however, present in many other definitions of internationalization as well (for an overview on definitions see Wit, 2002, pp. 112–113). The task at hand when using this definition is to operationalize it in terms of observable, concrete activities. The operationalization of internationalization, as used in this study, will be elaborated upon in the following sections. In very brief terms, internationalization will be described using the concepts of program and organization strategies, and the rationales concept. Using these concepts allows characterizing and describing forms and trajectories of internationalization, something that will in the following be called *internationalization models*.

### 1.3.2 Operationalization of Internationalization: Describing the What—Program and Organization Strategies

In this study, the operationalization of internationalization draws on the practices involved in internationalization (activities, programs, etc.), conceptualized at the level of higher education institutions. In other words, the operationalization relates to the question of which elements of internationalization institutions employ when engaging in processes of internationalization. The operationalization at the level of higher education institutions allows observing in detail the concrete elements through which internationalization is (supposed to be) enacted at the institutional and degree program level.

Research on these elements of internationalization, as suggested and supported in policies and as employed at the institutional level, has led to a systematization (Knight, 2004, p. 71), presented in Table 1. Knight (2004) makes a main conceptual distinction regarding the elements of internationalization between *program* strategies and *organization* strategies. Program and organization strategies describe forms of and activities in internationalization, they describe the *what* and *how* of internationalization at the institutional level. Program strategies relate to those activities that appear as offers and opportunities to students as well as to staff at higher education institutions. Program strategies entail elements of *internationalization at home* (see Beelen & Jones, 2015), elements of *curricular internationalization* (see Leask, 2013a), and “abroad-elements” such as the rather classical element of internationalization in Europe—temporary study-related mobility. Organization strategies relate to the management of internationalization at the institutional level and have the purpose to support the diffusion of international dimensions at the institution, or, in other words, the institutionalization and take-up of certain program strategies. Program strategies, if supported by coherent organization strategies, can be conceptualized to lead to integration effects (see Wit, 2002, pp. 133–137), that is, to effects of distinctive international elements (program strategies) upon the core functions (teaching/learning and research<sup>6</sup>) of HEIs.

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<sup>6</sup> Depending on authors and context, service to society and community is frequently defined as the third core function of HEIs.

**Table 1: Program and Organization Strategies of Internationalization at Higher Education Institutions**

Program strategies		Organization strategies	
Category	Examples	Category	Examples
Academic programs	Exchange and mobility programs (students/faculty/staff), foreign language study, internationalized curricula, area or thematic studies, work/study abroad, international students, joint/double-degree programs, cross-cultural training	Governance	Commitment by senior leaders, involvement of faculty/staff, articulated rationales and goals for internationalization, recognition of international dimension in institutional mission statements, planning, policy documents
Research/scholarly contrib.	Area and theme centres, joint research projects, international conferences and seminars, published articles and papers, international research agreements, research exchange programs	Operations	Integration into institution-wide management; appropriate organizational structures and communication, balance betw. centralization/ decentralization; financial support and resource allocation
External relations	<u>Domestic</u> : community-based partnerships, community service and intercultural project work  <u>Cross-border</u> : international development assistance projects, cross-border education programs, partnerships	Services	Support from institution-wide service units (i.e., student housing, library, teaching and learning); student support services for incoming and outgoing students (i.e., orientation programs)
Extra-curricular	Student clubs; international/intercultural events; international peer-support groups	Human resources	Adequate recruitment, reward and promotion policies; faculty/staff training; support for international assignments

*Note.* Modified table based on (Knight, 2004). Contrib. = contributions.

### 1.3.3 Describing the Why—Rationales

Another important dimension to characterize internationalization are the underlying purposes and goals of internationalization, that is, the purposes and goals underlying the program and organization strategies employed at institutions. Rationales refer to combined arguments of the purposes, goals and expected benefits of internationalization. They refer to the *why* and *what for* of internationalization. Hans de Wit (2002) describes rationales “as [the] motivations for integrating an international dimension into higher education” and notes that “different rationales imply different means and ends” (p. 84). A traditionally used simple classification distinguishes four broad categories of rationales (Knight, 2004, p. 21)<sup>7</sup>, as shown in Table 2. The rationales concept used in the thesis will build upon rationale “catalogues” previously published (see Knight, 2004; Wit, 2002).

<sup>7</sup> For a more detailed overview of the evolution of the different classifications see Wit (2002, pp. 83–102).

**Table 2:** Different Facets of Four Broad Rationales Categories

Category	Description of rationales facets
Social/cultural rationales	... such as national cultural identity, intercultural understanding, citizenship (e.g., European citizenship), social development (e.g., personality development, multicultural competence)
Political rationales	... such as foreign policy (positive future relations to the sponsoring/host country), national security, development cooperation, building identity (e.g., European identity)
Economic rationales	... such as economic growth and competitiveness (brain gain, technology development), labour market needs and rewards, financial incentives to institutions and governments
Academic rationales	... such as international dimension in research and teaching, extension of academic horizon, profile and status (internationalization as a must-have, marketing, ranking), quality

*Note.* Modified table based on Knight (2004, p. 23)

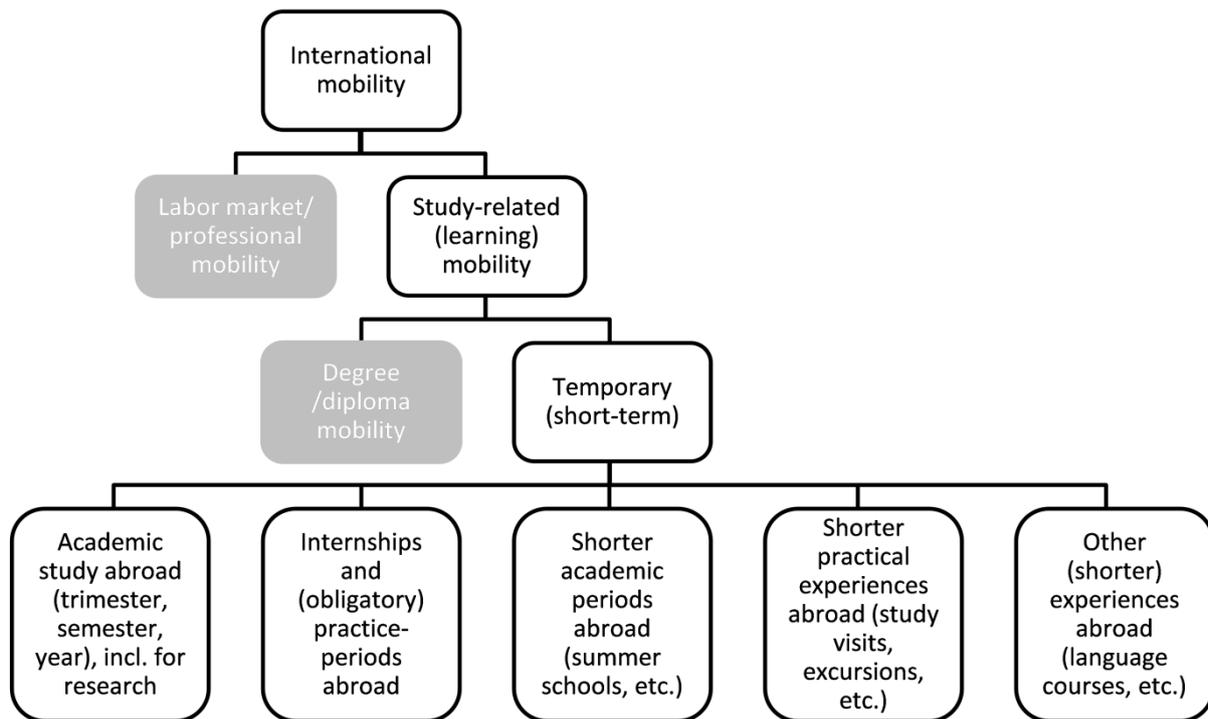
### 1.3.4 Temporary Study-Related Mobility

Student (and staff) international/transnational/cross-border mobility can be defined as “the crossing of national borders for the purpose of studying or teaching in higher education or engaging in research abroad” (Lanzendorf & Kehm, 2010, p. 559)<sup>8</sup>. Differentiations of different forms of international (student) mobility are summarized in Figure 1. This thesis focuses on international mobility of students in TE degree programs in the course of (as opposed to after) higher education studies, hence the term *study-related mobility*<sup>9</sup>. Further, an important distinction is the one between study-related degree mobility and study-related temporary mobility. Degree mobility is not the focus of this study and only referred to when relevant to discuss and understand internationalization in teacher education from a more encompassing perspective. The relevant mobility concept to the thesis—the one with probably the largest tradition and visibility in the European higher education arena—is *temporary study-related mobility*: international mobility for a certain but limited period of time in the course of studying on a degree-awarding program at home<sup>10</sup>.

<sup>8</sup> International, transnational and cross-border mobility are terms frequently used interchangeably to refer to mobility as defined above (Knight (2010); Teichler, Ferencz, and Wächter (2011)). The border-crossing aspect in the definition denotes that other forms of mobility, such as inter-institutional mobility or intra-national mobility are not included in the scope of this thesis.

<sup>9</sup> Student mobility therefore needs to be differentiated from *professional mobility* after graduation (labor market mobility). A similar distinction is made in recent EU policy documents (e.g., European Commission (2011a)) when the term *learning mobility* is used and distinguished from labor market mobility).

<sup>10</sup> Temporary study-related mobility is sometimes also referred to as *short-term mobility* and/or *credit mobility* (Teichler and Ferencz (2011)). The terms *exchange* and *study abroad* are sometimes used as synonyms for TSM. These terms however do not capture the concept of TSM as being inclusive of different forms (such as study abroad) and constellations (such as exchange-based, credit-based) of TSM.



*Figure 1.* Concept of international mobility and distinctions of different forms.

The TSM concept subsumes several different ways of gaining international study-related experiences. The fourth hierarchy level in Figure 1 differentiates several forms of TSM, along two lines: (1) whether the activity undertaken abroad has an academic versus a practical focus and (2) according to the length of the non-degree seeking stay abroad.

## **1.4 Understanding and Addressing the Internationalization and Student Mobility Gap in Teacher Education**

### **1.4.1 The Need for a Contextualized and Multilevel Perspective (Investigation Strand 1)**

When wanting to address the gap between ideas and ideals in teacher education on the one side and a low diffusion of international dimensions and TSM on the other side, context becomes a pertinent dimension: Teacher education as a professionally oriented field of study forms a subsector of higher education at large, thus being influenced by the developments in this sector. Researching internationalization in teacher education necessitates taking account of this embedding.

Internationalization in higher education today involves a plethora of different forms, varying focus and scope, as well as a diverse range of rationales. In today's context, the

internationalization of higher education is not only a widely embraced concept but, as scholars have noted (e.g., Otten, 2012; Teichler, 2007), discourses about internationalization also carry normative dimensions and have rendered internationalization a concept positively connoted and (at least rhetorically) a must-have for higher education institutions. In a historical perspective, internationalization in Europe is described as having moved away from vertical patterns in cooperation (e.g., development cooperation) towards global cooperation “on equal terms”, as being increasingly based on systematic macrolevel and mesolevel policies and strategies, and (through this) as having shifted from a pursuit of singular elements as add-ons towards a more comprehensive internationalization of the core activities (teaching/learning, research) of higher education institutions (Teichler, 2002b, 2007; Wit, 2002, p. 69). In Europe, traditional rationales for HE internationalization were arguments of societal, economic and/or educational needs. Recently, economic and political rationales as well as the academic-quality rationales have gained increased importance (Knight, 2004, p. 22; Wit, 2002, p. 67). Researchers (e.g., Wit, 2002, p. 84) have also noted how policies, programs and strategies pursued by different actors and sectors—governments, institutions, subject areas, etc.—can be governed by the same, but also by very different and possibly incompatible rationales for internationalization. Knight (2004) has furthermore pointed out that it is also of increasing importance to distinguish between rationales at policy (national and sector) level and at the institutional level. The developments described point to an important fact: Internationalization in higher education is not a static concept serving one specific purpose and to which a basket of strategies and elements are linked. Rather internationalization and the purposes, strategies and elements associated to it are indeed evolving, changing and possibly as diverse as the different actors in internationalization. When researching internationalization it is therefore important to precisely describe the purposes and elements (the what and why) of internationalization as relevant in a specific field, and at a specific point in time. In order to understand internationalization in teacher education, it is also necessary to understand the models that govern internationalization in the European arena in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, since they serve as the general context for promoting international dimensions in all HE degree programs.

A precise and context-embedded description appears particularly important in a field like teacher education. It has been repeatedly acknowledged—though not extensively researched and conceptualized (an exception here is the work of Leask, see, e.g., Leask, 2013a)—that different sectors, institutions or subject areas vary in their fundamental

characteristics, needs or affordances in relation to internationalization (Kerr, 1990; Wit, 2002; Wende, 1999; Teichler, 2007). De Wit (2002, p. 327) notes that “the issue of differences among disciplines and academic fields in relation to internationalization is underrepresented in research” and that “current studies assume too much homogeneity among the disciplines, when in reality there are big differences in approaches, rationales, and strategies”. In a similar vein, Teichler (2007, p. 330) reflected on underlying ambitions, aims and purposes of HE internationalization and whether cross-disciplinary programs to support internationalization gave all subject areas the same opportunities or rather marginalized those subject areas which operate “on special terms” in relation to internationalization. Teacher education can be hypothesized to be one of the fields to operate on such special terms: It is one of a few fields in the HE sector that is regulated at the national or regional level in most European countries (Eurydice, 2013; Gordon et al., 2009). It is a field situated within the HE sector, but also very closely related to the school sector. It is also a professional field of study; these professionally-oriented academic degree programs typically include relatively extensive practice components (Eurydice, 2013). Such characteristics may create special terms: terms shaping needs, goals and affordances, impacting upon the strategies to foster internationalization and TSM in teacher education degree programs that appear relevant, suited and feasible. Because of field-specific and time-dependent conceptualizations, when aiming to understand difficulties in internationalizing teacher education, it is therefore necessary to ask, at first, which (possibly distinct) characteristics, needs and affordances (in the terms of this thesis: which possibly distinct internationalization models) exist in the field of teacher education. Distinctive features can be revealed through comparison. A comparison of internationalization (models) in the teacher education sector and the higher education sector in general therefore appears as expedient. Such a comparison allows to identify the (possibly different) relevance of certain elements and forms of internationalization; to understand (possibly different) trajectories of higher education and teacher education internationalization models and their impact upon promoting international dimensions and TSM; and to derive viable strategies to foster internationalization and TSM in TE degree programs.

Although internationalization is a widely embraced concept it can also be seen as an innovation in higher education. Innovation diffusion perspectives have previously been applied in researching internationalization (see Wende, 1999 Levine, 1980). Reverting to Rogers (2003) innovation is defined as “an idea, practice or object that is perceived as new by

an individual or other unit of adoption” (p. 12). It is important to note that newness is not objective newness. Rather, it is the subjective perception of the adoption unit that is relevant. Newness of an innovation can be expressed “in terms of knowledge, persuasion, or a decision to adopt” (Rogers, 2003, p. 12). Internationalization and internationalization models, in particular as proposed at the policy or strategic level, can thus be viewed as innovations: As ideas and practices which are desired and proposed to be diffused at the level of higher education institutions and in teacher education degree programs. The *diffusion* of an innovation among potential adopting units is described by Rogers as “a kind of social change, defined as the process by which alteration occurs in the structure and function of a social system” (Rogers, 2003, p. 6). Diffusion processes start with knowledge about certain ideas and potential practices and with the formation of positive or negative opinions about the innovation (see Rogers, 2003). Both mass communication and communication in peer networks play an important role in creating knowledge and awareness about innovations (the ideas or practices to adopt), and in shaping persuasions and decisions to adopt innovations (in the context of this thesis, e.g., internationalization as an idea, or, for students, gaining study-related experiences as a concrete practice). According to Rogers (2003) “mass communication channels are primarily knowledge creators, whereas interpersonal networks are more important in persuading individuals to adopt or reject” (p. 305).

Diffusion theory differentiates various *adopter categories*: Along a normal, bell-shaped curve potential adopters are differentiated into so-called *innovators*, *early adopters*, *early majority*, *late majority*, and *laggards*. These different user categories display a different degree of innovativeness, defined as the „degree to which an individual or other unit of adoption is relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of a social system“ (Rogers, 2003, p. 280).

Whether or not innovations eventually diffuse among potential adopting units (e.g., whether students in TE degree programs broadly take up TSM offers or whether institutions make internationalization a priority) depends on how well the innovation matches with the perceived needs and goals of the potential adopters (ibid.). Here, *compatibility* and *profitability* can be seen as two fundamental dimensions influencing diffusion processes and the extent of diffusion an innovation reaches in a given field (see Levine, 1980; Rogers, 2003; Wende, 1999). Compatibility can be described as a cultural or normative determinant. It is related to the prevailing values, norms and goals (Levine, 1980) or elsewhere described as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values,

past experiences, and needs of potential adopters” (Rogers, 2003, p. 15). Profitability is a measure of gain and of the effectiveness of an innovation to satisfy the needs of an adopting unit (Levine, 1980). As Rogers (2003) writes (who relates to this dimension as *relative advantage*, defined as “the ratio of the expected benefits and the costs of adoption of an innovation”, p. 233), such gain can be measured in economic terms, but gains in terms of satisfaction, convenience and social prestige are relevant dimensions as well. Van der Wende (Wende, 1999) has used these two dimensions to differentiate four stages of institutionalization of internationalization at HEIs: *diffusion* (the word is here used not to denote the process but a status, i.e., a high extent of diffusion), *enclaving*, *resocialization*, or *termination* in cases of lacking compatibility and profitability. While the dimensions are described and referred to using slightly different terms, they underline that innovations—in the context of this thesis internationalization and TSM—must be seen as desirable, purposeful and advantageous by potential adopters (individuals, institutions, a sector as a whole) in order to reach a high extent of diffusion. This also means that innovations, as solutions to satisfy needs and goals of adopting units, compete with each other. The innovation perspective provides a relevant framework of reflection when researching internationalization models and gaps between ideals and factual practices. It directs attention to asking which ideas and practices (which elements and rationales) commonly subsumed under the header of internationalization are those seen as profitable and compatible by different adopting units—for example, by students, staff, institutions, policy-making bodies or the TE and HE sectors as a whole, therefore having reached a certain extent of diffusion.

Furthermore, and as also implied by the innovation diffusion perspective that situates the take-up of innovations within social structures and systems, when aiming to understand and address the existing gaps between policy-level ideals of internationally experienced teacher education graduates and a low factual diffusion of international dimensions and TSM in practice, a view towards the different actors who co-determine internationalization and participation rates in TSM is expedient: For this, we need not only look to macrolevel internationalization models in the field of teacher education and compare these to the higher education sector models in general. Another essential view is towards the motivations and orientation of the institutional sphere and academic staff (the mesolevel), and of students themselves (the microlevel) who are also co-actors in internationalizing teacher education. As Knight (2004, pp. 6–7) reminds us “the national/sector level has an important influence on the international dimension of higher education through policy, funding, programs, and regulatory

frameworks. Yet it is usually at the individual, institutional level that the real process of internationalization is taking place“. Similarly, the importance of a multilevel and within-institution perspective is also supported by empirically-based conclusions of Dewey and Duff (2009, p. 502) who state that if internationalization shall be an enacted institutional priority it “must be clearly articulated and supported from differing perspectives of the institution, students and faculty”.

Students come to study in HE degree programs with their own (conscious or unconscious) ideas, orientations and characteristics with respect to the role and relevance of international knowledge, dimensions and activities in their studies and future profession. At the same time, the institution and in particular academic staff shape the study environments that students are met with once studying on a TE degree program. These study environments can, more or less, support “personal internationalization” of students. From both staff and students, it is therefore relevant to know whether and why they support the internationalization of TE degree programs, which benefits they would expect from gaining international experiences, or which elements of internationalization they see as most profitable and compatible.

To summarize, given the co-determination of observable results of internationalization (e.g., mobility levels among TE graduates) at the macro-, meso- and microlevel, it is important to reveal internationalization models (elements that are for specific reasons seen as profitable and compatible) at all three levels. Such a multilevel comparison of internationalization, as deemed purposeful and advantageous by different actors, enables revealing similarities or differences between those. This should also allow for the identification of drivers and barriers to a broader diffusion of international dimensions and TSM in teacher education degree programs.

Leadership at institutions, through priorities, strategies and programs instigated, frame the institutional context for internationalizing degree programs. Through the design and implementation of (appropriate) organization strategies, supportive or unsupportive environments for internationalization can be created at an institution. Leadership teams at institutions possess the scope of action to shape the conditions for leveraging academic staff engagement in the internationalization of degree programs. Academic staff from the different subject areas is a particularly important constituency that needs to be actively engaged when it comes to institutionalizing international dimensions in the degree programs offered at HEIs

(see, e.g., Beelen & Jones, 2015; Leask, 2013b; Stohl, 2007). As empirical reports have shown, involvement of academic staff requires not merely the definition of priorities and the provision of related information, but the “translation” of priorities into the design and implementation of organization strategies that speak to the risk and reward structures of academic staff (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Leask, 2013b; Stohl, 2007). Even if a certain interest for the internationalization of degree programs exists among academic staff, a lack of adequate organization strategies targeting academic staff involvement will act as a severe barrier to transforming interest into participation. As Dewey and Duff (2009, p. 499) conclude in their study: “general interest in and support for international higher education is high, but low institutional commitment and a lack of incentives for faculty participation create numerous barriers to internationalization efforts“. Purposeful organization strategies that secure academic buy-in therefore seem to be not only a powerful but also necessary requirement to successfully fostering international dimensions in everyday teaching and learning at HEIs. For a study researching (barriers to) internationalization in TE degree programs it is therefore not only important to have knowledge of the basic orientations of academic staff towards internationalization, but also to take into account how well organization strategies support a stronger diffusion of international dimensions, in particular through supporting staff interest and engagement.

On the basis of the above considerations, the aim of Investigation Strand 1 is to reveal—from a comprehensive (multilevel) and contextualized (TE sector contextualized within its broader context, i.e., the HE sector) perspective—the drivers and barriers, underlying purposes, and relevant forms and elements that characterize and guide internationalization and TSM in the field of teacher education. The first research question is therefore stated as:

Which are the rationales, expected benefits and (major) elements of internationalization (internationalization models) in teacher education? Which distinct features, drivers or difficulties become visible in a multilevel (policies, institutions, students in TE) and contextualized (in view of 21st century HE policies) comparative perspective?

### **1.4.2 Investigation Strand 1: Outline of Aims and Approach, Method and Data**

The aim of Investigation Strand 1 is to reveal—from a comprehensive and contextualized perspective—the specific features, drivers and difficulties that characterize internationalization in TE degree programs. This is accomplished by a multilevel, comparative approach. At the core of this approach is the description and analysis of the motivations and expected benefits, as well as the forms and elements of internationalization (together referred to as internationalization models). Internationalization models are described at the macrolevel (policy), the mesolevel (institutional), and the microlevel (student). To allow for comparison, the tertium comparationis—internationalization as a specific idea or practice (to be) diffused in a specific field—is operationalized using the analytical concepts of rationales (to reveal motivations, expected benefits) and program and organization strategies (to reveal forms, elements) of internationalization. In the description, analysis and comparison of internationalization models, particular attention is given to the role and conditions for the diffusion of temporary study-related mobility in TE degree programs.

To reveal the specific characteristics of internationalization models as negotiated in the field of teacher education, a comparative analysis of the higher education sector in general and the field of teacher education (a subsector in HE) is pursued. At the macrolevel, a document analysis of policies and policy-making discourses for both the higher education sector and the field of teacher education in the European arena is conducted for this purpose. At the mesolevel (institutions) and the microlevel (students), a survey among staff and students in teacher education delivers the data to reveal internationalization models at these levels. In addition to insights into different motivations, expected benefits, and specific forms and elements of internationalization seen as profitable and compatible by the different actors, the survey among staff and students at TE institutions includes the following data to obtain a broad picture on the features, drivers or difficulties of internationalization in TE degree programs:

- Organization strategies employed by institutions which can support or hinder the diffusion of internationalization and the role and involvement of the important constituency “academic staff“,
- staff evaluation of a set of concrete hypothesized barriers which are derived from theory and literature reviews as well as the interim results of the macrolevel analysis,

- benefits expected among both staff and students in teacher education specifically for the element of TSM, and
- study environments as encountered and experienced by TE students in terms of the representation of international dimensions and the role of institutions and lecturers/courses as drivers for students' international orientation and interest in gaining TSM experiences.

The study follows the principle of *dynamic contextualization* (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004, p. 201, reverting to Bray & Thomas, 1995). Results at each level are contextualized within the results of other levels in order to maximize understanding of the features, drivers and difficulties of internationalizing TE degree programs. By juxtaposing and comparing results it becomes possible to determine which ideas and practices are seen as profitable and compatible at different levels of acting. Drivers and difficulties to the diffusion of certain ideas and practices, in particular as regards the uptake of TSM among students, become observable from a systemic perspective. The multilevel inquiry reverting to multifaceted data in comparison and contextualization serves to reveal dynamics in the co-determination of internationalization in TE degree programs, and to enable an understanding of the specific features, drivers and difficulties.

### **1.4.3 The Need for Understanding the Concrete Obstacles to Student Mobility (Investigation Strand 2)**

Fostering TSM among students in higher education and removing barriers to TSM has since several decades been on the higher education agenda and is nowadays a priority area in higher education policies at the international, national and institutional level (Colucci, Davies, Korhonen, & Gaebel, 2012; European Commission, 2006b; Ferencz & Wächter, 2012). The major European program for temporary study-related mobility, Erasmus, has grown massively in recent decades—over the period from 1999 to 2009, for example, the participant numbers have approximately doubled (Teichler et al., 2011). As for teacher education, fostering temporary study-related mobility is not new on the agenda (e.g., Sigma Project, 1995). At the same time, calls for increasing TSM among teacher education students have increased in frequency in recent years (e.g., European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2015). Expediently so, it appears: Teacher education has been diagnosed with a weak institutionalization of international dimensions and collaboration and with comparatively low levels of TSM (e.g., Huisman & File, 2006; Netz, 2013; Zgaga, 2008). Yet, to date, no studies

have been conducted that investigate in detail the concrete obstacles to temporary study-related mobility in the field of teacher education, although a certain breadth of studies exists on obstacles to TSM in general (e.g., Orr et al., 2011; Teichler, 2002a; Souto-Otero et al., 2013). It is clear that fostering mobility in teacher education depends on knowledge of the factors that contribute to low mobility rates in teacher education, and in particular on concrete knowledge of the obstacles as encountered by students in TE degree programs. Providing such knowledge is therefore one of the major contributions this thesis aims to make.

Although the study investigates a specific field—TE degree programs at higher education institutions—it is not the assumption of this study that the obstacles for students in teacher education degree programs are, from a procedural perspective, of a fundamentally different nature than those relevant in other fields. This is because the underlying processes of decision-making and planning, in which certain issues can arise as obstacles (e.g., foreign language skills), are similar for all students, as can be substantiated through psychological theories of motivation and action (see, e.g., Heckhausen & Heckhausen, 2010). Deliberate actions, such as deciding for and planning a study-abroad semester, are preceded by processes of developing certain persuasions and attitudes (such as developing a wish to gain international experiences, i.e., associating a high value to it due to certain expected benefits). In decision-making processes students (not necessarily consciously) consider benefits “versus” costs (such as the TSM benefit to gain knowledge of other education systems versus possible adverse consequences of lacking credit transfer and graduation delays). They evaluate their own abilities and resources (such as their foreign language or expected coping skills) as well as the options and opportunities provided in their environment (such as the specific programs or support offered by their institution). Models that describe such processes—psychological models of action control—can provide helpful theoretical guidance to TSM research. An empirically particularly well-confirmed model is the Rubikon model of action phases (described in Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010; originally published by Heckhausen and Gollwitzer in the 1980s) which distinguishes pre-decision, pre-action, action and post-action phases. Such models are helpful because they provide a procedural perspective on otherwise statically conceptualized obstacles to TSM among students. Because of the general similarity of the motivational and volitional processes eventually leading to the implementation (or non-implementation) of temporary study-related experiences abroad in which certain issues can arise as obstacles, it is assumed that the situation in teacher education is such that the extent and severity of certain issues, at certain stages in the processes of

building interest, decision-making and planning, are particularly high, causing these issues often to act as obstacles to students. As a consequence, the proportion of graduates without international experiences is particularly large in this field.

The fact that the group of non-participants is particularly high in teacher education requires particular attention to the issues relevant to non-participants in mobility programs and to such obstacles that “lie lower” and occur earlier than difficulties that hinder students putting their definite plans into action. After all, Netz (2013) found that students in teacher education do not only have lower odds of having been abroad during studies, but that they already have lower odds of actually planning a study-related stay abroad. This speaks to the relevance of looking to the early stages of adoption processes, that is, in terms of the Rubikon model in particular to the pre-decision phase upon the completion of which students either cross “the Rubikon” having developed interest and intentions to gain study-related experiences abroad, or not. As already indicated above, this early phase includes implicit and explicit evaluations of a plethora of issues (which are in the Rubikon model subsumed into *desirability* and *realizability*): not only of the value in view of expected positive and negative consequences, but also one’s own abilities and resources, and of the opportunities and constraints perceived in one’s context (see Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010; Rudolph, 2009; Weinert, 2004). It is clear that these evaluations will also be influenced by students’ prior experiences and background, the discourses about TSM, its possible benefits, and the relevance of international experiences and competences students encounter within and beyond their study programs. In the pre-action phase, when students have crossed the Rubikon and developed so-called *goal intentions* (Gollwitzer, 1999), they (ideally) start making plans to reach their goal of gaining experiences abroad. While the determination with which planning is pursued, i.e., whether a concrete *implementation intention* is being formed, is dependent on the strength of the underlying motivation, students’ considerations, thoughts and information needs are different from the early phases of developing interest, wishes and intentions (see Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010; Rudolph, 2009; Weinert, 2004). Seeking, evaluating and selecting or discarding options to realize wishes and intentions forms the core of this stage, preceding the actual implementation. Given the relatively low proportion of teacher education graduates who have gained study-related experiences abroad, we can conclude that large proportions of students have actually never crossed the Rubikon (e.g., due to lack of benefits and positive consequences seen to arise from TSM participation) or have not developed their existing interest and intentions into concrete plans and implementation. When the aim is to

foster TSM in TE degree programs, it is therefore necessary to take a differentiated look at the large group of eventual non-participants.

A theory-driven perspective on the processes leading to the implementation (or non-implementation) of study-related stays abroad, as it has been outlined above, points to the range of influential issues and different stages at which students “can be lost” on their potential path towards graduating as internationally experienced young teachers. A theory-based view also underlines the importance of developing a positive views on the value of international experiences in the first place (benefits), of arriving at overall positive outcome expectations (benefits vs. costs) and of developing convictions that it is possible to reach the (desired) outcome (own abilities, opportunities and constraints in one’s context). Desirability and realizability are necessary requirements for developing goal intentions. Furthermore, the theory-based perspective on researching obstacles to mobility implies that the considerations that students take—and hence the issues that act as obstacles—are different at different stages of a process that (possibly) leads to the implementation of TSM (in the following referred to as the *TSM process*, see in more detail Chapter 2.5.4 and 2.5.5). In view of these conclusions, limitations of previous research on obstacles to TSM can be noted: Research has for relatively large parts focused on the analysis of obstacles encountered by those who have been abroad (the participants), as opposed to those who do not go abroad (non-participants who are the majority of graduates across Europe, not only in TE degree programs). This orientation on participants is paralleled by a focus often placed upon structural, organizational or administrative obstacles. That is, on obstacles with a tendency to be more relevant in the pre-action and action phases, as opposed to such issues particularly relevant during of the formation of wishes and goal intentions for TSM in the first place (pre-decision phase). A gap of research on the differences between participants and non-participants and on the factors influencing a student’s path towards gaining experiences abroad (such as progressing from developing interest to planning and eventually implementing a study-related stay abroad) can be observed. Similar shortcomings of previous TSM research have been noted and partially also addressed in recent mobility research (see, e.g., Souto-Otero et al., 2013; Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011; Goldstein & Kim, 2006). Souto-Otero et al. (2013), for example, note that

no study has systematically and at a large scale explored commonalities and differences in the way participants and nonparticipants perceive barriers to participation in the Erasmus program, a distinction of policy relevance when thinking about the design of incentives for participation in the program. (p. 72)

Generally, a need for theoretically better underpinned and conceptually more fine-grained approaches in TSM research has also been identified (Souto-Otero et al., 2013). In this sense, the gap of research on the obstacles to TSM for students in teacher education is also a general gap of theory-driven research on the obstacles to TSM, a gap of research focusing on non-participants (and comparing these to participants), and a gap of research looking in detail to the early stages of adoption processes. Therefore, when investigating obstacles to TSM as relevant in the field of teacher education, the study addresses previous limitations in TSM research. It reverts to the well-confirmed Rubikon model of action phases as guidance to this research. The model allows differentiating different groups of students at different stages of adoption processes (possibly) leading to the implementation of TSM, and allows for a theory-driven investigation of (the different) obstacles relevant to these groups of students.

The second research question is stated as follows:

What are relevant obstacles for (different groups of) students in teacher education degree programs for gaining temporary study-related experiences abroad?

#### **1.4.4 Investigation Strand 2: Outline of Aims and Approach, Method and Data**

This line of research starts from the observation that TSM rates in the field of TE are comparatively low. It aims to provide knowledge on relevant obstacles to implementing TSM for students in TE degree programs. This knowledge is an important base to eventually providing conclusions on possible ways to foster TSM in teacher education degree programs.

Given the focus on student obstacles to TSM, Investigation Strand 2 primarily relies on a survey ( $n =$  approx. 1000) among students in TE degree programs, whereby, in order to derive conclusions further data collected at the institutional level and the results of Investigation Strand 1 are employed. In its conceptual design it responds to existing gaps and current developments in research on TSM. The Rubikon model of action phases is used to differentiate relevant status groups of students and as primary guidance to organizing the inquiry into obstacles to TSM in TE degree programs. Like Investigation Strand 1, it builds on theory and previous empirical studies to define areas of inquiry and derive conclusions. By contrast to the broader and more interpretative comparative and contextualizing approach in Investigation Strand 1, this line of inquiry is more strictly analytic-evaluative in nature and reverts to the testing of assumptions and hypotheses using quantitative survey data and

descriptive, univariate and multivariate methods to evaluate assumptions and hypotheses in order to derive conclusions on ways to foster TSM. The Rubikon model is used to determine four status groups of students of theoretical and practical relevance when it comes to understanding and fostering TSM: an implementation group, a plans group, an interest group and a no-interest group. These groups can be thought to conceptually represent a progression along the (ideal) TSM process (resulting in the eventual implementation of study-related international experiences). Their relational characterization forms the backbone structure of the analysis, based on the assumption that these groups differ in several dimensions and therefore in terms of the obstacles most relevant to them.

Based on theoretical considerations and previous empirical studies, the study is based on three thematic lines of inquiry:

- 1) The relevance of different program forms of TSM for students and the role of unmet student demand profiles as a potential obstacle to a broader diffusion of TSM
- 2) The role of different concrete TSM obstacles and obstacle domains in the TSM process
- 3) The role of students' background, study environments, professional relevance of international experiences and competences, and student knowledge of TSM opportunities in the TSM process

The first thematic line of inquiry places a focus on the demand profiles of students, that is, the relevance students in TE degree programs associate to a range of different TSM program forms, and on the expectation that these student demand profiles are unmet by institutional offer, constituting a gap to a broader take-up of TSM among students. The line of inquiry is important as we find indications that various program forms are of differing relevance in different subject areas (see Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002, p. 69; Maiworm & Teichler, 2002b, p. 89). To assess the relevance of different program forms among students, the study differentiates seven different program forms (see Table 3).

**Table 3: Program Forms of Temporary Study-Related Mobility**

Program Form
(I) Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad (trimester, semester or year at a higher education institution)
(II) Internships/practical experience abroad - Teaching and school practice abroad
(III) Internship/practical experience abroad - Collecting general practical experiences abroad
(IV) Combined programs offering both study abroad and internship/practical experience abroad in one program
(V) Shorter study abroad programs (less than 3 months)
(VI) Practically oriented study visits/excursions/project work abroad (less than 3 months)
(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses and any other programs)

The second line of inquiry focuses on the role of various TSM obstacles and obstacle domains in the TSM process. Their role is, on the basis of theoretical considerations, expected to be different at different stages of the process.

An item battery with a distinct set of issues (evaluated by students as obstacles to TSM for them) is developed in drawing extensively upon theory and issues as implied by previous empirical research, as well as upon items previously used in research on obstacles to mobility (e.g., Orr, Schnitzer, & Frackmann, 2008; Maiworm & Teichler, 2002b). Guided by the Rubikon model, items are grouped into five different domains. These are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Obstacle Domains**

Domain
Lack of (anticipated) positive consequences/lack of value seen
(Anticipated) negative consequences
Apprehensions (about own abilities, personal resources and coping skills)
Problems with information, guidance and support from institution
Limitations in suitable program offer and program integration with regular studies

The third line of inquiry describes the four status groups of students in terms of their sociodemographic and study-related background, international dimensions or “clues” in their study environments, their convictions of the professional relevance of TSM and their knowledge and awareness on options to gain TSM; and it investigates the role of related variables in the TSM process. These variables are selected in order to more encompassingly characterize different status groups of students (than would be achieved through solely the two previous lines of inquiry) along dimensions of relevance when it comes to developing interest, planning and implementing TSM as implied by theoretical considerations and previous research on mobility.

#### **1.4.5 Addressing the Internationalization and Student Mobility Gap (Conclusions)**

The meliorist concern is definitional to the final step in this thesis. Here, the aim and contribution is to provide research-based, practically relevant and context-aware knowledge on ways to foster TSM among students in TE degree programs.

This is enabled by the integrative interpretation of results of the two investigation strands: Conclusions and recommendations on ways to foster TSM among students in teacher education take, as a starting point, the results of Investigation Strand 2 in which detailed knowledge on the obstacles to TSM for students in TE degree programs is generated. On the basis of differentiating four status groups of students, conclusions concerning these different groups will be allowed for; furthermore, a focus on potential non-participants becomes possible. This is key since non-participants represent the majority of teacher education graduates. Generally, theory implies (as outlined further above) that effective strategies to foster the diffusion and take-up of TSM among students in teacher education will need to be designed based on students' needs (e.g., demands for specific program forms), their characteristics (e.g., level of foreign language skills), and their views towards (the purposefulness of) gaining international experiences in the course of their studies. To the same extent, effective strategies will also need to be designed in reference to institutional characteristics and policy contexts, to the institutional priorities and organization strategies employed by institutions, and to involvement and views of academic staff in relation to TSM and internationalization (as researched in Investigation Strand 1). Not only do strategies need to fit into institutional contexts of teacher education. It is probably exactly these institutional contexts that strategies to foster TSM among students might need to gradually change. For example, when study environments in TE degree programs, in which students are socialized, discursively discard the relevance of first-hand international experiences among teacher education students, TSM participation is factually discouraged.

Because TSM participation needs to be understood in a systemic context and as co-determined by different actors, in order to fully understand obstacles and to derive effective strategies for a broader take-up of TSM among students, it is crucial to put individual-level results on obstacles to TSM into perspective. In this sense, Investigation Strand 1 serves as a contextualization of the results generated in Investigation Strand 2. The overall methodology chosen in this study, a multilevel and contextualized approach with two investigation strands reverting to a comprehensive set of data, serves the purpose to eventually derive conclusions

and recommendations on ways to foster TSM among students in teacher education degree programs.

To derive conclusions and recommendations, a follow-up and forward-looking question is posed to the results of Investigation Strand 1 and 2 (in the following referred to as the “concluding (research) question” or Research Question #3):

Which conclusions and recommendations (relevant program and organization strategies, in particular at the institutional-level scope of action) on ways to foster TSM in teacher education can be drawn?

## **1.5 Significance, Contributions and Impact of the Study**

This study aims to contribute to the field of research on internationalization at higher education institutions, and specifically to the field of research on obstacles to student mobility. It represents a field-specific account on internationalization—internationalization in the field of teacher education—that is positioned in relation to current contexts of higher education internationalization. It draws upon previous research on HE internationalization and student mobility employing existing models and concepts to guide investigations. Despite the relevance of such embedded subject-specific perspectives on internationalization that relate to the body of knowledge available in internationalization research, they thus far remain a perspective underrepresented in research on internationalization (e.g., Wit, 2013).

Aiming to provide an embedded subject-specific perspective on internationalization in teacher education, one of the specific affordances in this study is to employ a methodology that enables an encompassing, yet focussed and detailed understanding while being feasible within the scope of a dissertation thesis. A theory-guided multilevel and contextualized comparative approach, employing two investigation strands of different focus, detail, and approach, aims to achieve this. Because of existing differences in the delivery of teacher education degree programs, obtaining highly idiosyncratic results has to be avoided. At the same time, it is not possible to cover all dimensions along which teacher education degree programs vary in a *representative* manner in the study at hand. Therefore, the approach chosen is to obtain a sample of teacher education institutions which can be seen to stand *exemplary* of common models of teacher education in Europe while also representing a certain variety of characteristics. In order to link and interpret results from the different levels, it is furthermore considered important that the data collected stems from the same field. Far-

reaching cooperation with institutions needs to be secured in order to enable the collection of institutional-level and student-level data at the same institutions. At the macrolevel European-level policies and discourses are chosen as data sources since they (as opposed to the discourse in a limited number of countries) can exemplify current trends, discussions, and rationales for reforms in higher education and teacher education. Thus, while this study will not represent each and every teacher education system in Europe, its approach aims to ensure a broad generalizability.

As described above, this study's relevant mobility concept is temporary study-related mobility. Since the study aims to draw conclusions on how to foster student mobility in teacher education degree programs, reflections are shaped towards the area of internationalizing *teaching and learning* (as opposed to a focus on the internationalization of *research*). Through its focus on TSM, the study will not provide for conclusions with respect to (fostering) degree mobility. Degree mobility is an important mobility concept in the European context (see Teichler et al., 2011), but not focused upon in this study. Degree mobility can be seen to represent a concept quite different from TSM in regulated professions due to its implications in terms of later professional mobility (see, e.g., GHK, 2006), in particular when it comes to obstacles to mobility and institutional scope of actions. Furthermore, as also mentioned above, the Europeanization of TE degree programs is not a focus pursued in this thesis. Its differentiation from internationalization (at the level of HEIs) is important for this study, specifically because of the links existing between Europeanization and internationalization in practice. Europeanization is a relevant context to teacher education (in this sense it is of course also regarded in the subsequent literature reviews), framing policies, practices and discourses on internationalization in higher education.

As a multilevel and contextualized investigation, the study aims to provide a methodologically distinct contribution to the field of international and comparative education. A multilevel comparative inquiry into the views, characteristics, needs, and strategies of different constituencies shall allow for a dynamic approach to understanding internationalization in the field of teacher education, and explain its current forms and extent of diffusion. In this sense, the multilevel, contextualized and comparative inquiry shall allow this study to arrive not only at an encompassing understanding of internationalization in teacher education but at what Kelle (2007) has called *verstehende Erklärung* (an *understanding explanation*).

The choice of the methodology is also related to the envisaged practical relevance and potential impact of the thesis, in terms of better enabling different actors (policy, program providers, HEIs, leaders and staff in teacher education) to address a topic of societal and political concern—the education of globally minded, internationally experienced young teachers. The potential impact of the thesis is enhanced through being the first extensive empirical study to focus in detail on the obstacles to TSM as encountered by students in teacher education degree programs. By taking up previously voiced criticism in research on study-related mobility (e.g., Netz, 2013; Souto-Otero et al., 2013), the study aims to provide a piece of research both in line with recent advances, and contributory to methodological and conceptual advances in research on (obstacles to) student mobility. As such, its results are not only expected to be of relevance for fostering TSM in the field of teacher education, but also to make a contribution to understanding and promoting participation in temporary, study-related mobility in higher education in general.

## **1.6 Structure**

The thesis is structured into 6 chapters. In the next chapter (Chapter 2), further relevant research and theory specifically on internationalization (in terms of policies, institutional practices, and managing internationalization), on teacher education and internationalization, and on (obstacles to) student mobility will be reviewed in order to derive in detail the areas of inquiry and assumptions as relevant for Investigation Strand 1 (see Chapter 2.4.6) and Investigation Strand 2 (see Chapter 2.5.5). Chapter 3 presents the methodological approach and all details regarding data and methods used in both investigation strands. The next two chapters present the results of Investigation Strand 1 (Chapter 4) and Investigation Strand 2 (Chapter 5). Both results chapters close with a summary of results for each investigation strand. Chapter 6 then turns to discussing results in light of theory, and to linking and integrating results of the two investigation strands. On this basis, conclusions are drawn, and eventually practical recommendations on ways to foster TSM in teacher education degree programs are derived.



## **2. State of Research and Theory**

In the previous chapter the relevance, aims, purposes and scope of this study have been established. Definitions, conceptual and theoretical tools and approaches, as well as the overall methodology were presented. The following chapter continues to review in detail empirical knowledge and theoretical background in the topical areas, as implied by the research questions and as necessary to perform the research and analysis in the two investigation strands. These are the following domains:

- Organization and management perspective on the diffusion of internationalization and the element of TSM down to the level of teaching and learning in degree programs (Chapter 2.1)
- Internationalization and the role of TSM in higher education today in policies and institutional practices in the European arena (Chapter 2.2 and 2.3)
- Teacher education in Europe and the role of internationalization and TSM, both in policies and practices (Chapter 2.4), including a detailed assessment on the extent of TSM in teacher education degree programs (Chapter 2.5.1)
- Detailed review and critical assessment of empirical research on (obstacles to) as well as theoretical and conceptual perspectives on TSM participation or non-participation (Chapter 2.5)

Theory and the research and literature reviewed are then integrated to derive implications, thematic foci, assumptions and hypotheses of Investigation Strand 1 and 2. These are described in detail in Chapter 2.4.6 (Investigation Strand 1) and Chapter 2.5.5 (Investigation Strand 2).

## **2.1 Organization and Management Perspective on the Diffusion of Internationalization Down to the Level of Teaching and Learning**

This chapter will first provide a short evolutionary overview of internationalization in higher education as we know it today, referring to important qualitative leaps in this evolution (Chapter 2.1.1). It will then (Chapter 2.1.2) link these leaps—and their accomplishment—with important concepts in internationalization, approaches to fostering internationalization, and the diffusion of specific elements of internationalization, such as temporary study-related mobility. Curricular internationalization, comprehensive internationalization, the role of academic staff and the appropriate design of program and organization strategies, as well as the organization of these activities as conceptualized in management models and concepts of internationalization will be introduced. These concepts are reviewed since they provide important pointers to possible limitations to fostering TSM within teacher education degree programs, or, in a broader perspective, to fostering international dimensions in teacher education degree programs. Related observations will be summarized in the final chapter of this section (Chapter 2.1.3)

### **2.1.1 Traces and Phases of Internationalization and Student Mobility in Higher Education**

Internationalization in higher education is nothing new. In fact, internationalization is frequently referred to as something that is innately tied to universities and which has been a characteristic of higher education since centuries (as noted, e.g., in Kerr, 1990; Teichler, 2002b; Wit, 2002): Academic mobility and international knowledge exchange have characterized academia from its beginnings. Academic reputation has traditionally been based in the peer evaluation of an international academic community; also, the universalism of knowledge itself is cited in reference to the traditional internationalism encountered at higher education institutions. This is a valid view which, however, also has to be put into perspective (ibid.): HEIs also stand in a long tradition of being strongly tied to and influenced by the agenda of nation states; only few institutions really look back to a century-long international history, and the extent of internationalization varies considerably among countries, institutions, disciplines, and professions (Wende, 2010).

In a historic perspective, the middle ages and the renaissance period (until the end of the 17th century) are described as a time where mobile students and scholars were able to study throughout Europe in a relatively convergent system. Erasmus of Rotterdam, one of the

most famous wandering scholars of these times, inspired the naming of the European Commission's (EC) best known higher education cooperation program. The period is sometimes presented as the original internationalized state of a European higher education area; this view, however, has also been criticized as romanticized, a myth, and "internationalist rhetoric" (Scott, 1998 and Neave 1997, both cited in Wit, 2002, pp. 4–5).

The period from around 1800 onwards is referred to as a period where HEIs became "nationalized" (Wit, 2002, pp. 3–10); a period in which "education, and higher education, not only came to serve the administrative and economic interests of the nation-state but also became an essential aspect of the development of national identity" (Wit, 2002, p. 4). Kerr (1990) acknowledges that universities are and were "by nature of their commitment to advancing universal knowledge, essentially international institutions" (p. 5), but also notes that (starting with the evolution of the modern nation states) "have been living, increasingly, in a world of nation-states that have designs on them" (p. 5). In relation to internationalization De Wit (2002) describes this time period as having had a narrow focus in which the main international activities were "the individual mobility of a small group of well-to-do and academically qualified students to the top centers of learning in the world, the export of academic systems from the European colonial powers to the rest of the world, and cooperation and exchange in academic research" (p. 9).

From the early 20<sup>th</sup> century onwards, international cooperation and exchange received more and more attention and gained prominence: This can, for example, be seen in the establishment of institutions like the Institute of International Education in the US, the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD) in Germany or the British Council in the UK in the period between the First and the Second World War. With respect to the evolution of internationalization, Tierney (1977) concludes that "educational exchange as we know it is very much a product of the twentieth century" (cited in Wit, 2002, p. 10). In terms of the purposes and foci of internationalization de Wit (2002) notes that international cooperation in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century times was focused more on scholars than on students, and was mainly inspired by political rationales of peace and mutual understanding.

The period after the Second World War is acknowledged as a time that saw increasing international cooperation in education and research (Wende, 2010). It is referred to as a period when the "cosmopolitan-nation-state-university" (Kerr, 1990, p. 8) emerged because "it has generally been to the advantage of nation states to support the expansion of higher learning

and its internationalization within and beyond their border” (Kerr, 1990, p. 14). Teichler (2007) referred to this development as a trend of “re-internationalization” (p. 53) of higher education. Internationalization, as the major phenomenon that it is in higher education today (Altbach et al., 2009; Teichler, 2007; Streitwieser, 2014; Sursock & Smidt, 2010), can be seen as a continuation of this development in an increasingly globalized world. At the same time, HEIs today remain to be described as national institutions, in the sense that governance (policies, regulations, financing) resides at the level of nation states (Teichler, 2007, p. 24).

The expansion of internationalization after the Second World War first and foremost took place in the US, to a lesser extent and later in Europe. Political rationales were important drivers in this era also coined by the Cold War. De Wit (2002) ascertains political reasons that were driving both the US and the Soviet Union’s internationalization endeavors in order “to gain a better understanding of the rest of the world and to maintain and even expand their spheres of influence. Together with diplomacy, development aid and cultural exchange, international exchange and cooperation in higher education became important tools” (p. 11). In this period, programs like Fulbright became established in the US and student mobility became increasingly important, though it remained small-scale (Wit, 2002). De-colonization and cooperation with the “developing world” played an important role in internationalization in the 1960s and 1970s; individual student mobility took place mainly from the South to the North while development and technical assistance projects were carried out by the North in the South (ibid.).

In the decades after the Second World War and up until the 1980s, the internationalization of higher education is described as a mainly state-driven process with limited ownership of higher education institutions (Wit, 2002). Furthermore, the European-level institutions (the European Union and its bodies) became an increasingly important actor in the field: Programs for international cooperation in education, research and development were established (for an overview see European Commission, 2006b; Wit, 2002). After the end of the Cold War, political rationales became less dominant in the era of globalization; an increasing prevalence of economic rationales, such as economic competitiveness or monetary benefits of internationalization, became observable (Wit, 2002). The (current) period is also described as being marked by an increasingly strategic approach to internationalization, a more fully-fledged implementation of internationalization, and as a period where internationalization is driven both from within the HE sector as well as from outside (Teichler, 2007; Wende, 2010; Wit, 2002).

Summarizing the development of internationalization in higher education in Europe, Teichler (2007, article originally published in 2000) has distinguished three *quantum leaps* that refer to qualitative changes in the approaches to and implementation of internationalization in Europe. He describes internationalization at HEIs to have moved:

[1] from a predominantly “vertical” pattern of co-operation and mobility towards the dominance of international cooperation on the same level; [2] from casuistic action towards more and more systematic policies of internationalization; and [3] from a far-reaching disconnection between border-crossing activities on the one hand and international dimensions in the core of higher education activities on the other towards an integrated internationality. (p. 28; author translation)

By the turn of the millennium Teichler saw the third leap as taking place. Writing in 2002, de Wit was however sceptical whether this third leap, which he identified as the most complex one, had already occurred: In his view (Wit, 2002), the vast majority of institutions had not moved beyond the second leap. He characterizes the field in the 21<sup>st</sup> century as still being in a “transition to an integrated internationalization of higher education” (p. 17). He summarizes the following developments with respect to internationalization in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, contrasting it to previous decades: Internationalization in Europe had become more explicit and coordinated in discourses and policies, and more integrated, more pro-actively coordinated and managed at the institutional level. Funding had diversified, Europeanization had increased, academic aspects such as curriculum development, credit transfer and research training had become more important, as had quality-related considerations of internationalization. The exact evaluations on the stage of accomplishment of the third leap might differ, depending on whether discourses, policies or institutional practices are assessed and whether one looks at an average of a whole sector or on the top-tier institutions leading the field with respect to internationalization.

In conclusion, international dimensions in European higher education and research have been evident since the beginnings, but internationalization in higher education, as we know it today, is also different. Internationalization of higher education is an evolving and changing concept. Today it is highly prevalent in the discourses, policies and strategies at the international, national and institutional levels. Staff and student mobility, and international cooperation in both research and education have played an increasingly important role in

Europe since the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, at a small scale in the beginnings and today as a diversified and massified endeavor.

### **2.1.2 Managing the Accomplishment of the Second and Third Leap of Internationalization at Higher Education Institutions**

In his developmental model on internationalization at higher education institutions, Teichler (2007, originally published 2000) identified three qualitative changes occurring at European HEIs. According to Teichler, the *second quantum leap*—institutions increasingly moving from seldom and casuistic action to strategic and systematic actions and policies of internationalization, which he sees as having occurred—was fostered by a simple increase in the number and scope of activities, necessitating efforts to coordinate and manage activities from institutions. As a consequence, the second quantum leap is observable in particular through changes in the institutional organization of internationalization: Internationalization became represented in decision-making bodies, in institutions' infrastructure and support services, and in the various units of institutions (Teichler, 2007). The second leap can thus be described as an institutionalization of the management (rather than administration) of internationalization at HEIs.

The *third quantum leap* (occurring at the turn of the millennium, according to Teichler) refers to a qualitative change in internationalization, one in which international activities are directly linked to the core functions of HEIs—to teaching and learning as well as research—and therefore have impacts upon them as well as being innately shaped by them. In third-leap-accomplishing institutions, student mobility would, for example, not be seen as an additional option to students, next to their regular curriculum, nor as an add-on to the regular curriculum but rather an integrated component of an internationalized curriculum, and as a route to qualify in the area “international experiences and competences” which would be seen as an important learning outcome of HE degree programs. Similarly, staff mobility would probably not be seen as a personal endeavor and interest of singular staff members but as part of the professional development of academic staff at institutions and thus of human resource (HR) policies, be it for purposes of qualifying and enabling staff to be better prepared to teach in English and deal with international students, to increase their teaching skills, or perform the highest-quality research possible for the institution. As Teichler (2007) describes, upon accomplishing the third leap a traditionally observable divide in the international activities of European HEIs is overcome: the divide between relevant and possibly even strategically supported elements of internationalization (such as student and staff mobility) which are often

developed, delivered and administered by specialized offices (often named or referred to as “International Office”<sup>11</sup>), and the day-to-day delivery and development of the core tasks of HEIs—teaching/learning and research. The third leap can thus be described as an institutionalization of internationalization in the core functions of HEIs. Clearly, this requires an institutionalization in the values, culture, and day-to-day practices in education and research.

The concept of curricular internationalization can be seen as an operationalized approach to accomplishing the third leap within HEI’s teaching/learning function. Leask (2009) has conceptualized internationalization in relation to the learning outcomes of education so that an internationalized curriculum (the outcome or “product”) purposefully develops the international and intercultural competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes) among students. She defines internationalization of the curriculum as a process relating to

the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning processes and support services of a program of study. An internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity. It will purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens (Leask, 2009, p. 209).

An internationalized curriculum can entail different elements of internationalization, that is, different program strategies that provide relevant international dimensions to students. It can entail *abroad elements* such as first-hand international experiences of students and *at-home elements* such as an international student body, international content or foreign language learning. The concrete elements that an internationalized curriculum entails will be geared towards providing learning environments that enable students to acquire the international experiences and competences seen as relevant for their future field of work, profession and role in society. The concept of internationalizing curricula thus clearly implies diversity in purposeful internationalization models, according to the global and local context, to the institutional mission as well as to the degree programs delivered by different subject areas and

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<sup>11</sup> The term International Office will be used in the following to refer to such central or decentral organization units which often have primarily administrative and managing tasks (staff in this field is referred to as “international officers”).

disciplines. These aspects are also shown in Figure 2 which displays the conceptual framework for internationalizing curricula according to Leask (2013b).



**Figure 2.** Conceptual framework of internationalization of the curriculum (Leask, 2013b).

Internationalization that goes to the core of HEI's functions of education and research is also evident in the concept of *comprehensive internationalization*. This concept (stemming from the US-American context) extends the curricular scope and conceptualizes internationalization as a comprehensive endeavor across the institution:

Comprehensive internationalization is a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise. It is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility. (Hudzik, 2011, p. 6)

Comprehensive internationalization requires internationalization to be represented at the management level, in the overall policies of institutions, and in the operationalization of goals through relevant organization strategies, in order to diffuse the desired international dimensions (the concrete program strategies, i.e., the elements of internationalization) within the institution. Comprehensive internationalization can be thought of as a concept aiming to link internationalization to the core of HEIs, and to sustainably integrate international dimensions in the core functions of HEIs. As such, comprehensive internationalization both supports and requires the institutional accomplishment of second quantum leap in internationalization. It requires strategic and systematic management as well as the design and implementation of relevant program strategies and supporting organization strategies. The full accomplishment of the second leap supports accomplishing the third leap which, arguably, is a challenging leap to accomplish for an institution since a sustainable integration of international dimensions requires the instigation of permanently changed day-to-day practices in teaching/learning and research. This clearly requires the collaboration and commitment of various institutional constituencies—leadership, academic staff and administration.

The importance of academic staff commitment in fostering internationalization and international dimensions in the curriculum has been repeatedly noticed in research (e.g., Beelen & Jones, 2015; Childress, 2009; Hudzik, 2011; Leask, 2013b; Stohl, 2007). Stohl (2007) has gone as far as to say that “if we want to internationalise the university, we have to internationalise the faculty” (p. 368). Although no research can be found on the exact role and impact of academic staff’s involvement, knowledge and orientation on students’ involvement, knowledge and orientation, it is self-evident that through and by enacting the curriculum and through and by creating the day-to-day study environments in which students are socialized, academic staff members are gatekeepers in terms of the international dimensions and orientations provided to students during their studies. This is the case even if only through their capacity to accredit courses from abroad. In a wider perspective, academic staff engaged in internationalization and internationally experienced themselves can not only provide international perspectives in their teaching, but also act as drivers to students’ interest in gaining international experiences, in building their persuasion on the benefits and relevance of such experiences in their future career.

Scoping leadership action to foster internationalization at an institution, it is not only a necessary task of leaders to ensure the design and implementation of suitable program strategies, such as building students’ foreign language skills and offering study-abroad

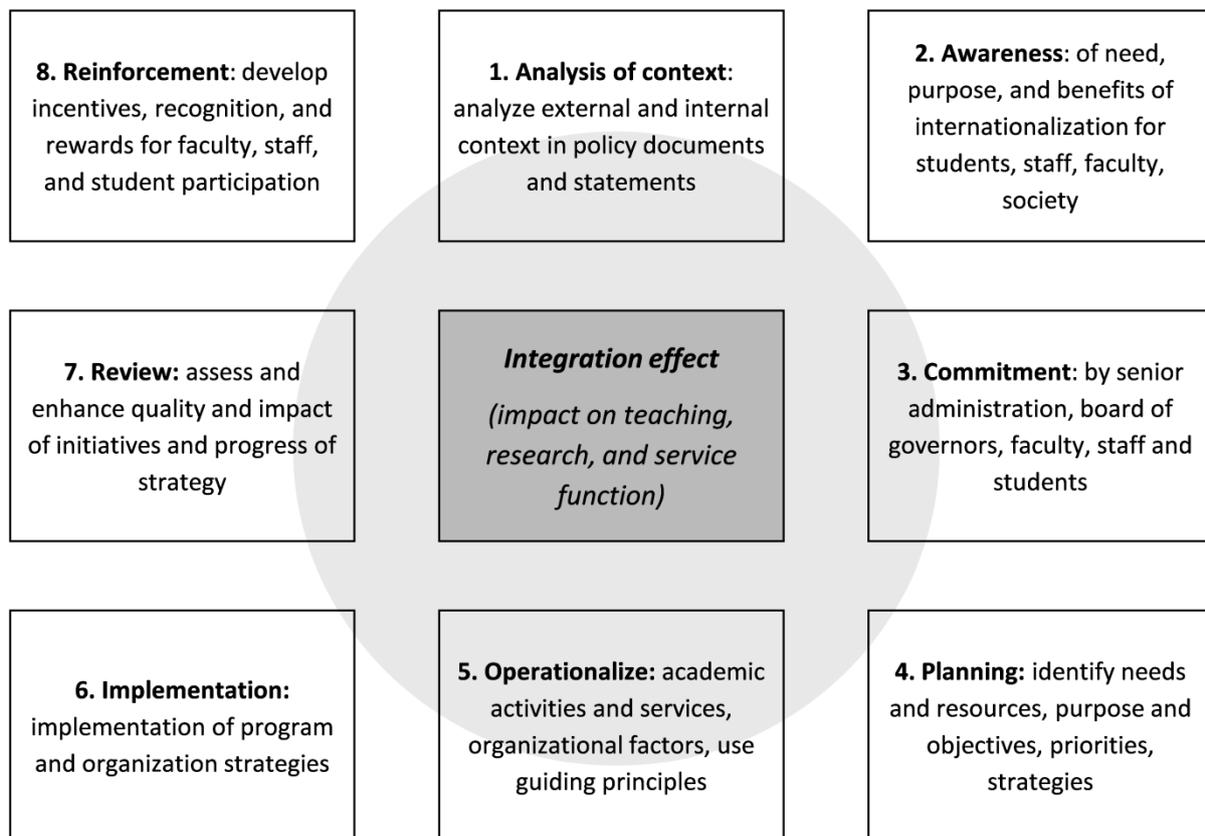
programs. It is an equally important task of leadership to ensure the uptake of such offers through the design and implementation of supportive organization strategies, such as the design and communication of a coherent strategy, the allocation of adequate resources, the review of progress or the design of incentives and rewards for (academic) staff to engage in internationalization and the strategic aims formulated at an institution. As already mentioned, organization strategies to support staff are particularly important to secure their involvement and extensive commitment (e.g., Childress, 2009; Dewey & Duff, 2009; Stohl, 2007). If these are lacking (as is too often the case; *ibid.*), there is evidence that the second leap of strategic and systematic management has not yet been broadly accomplished at an institution; in such cases there will be at least a slower-than-possible progress towards goal achievement. Management models of internationalization can help to conceptualize purposeful steps towards progress and to indicate, in abstract terms, purposeful lines of action.

The *internationalization circle* (Wit, 2002, building on earlier work of Jane Knight and Marijk C. van der Wende<sup>12</sup>; see Figure 3) represents a procedural model allowing for a strategic approach to managing internationalization. The model conceptualizes a process of strategically managing internationalization, designed to lead to a strengthening of internationalization (of the specific international dimensions, activities and elements chosen), and—if internationalization is seen as a key issue in the overall development of an institution and its subject area departments and faculties—to an integration effect within the institution. As such, it can be seen as a procedural management model to support the implementation of concepts and approaches such as comprehensive internationalization, curricular internationalization or simply any aims to purposefully and strategically promote the internationalization of higher education. Building awareness and securing commitment among staff at the institution are inbuilt elements of such a strategic management process and implemented early in the management circle. The program and organization strategies (the concrete elements of internationalization) that an institution aims to foster will differ from institution to institution and are derived from an analysis of the institution's situation, policy and societal context, and the subsequent definition of relevant aims, purposes and expected benefits (cf. *rationales concept*) with respect to internationalization. The model is organized as an iterative management circle, thereby directing attention to a necessary review and possible

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<sup>12</sup> As published by Knight (1994) in the CBIE Research Paper series of the Canadian Bureau for International Education in an article entitled *Internationalization: Elements and Checkpoints*; and by Wende (1996) in her PhD dissertation thesis at Utrecht University entitled *Internationalising the Curriculum in Dutch Higher Education: An International Comparative Perspective*.

corrective action of the suitability of the designed and implemented program and organization strategies.



*Figure 3.* Internationalization circle (adapted from Wit, 2002).

Overall, the model points to both, the important role of academic staff at an institution in fostering internationalization and to the important role of leadership of managing processes of internationalization. The definition of goals, such as more student mobility, will not be sufficient to achieving them. Without academic buy-in and institutional leadership, the institutionalization of international dimensions into higher education degree programs will occur at a slower pace and in a disconnected manner, not utilizing positive effects of integration.

As regards the concrete elements of internationalization relevant to an institution, it is important to note that these will vary depending on the mission and context of an institution as well as according to the subject areas represented. Subject area differences with respect to internationalization have been repeatedly noted in research (Kerr, 1990; Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Teichler, 2007; Wende, 1999; Wit, 2002). De Wit (2002) notes large differences with respect to approaches, rationales and strategies in different subject areas but

also notes that “the issue of differences among the disciplines and academic fields in relation to internationalization is underrepresented in research on internationalization” (p. 137). Filling this gap, at least at the conceptual level, Leask’s model presented above places the different subject areas at the heart of (curricular) internationalization. The model is based on research on engaging staff in different disciplines which confirmed the relevance of the different conditions, societal context and cultures that shape different disciplines and institutions, thus resulting in different viable models of internationalization (Leask, 2013b). She asserts that “some disciplines are less open to recognising the cultural construction of knowledge than others wherever they are located and the international perspectives required of a nurse or a pharmacist are likely to focus more on socio-cultural understanding than those of an engineer (. . .)” (Leask, 2013b, pp. 102–103). She concludes that “some programs will be more influenced by the requirements of national professional associations or local employers than others” (p. 103). These subject areas with a strong local/national embedding and local/national employment markets are sometimes—possibly too quickly—put into the category of subject areas inapt to internationalization, if expressed in somewhat exaggerated terms. Kerr (1990), for example, writes that “the overwhelming force of internationalization of learning has, in some areas, met some barriers difficult to penetrate” (p. 12). He identifies education, domestic law, public administration, and social welfare as fields of intra-national particularity with respect to content and knowledge and sees this intra-national particularity as one of the complicating barriers to internationalizing learning in these fields (Kerr, 1990). Leask opens up a different view on internationalizing learning in different subject areas that bear what could be summarized as a local/national framing when she writes:

Local accreditation requirements for registration in a chosen profession may require a seemingly exclusive focus on local legislation and policy. However, the local context is reciprocally connected to national and global contexts. Developing all students’ understanding of these connections is an important part of the process of developing their ability to be critical and reflexive citizens and professionals able to think and act locally, nationally and globally. (Leask, 2013b, p. 100)

Overall, in light of these considerations, it is important to note that different models of internationalization appear to be relevant to different subject areas. Depending on the profitability and compatibility of the different elements of internationalization (as for example described in the catalogue of program and organization strategies by Knight, 2004; see Table

1 in Chapter 1.3.2), specific elements will be particularly “prone” or “void” to institutionalization and to reaching a diffusion status in a given field.

### **2.1.3 Summary Observations and Reflections on Managing Internationalization**

A brief historical review of internationalization as performed above shows that internationalization is not a static but changing concept, displaying a certain *zeitgeist*. This implies that it is of importance to know and reveal in detail the current, 21<sup>st</sup> century *zeitgeist* in higher education internationalization so as to be able to position internationalization in teacher education within this framing context.

The reviews have also shown that with the increasing relevance and prevalence of the internationalization of teaching/learning and research, questions of organizing and managing internationalization have become more important: Both in practice and in research, where several models and concepts relating to conceptualizing, managing and thereby eventually promoting internationalization at higher education institutions have been developed. An important aspect underlined by the previous review of models and concepts is that the conceptualization of internationalization, ideally, takes into account not only contextual and institutional conditions, but starts with a reflection on the purposes of internationalization, as relevant to the aims in teaching/learning and research in the different departments, institutes, disciplines and subject fields; and derives program and organization strategies of internationalization from these identified purposes and goals. Such a proceeding would maximize not only benefits of internationalization throughout the institution but also the extent of diffusion of international dimensions due to compatibility and profitability of the derived program and organization strategies.

This proceeding can be called a strategic management of internationalization, leading to the accomplishment of the second and third leap in internationalization. Management models of internationalization, such as the internationalization circle, can be identified as purposeful tools of reflection in practice but also as guidance to conceptualizing research (e.g., to identify where diffusion barriers reside “along” the internationalization circle). The review of management models and concepts of internationalization underlines the importance of leadership. In promoting (purposeful) elements of internationalization, leadership has a vital role to play through and by creating the organizational structures, policies, and program and organization strategies to support the diffusion of internationalization at the institution and in degree programs. It is a leadership task to ensure that internationalization (if defined

as a relevant aspect at an institution) is managed in a systematic and strategic manner so that it best contributes to the goals of an institution in teaching/learning and research. This entails the operationalization of systematic and strategic management—it is therefore also a leadership task to ensure that appropriate organization strategies (which are as broad as the instigation of committees or working groups to foster discourse and progress, resource devotion, HR policies, evaluation of progress, etc.) are designed and implemented to effectively support the diffusion of defined program strategies (e.g., promoting TSM, international research projects).

In the design and implementation of organization strategies, a core institutional constituency is key to regard: Academic staff, whose commitment, involvement, and satisfaction needs to be ensured if research and teaching/learning processes are to deeply incorporate international dimensions. In their capacity of enacting internationalization through enacting the curriculum, academic staff has a key role to play in the internationalization of higher education degree programs. Academic staff shapes the day-to-day study and learning environments of students, thus fostering students' international interest, orientations, knowledge and competences to a different extent. For a research project aiming to identify the drivers and difficulties of a broader diffusion of internationalization (in teacher education degree programs), it therefore seems important to incorporate aspects such as the views, commitment and involvement of academic staff when it comes to internationalization and TSM.

## **2.2 Internationalization in Higher Education and the Role of Temporary Study-Related Mobility in the European Arena**

This chapter reviews internationalization in higher education, with a focus on the policy and program support level and particularly looks to the role of the element of temporary study-related mobility as one element of internationalization in the broader array of measures.

Internationalization is one of the major trends in higher education and this chapter aims to provide a research-based account of what, more precisely, the manifestations and dimensions of this trend are. A precise account of this is relevant for two reasons: (1) As a major trend in recent decades, internationalization is both a framing and demand for higher education institutions, and framed itself within the demands of European societies at the turn of the millennium. Internationalization at the turn of the millennium thus comes in a specific form and within a specific context. Being aware of this specific form and context is important when performing research in the field of higher education internationalization. In view of the research questions, a look to the role of (temporary student) mobility as one element in the array of measures of internationalization is particularly implied. (2) A precise account of the manifestations and dimensions of the internationalization trend in HE is also key to understanding and situating developments, manifestations and dimensions of internationalization in the TE sector. Internationalization and mobility in teacher education is not only shaped by the history, cultures, structures, and policies within the teacher education sphere, but also by its broader context of internationalization in higher education at large. An analysis of internationalization and the role of mobility in teacher education therefore needs to be able to relate to internationalization and the role of mobility in higher education in general. The latter will be the focus of this chapter.

Chapter 2.2.1 presents in detail the instigation, evolution, focus (elements and strategies of internationalization supported) of major European programs supporting internationalization and mobility in recent decades since these programs have been highly influential in fostering internationalization as well as Europeanization trends across Europe. Subsequently, Chapter 2.2.2 takes a global perspective on internationalization and mobility in order to then situate a European response (the Bologna process) within this context. Recent developments in important European-level policies promoting internationalization and

mobility in higher education are then reviewed in terms of their role, scope and focus in Chapter 2.2.3. Chapter 2.2.4 finally summarizes major observations and conclusions.

Together, these chapters provide relevant *background* to analyzing and understanding internationalization and TSM as it occurs in the TE sector—which forms part of the larger higher education sector. The chapters also serve to establish relevant bases for understanding and interpreting the results of a document analysis (to be conducted in Investigation Strand 1) in which 21<sup>st</sup> century internationalization models will be revealed systematically.

## **2.2.1 The Rise of Internationalization and TSM in the European Arena: Programs Supporting International Cooperation and Student Mobility in Higher Education**

Until the EU set up its programs in the mid-70s, international cooperation in education was mainly based on bilateral agreements maintained by European countries (see Wit, 2002). Since then, European-level programs have substantially contributed to internationalization, with student mobility having become the highly visible activity at HEIs it is today. In the following an overview of this development, focusing on EU programs and major elements of internationalization fostered through them, will be provided.

### **2.2.1.1 European Programs Supporting Cooperation in Europe and the Role of Temporary Study-Related Mobility**

Until the early 1970s the Council of Europe (an intergovernmental forum separate from EU institutions) was the main European forum for cooperation in the area of education. In the 1970s the instigation of a slowly evolving process of Europeanization in education can be observed. The year 1974 can be seen as the beginning of European cooperation in education (for detailed overviews on these developments see European Commission, 2006b; Teichler, 2007, pp. 105–114; Wende & Huisman, 2004; Wit, 2002, pp. 41–62). Education ministers agreed on certain cooperation activities in education (among them fostering international cooperation in higher education), while explicitly ruling out any harmonization intended in the field of education. In 1976 a first action program in education was launched by the Council of the EU.

The 1976 action program (see European Commission, 2006b) covered cooperation and short-term mobility in higher education, comprising the three measures Joint Study Programmes, Short Study Visits and Educational Administrators Programme. Joint Study Programmes had to be implemented by a minimum of two HEIs and were intended to enable

students to study at the partner institutions as part of the degree program at home through interinstitutional planning, curricular integration and the facilitation of organization and recognition of learning outcomes upon return. After 10 years of implementation, positive evaluations of the actions led to the adoption of more (extensive) programs (Teichler, 2007; Wende & Huisman, 2004): Erasmus was established in 1987, alongside other programs (e.g., Commet, Lingua); programs like Jean Monet (focusing on education and research on European integration) and Tempus (focusing on HE cooperation with the Central, Eastern and Southeastern European region) followed in 1990. Erasmus included the exchange of students and staff, the establishment of university networks and measures to promote and support recognition of study abroad periods. It quickly developed into the EU's flagship program and the student mobility component into its strongest and most visible facet (Teichler, 2007, p. 109): Approximately 3,000 persons participated in the program's first operational years. This number had risen to around 90,000 only ten years later.

Despite the fact that the early intra-European programs are assessed to have had limited direct impact on national HE systems and institutions (due to their limited extent and scope), it is commonly acknowledged that these programs filled gaps in countries that lacked national schemes, contributed to the development of national policies and programs, and were drivers in the institutional-level regard for internationalization (see Teichler, 2007; Wende & Huisman, 2004; Wit, 2002). The increase of international activities and the needs to organize increasing student and staff mobility also led to the establishment of the profession of *international educators* and *international officers* in Europe and to the formation of the professional organization EAIE which was established in 1989 (Wit, 2002).

At the beginning of the 1990s—in the climate of the completion of the single market, European integration and the instigation of the Maastricht treaty—European-level activity to strengthen (policy) cooperation to further develop European education systems and practices accelerated (in more detail see European Commission, 2006b; Wende & Huisman, 2004; Wit, 2002). The role of higher education institutions within broader economic and social policies and European integration became emphasized (e.g., in a first memorandum on higher education published in 1991 by the European Commission), and a need for European higher education cooperation to go beyond mobility projects and include the European dimension in a more encompassing way was recognized (including by Conclusions of the EU; Wende & Huisman, 2004; Wit, 2002). In 1993, following the 1992 adoption of education as an area of Community action in the Maastricht Treaty (while previously actions in education had to

be argued within the dimension of economic cooperation and explicitly included only vocational education), the European Commission published a *Green Paper on the European Dimension of Education* (European Commission, 1993). The term *European Dimension* as used in this context comprises until today notions of more structural measures (e.g., facilitation of accreditation of diplomas, exchange of information on education systems) as well as softer aspects which can probably be best summarized under the header *European citizenship* in order to promote social and economic European integration, comprising diverse aspects (on aspects of the European dimension see also Brouwer (1996) as cited in Wit, 2002, p. 55). They include learning European foreign languages, knowledge of the historical, cultural, political, or economic aspects of European integration and of other (European) countries, the appreciation of European civilization and its values such as democracy through to the acquisition of a European identity.

While the Maastricht Treaty emphasized the complementary and subsidiary role of Community actions to support quality in education and the full respect of the “responsibility of the Member States for the content of education, the organization of education systems and cultural and linguistic diversity” (European Commission, 2006b, p. 27), and furthermore explicitly ruled out harmonization of systems (European Commission, 2006b), it is nevertheless seen as a milestone in European cooperation in education and training (Wende & Huisman, 2004). The areas of Community action laid out in Article 126 of the Maastricht Treaty were

[(1)] developing the European dimension in education, particularly through the teaching and dissemination of the languages of the Member States; [(2)] encouraging mobility of students and teachers, inter alia by encouraging the academic recognition of diplomas and periods of study; [(3)] promoting cooperation between educational establishments; [(4)] developing exchanges of information and experiences on issues common to the education systems of the Member States; [(5)] encouraging the development of youth exchanges and of exchanges of socio-educational instructors; [and (6)] encouraging the development of distance education. (European Commission, 1993, p. 4)

By the 1990s, European cooperation in education at the policy level had thus been strengthened. Programs to promote (primarily intra-European) cooperation had been installed and student mobility had taken its place as one of the major elements of internationalization in

higher education. At the same time, higher education in Europe was increasingly faced with global competition, with increasing degree mobility worldwide and with the fact that Europe had lost its position as the leading destination for degree-mobile students to the US, while no coordinated European “response” to the changed external, global environment was underway (Wende & Huisman, 2004). It was in this context of an appreciative and dynamic but also somewhat disorderly and disintegrated state of European higher education with respect to internationalization in the mid-1990s that the new generation of EU programs was launched (European Commission, 2006b): The Socrates program integrated most of the previously existing programs and consisted of the major subprograms Erasmus (higher education), Comenius (primary and secondary education) and Leonardo da Vinci (vocational education and training).

The general objective of the Socrates program was “to contribute to the development of quality education and training and the creation of an open European area for cooperation in education” (European Commission, 2006b, p. 170). Specific objectives related to fostering the mobility in higher education, the promotion of academic recognition of temporary study periods abroad, the promotion of language learning, and generally intensified cooperation between higher education institutions. Elements of internationalization supported in the program to reach such goals were transnational projects, student and staff mobility, and the formation of international (thematic) networks. The Erasmus program saw two major innovations (Teichler, 2007; Wende & Huisman, 2004): Next to the abroad-element mobility, the curricular dimension was now also sought to be strengthened, through a focus on the development of internationalized curricula in terms of content, structure and delivery. It was intended that all students—not only those endeavoring on study-abroad periods themselves—should be able to profit from an internationalized study environment (European Commission, 2006b). The second innovation was a change in management: Organizational responsibility was shifted from the departmental to the institutional level. HEIs would hold three-year institutional contracts “with” Erasmus, comprising all transnational activities of an institution within the program. This department-institution shift was intended to lead to increases in efficiency through central management, to an integration (and thereby a reinforcement of positive effects) of the growing prevalence of international activities at institutions, and to a more strategic management of internationalization at HEIs to which compulsory, so-called European Policy Statements, in which institutions had to outline their

goals and strategy with regard to the participation in Erasmus, were designed to contribute to (European Commission, 2006b; Wit, 2002).

In its second period (2000-2006) the Socrates program basically continued without major changes, although with a 30% increase in its total budget and now 31 European countries eligible in the scheme. In addition, the program was increasingly and explicitly linked to political priorities at the European level (European Commission, 2006b) such as the first European-level joint strategic framework for education and training (see in more detail Chapter 2.2.3.2), Education and Training 2010 (ET 2010). The successor of the Socrates program, the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP; as established by European Parliament & Council of the EU, 2006) continued this development of operationally supporting European-level policy priorities such as ET 2010 (see European Commission, 2006b). It ran from 2007 to 2013 with an extended budget of 7 billion Euros and comprised the subprograms Comenius, Erasmus, Leonardo da Vinci as well as Grundtvig (adult education), Jean Monet (European integration) and further horizontal measures such as language learning (for details of the program see European Commission/DG EAC, 2010). By the time of the instigation of the LLP program, Erasmus had clearly developed into *the* flagship program of the EU (as noted, e.g., by Teichler, 2007). Around 50% of the LLP funds went into Erasmus activities funding student and staff mobility, intensive programs (short-term academic programs organized by consortia), intensive language courses, multilateral projects (e.g., on curricular innovation) and multilateral thematic networks. The short-term mobility of students was (is) clearly the most dominant and visible element of all Erasmus measures: Parallel to the Erasmus budget and European cooperation in education, student mobility numbers had grown steadily over the decades; from about 90,000 at the end of the 1990s to approximately 200,000 Erasmus-mobile students around 10 years later (see European Commission/DG EAC, 2010). An important mobility-related innovation in the Erasmus program was that from 2007 onwards the program not only supported short-term academic study abroad of a period between 3 and 12 months but study-related work placements abroad as well (see European Commission/DG EAC, 2010).

The success of the Erasmus program and of the mobility measures is mirrored in the choice of the name of the latest program generation: In 2014 the new umbrella program, Erasmus+ (2014-2020; described in detail in the program guide: European Commission/DG EAC, 2014b), was launched. It bears a fundamentally increased budget amounting to EUR 14.7 billion, has three action lines, covers 33 program countries, and more

broadly than earlier program generations allows collaboration with further partner countries and on a global scale. It incorporates the support of aims pursued in the intergovernmental Bologna process (described in detail in Chapter 2.2.2.2) yet more clearly than previous programs, is fully aligned with the priorities pursued under the Education and Training 2020 (ET 2020) strategic framework (as established by Council of the EU, 2009a), and its role in making a contribution to the “Europe 2020 [the overall European strategy] objectives of competitiveness, employment and growth” (European Commission/DG EAC, 2014b, p. 11) is explicitly noted. The first Erasmus+ action line supports the learning mobility of individuals, the second—through international projects and partnerships—shall foster cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices, and the third action line supports coordinated policy reform. Erasmus+ integrates a vast majority of previously existing EU programs in the fields of education, training, youth and sports. It now supports not only short-term mobility but also degree mobility through including and extending measures under the earlier Erasmus Mundus program (described further below), allowing for the development and delivery of joint curricula of global attractiveness (usually referred to as *joint degree programs* or *double degree programs*<sup>13</sup>). An innovation is the lowering of the minimum duration of stays abroad to two months.

#### 2.2.1.2 European Programs Supporting Cooperation Beyond Europe and International Cooperation in Research

Although in the most recent program generation, Erasmus+, a shift towards enabling cooperation on a global scale can be observed, program support for global cooperation has a shorter tradition and is of more limited scope than for intra-European cooperation (for an overview see European Commission, 2006b). Within this scope, two different strands can be made out: One strand is related to foreign policy, development cooperation and European integration into which cooperation in higher education and research was embedded. Besides smaller programs such as Alfa, the Tempus program introduced in 1990 was probably the most important European-level program supporting the cooperation of HEIs beyond Europe under foreign policy and development cooperation rationales. Tempus supported modernization and innovation measures (e.g., curriculum development projects, student and staff mobility) in higher education, initially in the Central and Eastern European region and later including further regions of strategic interest such as the Western Balkans, Central Asia

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<sup>13</sup> In the first case two or more HEIs award a joint degree, in the latter students are awarded degrees of two institutions cooperating in the delivery of highly similar degree programs.

or the Arab-Mediterranean Area). It was managed under the supervision of the Europe Aid Development and Cooperation Office until its activities were integrated into the Erasmus+ program in 2014.

The second—more recent—policy strand is more directly based on concerns to further develop the HE sector in Europe so that the HE sector remains competitive in a globalized higher education sphere. Within this second policy strand supporting global cooperation in higher education, Erasmus Mundus (see European Commission/DG EAC, 2013b) was the first major program launched in 2004. Erasmus Mundus provided funding for joint curricula at the postgraduate level, inter-institutional partnerships and cooperation programs, and mobility with the aim to enhance the attractiveness, profile, visibility and image of European higher education worldwide. By contrast to the Erasmus program (as operational until 2013), Erasmus Mundus focused on *degree* mobility and the *postgraduate* level only (Master's or PhD level as well as researchers). Having this focus Erasmus Mundus represents European higher education increasingly looking beyond Europe in the 21<sup>st</sup> century under a paradigm involving cooperation *and* competition (further programs started under this paradigm were bilateral schemes with industrialized countries such as the US and Canada; see Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2014a). In 2014 the activities supported under Erasmus as well as the Bilateral Cooperation Programs were integrated into the Erasmus+ program.

International cooperation in research, for its benefits to the generation of knowledge and the advancement of science and practices, can be seen as a deeply-engrained characteristic in academic research and European higher education institutions (for historic developments see Wit, 2002; for detailed more recent developments in Europe see Wende and Huisman, 2004). Although European-level policies and support programs in research have a longer tradition than in education, the early programs operational between the 1960s and the 1980s were marginal; as in the education dimension European-level policy cooperation and support made available for international research accelerated in the 1980s. Around the beginning of the 1980s, several competitive research funding programs were launched and most of them were soon after coordinated within the Framework Programme for Research and Innovation, which has since 2014 been branded as Horizon 2020 (2014-2020). From the year 2000 onwards, the European Research Area (ERA)<sup>14</sup> was launched, aiming to create a more

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<sup>14</sup> By contrast to the Bologna process aiming to establish the European Higher Education Area as an inter-governmental process, the European Research area is an initiative coordinated by the European Commission.

integrated and competitive European research and innovation landscape, characterized by frequent and encompassing (intra-European and global) cooperation at the policy, institutional and individual level and characterized as well by researcher mobility within, from and to the ERA. Activities to establish and strengthen the ERA were from the beginning closely aligned to (or derived from) the general European strategies (earlier the Lisbon strategy, currently the Europe 2020 strategy) in which HEIs, in particular research-intensive institutions, are given a fundamental role as contributors to the general advancement of European society and its technological and economic development. With a current Horizon 2020 budget of EUR 80 billion (Euratom funds excluded), European-level funds supporting international cooperation in research are substantial (and substantially higher than the budgets devoted to international cooperation in education). Today, universities across Europe do not only see the internationalization of education and research as one of the major trends in their sector, but they also identify the dependency on competitive international research funds as one of the major changes occurring in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (see Sursock & Smidt, 2010).

### **2.2.2 Global Context and European Responses**

To understand internationalization in the 21st century it is necessary to know the global context into which European responses are placed. Both global context and European responses will therefore briefly be characterized in the following. By the turn of the millennium processes of internationalization, Europeanization and globalization as well as competition and global higher education markets firmly framed the reality of higher education in Europe. As a consequence, to the intra-European cooperation and exchange paradigm a perspective towards constructing a competitive and coherent European higher education space in the global setting had been added (see also Huisman & Wende, 2004; Teichler, 2007).

### 2.2.2.1 The Global Context of Internationalization and Mobility in Higher Education

The turn of the millennium can be seen as time marker when internationalization entered a new phase. Two major global trends have been identified:

One is the growing imperative of higher education institutions to internationalize (. . .) in order to enhance the relevance of their contribution to societies and their academic excellence. The second trend is the growth of market-driven activities, fuelled by increased demand for higher education worldwide, the diversification of higher education providers, and new methods of delivery. (International Association of Universities, 2004, p. 2)

A 2009 UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) report (Altbach et al., 2009), published on the occasion of a world conference on higher education, identified internationalization as one of *the* major trends in higher education and referred to five developments: (1) The burgeoning mobility of individuals as well as of programs and providers themselves; (2) research being carried out more and more in international constellations; (3) a shift in teaching and learning aiming to educate, as summarized in the report “skilled communicators, effective critical thinkers, dynamic problem solvers, [and] productive team members in diverse (increasingly international and intercultural) environments” (p. 26); (4) a heightened awareness of the global interconnectedness of higher education and increased supranational perceptions and assessment (such as in international rankings) and (5) the internationalization of higher education having become, finally, a pervasive phenomenon at all levels of higher education (institutional, national, supranational).

Two particularly pronounced trends identified (Altbach et al., 2009) are increasing international student recruitments and the cross-border provision of higher education through program and provider mobility (see also Knight, 2010). The World Trade Organizations’ (WTO) General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) which since 1994 covers (higher) education facilitates the proliferation of these activities since it liberalizes trade in (higher) education (see Hahn, 2004; UNESCO, 2004). International student recruitments have quickly expanded over the past two decades and continued growth is expected: Forecasts on the demand predict an increase from 1.8 million internationally mobile degree-seeking students in 2000 to 7.2 million students in 2025 (Knight, 2010; for European developments see Teichler et al., 2011). International student recruitments are not only purposeful to HEIs in terms of

generating revenue through fee-paying students but as well in terms of prestige (the prestige factor of an international student body is, for example, evidenced by related indicators in rankings and league tables), as well as in terms of attracting high-potential human resources in order to sustain the highest quality of education and research at an institution or in a region such as Europe. As for cross-border education, like in international student recruitments, activities are spurred by an increased global demand for higher education, financial benefits, and prestige-related considerations. Knight (2010) describes the 21<sup>st</sup> millennium as “a hotbed of innovation and new developments” (p. 507) in internationalization. Many of these innovations relate to cross-border education provision where not only individuals but also programs and providers are crossing borders to deliver programs to students in their home countries. Arrangements include franchising, twinning or joint degrees as well as fully-fledged (branch) campuses abroad (ibid.). Increasing international student recruitments and cross-border delivery in higher education are discussed controversially, in particular with respect to the challenges and risks involved such as the operation outside government supervision, the lack of quality assurance, a partial lack of provider rationales to also build local capacity, and in terms of their role in fostering “brain drain” in already challenged regions (see, e.g., UNESCO, 2004; Altbach et al., 2009; Knight, 2010).

At the macrolevel two major trends—globalization and the knowledge society—have been identified as both challenges and contexts to HE internationalization in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. It can be noted (see also Wit, 2002, p. 146) that in reference to the context of the knowledge society and its implications for (the internationalization) of higher education, the research function of HEIs is centrally addressed (and to a greater extent than the education function): Through their research function HEIs are conceptualized to contribute to the advancement of knowledge-led and therefore competitive economies. In this manner of thinking, policy has, as Sursock and Smidt (2010) have put it, placed higher education institutions as “economic engines” (p. 14) at the center of national competitiveness agendas; international collaboration then becomes a necessary condition for the maximized generation, dissemination, transfer and exploitation of (geographically, socially and disciplinary scattered) knowledge. Globalization is not only affecting higher education in the sense that “globalisation increases the demand for international competences of graduates” (Wende, 2001, p. 433) but also in the sense that higher education (and research) supply and demand are increasingly organized on a global scale (as described in more detail below). Overall, higher education internationalization in the 21<sup>st</sup> century can thus be characterized by the increasing prevalence of economic rationales

both at the institutional and the policy level. To counter a possible negative connotation of economic rationales making some further distinctions is helpful: In a climate of decreasing public funding of higher education, increasing global demand for higher education and increasing global degree mobility, a direct financial motive to generate revenue through recruiting fee-paying international students can be a driver for internationalization. Van der Wende (Wende, 2001) refers to this motive as a short-term economic rationale. In this case the paradigm for internationalization is market-driven, and institutions (as well as countries and regions) compete for fee-paying students on a global scale. From this direct economic (financial) motive we can distinguish an indirect economic rationale that aims to increase the quality and competitiveness of the HE sector at large—through increased international activities and collaboration in education and research which is deemed a necessary systemic adaptation to an increasingly globalized environment. Yet slightly different, and somewhat narrower than such a systemic adaptation towards changed global contexts, is an indirect economic rationale for the internationalization of higher education, and in particular of research, under which internationalized research (and education) and international collaboration in the generation, transfer and exploitation of knowledge are seen as a relatively straightforward path to maximizing competitiveness in knowledge-led economies and societies.

While it is certainly true to say that economic rationales for the internationalization of higher education have been on the rise in previous decades, direct financial motives are of substantial importance only in a limited number of countries, in Europe first and foremost in the UK (Altbach et al., 2009; Wit, 2002). Economic rationales have not replaced other drivers. As van der Wende noted in 2001 (Wende, 2001), cooperation, and academic and social rationales continue to frame internationalization in Europe. A study on institutional responses to internationalization, Europeanization and globalization found that coexistence and codependence of cooperation *and* competition are the dominant pattern in Europe (Wende et al., 2005). The results of a survey (Surssock & Smidt, 2010) among universities across Europe also indicate such a coexistence: Universities identify "enhanced cooperation with other HEIs" as the second most important change at their institutions while they also acknowledge "more competition with other HEIs" as a relevant change.

Finally, it is worth noting that developments over the past decades have resulted in the Europeanization and supra-nationalization of (higher) education development: "a new class of deterritorialized transnational policy actors" (Rinne, 2008, p. 675, as cited in Altbach et al.,

2009) has emerged in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Supranational actors (such as the EU, or the OECD, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) gained increasing influence in higher education policy formulation, coordination and sectoral developments. The influence of deterritorialized actors extends to non-political actors who increasingly exert powerful influence on the field (as noted, e.g., in Altbach et al., 2009), most prominently probably international quality seals, rankings and league tables and the actors issuing these.

#### 2.2.2.2 European Responses: The Bologna Process, its Elements of Internationalization and the Role of Temporary Study-Related Mobility

In 1999, 29 European states signed the Bologna declaration (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 1999), which started the intergovernmental Bologna process with the aim to create a European Area of Higher Education by 2010. Three reasons can be identified for the timeliness of the declaration. First, it took up a trend that was already underway in several European countries that experimented with a Bachelor-Master structure (Wit, 2002, pp. 64–65). Second, the declaration outlined a response to a European problem: Intra-European diversity and incompatibility of systems, structures and degree programs was perceived as a barrier to the development of the whole continent; this was a problem for which actors had been sensitized after two decades of networking in the European cooperation and mobility schemes (Wende & Huisman, 2004). Third, the declaration outlined a response to an increasingly competitive and globalized higher education environment in which Europe had lost ground by the mid-1990s, leaving the US the most favored destination for students and scholars alike (Wende & Huisman, 2004). This is seen to have caused a shift in attention towards establishing more coherence or compatibility between the many different European HE systems; and to have caused the emergence of the issue of “harmonization” from a long-since-virulent to a dominant concern and eventually to the initiation of the Bologna process (Teichler, 2007; Wende & Huisman, 2004). The Bologna declaration introduced a new era in European-level cooperation in higher education policies and led to major reforms across the continent. Today (as in 2016), 50 countries participate in the process.

In the Bologna declaration (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 1999), aiming for greater compatibility and comparability of European HE systems in order to increase its international competitiveness, and for the global promotion of European higher education, six action lines were established:

- 1) The “adoption of a system of easily readable and comparable degrees (. . .) in order to promote European citizens’ employability and the international competitiveness of the European higher education system” (p. 3);
- 2) the “adoption of a system essentially based on two main cycles, undergraduate and graduate” (p. 3), with the first degree lasting a minimum of 3 years and being relevant to the labour market;
- 3) the “establishment of a system of credits—such as in the ECTS system—as a proper means of promoting the most widespread student mobility” (p. 3);
- 4) the “promotion of mobility by overcoming obstacles to the effective exercise of free movement” (p. 3), with particular attention for student access to study and training opportunities and supporting services, and for teacher, researcher and administrative staff mobility and the recognition and valorization of periods spent abroad;
- 5) the “promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance with a view to develop comparable criteria and methodologies” (p. 4); and
- 6) the “promotion of the necessary European dimension in higher education, particularly with regards to curricular development, inter-institutional co-operation, mobility schemes and integrated programmes of study, training and research” (p. 4).

In later years further action lines and foci were added (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2001, 2003): the lifelong learning aspect was emphasized, as was the need for stakeholder involvement (HEIs and students); the quality of Europe’s higher education as the determinant of its attractiveness in the world was acknowledged; increased collaboration concerning the implications and perspectives of transnational education was called upon; the doctoral cycle was explicitly included (thus leading to the adoption of a three-cycle system across Europe); and EHEA and ERA, thus education and research, were increasingly linked and conceptualized as two pillars of a competitive higher education system.

Assessment studies (e.g., see Eurydice, 2010; Westerheijden et al., 2008) relating to the Bologna process generally drew a positive picture, notwithstanding also voicing criticism as regards the concrete implementation in specific country contexts such as a lack of coordinated mobility policies or a lack of deep-level curricular reforms instead of merely

structural reforms. Statistics showed (e.g., Teichler & Ferencz, 2011) that in the first Bologna decade degree mobility into the EHEA had increased faster than the worldwide growth of degree mobility (although direct attributions to the Bologna process reforms are not possible); within the EHEA the number of degree-seeking students studying in another European country increased as well, causing more and more degree-seeking mobility flows to be added as a second layer to the short-term mobility flows within Europe. The priority on increasing within-EHEA mobility (temporary as well as degree seeking) became further pronounced in 2009 when mobility was established as a hallmark of the Bologna process and when the goal was set up that by 2020, 20% of higher education graduates in the EHEA should have had a study or training period abroad (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009). Underlining the importance of mobility, a mobility strategy was adopted in 2012 (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2012b). The goal to globally promote European higher education resulted in the adoption of a strategy entitled *The European Higher Education Area in a Global Setting* (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2007a) which embraces both international cooperation and competition higher education. In 2009, ten priorities were outlined for the Bologna process decade until 2020 (see European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009) and summarized under the headers: international openness, social dimension, equitable access and completion; lifelong learning; employability; student-centered learning and the teaching mission of higher education; education, research and innovation; international openness; mobility; data collection; multidimensional transparency tools; funding. These priorities indicate the breadth of the reform agenda for higher education that the Bologna process has gained.

As it can already be derived from the above, in the Bologna process, itself a process of Europeanization, internationalization in higher education is definitional to the action lines. The action lines refer to a range of concrete elements of internationalization at the level of higher education institutions which are—most prominently mobility—explicitly stated as pan-European objectives: Objectives to which not only national policy makers committed, but to which also higher education *institutions* are supposed to respond and contribute. The most important program and organization strategies (elements of internationalization at the level of HEIs) referred to in the Bologna documents (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007a, 2007b, 2009, 2012a, 2012b) are:

First, the most dominant institutional-level element of internationalization is fostering mobility, that is, temporary study-related mobility but also degree mobility within and into the

EHEA and (more implicitly) professional mobility. Appropriate arrangements in curricula (e.g., including mobility windows for short-term mobility, integrated study-abroad programs or joint/double degree programs with inbuilt periods abroad) as well as extensive international cooperation between European institutions to provide such opportunities to students are called upon or implied as institutional strategies.

A second quite dominant aspect are brain gain strategies introduced under the theme of raising the attractiveness and competitiveness of European higher education, and which at the institutional level become visible as the international recruitment of students and scholars. Operating internationally oriented degree programs that allow for the inclusion of international students are a core strategy implied at the institutional level (which is also relevant to the first aspect of increased study-related mobility in general), most importantly through the provision of English-language and high-quality joint/double degree programs that attract international students. In order to attract high-potential international students, engaging in international marketing to make European programs known around the world are strategies implied at both the country and the institutional level. In terms of the attraction of high-potential academics to secure the highest quality of European teaching and research, it is implied for institutions to regard aspects of international recruitment in their HR policies and practices. Under the aspect of promoting European higher education in the world, the goals and action lines of the Bologna process also imply that institutions engage in strategies of transnational and cross-border provision of education of the highest quality. As a matter of course, existing global relations of HEIs are a prerequisite to implement such strategies.

Finally, elements of internationalization at the level of HEIs are introduced under the themes of strengthening the European dimension and international openness (the first term being used in earlier documents, the latter in the later documents). Under these headers a range of facets is addressed: They range from fostering mobility and international orientation of degree programs (as described above) to a broad curricular internationalization in structural terms, that is, the use and implementation of European reference frameworks such as ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) as a transfer and accumulation tool, the recognition of study and training periods or diplomas from abroad, the implementation of the diploma supplement, or the three-cycle structure in general throughout all subject areas and the development of curricula in reference to the national and European qualifications frameworks. Furthermore, a facet relates to the development of curricula that do not only represent European/international dimensions and openness in structural terms but in terms of their

general focus and learning objectives, contents, and learning cultures. This softer notion of curricular internationalization, however, is the weakest and least explicit facet of the European/international dimension in the Bologna-related documents.

Summarizing, internationalization in higher education (both at the policy and institutional level) is core to the Bologna process. The most important elements at the institutional level (in particular as relevant to the internationalization of degree programs) are the promotion of TSM, the international recruitment of students, the provision of genuinely internationally oriented programs, in particular English-language and/or joint/double degree programs. The Bologna process has contributed to a climate in European higher education where mobility and the international orientation of degree programs (structures and content, although the first aspect is more concrete) have become important aspects in higher education governance<sup>15</sup> and are placed upon institutions and all subject areas as a demand. In this sense the Bologna process is not only to be seen as a driver for internationalization and mobility in national policies (on this aspect see also Ferencz & Wächter, 2012) but also at the institutional level.

### **2.2.3 European Policies Relating to the Internationalization of Higher Education and the Role of TSM**

As described above, in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century European-level cooperation in education gradually emerged as a field of action. Next to the intergovernmental Bologna process, joint European (European Union) policies can be seen as the major second response in Europe to a changed global (higher education) environment. Although the responsibility for education remains to fully reside within the competence of the EU Member States, the Europeanization of higher education (e.g., the Bologna process or the so-called Open Method of Coordination of the EU) has resulted in the existence of common European-level strategic frameworks on (higher) education and internationalization. In the following, the most important policy strands will be identified and outlined briefly as regards their setting and how they frame and relate to internationalization (including the role of the element of TSM). Together with the previous chapters, the following chapters serve as the background to understanding internationalization in HE in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. They provide the contextual

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<sup>15</sup> The term governance is here used to refer to the diverse modes and means of steering and regulating a system—teacher education. Referring to Altrichter (2015) governance is seen as a multilevel- and multiactor-determined process of coordination, whereby in this study the term is used in ways that emphasize the central role of the state and policy actors in shaping the framework conditions of all levels of education (as noted, e.g., by Kuhlee, van Buer, and Winch (2015)).

background for understanding and interpreting the higher education macrolevel (policy-level) internationalization model as it will be revealed in Investigation Strand 1 drawing mainly upon policy documents referred to in this chapter.

### 2.2.3.1 The Anchoring of Higher Education Internationalization within Strategic Economic and Social Policies in Europe

At the beginning of this millennium, the Lisbon Strategy (European Council, 2000) outlined that “the European Union is confronted with a quantum shift resulting from globalisation and the challenges of a new knowledge-driven economy” (p. 1) and set the strategic goal “to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion” (p. 2). It is stated that reaching this goal would need to involve “modernising the European social model, investing in people and combating social exclusion” (ibid.). This is the headline under which the education and training sector initially came to the center stage of European policy. The Lisbon strategy outlines six targets for education and training. These include references to internationalization in higher education and at higher education institutions: Among the targets we find the definition of means for “fostering mobility of students, teachers and training and research staff both through making best use of existing Community programmes (. . .), by removing obstacles and through greater transparency in the recognition of qualifications and periods of study and training” (European Council, 2000, p. 7).

Summarizing, it can be said that in the Lisbon Strategy globalization and the knowledge society are the contextual developments to which European responses are made; education (and reforms in education) is given a key role in transforming Europe into the most competitive and knowledge-based economy; the (short-term as well as longer term) mobility of students, teachers, trainers and researchers is singled out as one core strategy helping this transformation to happen; and mobility occurs as the most important element of internationalization referred to in the Lisbon strategy.

In the successor of the Lisbon strategy, *Europe 2020 – A Strategy for Smart, Sustainable and Inclusive Growth* (European Commission, 2010), we find a similar framing: Education and training systems and the HE sector are mainly targeted under the header “smart growth”. Several references to the internationalization of education and research, as relevant to HEIs, can be found in this document: One of its aims is to improve the (international)

openness of education and training systems. As in the Lisbon strategy, mobility is a very important element. Several references to fostering learning mobility (i.e., temporary and degree mobility) in education appear, and we find an additional focus on fostering the professional mobility of researchers and on strengthening international research careers at European institutions. This focus is representative of Europe 2020 in terms of placing a priority on the internationalization of research (fostering cross-border cooperation and knowledge transfer) and its aim for more European universities to achieve world-class standard, as measured by international rankings, for example.

Over the years, we thus see learning mobility (short-term and degree mobility) and professional mobility (of researchers) as elements of internationalization that appear as core priorities at the most aggregated level of European policies. In addition, we can observe the increasing relevance of strategies that relate to the internationalization of research and which are framed within the aim of (more) European research institutions achieving world-class standards so that they can best contribute to the smart growth agenda. Flagship initiatives of Europe 2020 such as Youth on the Move or the European Research Area also represent these priorities.

Having provided the setting in overarching social and economic policies, in the following European-level higher education and internationalization policies and their (evolution and current zeitgeist of) conceptualizations of internationalization in higher education will be outlined in more detail.

#### 2.2.3.2 The Education and Training Work Programs: Focus on Higher Education, Internationalization and Mobility

In the Lisbon strategy it is aimed to undertake a general reflection “on the concrete future objectives of education systems, focusing on common concerns and priorities” (European Council, 2000, p. 7). This resulted in the adoption of the first education and training work program ET 2010 (Council of the EU, 2002) in 2002<sup>16</sup>. The program is framed by the overall economic strategy of the EU, while at the same time the “broader

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<sup>16</sup> The work programs are the main framework for cooperation and reform in education and training in the European Union and negotiated in the Education Council. National implementation and work towards the established objectives is fully under the auspices of the EU Member States. The framework is implemented using the Open Method of Coordination which is based on “the identification of shared concerns and objectives, the spreading of good practice and the measurement of progress through agreed instruments (. . .)” (Council of the EU (2002, p. 3)). The scope of the work programs is broad and covers schools, higher education, vocational education and training, and adult education.

responsibilities to society” of education and training systems is acknowledged, in particular their contribution to “personal development for a better life and active citizenship in democratic societies respecting cultural and linguistic diversity” (Council of the EU, 2002, pp. 4–5). Several measures of the reforms envisaged relate to the internationalization of higher education systems and related activities at the institutional level. Core concerns of ET 2010 are to achieve the highest quality, relevance and excellence in all education sectors; to foster lifelong learning and the permeability of systems, allowing citizens to move between education systems (having their skills, knowledge and qualifications recognized); to foster global cooperation in education for mutual benefits; and to establish Europe as the “most-favoured destination of students, scholars and researchers from other world regions” (Council of the EU, 2002, p. 3).

One of three core strategic objectives is entitled “opening up education and training systems to the wider world”. Several measures of (higher) education internationalization are introduced under this header : (1) the improvement of foreign language skills and the aim that all Europeans speak two foreign languages; (2) the increase of mobility and exchange, in particular also through increased participation in Community programs and among young people in view of mobility’s benefits for developing professionally, personally and as European citizens; and (3) strengthening European cooperation, whereby a focus is placed on the removal of obstacles to mobility and securing accreditation and recognition of competences and diplomas in order to increase the comparability and compatibility of European education systems. The aims and action lines of the Bologna process thus fit in well into these overall objectives.

Similar to its role in the Bologna process, learning mobility has been one of the core measures in ET 2010 from the beginning, gradually becoming even more pronounced over the years: In 2007 an Expert Forum on mobility was established to explore how mobility (within and beyond the HE sector) could be further enhanced which in its final report (European Commission High Level Expert Forum on Mobility, 2008) suggested to set concrete mobility targets and mainstream learning mobility in European education policies. Following up on the Expert Forum’s conclusions, the European Commission presented a *Green Paper on Promoting the Learning Mobility of Young People* (European Commission, 2009), evidencing the priority given to the element of promoting learning mobility in European policies in recent years. Currently, making lifelong learning and mobility a reality has become the strategic objective number one on the education and training policy agenda. The stated aim of ET 2020

is to gradually expand “the mobility for learners, teachers and teacher trainers (. . .) with a view to making periods of learning abroad—both within Europe and the wider world—the rule rather than the exception” (Council of the EU, 2009a, p. 2). Finally, the learning mobility priority emerged as a concrete target in 2011, when a 20%-benchmark (20% of EU graduates having had a study or training period abroad by 2020) was adopted by European ministries (Council of the EU, 2011). Despite the massive increase of learning mobility over the past decades among European students, averaged across the EU, the 20%-benchmark nevertheless still implies a further increase of numbers at European higher education institutions by 2020.

As can be derived from the above review of policies, mobility is an element of internationalization seen as a purposeful strategy in relation to a broad range of policy aims. This can be seen as a reason for the “success story” of the element of learning mobility in educational contexts. In the European arena, support for the mobility of students and staff (educators, researchers) receives substantial drive stemming from its envisaged contributions to building employability, foreign language competences, social and civic skills including intercultural understanding, European identities, and quality improvements in education. Further drive comes from policy aims to strengthen the global competitiveness and attractiveness of European higher education and research in which the mobility of individuals is seen as purposeful in view of its knowledge-generating and knowledge-exchanging function.

### 2.2.3.3 Specific Higher Education and Internationalization Policies in the Europe

The turn of the millennium marks a time when European policies specifically focusing on higher education and the internationalization of higher education came into place. The 2001 paper, *Strengthening Cooperation With Third Countries in the Field of Higher Education* (European Commission, 2001), which also led to the adoption of the Erasmus Mundus program, can be seen as the first important policy-making document in this respect. Grounded in the concern that in the globalized higher education and research environments of our times, the EU attracts less “talent” than its competitors such as the US and Japan, it is also representative of a dominant framing of higher education and higher education internationalization policies of the 21<sup>st</sup> century’s first decade. In 2003 a debate on the role of universities in the “Europe of knowledge” was initiated (European Commission, 2003), resulting in an influential policy strand known as the higher education *modernization agenda*. The term *internationalization of higher education and research* appears for the first time in

European-level documents (see European Commission, 2003), although internationalization is depicted as an environmental feature, a competitive globalized environment and challenge, rather than a strategic response from the higher education sector (the use of the term, thus, differs from the context of this thesis). Under the modernization agenda policy strand (European Commission, 2005, European Commission, 2006a, Council of the EU, 2007a) three areas are in focus: (1) achieving world-class quality, (2) improving governance, and (3) increasing and diversifying funding. The need for international dimensions in higher education practices is mainly established through the need to improve the international attractiveness of European higher education and this is mainly operationalized through European HEIs' ranking positions and the ability to recruit international talent. From 2006 onwards (European Commission, 2006a, Council of the EU, 2007b, Council of the EU, 2010a, European Commission, 2011b), higher education and internationalization policies have increasingly overlapped with the Bologna process agenda. The very dominant focus on the research function of HEIs as contributors to innovation and economic growth (as noted above, cf. HEIs as economic engines, Sursock & Smidt, 2010) gives way to an increasingly integrated perspective (integrating research and education) on the development of the higher education sector, and to a more inclusive conceptualization of internationalization at HEIs. The more "traditional" European conceptualizations of internationalization at HEIs such as educational cooperation, mobility and exchange programs, joint courses and international curricular development of programs begin to "re-appear" in policy documents. In 2010 the first *Council Conclusions on the Internationalization of Higher Education* (Council of the EU, 2010a) were agreed upon. This is the first document to explicitly address higher education institutions in ways that place internationalization as a demand upon them. Internationalization in this document is now also defined from the perspective of activities that incorporate international dimensions at HEIs (as done in the context of this thesis); as "the development of international cooperation activities between EU higher education institutions and those in third countries" (Council of the EU, 2010a, p. 1). Although the reasoning why the internationalization of HEIs is proposed as a strategy responds to the increasing challenge in "the global competition to secure even larger shares of the mobile international student population" (p. 3), we also clearly find a more encompassing approach to internationalization than merely attracting the best talent from abroad: A first set of measures is subsumed as "fostering a truly international culture at higher education institutions" (p. 4), involving cooperation in education and research; the mobility of students, teachers, researchers and other staff; the recruitment of international staff to enhance quality in teaching

and research, or the establishment of curricula with international dimensions. A second set of measures relates to “increasing the international attractiveness of HEIs” (p. 5) and involves improving international visibility of European HEIs, improving service quality in relation to international activities at HEIs, the promotion of high-quality joint/double degree programs and of course the extensive participation of European HEIs in (the most excellent) international networks and research programs. In a third set of measures, “promoting the global dimension and awareness of social responsibility of higher education institutions” (p. 5), HEIs are called upon to engage in new and innovative forms of cross-border cooperation (such as, e.g., the export of degree programs to other world regions, or the establishment of branch campuses) and to regard ethical issues (such as brain drain in challenged regions) and quality in cross-border international activities. Summarizing, while we find a framing for internationalization derived from the role of HEIs as contributors to economic (societal) progress and the need to compete successfully for talent, resources, and knowledge, we can also more and more trace a distinct and somehow self-subsistent concern on improving the quality of European higher education and research through an encompassing internationalization of higher education institutions. It is in this manner that the 2013 strategy, *European Higher Education in the World* (European Commission, 2013b), derives key priorities for higher education internationalization in Europe—“promoting the international mobility of staff and students” (p. 4), “internationalisation at home and digital learning” (p. 5) and “strengthening strategic cooperation, partnerships and capacity building” (p. 8). Significantly, these priorities are summarized under the header “towards comprehensive internationalisation strategies” (p. 3). The strategy marks the turn to an integrated perspective on higher education internationalization having arrived at the European policy level. This can be exemplified by the fact that both education and research are focused on; international cooperation *and* competition both form relevant perspectives; and international program strategies abroad (such as mobility and exchange programs, high-quality joint/double degree programs) as well as at home (such as international dimensions in the content and orientation of curricula) are both referred to. The strategy also turns from an activity approach to a strategic approach (see Knight, 2004), combining references to program strategies (activities) with references to the need to support their diffusion by the implementation of appropriate organization strategies. The strategic management of internationalization is placed as a firm demand upon HEIs when it is criticized that internationalization strategies are “often centred mainly on student mobility, international academic cooperation is often still fragmented, based on the initiative of individual academics or research teams, and not necessarily linked to

an institutional (. . .) strategy” (European Commission, 2013b, p. 3). Nothing less than strategically managing internationalization at HEIs that goes to the core of the research and the teaching/learning function (thus accomplishing the third leap, Teichler, 2007; see Chapter 2.1.2) is demanded from HEIs in current European policies, as becomes clear in the following quote:

Developing a comprehensive internationalisation strategy means, above all, positioning a HEI, its students, researchers and staff (. . .) in all the relevant activities related to research, innovation and higher education, within the global scene, in accordance with its individual profile (. . .). (European Commission, 2013b, p. 4)

#### **2.2.4 Summary Observations and Reflections on the European Policy Context Regarding Internationalization in Higher Education**

Over time and in the 21<sup>st</sup> century in particular, a global perspective has been added to the historically predominant intra-European perspective on (short-term) mobility and internationalization in higher education. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century we can observe an evolution in policies from the presentation of the globalization of higher education and of increased competition in higher education as an almost threatening environmental feature to which HEIs in Europe are *forced* to react, to a more “self-conscious” and self-subsided pursuit of developing a European higher education sector in which international dimensions at higher education institutions are deeply diffused into their day-to-day practices, adding to the quality and relevance of education and research delivered by European HEIs, and thus (amongst other factors) making them competitive worldwide. As part of the evolution of policy discourses in recent years we can also observe that earlier disconnections between intra-European (cooperative) perspectives and global (competitive) perspectives are gradually being closed, including the integration of both perspectives in operational support programs such as Erasmus+ and Horizon 2020. Furthermore, the traditional intra-European cooperation paradigm was strongly connected to the education function of HEIs and the element of temporary study-related mobility (which, besides its many possible forms, in the European context first and foremost meant academic study abroad for a period of 3-12 months at a partnering higher education institution abroad), to benefits envisaged at the individual level (e.g., intercultural competence, foreign language learning, knowledge of other countries, systems and practices) and to the centennial project of European integration (cf. the European citizenship concept). In recent years, parallel to the merge of the cooperation and competition paradigm, not only the elements of mobility and internationalization referred to and supported

broadened, but perspectives of institutional and systemic development in higher education (such as in the Bologna process and the higher education modernization agenda) also gained key importance in recent years.

European policies and programs address the higher education sector as a whole. It is notable that a view towards the diversity in types and missions of institutions—such as research-intensive universities, teaching-oriented institutions, institutions oriented towards professional education, institutions of applied sciences, older and younger institutions, specialized and non-specialized institutions—is by no means common in policy discourses. At the same time, recent higher education and higher education internationalization policies are to some (and sometimes considerable) extent implicitly (and sometimes also explicitly, e.g., when policy documents refer to universities exclusively) geared towards institutions with a strong research orientation, with the mission and capacity to compete internationally and to achieve top positions in rankings, with the resources and capacities to deliver internationally competitive degree programs and to attract the best international students and early-career researchers. This type of institution cannot be expected to be the typical one in Europe. A uniform conceptualization of higher education institutions in policies, combined with skewedness towards a specific type of institutions is to be seen as critical, since it potentially places a portion of European institutions at a disadvantage in responding to policy conceptualizations, demands and offers.

Internationalization is not only one of the major trends in higher education and core to higher education policies. In the second decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, a *strategic* and *comprehensive* approach to internationalization has arrived within policy conceptualizations and a strategic and integrated perspective towards internationalization is placed as a firm demand upon higher education institutions, linking research- and education-based international activities and including both abroad and at-home perspectives, elements, and programs. This demand addresses the accomplishment of the second and third leap in internationalization at the institutional level.

Over the years we can observe an evolution from a selective pursuit of singular elements (e.g., student mobility) towards the pursuit of a more fully-fledged range of elements of internationalization (e.g., international staff and student recruitment, joint/double degrees and English-language teaching). Despite having become more comprehensive, earlier as well as current policies and programs bear a strong focus on the element of mobility and on the

implementation of structural features (e.g., mobility windows, credit transfer, accreditation procedures, joint/double degree arrangements and quality assurance), thus a strong focus on the structural side of curricular internationalization. This is at the expense of an equally explicit and extensive focus on content-related curricular internationalization and the internationalization of study environments at large (cf. concepts of internationalization at home, Beelen & Jones, 2015, and curricular internationalization, Leask, 2013b, in Chapter 2.1.2). In view of what is aimed to be accomplished—the third leap at institutions, placing internationalization at the core of teaching and learning—this is to be viewed as critical and as not being in full support of a comprehensive internationalization (Hudzik, 2011; see Chapter 2.1.2) at institutions. This is because institutional-level practices, even if not a mirror image of policies and operational program support, will, to a considerable extent, develop along opportunities provided in their environment. At the same time, as mentioned, most recent policies scope internationalization at HEIs in relation to their distinct institutional settings, goals and missions (cf. internationalization circle, Wit, 2002, see Chapter 2.1.2). They clearly outline the need to derive program strategies from these institutional settings, and to do so, thinking beyond mobility (internationalization at home has for the first time been made a priority in 2013), to develop program strategies together with academic staff and support their diffusion within the institution through adequate organization strategies (on program and organization strategies, Knight, 2004, see Chapter 1.3.2). In this sense, recent policy developments do also point into a direction in which content-related curricular internationalization are implied more strongly than in previous years.

Historically and still today, the element of temporary student (and to a much lesser extent staff) mobility is certainly the most dominant element of internationalization appearing in European-level policies, and the element receiving most program support. Other important mobility-related measures are degree mobility and the recruitment of talent, that is, international (graduate) students and researchers. Although these latter forms of mobility have become increasingly important in policies and programs of the past 10-15 years (not least as part of the Bologna process), they have left the role and relevance of (temporary) student mobility, such as supported under the Erasmus program since decades, unbowed. Temporary (student) mobility is supported for a plethora of reasons and seen as beneficial to a person's individual development (personally and professionally), supporting knowledge exchange and transfer within higher education, and as generally having a positive impact on European societies. Student mobility (both TSM and to a lesser extent degree-seeking mobility) in the

European arena has evolved into an element aimed to be mainstreamed in national HE policies and practices and an element pursued as a goal in itself—as a benchmark and numerical target that 20% of European graduates should have obtained study-related international experiences upon graduation.

In view of aims to further substantially increase student mobility in the future, it remains to be critically noted that increasing mobility and removing obstacles to mobility is addressed in policy discourses primarily as a matter of changing structures and regulations (e.g., the removal of accreditation barriers, portability of student grants and loans, etc.). This is opposed to addressing obstacles to student mobility that are related to students' interests, attitudes, and motivations, and how these are possibly built (or not) within the study environments of students at higher education institutions. When aiming to actually making student mobility a rule rather than an exception, as envisaged, such issues would have to be addressed at a broader scale.

Finally, with respect to the element of temporary study-related mobility we can note that its European appearance dominantly takes the form of academic study abroad while the range of different program forms is much broader, see Figure 1 in Chapter 1.3.4). The dominance of study-abroad is certainly related to the success story of the Erasmus program. The Erasmus program has supported study abroad, classically for a period of 3 to 12 months, since decades; while, for example, study-related internships have been integrated into Erasmus only since 2007 and other, shorter program forms such as summer schools, remain on a small scale. The classical European idea of gaining experiences abroad is thus the academic experience abroad for a period of three months or longer (although in 2014 the minimum threshold has been lowered to two months). The question whether this most supported type of TSM experience is of the same relevance at different types of institutions (e.g., professionally oriented institutions) or in different subject areas has to be asked.

### **2.3 From European Policies and Programs to National Policies, Institutional Impact and Institutional Practices**

Previous chapters revealed that, at the level of European discourse and policies, internationalization strategies and measures have become more integrated and fully-fledged (e.g., abroad *and* at-home elements, cooperation *and* competition, intra-European scope *and* global scope). From examining the conceptualizations of internationalization at the European policy level, it was concluded that the second and third leap have taken place at the European policy level. In recent policies higher education institutions are called upon to strategically manage internationalization. Strategic management is a process that includes context analysis, explicit formulation of goals and strategies in view of the institutional situation and mission, implementation of supporting programs and processes, and monitoring of progress towards goal achievement (see Chapter 2.1 for management perspectives on internationalization at higher education institutions). Strategically managed internationalization also necessitates the involvement and leadership of institutions' management and steering teams. The demands placed upon HEIs with respect to developing and organizing their internationalization activities, thus, are far-reaching.

Although conceptualizations in international discourses and policies shape and to substantial extents also mirror conceptualizations and practices at the level of national policies and at HEIs themselves, it is nevertheless important to not assume a full alignment in this respect. The next chapters therefore review research relating to internationalization in European countries and at European institutions so as to analyze the developments, scope and focus of practices with respect to internationalization (and again: the element of study-related mobility in particular) at these levels. Looking to institutional practices appears as particularly important, since, as Knight (2004), has stated, it is at the level of higher education *institutions* where internationalization is actually transformed into relevant practices, and where challenges and gaps become observable. In view of this fact it is somewhat astonishing and unsatisfying that research examining the scope and focus of institutional practices, the impact of policies, and the limitations and challenges encountered, is rather limited. To surmount this shortcoming, detailed reviews of data published in relevant studies and reports will be performed in order to assess practices at the level of national policies and HEIs.

### **2.3.1 Internationalization and Mobility Policies in European Countries**

European-level and national-level policies and measures relating to the internationalization of higher education have been increasingly aligned to each other (see Huisman & Wende, 2004; Teichler et al., 2011). A recent study on national mobility policies (Lam & Ferencz, 2012) found that European-level and supra-national actors in higher education, such as the EU or the OECD, are regarded important actors influencing national mobility policies, and that European-level and supra-national regulations, programs, standards and assessment exercises today are important drivers shaping policies at the national level. Previous research had also shown that the Erasmus program, still the most important program supporting student and staff mobility today (Lam & Ferencz, 2012), served as a lever to place internationalization and mobility at national higher education policy agendas in the first place (Brakel, Huisman, Luijten-Lub, Maussen, & Wende, 2004; Wit, 2002). In addition to European policies and programs, national policies and strategies supporting internationalization and mobility are regarded as core in fostering and shaping internationalization in the higher education sector, as shown in a survey among European universities (European University Association, 2013). Therefore, a relevant question is to which extent national internationalization and mobility policies exist in European countries, and which scope and focus they have.

Studies on national policies in Europe concluded that in the 1990s policies on the international dimension in higher education were increasingly established, while at the same time a weak integration into general higher education policies (missing links to planning, funding, evaluation, regulation) was observed (Kälvermark and Wende, 1997, as cited in Wende, 2001). Thus, at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, national policies supporting internationalization and mobility in higher education remained an add-on to higher education policies. Van der Wende (Wende, 2001) summarized this status as an “add-on, marginal and short-term policy based on temporary funding mechanisms” (p. 432). By the turn of the millennium, all of the 29 European countries surveyed in a study confirmed that they undertook “efforts for the internationalization of higher education at the national level” (Wende, 2001, p. 434). However, only around one third had formalized their efforts in policies (ibid.). Van der Wende (Wende, 2001) has identified the Bologna process (initiated 1999) as having served as a lever to finally putting internationalization more broadly on the agenda of higher education policy, resulting in a gradual shift towards higher education policies that integrated a perspective on international dimensions in education and research. This trend of

increasing links and integration between internationalization and higher education policies was confirmed in subsequent studies (Huisman & Wende, 2004, 2005).

By the turn of the millennium, we can thus observe a beginning trend of international dimensions being institutionalized at the national policy level in Europe, and becoming integrated into higher education policies, governance and funding. This also means that HEIs have been increasingly met with the demand to respond to such policies, as they gradually become diffused into higher education governance.

As regards the scope and focus of national policies relating to internationalization, the main objectives around the turn of the millennium were: “improving the quality of education (75%), the development of the European dimension (55%), the development of an internationally competitive education sector (40%) and the export of higher education, including recruitment of fee-paying foreign students and other forms of transnational education (25%)” (Wende, 2001, p. 434). Economic rationales, in the form of direct financial motives, were bound to a very limited number of countries (such as the UK and the Netherlands), while rationales relating to the economic competitiveness through a competitive higher education sector were gaining weight in European countries (*ibid.*).

Today it is safe to say that all European countries have policies in place fostering internationalization and mobility in higher education (see European Commission, 2013a; European University Association, 2013; Eurydice, 2010; Lam & Ferencz, 2012; Teichler et al., 2011). Nevertheless, criticism is being voiced that policies are not balanced enough to support comprehensive internationalization while, for example, overly focusing on specific elements such as mobility (European Commission, 2013a), or not strategic enough, in terms of being fully aligned to general higher education policies with support measures such as funding being strategically derived (*cf.* European University Association, 2013; Wächter, 2011).

Turning to the element of mobility, and student mobility in particular, we have summarized it as core to internationalization in Europe, both historically and today, with distinct benchmarks and targets existing. In 2010, upon the official launch of the European Higher Education Area, a Eurydice study (Eurydice, 2010) among the EHEA countries revealed that the majority of countries had a policy in place to foster inbound and/or outbound mobility. At the same time the study concluded (Eurydice, 2010, pp. 38–42) that by far not all

of the countries had strategic policies and measures in place going beyond “mere” statements to increase (inbound and/or outbound) mobility. Only a small number of countries operated mobility policies framed within broader internationalization strategies and higher education policies, a condition that if established would support the diffusion into governance and support systems and thereby the mainstreaming of student mobility. A larger amount of countries had “separate” mobility policies in place. Similar conclusions were drawn by other authors: Lam and Ferencz (2012) confirm that most European countries had mobility policies in place (around the time of the official launch of the EHEA in 2010) while they criticized that only few countries had what could count as a fully-fledged policy and systematic approach to mobility. According to the definition of the authors, such a policy would include clearly differentiated foci with respect to different modes and purposes of mobility such as study-abroad or internship abroad; it would set quantitative targets, outline strategies to promote mobility, and clearly identify those entities providing mobility opportunities, those in charge of policy-making and those in charge of policy implementation (Lam & Ferencz, 2012, p. 34). By contrast, the typical situation for many European countries would be to have “different policy elements mentioned in various national-level policy documents, and to regard these bits and pieces as their national mobility policy or strategy, rather than to have an aggregate policy document of all these elements” (Lam & Ferencz, 2012, p. 36). Despite such criticism, the authors observed a trend among European countries to pursue more and more systematic approaches to fostering and increasing mobility (Lam & Ferencz, 2012, p. 55).

Based on the results of available research, (student) mobility can be described as probably the most dominant and invariably supported element of internationalization at the national level. The prevalence of (student) mobility is probably comparable only to few other topics in current discourses on developing higher education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. However, student mobility also too often remains a measure not fully mainstreamed into higher education policies (mobility as an add-on), a goal not supported by fully spelled-out strategies and operational support systems derived from these goals.

Mobility policies encompass different types of mobility in higher education. Important differentiations are student versus staff (educators, researchers, administration) mobility and temporary versus degree-seeking mobility. One frequent aspect in policies is the aim to foster the mobility of researchers, although it has been noted (Lam & Ferencz, 2012; Wächter, 2011) that this type of mobility is often addressed in science, innovation and research policies which are frequently drafted separately from internationalization and mobility policies related to the

teaching and learning function of higher education institutions. Research has shown that distinct national mobility policies tend to dominantly focus on the side of education and on student mobility, as opposed to staff mobility at higher education institutions (Eurydice, 2010; Lam & Ferencz, 2012; Wächter, 2011). When staff mobility is addressed in mobility policies, its purpose is often conceptualized as staff “acting as multipliers for student mobility and as international networkers” (Lam & Ferencz, 2012, p. 54). Reviewing mobility policies we can identify a lack of focus on short-term outgoing staff mobility and staff preparation (Wächter, 2011, has referred to this situation as staff mobility being “a footnote” to student mobility, p. 192), while at the same time a demand is placed upon the same group to foster international orientation and mobility periods among students.

As regards student mobility, a trend of convergence of the mobility types referred to has been identified in national-level policies and strategies: *Outgoing temporary study-related mobility* (such as study abroad or internships abroad) is the most important priority at the national level; aims to foster *incoming degree mobility* are also important (Lam & Ferencz, 2012). Less often, but yet frequently mentioned is *incoming TSM* (Lam & Ferencz, 2012), an element which is often introduced under the notion of its relevance to supporting internationalization at home and create international study environments for all students (Wächter, 2011). *Outgoing degree mobility* is much less often focused upon. Another convergence is the trend towards target-setting for mobility at the national level (as it occurred at the European level and the established 20%-target). A recent study (Lam & Ferencz, 2012) showed that among 32 European countries, 14 countries had formulated measurable targets and some further countries made less concrete references to targets as part of their policies; these targets mostly relate to outgoing student mobility.

Recent studies also provide information on the concrete measures that policies at the national level support. A Eurydice study (Eurydice, 2010) identified the following measures and elements of internationalization that national mobility policies relate to:

- Amending immigration legislation to facilitate visa procedures for students/researchers;
- a panoply of financial measures, from scholarships, grants and fee waivers to ensuring the portability of student support;
- information campaigns, directed either at encouraging national students to study abroad or attracting international students to the country;

- bi-lateral or multi-lateral cooperation agreements;
- support to institutions in considering internationalization in curriculum design;
- focus on fair and simple recognition procedures and on the good use of ECTS;
- strengthening implementation of the Bologna measures;
- support for language learning (both incoming and outgoing students);
- encouraging language learning among staff in higher education;
- provision of programmes in other languages (particularly English);
- supporting higher education institutions in their mobility strategies;
- attention to mobility in quality assurance procedures;
- promotion of joint and double degrees;
- adaptation of information and counselling services for mobile students;
- support for accommodation. (Eurydice, 2010, p. 41)

Similarly, another study finds the following measures commonly embraced to increase mobility: “easing recognition, adjusting legal frameworks, providing financial incentives (. . .) and promotional activities” (Lam & Ferencz, 2012, p. 49). With respect to fostering the element of TSM, the measures most often mentioned are: promotional campaigns, and easing the recognition of study-abroad periods, in particular through the implementation and use of ECTS credits and learning agreements (Lam & Ferencz, 2012, pp. 49–50). In addition, some countries also relate to fostering mobility in terms of more broadly internationalizing curricula, in terms of structural curricular features such as the inclusion of so-called *mobility windows* in curricula, or in terms of the design of joint or double degree programs (ibid.).

It can be observed that structural, legal and financial measures (e.g., funding, accreditation, changing legislation, use of ECTS, implementation of Bologna measures, quality assurance) are highly prevalent measures supported in national policies. In addition, measures which imply broader notions of how to foster mobility also appear, such as supporting foreign language learning among students (and staff) to improve their “readiness” for internationalization and mobility, supporting curriculum design that takes regard of international dimensions or information and promotion campaigns. We can thus distinguish between measures aiming to remove concrete obstacles for those who already have a wish, plan, and the competencies to engage in internationalization and mobility (the removal of structural, legal and financial measures), and measures fostering internationalization and

mobility in a more indirect sense, in ways that may build the environment and resources among all staff and students to engage in internationalization and mobility (e.g., curricular integration, language learning, curricula with international dimensions).

Comparing European-level and national-level discourse and policies, we find that European programs and policies were (are) highly important in promoting and framing internationalization policies at the national level. However, it seems that European-level views and strategies are somewhat “ahead of” national policy realities. At the European level, discourse and policies have in recent years moved, to a certain extent, away from the dominance of the (student) mobility element (see Chapter 2.2.4) and started to advocate more comprehensive approaches to internationalization in higher education (European Commission, 2013b). National policies appear to be less fully-fledged and comprehensive, and still seem to be more focused upon the singular element of mobility, and first and foremost on outgoing temporary mobility of students.

### **2.3.2 Internationalization and the Role of Mobility at Higher Education Institutions—Assessments**

As already mentioned, given the discursive and policy-level prevalence of internationalization and study-related mobility, there is surprisingly few research that allows assessing on a larger scale (beyond single-case institutional studies) the status, focus and scope of internationalization at the institutional level, and the challenges and needs of HEIs in responding to policy demands. Some of the most insightful research to perform an assessment of institutional realities and practices stems from large-scale evaluations of the Erasmus program. Thus, Erasmus is not only the most important and influential program to support internationalization and (student) mobility in Europe (Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010) but also an important “source” in research data on internationalization and (student) mobility.

#### **2.3.2.1 Higher Education Institutions’ Environment and Institutional Responses: Internationalization as a Major Trend**

Internationalization is a response to societal developments and shaped by policy environments. The EUA (European University Association) is publishing a series of reports (Trends reports)<sup>17</sup> which enable the assessment of institutional practices and provide

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<sup>17</sup> The reports also have some weaknesses and biases: Trends report 2010 (Sursock and Smidt (2010)) uses longitudinal data (comparison with previous reports of 2003, 2005 and 2007) to assess changes over time. It is based on two questionnaire studies—one among national rectors conferences and one among HEIs. The 2010 questionnaire survey among HEIs covered 821 institutional responses (approx. 15% of European HEIs)

important data to reconstruct trends in higher education as they are perceived and implemented at the institutional level.

A longitudinal analysis of the Trends reports (Sursock & Smidt, 2010) identifies increased participation in higher education, the growing importance of knowledge-led economies and increased global competition as the main contextual changes for higher education institutions. Supra-national policy responses such as the Bologna process or the Lisbon agenda are seen as direct reactions to this context, resulting in policy reforms impacting upon higher education institutions: The main policy changes in higher education, as identified by national rectors conferences, in the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century were (ibid.): reforms in quality assurance, research policies, the expansion of institutional autonomy and funding reforms; furthermore, governance reforms, new career structures, new entry requirements to the different study cycles (as introduced under the Bologna framework) and innovation policies; additionally, structural transformations in the size and shape of higher education systems such as increases in the number of institutions (most often a result of the establishment of private institutions), or mergers, or other major restructuring of the institutional landscape in a country.

Which role does internationalization play in this context? For institutions, the most important developments in relation to their institutional strategies and activities were the Bologna process, quality assurance systems, and internationalization which 61% of surveyed universities rated as one of the three most important developments (ibid.)

The report identifies internationalization as an area where important developments have taken place at the institutional level (see Sursock & Smidt, 2010, p. 21): Universities report in particular enhanced international cooperation activities; cross-border activities and transnational education (such as joint/double degrees, off-shore campuses, common research centers, etc.) having gained in frequency at European universities; and the increasing creation of and membership in international strategic networks, partnerships and alliances. Among the most important purposes of such activities (as stated by universities) are resource pooling and capacity building to enhance international competitiveness, in particular in the area of research, but also in order to enrich educational offers; to increase institutional reputation or,

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which enroll around half of all European students. Qualitative data from interviews and site visits enrich the results. The longitudinal analysis is based on only 187 institutions; the country coverage is skewed towards EU countries and Western Europe; and the report covers a specific type of HEIs only—universities.

more generally, international reach and visibility of an institution. Reflecting this data we note that the pursuit of international activities to increase competitiveness and as a marker of status and reputation have become relatively important. This is further evidenced by the growing importance that international rankings and league tables play at universities across Europe (as also noted in the report, Sursock & Smidt, 2010). These, in turn, include “internationality” as a criterion in their rankings. Conceived this way, internationalization is not only purposeful (e.g., resource pooling in research projects) but also a marker of status and reputation, and almost implied to be pursued as a goal itself.

Summarizing the scope and status of internationalization at European universities, the report concludes that internationalization is nowadays increasingly led by strategies and “in the best institutional cases (. . .) seen as a purposeful extension of institutional strengths and the strategic junction where the various strands of institutional activities are enhanced through international cooperation” (Sursock & Smidt, 2010, p. 21). This is a conception and status implying that, in Teichler’s (2007) terms, the second and third quantum leap in internationalization (strategic and systematic actions to include international dimensions in the core activities and day-to-day practices of HEIs) is probably about to occur at institutions (i.e., at universities as represented in the survey). Indeed, several developments are noted in the report (Sursock & Smidt, 2010, p. 21) which can be seen as indicative of these leaps: responsibilities moving from the individual or departmental level to the institutional level; a shift occurring from quantity to the quality of activities, and from mobility as the main (but also isolated) element of internationalization to an element implemented alongside others; and the existence of explicit strategies coherent with institutional goals and settings.

#### 2.3.2.2 Institutional Practices Assessed in Detail: Policies and Programs Driving and Shaping Internationalization at the Institutional Level

The Erasmus program and its precursor (smaller) programs, after their instigation in the 70s have become not only drivers of developing national policies but also drivers of institutional-level regard of international dimensions (see Huisman & Wende, 2004; Huisman & Wende, 2005; Teichler, 2002a; Wit, 2002). As noted earlier (see Chapter 2.2.1.1), in the mid-90s the Erasmus program also introduced major innovations which opened up a view at HEIs towards creating more internationalized curricula and study environments (going beyond the mobility element) and towards internationalization as an institution-wide concern, led by a coherent and more integrative approach (see European Commission, 2006b; Huisman & Wende, 2004; Teichler, 2007; Wit, 2002). These shifts imposed by the structure of the

program (according to Reichert and Wächter, 2000, as cited in European Commission, 2006b) had a catalytic effect that consisted in the fact that

institutions were suddenly challenged not to consider their international activities anymore as marginal, non-coherent, decentralised activities of individuals but rather as important, costly activities which require a certain stability as well as a common infrastructural support if they were to lead to cross-fertilisation, activities which are supposed to be relevant to the quality and reputation of the institution as a whole. (p. 169)

As regards the intended boost to the development of institution-wide and strategic approaches to internationalization at HEIs, on the one hand the introduced changes were instrumental drivers for institutionalization of internationalization across the institutions: Increasingly, institutional committees were created, decision-making arrived at the central level, and specific administrative units were charged with managing activities (Lanzendorf & Teichler, 2002; see also Huisman & Wende, 2004). On the other hand, studies also found that such changes on average took place at a moderate pace, and that the shifts towards more fully-fledged internationalization, strategic and/or central management and institutionalization worked particularly well in institutions which had wanted to move into this direction anyway (Caillé, Gordon, Lotze, & Wende, 2002; Huisman & Wende, 2004). An Erasmus/Socrates evaluation study (Teichler, 2002a) found that program-level changes served as effective impulses to developing internationalization strategies in particular for smaller institutions as well as for institutions from the Central and Eastern European countries, while in larger (Western European) institutions such strategies tended to already exist more frequently (Caillé et al., 2002). These results exemplify both (a) the framing character and impact of large-scale support programs such as Erasmus at the level of HEIs, as well as (b) the different rate of adoption of innovations by institutions (cf. innovation diffusion theory in Chapter 1.4.1), depending on the “fit” between the innovation and the situation (background, resources, existing strategies and mission, etc.) at any given institution that determines how profitable and compatible an innovation is.

Linking the pictures painted in the previous chapters thus far, a certain contradiction is observable between sketching a higher education sector proactively reacting to the challenges of globalization and global competition in higher education, and sketching a sector in which HEIs in Europe are not yet fully able to set up and manage coherent institutional responses

and strategies of internationalization. The resolution of this contradiction lies in noting the different pace of diffusion of internationalization within the HE sector. Overall, by the turn of the millennium internationalization was by no means any longer an endeavor of singular institutions, coincidental or only consisting of isolated activities. However, it was also neither a systematic or even strategic activity at HEIs in Europe *across the board*. Teichler saw the second quantum leap (Teichler, 2007) in European internationalization (moving from casuistic action to systematic action, cf. Chapter 2.1.1) as having occurred around the turn of the millennium. However, judging from research providing insights into the *average* institutional situation, one would rather be inclined to conclude that the second quantum leap was just about to happen around 2000 as far as institutional *practices* (as opposed to conceptualizations in policies and programs, and possibly also institutional strategies) were concerned.

Summarizing, studies revealed and confirmed the impact of European programs upon institutional practices, and how their inbuilt requirements can shape the scope, focus and organization of international activities at the institutional level. Large-scale programs of the last decades in the 20<sup>th</sup> century like Erasmus have acted as initiators (this tends to be valid in particular for smaller institutions and institutions/regions where internationalization is less diffused), and/or as accelerators of internationalization (this tends to be the case for larger institutions and institutions where internationalization was more widely spread). Besides generally supporting the diffusion of internationalization at HEIs, the programs particularly contributed to opening up institutional perspectives towards institution-wide and more strategic approaches to internationalization (Knight, 2004) involving a broader spectrum of activities (e.g., beyond the element of mobility towards a broader internationalization of curricula). In the year 2000 approximately 50% of institutions surveyed stated that they had a committee in charge of international activities at the central level of their institution (Maiworm & Teichler, 2002a). Funds from European programs played a large role in supporting internationalization at HEIs across Europe: according to a rough estimation 60% of the funds allocated to student and staff mobility at HEIs participating in Erasmus came from the Socrates program (ibid.). Activities under the European programs also accounted for a substantial part of all international activities at HEIs: On average, two out of (on average) four full-time employees working in “international relations” were responsible for Erasmus (Socrates) activities (ibid.). By the turn of the millennium institutions registered a growing interest of students in international activities, and a general upward development of

international cooperation within their institutions. They saw these developments—not exclusively but considerably—to have been fostered by the Erasmus (Socrates) program (*ibid.*). A 2004 evaluation of the Erasmus program (Brakel et al., 2004) confirmed the impact of the program at institutions, in particular in leveraging student and staff mobility, central coordination and professionalization in administration, and institution-wide regard of internationalization.

At the turn of the millennium, in a context where institutions increasingly found themselves between competition as well as cooperation paradigms (Huisman & Wende, 2004; Wende, 2001; see in detail Chapter 2.2.2), the institutional goals and motives that prevailed were to generally strengthen the internationalization of their institutions (not least to strengthen their international visibility) and to establish a coherent policy for their institution (Maiworm & Teichler, 2002a). An Erasmus evaluation study revealed that the most important purposes for institutions to engage in (increasing) internationalization were “1) preparing students for the international labour market/employability; 2) recognition of degrees/harmonisation; and 3) to become an attractive institution that is well-known” (Brakel et al., 2004, p. 9). Furthermore, institutions stated that objectives that had become more and more important in recent years were the (1) Europeanization/internationalization of curricula, (2) to increase numbers of incoming and outgoing students and (3) improvements in the quality of teaching and learning for mobile students, including quality assurance (Brakel et al., 2004). Reflecting on the increased importance of these, we note strong resemblances to the aims and action lines of the Bologna process (see in more detail Chapter 2.2.2.2). After the turn of the millennium, the Bologna process can be seen as the second major external driver that has placed internationalization broadly on the agenda of institutions across Europe (parallel to the same development at the national policy level; see Huisman & Wende, 2004). Furthermore (and not independent of the Bologna process), we can also note the appearance of quality-related issues and quality assurance. This can probably also be seen as indicative of a certain prevalence of international activities and internationalized practices at the average European institution and of a certain maturity and critical reflection of these activities and practices.

On a final note, the issue of different scope, focus and status of diffusion of internationalization at different institutions, as revealed by several studies, shall be revisited (Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010; Huisman & Wende, 2005; Maiworm & Teichler, 2002a). In view of policy discourses and conceptualizations often depicting European higher education

institutions as top-league players in the global higher education environment with degree programs that attract the best global talents and global research cooperation, we can note that this description is valid (and also probably relevant) only for a minor number of institutions which have the capacity to play in this league—as research (Wende et al., 2005) has shown these are mostly older, research-intensive universities or small, highly specialized institutions. The study referred to showed that all HEIs studied clearly responded to the context of globalization and Europeanization, but that vast differences existed in the concrete responses. Institutions with a strong teaching and learning function and younger tertiary institutions, for example, often conceptualized strategies not in response to the global-competitiveness aim but in view of their local and regional embedding and history and its role in a globalized world (ibid.). Other institutions with a strong teaching and learning mission were identified, for example, to mainly use internationalization as a way to enhance their reputation, profile and standing locally or nationally (ibid.).

These examples show that internationalization is “path-dependent”. What is regarded as compatible and profitable at institutions is strongly influenced by the institutional mission, setting and history. Such differences are, however, somewhat left in disguise in the prevailing rhetoric and seldom taken up in policies, which (as reflected upon in a previous chapter) place uniform policy conceptualizations (e.g., of research-intensive universities) as demands upon the whole sector, implicitly assuming that all institutions bear the same capacities and willingness to respond to these demands; which, however, cannot be assumed. Differences in the scope and diffusion of internationalization also imply that it is important to be cautious about reading dominant discursive conceptualizations as existing, average or most frequent institutional practices and realities. This becomes evident when comparing two statements from different representative associations of higher education institutions. While a paper of the Coimbra Group universities (a group of leading research universities) states that they are “confident that internationally attractive and competitive universities will emerge from the present process, ready to face the challenges of a globalising world” (Coimbra Group Executive Board, 2009, p. 1), in a EURASHE (European Association of Institutions in Higher Education; it represents professionally oriented HEIs in Europe) paper of the same time we read that the association “will enter into a discussion with those of our member institutions who might still believe that a mono-lingual and mono-cultural approach is to be preferred” (European Association of Institutions in Higher Education, pp. 5–6). It is self-evident that these quotes are to a highly different extent in line with current policy conceptualizations.

These examples are not quoted here as examples of the superiority or “backwardness” of any specific subsector in higher education. Rather, they underline different scopes of internationalization and different rates of diffusion of internationalization existing among the vast range of different institutions in Europe.

### 2.3.2.3 Institutional Practices in Detail: Are Institutions Accomplishing the Second and Third Leap in Internationalization?

This chapter will utilize further studies to assess and describe in terms as concrete as possible the scope and extent of current institutional practices of internationalization, that is, the program and organization strategies employed at higher education institutions.

First of all, what is the current role of the most classical element of internationalization in Europe—temporary study-related mobility and its most important promotion scheme? A recent study (Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010) which evaluated the scope of internationalization and the institutional impact of the Erasmus program found that around the time of the launch of the EHEA in 2010, Erasmus was still the single most important program to support internationalization and international activities (such as student and staff mobility) at the institutional level; for only a limited number of institutions another single program was rated as most important. In terms of activities supported in Erasmus, student mobility and in particular outgoing student mobility was found to be the single most important component for institutions. Less than half of the institutions rated the other program components supporting internationalization—such as intensive study programs, curriculum development program and thematic networks between institutions—as important at their institution. Similarly, institutions see major impacts of the program often in the area of having fostered mobility at their institution through the support and implementation of relevant program and organization strategies to support mobility and internationalization. Another important impact seen is that the program leveraged international cooperation beyond Erasmus.

Similar to previous studies, the study (Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010) also found a high impact and triggering effect of the Erasmus program as regards institution-wide procedures to support internationalization, in particular for smaller institutions. This could be termed an administrative or management-related impact and can be seen as supporting (see internationalization circle, Wit, 2002, see in more detail Chapter 2.1.2) the accomplishment of the second and third leap in internationalization. However, in most areas that relate directly to the teaching and learning function of HEIs, larger institutions also reported larger impact

(Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010). Larger institutions (and with a few exceptions this will be correlated with research-intensive institutions) thus appear to have better been able to include international dimensions right in the core of their teaching and learning (as well as research) activities, thus to accomplish the third leap in internationalization.

Beyond the impact and role of Erasmus, data published by Bürger and Lanzendorf (2010) allows to assess in which areas of internationalization HEIs across Europe had made significant progress (over a period of approx. the 10 years prior to the publication of the study) and which areas had developed less dynamically. Table 5 reveals that institutions reported most progress for mobility-related activities and support services, in the area of generally making teaching and research more accessible and visible to students and other stakeholders (e.g., through providing foreign language information, transferability of student qualifications), and with respect to establishing internationalization strategies. Indeed, a survey among universities (European University Association, 2013) revealed that in 2013, more than 50% of universities had an internationalization strategy, an additional 30% stated that internationalization was considered in other strategies and around further 10% stated that they were presently developing a strategy. Underlining the continued core importance of mobility at institutions is the result that universities state that their strategies had most impact (next to establishing partnerships in new regions or countries) on “sending more student abroad” (European University Association, 2013, p. 9).

By contrast to the well-developed areas (left-hand column in Table 5) where mobility is particularly important, program and organization strategies supporting the integration of international dimensions at the core of teaching and learning as well as research (e.g., participation in international projects, internationalization of teaching and learning, foreign-language programs) fall into the categories where only half or less than half of institutions have reported high or very high progress (middle and right-hand column in Table 5). For example, less than half of all institutions surveyed state that they have made high or very high progress with internationalizing curricular content. To a certain extent, such gaps between mobility-related measures and curricular and content-related strategies that create international environments in all degree programs can already be observed in the priorities of institutions: A survey among universities reveals that attracting international students (in particular graduate students), the internationalization of teaching and learning at large, as well as providing students with more opportunities to have learning experiences abroad are the top three priorities of European universities, whereas “creating an international environment for

students/internationalization at home” is a priority that ranks only in eighth place (European University Association, 2013, p. 11).

**Table 5:** Progress in Different Areas of Internationalization

Areas of internationalization (program and organization strategies) with high or very high progress reported by:		
more than half of HEIs	approx. half of HEIs	less than half of HEIs
Increasing the mobility of outgoing as well as incoming students and teachers	Introducing mandatory foreign language requirements as part of the curriculum	Internationalization of curricular content
Improving the counseling for staff and students interested in study abroad	The internationalization of teaching and learning	In setting up English/foreign language programs
Improving the non-academic support for incoming students	Increasing participation in international projects	In the introduction of joint degrees
Improving the international and national visibility and attractiveness of the institution	Introducing the regular reflection on and evaluation of institutional strategies	In the introduction or extension of language training and intercultural training for teachers
Fostering the soft skills of students	Professionalizing institutional management	Increasing the number of staff with a responsibility for internationalization
In the area of modernizing curricula	Improving the non-academic support for own students	Increasing the effects of international institutional networks
In improving the transparency and transferability of student qualifications		Increasing the attendance or organization of international conferences by our academic staff
Establishing and developing an institutional internationalization strategy		Increasing the tendering for project-related funding
Increasing student information in foreign languages		

*Note.* Based on data published by Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010, pp. 39–60. HEIs = higher education institutions.

Coming back to progress areas as summarized in Table 5, it is furthermore noteworthy that strategies related to staff internationalization mostly fall into the categories where least progress has been made. Similarly, in the EUA survey among universities, providing staff with opportunities to go abroad was found to be one of the least important priorities at European universities (European University Association, 2013). Academic staff members—established as the enablers and promoters of international dimensions in teaching and learning as well as research in Chapter 1.4.1 and 2.1.2—therefore appear weakly and probably even insufficiently targeted in institutional strategies. This mirrors a relatively weak focus on staff and curricular internationalization at the level of European and national policies (as established in Chapter 2.3.1 and 2.2.4 ). It can be seen to constitute a missing drive towards accomplishing the third leap in internationalization, that is, towards the deep-level inclusion

of international dimensions in HE degree programs (as well as research) to the benefit of and as relevant to all students. Despite a lack of focus in existing strategies and priorities, however, institutions also seem to be aware of the need to improve the capacity, resources and readiness of the institution and its members to fully engage in internationalization. Elements that are seen as purposeful by institutions in order to “stimulate and support internationalisation” are first of all the improvement of foreign language skills of students and staff (European University Association, 2013, p. 16). Furthermore, improving funding for student and staff mobility and international projects is identified as another important area, as is the development of more comprehensive and systematic approaches to internationalization (ibid.; in which internationalization is supported by adequate organization strategies such as representation in an institution’s strategic goals, in staff recruitment, resource allocation and support services).

These strategies, identified by universities across Europe, outline the current challenges in moving forward at the institutional level. They include such seemingly “basic” conditions as improving student and staff readiness for internationalization in terms of foreign language skills. Generally, in view of the research results presented, it is concluded that the third leap, the deep-level representation of international dimensions at the core of higher education and thus in their day-to-day practices in teaching and learning as well as research, has not yet occurred at institutions. It also still seems a challenge to HEIs to fully include internationalization in the strategic *and* operational management of the whole institution, and to systematically design not only strategic papers, priorities and program strategies but in particular supportive organization strategies that support the diffusion of internationalization at institutions, such as adequate resource allocations for developing internationalization, or the regard of internationalization in HR policies and recruitment. In view of these results it is also concluded that the second leap in internationalization (systematic and strategic action) has also not yet been accomplished by institutions in Europe *across the board*.

### **2.3.3 Summary Observations and Reflections: Elements of Internationalization, Scope, Focus and Status of Internationalization**

The research review has provided evidence that European-level policies and programs have acted and continue to act as a driver and “form-giving” factor to both national policies and institutional practices. National policies on the internationalization of higher education nowadays exist in many European countries, although their scope, strategic character and integration into higher education policies and governance has also been criticized as too

limited. In comparison to European-level policies and programs, where the third leap has been accomplished, national policies can be described as “less advanced”.

National policies display a focus on mobility measures. There are convergent trends across Europe to focus on incoming degree mobility and outgoing temporary study-related mobility. A trend of target setting for outgoing study-related mobility can also be observed. In national mobility policies, academic staff is usually not extensively targeted themselves while they are addressed as the promoters of student mobility. In comparison to the entities students and institutions as a whole, the representation of academic staff as an entity is relatively weak. In policies, it appears to be implicitly assumed that academic staff can and want to assume their role envisaged—to fully engage in internationalization and the promotion of mobility. Such a view may, however, be too optimistic. A lack of focus on this target group could lead to a lack of adequate staff development with respect to internationalization, thus resulting in a lack of within-institution drive to advancing international dimensions in teaching and learning as well as research.

At higher education institutions across Europe, international activities have substantially increased at institutions over time, and internationalization has been clearly revealed as a major trend; a trend which European programs have substantially leveraged. European programs have been particularly influential in promoting (temporary) student (and staff) mobility, the central and/or institution-wide coordination of international activities and the professionalization of administrating various international activities. Speaking of internationalization as a major trend, a proliferation and diversification of activities, and the emergence of HEIs as global players, it is, however, equally important to counter-balance this perspective by keeping the *average* European institution in mind. Research on institutional practices reveals internationalization as somewhat less dynamic and extensive than discourses and trends may suggest. Erasmus is (still) the single most important program at HEIs in Europe and the main measures of Erasmus (most importantly student and staff mobility) have clearly left their traces in shaping institutions’ scope and form of international activities. Outgoing student mobility is (still) the element at the core of internationalization at institutions. It is also the element where institutional internationalization strategies, which have been increasingly drafted by European institutions, have had most impact. Currently, more than 50% of European HEIs have a distinct internationalization strategy.

Despite convergent trends and prevailing dominant elements such as outgoing student mobility, the research-based assessment of institutional practices has revealed a highly differentiated picture with respect to the scope (level, extent, variety) and forms (elements) of internationalization in practice as well as a differentiated impact of support programs depending on the size and mission of an institution. Larger, research-intensive institutions and institutions already extensively focusing on internationalization seem to register more impact of European-level programs and more progress in such responses that are well aligned with policies' conceptualizations of European higher education institutions. Such conceptualizations often refer to European HEIs being internationally visible (e.g., in rankings, through marketing and promotion), internationally competitive and actively competing for international (financial and human) resources and at which research and education is internationally inspired, developed and delivered. The profitability and compatibility of such conceptualizations and thus their rate of adoption, as well as the purposes, forms and elements of internationalization pursued, however, have been shown to vary largely.

The policy gap revealed previously—curricular, content-related internationalization as a weaker concern than more visible elements like mobility or structural curricular internationalization (ECTS, accreditation, joint/double degree programs)—is mirrored at the institutional level. Content-related curricular internationalization is among the areas of internationalization in which least progress has been registered by institutions (while, e.g., in the area of student mobility substantial progress is registered). Staff-related areas of internationalization (language and intercultural training for teachers, increasing staff with responsibility for internationalization, increasing attendance of academic staff at international conferences) also fall into the category where least progress is registered. A weak curricular base of international dimensions and potentially unprepared staff can be seen as a long-term adverse condition; not only to fostering the element of student mobility, but also to accomplishing the third leap of internationalization at institutions at large which fundamentally requires the engagement of academic staff.

European policies (as well as institutions themselves) call for a more strategic management of internationalization and for more comprehensive conceptualizations of internationalization (e.g., beyond the element of mobility). These calls also show that strategic management and comprehensive conceptualizations are not (yet) average practice at European HEIs while discourse and policy conceptualizations of the role of European HEIs would

probably imply so. Indeed, some of the ways forward seen as most purposeful (by staff responsible for internationalization at HEIs) to further promote internationalization appear as somewhat simple and basic, almost outdated, when contrasted with the discursive figure of the internationalized European higher education landscape: Means like fostering foreign language skills among students and staff to improve their capacity, resources and readiness to fully engage with internationalization, or increasing funding and developing comprehensive and systematic approaches at the institutional level are seen as ways forward. Institutions across Europe are, on average, (still) in the process of yet accomplishing the second leap in internationalization (systematic and strategic action); the third leap in internationalization (international dimensions and activities integrated into the core of teaching and learning as well as research) has not yet been achieved across the board at the level of institutional practices. While previous European policies and programs have co-shaped the gaps between dominant elements such as mobility and deep-level curricular integration of international dimensions, current European-level policies have recently made a move towards promoting more comprehensive approaches and indeed place the accomplishing of the second and third leap as a firm demand upon the higher education sector, involving the strategic, purposeful (in view of institutional mission and setting) and deep-level integration of international dimensions in teaching/learning and research.

## **2.4 Internationalization and Temporary Study-Related Mobility in Teacher Education**

Along with the focus of this thesis, the following chapter turns to relevant background to researching internationalization and TSM in the field of teacher education. It starts with an outline of the current positioning of teacher education as a policy field of interest (Chapter 2.4.1) and continues with a review of why international experiences and the building of international competences are (more and more) seen as important descriptors of teacher profiles and competence standards (2.4.2). To understand possible peculiarities of internationalizing teacher education degree programs, the chapter then looks to structures and current models of teacher education, their building blocks and recent developments in this respect (2.4.3). Subsequently, the chapter aims to assess the state of practices regarding internationalization in TE degree programs, mirroring the work performed for the HE sector in general in Chapter 2.4.4. While the element of TSM is also looked upon here, its state of diffusion in TE degree programs across Europe will be assessed in required detail in a separate chapter (2.5.1) as part of a more extensive review regarding the extent and obstacles to TSM in higher education and teacher education. Summary observations are made (2.4.5) before the chapter turns to the important step of integrating all considerations, previous reflections and the review of research and theory thus far to derive the implications, thematic foci and guiding assumptions relevant for Investigation Strand 1 (this final integrative step is conducted in Chapter 2.4.6).

### **2.4.1 Teacher Education: Double-Targeted in Policies and Receiving Renewed Attention**

Teacher education degree programs and future teachers are double targeted in European and national education policies: Teacher education is a subsector of the larger higher education sector so that all policies and programs, and their current foci such as on strategic, comprehensive internationalization and fostering study-related mobility, provide framings, opportunities, demands and challenges for teacher education degree programs and future graduates of these programs. In addition, framings, opportunities, demands and challenges are placed upon teacher education and future teachers in view of their role in the education system (school). Teacher education and the teaching profession are therefore addressed in education policies that relate mainly to the primary and secondary education system. As in the policy sphere, the teacher education sector is also double-targeted through program support: TE degree programs can profit from support provided to the whole higher

education sector, and, in addition, from support provided by programs specifically designed to promote the school education sector.

In both policy and program support strands (higher education and school education) international dimensions nowadays play an important role. The framings regarding internationalization, as stemming from teacher education being a subsector of higher education, have been extensively described in previous chapters (summarized in 2.2.4 and 2.3.3). While conceptualizations of internationalization in teacher education will be revealed in detail in Chapter 4 of this thesis, in the following the setting and framing of teacher education (including as part of education policies and programs and in particular as relevant to the internationalization of teacher education degree programs) will be described as a background to the study.

European policies and support programs have since their beginnings taken particular regard of the teaching profession. Considering the central role of teachers in our societies, this has been done, not least, with respect to fostering international dimensions in education and of the European dimensions in education in particular (for an extended overview see European Commission, 2006b). Furthermore, the fact that 70% of current spending on education in Europe is devoted to teacher salaries (European Commission/DG EAC, 2013a, p. 33) outlines the weight of the teaching profession also in terms of their financial impact. This may also be a factor for the attention to the profession, even in the most aggregate European economic strategies. The Lisbon Strategy (European Council, 2000), for example, includes references to the teaching profession and outlines the aim to

define the means for fostering mobility of students, teachers and training and research staff (. . .); to take steps to remove obstacles to teachers' mobility (. . .) and to attract high-quality teachers. (p. 7–8)

In the citation above two issues of current importance are visible: the concern to foster the (professional and short-term) mobility of pre-service and in-service teachers (an aspect that will be dealt with in more detail later), and quality-related perspectives on teacher education. Indeed, to improve the quality of education and training for teachers and trainers was made a priority in the education and training work programs (ET 2010, ET 2020) which are implemented through the open method of coordination across Europe. These work programs have added to a momentum of renewed policy attention on education in general and

more specifically on teacher education. The aim of a renewed policy focus on teacher education could be summarized as the modernization of teacher education, preparing future teachers for their changed roles in today's knowledge-driven, IT-intensive, multicultural, heterogeneous, individualized and globally interconnected societies (see, e.g., Council of the EU, 2002, 2007a, 2008, 2009b; European Commission/DG EAC, 2003, 2004). Fostering international dimensions in teacher education and teacher education degree programs (such as intercultural competences, foreign language learning, learning mobility of students and academic staff in teacher education) is in this endeavor seen as a purposeful strategy. When it comes to reforming teacher education degree programs to more encompassingly include international dimensions in a broad sense, we find not only a driver stemming from the important role of internationalization (and mobility) in European-level and national-level higher education policies but also an additional driver stemming from a specific focus in education policies on reforming and improving the relevance and quality of teacher education, of which the inclusion of international dimensions in TE degree programs, as delivered by HEIs across Europe, form part.

#### **2.4.2 International Dimensions in Teacher Education Degree Programs: Professionals, Role Models and Multipliers**

Although policy focus on teacher education and on the role of international dimensions in TE degree programs, both at the European and national level, has increased over the past two decades (as noted, e.g., by Buchberger et al., 2000; see, e.g., European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2015; Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2013), the attention in policies and discourses towards (the need to more strongly include) international dimensions in teacher education is not new (see European Commission, 2006b).

Different aspects and themes promote such discussions about fostering the inclusion of international dimensions in teacher education degree programs across Europe. Discourse as evident in European-level policies can be used to outline some major aspects which testify to the role that societal developments in Europe, such as globalization, European integration and increased migration, have in shaping classroom realities and educational goals for the young generation, and thereby the demands for the education and competences of teachers: In the 1970s, for example, a European directive on the education of migrant workers' children drew attention to issues that became relevant after the increasing influx of migrants into European societies, such as mother tongue teaching, multiculturalism in classrooms, or intercultural education in schools (European Commission, 2006b, pp. 72–73). The promotion of foreign

language learning was on the European agenda as early as in the 1970s. The promotion of learning European languages was fostered and a particular focus in policies discussions and supporting actions was placed on the education of foreign language teachers (European Commission, 2006b, p. 83). In the 1980s “People’s Europe” became an important notion for further developing a European community. Within this framing, the aim to foster the European dimension in education (the concept includes systemic, structural, knowledge-related as well as value and identity-related aspects, see in detail Chapter 2.2.1.1) evolved as an important concept promoted (European Commission, 2006b, p. 84). A *Green Paper on the European Dimension of Education* (European Commission, 1993) mapped possibilities for comprehensive and coherent responses and actions, and sought to stimulate Europe-wide discussion on the topic. The Green Paper placed extensive focus on the school education system and on the role of teachers, stating them to be the “main players in integrating the European dimension into the content and practice of education” (European Commission, 1993, p. 9), including implications for initial teacher education such as the promotion of international networks among TE institutions and the fostering of exchanges between them. Under the perspective of strengthening the European dimension, teacher education degree programs should equip teachers with the competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes) to promote “the European dimension” through their teaching in schools. This is operationalized to require teachers

to learn about the different aspects of Europe today and its construction for tomorrow; to learn to share and pass on the wealth of European cultures; to develop a European perspective alongside national and regional allegiances; to make use of the shared cultural heritage, and existing partnerships and networks as anchor points for establishing a teaching approach with a European dimension; to overcome cultural and linguistic obstacles so as to develop multilingual and multicultural practice. (European Commission, 1993, pp. 9–10)

Furthermore, fostering the mobility of teachers was given specific attention as early as 1976, when the first European action program was launched (European Commission, 2006b). The action program was at that time mainly focused on professional mobility (for in-service teachers while not for pre-service teachers in TE degree programs), and discourses focused on reducing the adverse conditions for teachers for longer-term professional mobility due to the strict national regulations about foreigners accessing the profession. Later, a focus on short-term mobility was added for its diverse range of benefits (e.g., knowledge exchange, enabling

reflected practice and innovation through knowledge of systems, cultures and practices in other education systems, or building language and intercultural competences), not only but specifically also having in mind (future) teachers of foreign languages to profit particularly from first-hand international experiences (European Commission, 2006b, p. 85).

These aspects and developments that frame the existence and prominence of international dimensions in schools and the need to include international dimensions into TE degree programs in ways that enable teachers to deal with these international dimensions of their profession, are also mirrored at the national level of policies and discourses. This can, for example, be seen in the recommendations and decisions issued by the German Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the States (Kultusministerkonferenz, KMK) on European education in schools (Kultusministerkonferenz, 1978/2008), on improving teacher education to better enable teachers to deal with teaching migrants and non-native speakers (Kultusministerkonferenz, 1981), on intercultural education in schools and its relevance in *all* subjects (Kultusministerkonferenz, 1996/2013), on the need to strengthen foreign language learning in schools and implications for teacher education (Kultusministerkonferenz, 2011), or on mobility and international cooperation in education and the specific relevance of international cooperation of school authorities, teacher education institutions and (student) teachers (Kultusministerkonferenz, 2010).

In recent years the discourse on including and promoting international dimensions in teacher education has been strengthened, both in policy-making at the European and national levels (e.g., Council of the EU, 2007a; Council of the EU, 2008; European Commission, 2009; in a national context, e.g., Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2013; Rådet for Internationalisering af Uddannelserne, 2008) and in research (e.g., Buchberger et al., 2000; Götz, Jaritz, & Oser, 2011; Leutwyler & Lottenbach, 2009). One of the factors this can probably be attributed to is the Bologna process that concerned the field of TE degree programs as much as any other discipline or subject area, and which bears strong elements of internationalization (see Chapter 2.2.2.2).

Another factor is that increasingly multicultural societies shape and change classroom realities, thus demanding international competences from teachers probably more than ever before (see, e.g., Cochran-Smith, 2003; Eurydice, 2015; Leutwyler & Lottenbach, 2009; Leutwyler, Steinger, & Sieber, 2009; Vranješević, 2011, pp. 7–20). In Germany, for example,

currently a third of children and youth have a migrant background (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2015). In some metropolitan areas, students with a migration background already constitute half of all pupils under the age of six (Statistische Ämter des Bundes und der Länder, 2013). These numbers are expected to rise substantially over the next decades, not least due to recent immigration waves. Increasingly multicultural societies have impacts upon the educational needs of teachers. This can be seen, for example, in a recent large European study which indicates that 40% of practicing teachers in the OECD express a high need for professional development relating to teaching in multicultural or multilingual settings (Eurydice, 2015, pp. 57–62). Authors of the study also suggest that the need for competence development in this area is highest among countries with high immigration (ibid.). Overall, the need for professional development relating to teaching in multicultural and multilingual settings is among the five most urgent needs teachers have, next to, for example, ICT skills for teaching (ibid.). The fact that the need is similarly high across the whole age spectrum and experience stages of teachers (ibid.) implies that TE degree programs have, in recent years or decades, not been re-shaped to better prepare teachers for (cultural) diversity. This interpretation receives evidence from a survey among Swiss students (Götz et al., 2011): The overwhelming majority of graduates felt that they did not have the opportunity to learn about “how to integrate foreign students” (p. 3); a minority reported to have learned about it only theoretically, and only 2% felt they had developed a portfolio in this respect. The high relevance of educating teachers for (cultural) diversity is also connected to discourses of justice and equal opportunities in education (for a good overview on *The Multiple Meanings of Multicultural Teacher Education* see Cochran-Smith, 2003). This is because there is data showing that “many people with a migrant background internalize a prevailing ‘deficit perspective’. They see their background not as a chance but as a deficiency. Experiences of being disadvantaged and degradation aggravate their motivation, their achievement, and their educational success” (author translation, Mediendienst Integration, n.d., reverting to Appel, 2012). Teacher education programs are therefore called upon to provide students with knowledge, skills and attitudes (such as valuing diversity and intercultural competences, but also subject-related knowledge) to take cultural and linguistic diversity into account in a manner fair and beneficial to all students.

An aspect frequently emphasized by researchers and educators from the field of teacher education in relation to the discourse on why to include international perspectives into TE degree programs is related to enabling teachers’ reflected practice (e.g., Leutwyler

& Lottenbach, 2009; these perspectives are also evident in two recent books which relate to mobility and internationalization in teacher education: Götz et al., 2011; Rabensteiner & Rabensteiner, 2014). Leutwyler sees *normality reflections* as one of the most important teacher-education specific potentials of gaining first-hand experiences abroad (Leutwyler & Lottenbach; Leutwyler et al., 2009). Leutwyler and Lottenbach (2009) summarize (the relatively scarce) prior research evidence regarding profession-specific benefits as follows: “Teaching staff who go into foreign cultural contexts and who become involved in everyday work of schools in these contexts can enhance their professional self-efficacy, and strengthen their interest and patience with pupils from other cultures” (p. 68; author translation). Leutwyler’s own research regarding the profession-specific value of international experiences for future teachers shows that the confrontation with “foreign” school cultures and practices can foster a more differentiated and reflected judgement about students’ own (culture-bound) attitudes and professional practices (Leutwyler & Lottenbach, 2009; Leutwyler et al., 2009). Despite the relevance of encountering new perspectives so as to reflect own ones, the everyday life of teachers does not seem to be coined by such experiences: Studies show that over 70% of practicing (lower secondary) teachers, for example, have never been abroad for professional purposes over the lifetime of their education and career (Eurydice, 2015, pp. 85–90). Even among teachers of foreign languages, this percentage seems to be around almost 40% (ibid.).

Apart from the relatively straightforward aspects of (1) infusing the education of future foreign language teachers with international dimensions (specifically also first-hand immersion experiences in relevant target countries), and (2) to generally provide students with internationally-informed knowledge and knowledge of the latest international standards (e.g., Buchberger et al., 2000), it is often the need for teacher knowledge of global issues and challenges, and their awareness of global interdependencies that is underlined. This is in reference to their envisaged role as “local actors who should be aware of global issues” (Götz et al., 2011, p. 2) who “develop a global perspective in their students” (Jaritz, 2011, p. 7).

Another aspect related to the (increasing) relevance of international competences and experiences among teachers is that highly visible international activities are more and more frequent in schools across Europe: International projects among schools are increasing, as is pupil mobility (Wit, 2015). Denmark, for example, has designed an explicit strategy for the internationalization of schools, aiming that each pupil should have participated in at least one international project in school (Rådet for Internationalisering af Uddannelserne, 2010). There

are also types of internationally-oriented schools organized within international frameworks, and schools which pursue international curricula and/or curricula including components of international education (e.g., schools offering the International Baccalaureate, see in more detail Hornberg, 2010). A facet of international competences implied for teachers in this respect are foreign language skills. They are a basic prerequisite to participation in international activities of European schools. Likewise, European and/or global awareness and knowledge, and intercultural competences would be desirable teacher competences in this respect, enabling teachers to best foster the learning of students within school-based international projects and activities.

Aiming to summarize different aspects of relevant international competences and experiences of (future) teachers, we can differentiate the following: (1) Teachers' competence to teach effectively in multicultural classrooms and deal with cultural and linguistic diversity, including non-native speakers and their implications (heterogeneity); (2) Foreign language competences of teachers, to the highest standards among foreign language teachers (including first-hand experiences in these countries), and as a working language for all teachers in order to be able to engage in international projects or take part in international professional development courses; (3) Teachers' knowledge of other education systems, cultures and practices in order to engage in reflective practice and act as in-school innovators to improve education; (4) Teachers' international orientation and intercultural competence in a wide sense of openness to the world, including willingness and ability to reflect own cultures and interact with others, and knowledge about European and global developments (this aspect could be summarized as global citizenship competences); (5) Teachers as role models and multipliers of such global citizenship competences, in particular also as multipliers for gaining first-hand international experiences through periods abroad.

The five different aspects of international competences and experiences as just differentiated can be related to two dimensions: In the first case, international competences and experiences relate to teachers' professional competences in a more narrow sense: such as when innovative capacity and competences to teaching in heterogeneous and culturally diverse classrooms are addressed. In the second case, international competences and experiences can be seen as relevant in relation to teachers' function as role models and multipliers (which could be seen as a professional competence in a wider sense), for example, as multipliers for mobility or role models of knowledge, skills and attitudes deemed purposeful in globalized, multicultural societies (global citizenship competences).

Two routes to developing such international competences and experiences are implied: the design of study environments and courses as part of the degree program at home, allowing student teachers to build relevant international competences; and the mobility of students as part of their TE degree program in order to gain first-hand international experiences and build competences relevant to their future work.

While there is a high face validity of the relevance of first-hand international experiences for developing international competences, it is nevertheless worthwhile to attend in some detail to the scientific evidence for the benefits and outcomes of temporary study-related mobility.

Effects demonstrated include increases of intercultural sensitivity and intercultural competence (Berg, 2009; Engle & Engle, 2004; Medina-López-Portillo, 2004; Pedersen, 2010; Sutton & Rubin, 2004); improvements of foreign language skills (Berg, 2009; Engle & Engle, 2004; Ryan & Twibell, 2000; Stronkhorst, 2005); increases in functional knowledge needed for efficacy in other cultural environments as well as knowledge of global interdependencies and cultural relativism (Sutton & Rubin, 2004); similarly, Carlson and Widaman (1988) measured increases in higher international political concern, cross-cultural interest and cultural cosmopolitanism, paralleled by the development of more critical attitudes towards the home country; Stronkhorst (2005) found higher self-reported international and intercultural competence, cognitive flexibility, cultural empathy, open-mindedness and cognitive flexibility among those who had participated in study-abroad or internship-abroad programs; furthermore, Behrnd and Porzelt (2012) found that students who had made first-hand international study-related experiences profited more from intercultural training.

The development of intercultural sensitivity/competence has been the interest of several studies. Here, some further results are notable: First, the duration of study-related experiences abroad seems to effect gains in intercultural sensitivity/competence—longer programs tend to have higher effects (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012; Berg, 2009; Medina-López-Portillo, 2004). Second, the experience abroad does not necessarily result in gains of intercultural competence. Increases also seem to be dependent on suitable support before, during, and/or after the study abroad experience (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012; Berg, 2009; Pedersen, 2010). Several authors (Berg, 2009; Engle & Engle, 2004; Pedersen, 2010) have therefore proposed that institutions should not simply send students abroad, but that there

should also be active “intervention” in student learning (Berg, 2009, p. 15) such as in orientation programs, mentoring, intercultural trainings, accompanying courses, the facilitation of cultural immersion in the host country, or briefing and de-briefing sessions.

In the European arena, the benefits of TSM programs have often been studied with a focus on the Erasmus program (for an overview see Teichler, 2007, Chapter 8-11; see also latest Erasmus impact study by CHE Consult, Brussels Education Services, Centrum für Hochschulentwicklung, Compostela Group of Universities, & Erasmus Student Network, 2014). Results of these studies show that students generally evaluate the benefits of TSM very positively. The latest Erasmus impact study showed that mobile students (Erasmus and beyond) had higher initial (pre-departure) scores than non-mobile students on the personality factors confidence, curiosity, decisiveness, serenity, tolerance of ambiguity and vigor, and that in addition mobile students further improved on these factors while abroad (CHE Consult et al., 2014, p. 132). These improvements were found for all types of mobility covered in the study—study-abroad, internships abroad, and participation in so-called Intensive Study Programmes (usually lasting 3-4 weeks). As in other studies (e.g., Ryan & Twibell, 2000; Stronkhorst, 2005), Erasmus evaluation studies found a relatively coherent picture of students rating their stays abroad most valuable in terms of having developed personally, in terms of their cultural knowledge, and in relation to foreign language learning; by comparison, the value in terms of academic matters and professional utilization (as measured, e.g., by career aspects, importance for occupation, importance for income; see (Teichler, 2007, p. 152) is usually rated lower. In addition, regarding academic matters, results of an Erasmus evaluation study showed that students rate content-related academic benefits (experiencing new teaching styles, acquiring new thinking/theories, extended scientific and professional knowledge) higher than more technical aspects such as academic progress during and after TSM (ibid.). Indeed, Maiworm and Teichler (2002b) found that “55 per cent (. . .) rated their academic progress abroad as better than they would have expected it to be during a corresponding period at home” (p. 110) and “only 18% felt that they learned less abroad than at home” (ibid.). From discrepancies between how students assessed their academic progress and how many courses they got accredited at home, the authors conclude that their results suggest “that students see dimensions of academic value which are not appreciated in the assessments by the higher education institutions” (ibid.). In terms of self-assessed progress, Stronkhorst (2005) also found that students who did obligatory internships abroad did not differ from

those who did their obligatory internship in the home country in terms of their professional development.

Overall, therefore, it can be concluded that academic development and professional development occur in both cases—when students stay at home and when they go abroad. In addition, the abroad-experiences seem to equip students with knowledge, skills and attitudes that students find valuable in their life and professional experiences and provide students with opportunities in particular also to develop internationally coined competences. While there are limitations to some studies (e.g., small sample sizes; lack of control group of students who did not participate in TSM abroad; vast majority of studies covering only study-abroad programs), there is thus a body of evidence that positive effects of temporary study-related mobility abroad exist. These relate to all of the five aspects of teacher international competences differentiated above. Thus, TSM can be seen as a purposeful element in building such competences.

Today, we find internationalization and building international competences in TE degree programs featuring relatively prominently in European and also national reform discourses. This can, for example, be seen in the following statement from the German Rectors' conference (HRK) on recommendations to improve TE degree programs:

The job profile for teachers is increasingly characterized through the ability of successfully dealing with heterogeneous and culturally diverse groups of learners. Additionally, the life experience of pupils is increasingly characterized by the dissolution of national references. Teachers can only live up to their role as multipliers if they have personally made the intercultural experiences which are indispensable for this purpose. The Hochschulrektorenkonferenz [higher education institution rectors' conference] therefore suggests that higher education institutions, in the context to their encompassing internationalization strategies, also consistently internationalize the study programs in teacher education. This refers to both the integration of mobility windows in curricula and the promotion of school internships abroad as well as the targeted delivery of intercultural knowledge and skills in terms of an “internationalization at home”. (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2013, p. 6; author translation)

In particular the promotion of the element of TSM in teacher education degree programs has gained increasing prominence in policies, discourses and research over the past decade. Rationales to promote the mobility of future teachers relate to both areas differentiated above—to teachers as professionals who need international competences and experiences, and to teachers as role models and multipliers for mobility among young people.

Both areas have increased in importance over the past decade. The latter aspect—teachers acting as role models and multipliers for mobility—increased in prevalence parallel to the “rise” of fostering the learning mobility of young people in education policies. Learning mobility is not only extensively promoted in higher education but also in primary and secondary as well as vocational education (see, e.g., the so-called Youth on the Move initiative). This is clearly visible in the *Green Paper Promoting the Learning Mobility of Young People* which states

an enthusiastic teacher, trainer or youth worker (. . .), can be an important motivator for young people to undertake a mobility period abroad. Such individuals have the credibility to explain the benefits of and act as an ambassador for youth mobility. (European Commission, 2009, p. 19)

The concern to increase short-term mobility of students in teacher education degree programs has been increasingly evident and prominent in European policies (e.g., Council of the EU, 2007a, 2008, 2009a, 2009b; European Commission/DG EAC, 2003, 2004; European Parliament & Council of the EU, 2006). For example, the current education framework program, ET 2020, states:

As an essential element of lifelong learning and an important means of enhancing people’s employability and adaptability, mobility for learners, teachers and teacher trainers should be gradually expanded with a view of making periods of learning abroad (. . .) the rule rather than the exception. (Council of the EU, 2009a, p. 2)

Calls to increase study-related mobility among teacher education students have also been spurred by research and reports indicating a relatively weak participation rate of the teacher education sector in programs such as Erasmus and lower short-term mobility rates than in other fields (e.g., Zgaga, 2008; see in detail Chapter 2.5.1.2). Today, program priorities, for example within the Lifelong Learning Program 2007-2013 and currently under Erasmus+, reflect increased attention on teacher education, on fostering mobility and

international dimensions in teacher education degree programs as well as European cooperation in the teacher education sector at large (see, e.g., Council of the EU, 2007a; European Commission, 2006b; Holdsworth, 2010). Furthermore, in several European countries a discourse on fostering study-related (short-term) mobility and international experiences among teacher education students in particular has started to gain ground (e.g., Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2013; Rådet for Internationalisering af Uddannelserne, 2008). These discourses to foster international experiences among future teachers have gained prominence at the highest national policy levels, to the extent that in the 2015 Yerevan Communiqué the European Ministers for higher education state that they “wish to promote the mobility of teacher education students in view of the important role they will play in educating future generations of Europeans” (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2015, p. 3).

### **2.4.3 Teacher Education Degree Programs in European Higher Education: Structures, Components and Recent Trends in Developing Teacher Education Degree Programs**

The education of teachers in Europe can be separated into two phases: initial teacher education (pre-service) and continuing (in-service) teacher education (Eurydice, 2013). Teacher education was a field that experienced late “universitization” (sometimes also referred to as academization), that is, a full integration into the higher education sector and delivery of research-based programs by universities and other higher education institutions. Today pre-service teacher education takes place at higher education institutions across the board in Europe (see Gassner, Kerger, & Schratz, 2010, in particular Gassner, 2010 in this volume; Vranješević, 2011, p. 20). Pre-service teacher education degree programs aim to prepare future teachers to take on their roles as teaching staff in schools. As professionally oriented degree programs, they typically include periods of practical training in schools of varying extent (Eurydice, 2013). In addition, in many (an increasing number of) European countries the phase of initial teacher education at higher education institutions is followed by a so-called induction phase for newly graduated and/or newly practicing teachers (ibid.). This phase is distinctly practice-oriented and typically no longer forms part of the education delivered by the HE sector (ibid.). It usually can be conceived to stand between teacher initial education at HEIs and the lifelong learning and continuing education of in-service teachers. In some European countries (for example Germany) the induction phases are part of the initial education of teachers in the sense that teachers cannot obtain a teaching license and school employment without having successfully completed this phase. The subsequent phases of in-

service continuing education (professional development) are non-compulsory in most European countries while they are, however, increasingly often connected to progression along certain career pathways involving leadership positions (ibid.).

Teacher education degree programs across Europe in general bear large similarities as regards the basic degree program conceptualizations and the programs' constituent components (see, e.g., Eurydice, 2013; Tuning Project, 2009), while at the same time there are variations in the precise implementation and focus (Eurydice, 2013, 2015). Teacher education curricula usually consist of a subject-specific component, in which one or more subjects are studied, and a professional component (Eurydice, 2013, 2015; Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009; Gordon et al., 2009). The professional component adds the competences to the subject matter knowledge relevant to teaching specific subjects in schools—studies in educational sciences and pedagogies, subject didactics, and practical experiences in schools. These two components are either delivered in an integrated manner right from the beginning of the first cycle or in a consecutive manner over the different degree cycles (Eurydice, 2013, 2015). The integrated delivery is referred to as the concurrent model. When the professional component is delivered after the subject-related component, for example, in a second-cycle Master's degree program after having completed a subject-matter oriented Bachelor's degree, it is referred to as the consecutive model.

As regards the level and length of education, differences exist depending on whether teachers are educated to teach in primary, lower secondary or upper secondary schools (see (Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009): Upper secondary teachers are (in *all* Member States of the EU) educated at university level and degree programs in most Member States last (at least) for five years. Degree programs for lower secondary teachers and primary school teachers are, on average, of a slightly shorter duration. Lower secondary teachers are in all Member States educated at tertiary-level institutions (comprising also HEIs which do, contrary to universities, not have a teaching/learning *and* research mission), *most often* at university level. In approximately half of all Member States the education extends over five years (slightly less in the other half). Primary school teachers are in *most* countries (the large majority of all EU Member States) educated at university level with a frequent length of degree programs of five years, most frequently four years and seldom less. The differences as concerns the level and length of the education of different types of teachers have decreased in recent years (see Eurydice, 2013, 2015), as part of a move to generally “upgrade” teacher education to become a field regularly educated to the second cycle (graduating at Master's

level after at least five years of education) or, at minimum, within a four-year first-cycle program (ibid.). Recent data (as published in the Eurydice reports) also confirms that academization and universitization, which in many European countries occurred in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (in some countries such as Austria and Switzerland more recently), is largely accomplished. Teacher education in Europe today is fully integrated into the higher education sector. A common model (as well as trend) at European institutions is to have separate faculties or schools of (teacher) education. Along with reforms in teacher education systems over the past decades the research-base in TE degree programs was strengthened. This continues to be a concern in current discourses (European Trade Union Committee for Education, 2009; Gassner et al., 2010).

In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, teacher education has also seen a trend of integration into the Bologna model comprising three cycles (usually referred to as Bachelor's, Master's and PhD degrees) (Gordon et al., 2009). Although such integration into the three-cycle model occurred in the field, assessment studies (Eurydice, 2010; Westerheijden et al., 2008) have also shown that in professional fields (such as teacher education, medicine, law, music and fine arts) the reform process took place at a slower pace than in other fields. Positive developments were noted, despite a slower pace: Assessments revealed a trend towards more consolidated and broader programs in teacher education (Gordon et al., 2009, pp. 149–150)—formerly separate, diversified or fragmented teaching diplomas and curricula (e.g., subject-specific, school-type specific) were increasingly integrated into more inclusive programs which allow for different specializations. Another development that program assessments have revealed concerns teacher competencies themselves (Gordon et al., 2009): Subject-specific and pedagogic competencies continue to be at the core of teacher skills, but recently, in view of broadened teacher portfolios in schools (as resulting, e.g., from the whole-school approach or inclusive approaches) and changing environments (as resulting, e.g., from IT developments, globalization or migration), a range of additional competencies have been “added”, such as team working skills, working with diverse and heterogeneous learners and classrooms, skills to engage with the world of work, innovation skills, or reflective practice.

The diversity of teacher education models is sometimes referred to as a limiting factor for the Europeanization and internationalization of teacher education degree programs (e.g., Gassner, 2010). As shown, such diversity exists, but at the same time large similarities in basic components and structures exist as well. It has therefore also been noted that, in the teacher education sector, there are probably more similarities and commonalities in degree

programs across Europe than one would expect and that “this makes the possibility of cross-European modules or courses feasible, and this is a trend that is beginning to be seen” (Tuning Project, 2009, p. 71). Furthermore, we currently find trends (three-cycle structure; learning outcome specifications; consolidated, broader programs) that further increase the similarities between TE degree programs across Europe. This can be judged as a development generally supportive to the implementation of international cooperation, exchanges or mobility programs. Thus, structural diversity is a certain reality (as in other subject areas) while it does not necessarily have to be seen as a hindering factor to internationalization and to fostering study-related learning experiences abroad per se.

A further characterizing feature of teacher education curricula and degree programs is that in most EU countries they are regulated to some—albeit differing—extent by the state and its responsible educational authorities (Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009; Gordon et al., 2009). With respect to regulation, a tendency to move away from highly concrete curricular specifications towards broader and outcome-based definitions (e.g., in competence profiles or standards to be achieved) has been noted (Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009; Gordon et al., 2009; Tuning Project, 2009). Nevertheless, state-governed regulation concerning the curricula or competence and learning outcomes of degree programs are a feature distinguishing the field of teacher education from most other areas and disciplines in which HEIs offer degree programs. Regulation itself is often connoted negatively, implying restrictions. However, without yet having assessed further data, the implications of regulation (for example for including international dimensions in TE degree programs and for fostering TSM) should not be assumed as negative per se. After all, regulation provides means to deliberately promote specific competences and learning outcomes so that the positive or negative effect of regulation concerning specific aspects depends on whether and to which extent these are included in the concerning regulations. Something that can be problematic, however, is when specifications reach a level of density or detail limiting flexibility at the institutional level in delivering and continuously adapting teacher education degree programs (e.g., in response to demands to include study-related mobility).

#### **2.4.4 Internationalization in Teacher Education Degree Programs: Assessment of Practices**

As performed for the HE sector in general above (Chapter 2.3.2), this chapter will turn to an assessment of (institutional) practices with respect to internationalization in TE degree programs, and the inclusion and fostering of (temporary study-related) mobility in these. As already mentioned, while the element of TSM is also looked upon, its state of diffusion in TE degree programs across Europe will be assessed in required detail separately (Chapter 2.5.1.2). Assessing the state of practices relating to internationalization and mobility in TE degree programs is, however, a highly challenging task due to the lack of research and data. As already indicated in the introduction, this is indeed one of the factors to define the scope and focus of the two investigations strands in this study.

A study that assessed the extent and impact of Bologna-related curricular reforms in Europe (Westerheijden et al., 2008) can be used to shed some light on overall practices. It looked at five subject areas that were deemed “so far underresearched” (p. 9). These were: medicine, law, engineering, teacher training, and history. Key dimensions the study looked at were the implementation of a two-cycle degree structure, competence-based learning, flexible learning paths, mobility and recognition. Respondents to a questionnaire survey were deans or directors of study (in total 481, for the subject area teacher training 106). The study concluded that teacher education has a strong national framing. This is depicted as a limiting factor for Europeanization and internationalization. The national framing is derived from the observation that the state has a more active role in determining structures and contents of TE degree programs than in other fields, and from the fact that TE degree programs cater mainly for national labor markets in which the state is the main employer. However, as already deliberated upon previously, such explanations appear somewhat too immediate and lack the power and detail to more deeply understand possible difficulties in internationalizing TE degree programs stemming from teacher education being a regulated field.

The study also noted high complexities (judged as higher than in other subject areas such as medicine or law) involved in curricular reform (different institutional providers for different school types with different models and structures for curricula and combination of components) and assessed curricular reform to be (at that time) at an early stage, if happening at all (Westerheijden et al., 2008, pp. 40–41). Regarding curricular reform according to European-level references as defined in the Bologna process (such as two-cycle degree structure, use of ECTS, fostering of mobility), teacher education can be classified as a field

with a slow pace of reform and a slow diffusion of elements of the Bologna-model in comparison to other subject areas. In addition, the authors of the report concluded that the two-cycle structure was not unequivocally welcome in the field itself (Westerheijden et al., 2008). Similarly, Gassner (2010) noted that not all countries were “willing to change their national systems in a way that would align them to European structures” (p. 17); he criticizes a lack of transfer of agreed policies and reform agendas to the national level and called for a “new quality of trust” (p. 16) needed in Europe to promote internationalization, short-term, and long-term professional mobility.

Regarding the diffusion of the element of temporary study-related mobility in TE degree programs, the Bologna process assessment study mentions that in several country case studies a relatively low level of TSM among students in the field of teacher education was reported (Westerheijden et al., 2008, p. 41). Furthermore, the study concludes that international cooperation at the European level in general was forming but institutionalized at a very low level (“at an embryo state of development”, p. 40). Contrary to other subject areas, in the field of teacher education no European-level representative body, forum or association acted as the “mouthpiece” of the field and did so with a (formal or informal) mandate. The most extensive forum supporting cooperation regarding curricular adaptations and reforms related to the Bologna process, as identified by the authors, was the Tuning project mentioned above. The field of teacher education thus displays a weak international “networkedness”, that is, a weak institutionalization of international networks of the field. Since networks foster communication, collaboration and exchange (see diffusion theory, Rogers, 2003), this can be seen as a factor slowing down the take-up of reforms, trends and innovations in the field. At the same time (as also noted by Westerheijden et al., 2008), we do find a trend of strengthened international cooperation and networking in the field of teacher education. This is also evident in the formation of institutional networks in the field of education and teacher education, which give singular institutions opportunities to access pooled resources and increase their reputation through membership in international networks (thus mirroring developments in the HE sector at large, see Chapter 2.3.2.1): For example, in 2007, the International Network of Education Institutions was founded (then using the name International Alliance of Leading Education Institutes). It links ten higher education institutions with a high reputation in educational research and also puts particular emphasis on teacher education. Its aims are to intensify cooperation between education institutes as well as to act as a think tank and common voice vis-à-vis policy.

Although recent Europeanization in education policies and the internationalization of higher education have brought the situation in teacher education—a slow pace of Bologna-related reforms, low mobility rates, weak international networkedness—increasingly to the attention of researchers and practitioners alike, calls to increase international dimensions and study-related mobility in TE degree programs are not new: Already in 1995, the Sigma project (Sigma Project, 1995) had assessed the "European dimension" as insufficiently implemented in teacher education degree programs, and noted relatively low participation rates in European programs, thus suggesting the following concrete strategies:

- The removal of barriers to student mobility in order to foster student mobility;
- the introduction and use of ECTS to facilitate student mobility and recognition;
- the definition of core curricular issues in TE building on a large similarity of basic building blocks of curricula;
- to develop new forms of student mobility such as teaching practice and other school-based experiences abroad;
- to enhance the role of research in teacher education in the context of European cooperation (research on teacher education as well as the internationalization of research at large in teacher education).

An interesting aspect in these propositions is that already in the mid-1990s, when TE degree programs were still structurally more diverse and therefore probably less compatible than today (see Chapter 2.4.3), the large similarity of the basic building blocks of teacher education curricula (subject-related study, subject didactics, educational sciences and pedagogy, practice-oriented components) is noted, and indeed seen as the common grounds upon which international cooperation in teacher education could be based upon (a view that is also taken in the Tuning project, see Tuning Project, 2009). This underlines that despite structural differences and aspects commonly subsumed as national framing, teacher education builds upon knowledge and competences which are, even if not as uniform and global as mathematics, nevertheless highly comparable across Europe. Therefore, in relation to content, TE does not need to be described as a field of "intra-national particularity" (as referred to by Kerr, 1990).

A further notable aspect of the propositions made in the Sigma project that evaluated Erasmus implementation and internationalization in different subject areas is the regard of the

professional orientation and strong practice-based components in TE degree programs in terms of their implications for the forms of international experiences relevant to students (e.g., the suggestions to develop new forms of student mobility such as teaching practice and other school-based experiences abroad). Although it is mainly *institutions* called upon to develop such offers, for *students* it may be problematic to take up such new program forms, since (as shown in Chapter 2.2 and 2.3) practice-based forms of mobility are less strongly institutionalized in policies and programs than the classical form of academic study abroad.

Teacher education, as a regulated field of study, is a field where regulations constitute drive for reform, and are definitional to the scope and focus of degree programs as delivered by higher education institutions. As such, weak or strong “demands” (as created through regulating specifications) for fostering international dimensions and TSM in TE degree programs can act (next to other factors) as accelerating or limiting the diffusion of such elements. It is therefore worthwhile to try and assess the role of regulations in this respect (despite all scarcity of data availability).

Specifications at the regulative level (relating to or implying the promotion of international experiences and competences in TE degree programs) were examined in a study which assessed the extent to which eight different teacher competencies commonly used in the 21<sup>st</sup> century to describe the profession are actually represented in teacher education curricula in Europe (Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009). *Mobility* was one of these eight cluster competences<sup>18</sup> assessed. Specifications in regulations such as supporting students’ and teachers’ European and international contacts, encouraging student exchange, learning and using European languages, or learning and understanding different (European) cultures were seen as indicative of the competence area mobility. In view of this broad conceptualization, the cluster competence should probably have more accurately been labeled *international experiences and competences* instead of *mobility*.

The study examined at which regulative level the eight competence clusters were taken into consideration in educational planning. The levels differentiated were: (1) law/ministerial order, (2) national (or regional) ministerial recommendations, (3) teacher education institutions’ collective decision or (4) teacher education institution. The study found that the cluster competences *subject competence*, *pedagogic competence*, *quality assurance* as

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<sup>18</sup> The other competence clusters were: subject competence, pedagogical competence, integrating theory and practice, continuing and lifelong learning, quality assurance, cooperation and collaboration, and leadership.

well as *continuing and lifelong learning* were most often determined at the highest level and thus by laws/binding regulations (Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009, pp. 65–66). By contrast, the cluster competence Mobility was only included in the highest-level regulations in 20% of the EU Member States (*ibid.*). Further 30% of the EU countries had a national/ministerial recommendation on teacher education taking the competence Mobility into account (approx. further 10% at the regional level); in 30% Mobility was referred to only at the level of individual institutions. In almost half of all EU countries thus neither national binding laws/regulations nor high-level recommendations (national or regional) existed which distinctly regarded, implied or demanded the inclusion of the international experiences and competences (as subsumed in the cluster competence Mobility in this study). Concluding, in comparison to the prominence in European and national discourses and European-level policies (see Chapter 2.4.2), the national-level operationalization of the relevance of international competences and experiences among future teachers into governance mechanisms in teacher education appears (yet) to be relatively weak. Although no further studies could be found to substantiate the extent or lack of representation of international dimensions in the governance systems relevant specifically to TE degree programs, it is implied by the results of this study that, to a large extent, it is at the discretion and within the responsibility of institutions to foster international dimensions and TSM in TE degree programs; and that this can be achieved with the support of European-level and other support programs, in a climate generally positive to the diffusion of international dimensions in higher education, but within national regulative environments for TE degree programs in which these elements are not explicitly fostered.

The study already referred to (Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009) also allows interesting insights (although no strongly reliable results) on the relevance associated to international experiences and competences among practitioners within the field of teacher education (respondents to the surveys were “teacher education experts” in different countries): 26% of the respondents considered the cluster competence Mobility to be very important for pre-service teachers; 68% considered it to be important but not decisive (Finnish Institute for Educational Research, 2009, p. 70). Compared to other cluster competences it thus seems that international experiences and competences are currently—within the field—not viewed to be amongst the most important ones to be included in teacher education curricula. At the same time, interview and case study data evaluated in the study led the authors to conclude that the competence area Mobility was also gradually being given more and more attention and gained

relevance in the field (ibid.). Nevertheless, the results indicate that international experiences and competences are often seen as “important but not decisive” by academics and practitioners in teacher education, making the inclusion of international dimensions in TE degree programs probably remain an innovation deemed “interesting”, but of which the concrete needs, advantages and profitabilities are not (yet) clearly composed in the field.

Although no detailed and reliable studies on curricular representations of international dimensions in European teacher education curricula can be found, it can be hypothesized on the basis of research reviewed thus far that curricular representations are probably relatively weak. Although not representative and anecdotal in character, some pointers for such weak curricular representations of international dimensions in TE can be drawn from a study conducted in the Swiss context: Dealing with culturally diverse student groups is a teacher competence the building of which would imply both content-related curricular internationalization and the relevance of students’ first-hand international experiences (e.g., through mobility options); however, Götz et al. (2011) report that the overwhelming majority of a sample of teacher graduates stated that they had never had the opportunity to learn about “how to integrate foreign students” (p. 3). Considering that 40% of practicing teachers in the OECD countries state a need for professional development relating to teaching in multicultural or multilingual settings (Eurydice, 2013), it seems that there is a gap between the factual relevance of international experiences and competences for teachers’ day-to-day work and the extent to which such experiences and competences are currently fostered in initial TE degree programs.

When assessing institutional practices regarding internationalization in the HE sector at large (Chapter 2.3.2), a study on the impact of the Erasmus program on the quality, openness and internationalization in higher education was employed (Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010). This study also allows some rough assessments of extent and scope of internationalization in TE degree programs (strictly speaking of the subject area education *and* teacher education; however, teacher education makes up the vast majority of students in this field; see in detail Chapter 2.5.1.2). Assessments below are based on descriptive statistics only (as published in Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010) which, of course, limits (comparative) interpretation. Interpretations as outlined on the basis of this study should therefore be read as tendencies.

Assessing overall progress regarding the implementation of a range of elements of internationalization and the impact of the Erasmus program, it can be noted that the subject area *Education/teacher education* is not an *eye-catching* outlier (Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010, p. 45): Results for the subject area are generally close to total averages across *all* subject areas (which is, for example, in contrast to other subject areas such as *Economics/management* and *Languages/philological sciences* which *do* appear as eye-catching outliers, in terms of above-average progress and impact). Another observation that can be made is that for the element of short-term mobility (study-, teaching- and research-related), more progress and impact is seen in the field than for elements regarding curricular internationalization, in particular for content-related curricular internationalization (Bürger & Lanzendorf, 2010). This is not something specific to the subject area but in line with observations made for the HE sector in general (Chapter 2.3.2), underlining the factual prioritization of the element of temporary mobility both in the HE sector in general and also in TE degree programs. A detailed comparison of Education/teacher education averages to averages across all subject areas furthermore allows to observe that, in the subject area Education/teacher education, progress in curricular internationalization and the impact of the Erasmus program on curricular internationalization is relatively consistent below the averages across all subject areas, while this is not the case for other elements of internationalization such as mobility-related elements and elements related to the internationalization of research. Summarizing, while Education/teacher education is not an eye-catching outlier, there are indications that elements of curricular internationalization (such as the setting-up of joint/double degree programs, the general internationalization of teaching and learning, the introduction of compulsory foreign language requirements in degree programs, the internationalization of curricular content, the setting-up of English/foreign-language programs) have experienced a comparatively weaker diffusion in the subject area Education/teacher education—as compared to the averaged development across all subject areas and to mobility-related elements.

Further to these indications of a relatively weak stance of curricular internationalization in TE degree programs, some data pointing into the same direction can be drawn from European databases listing joint/double degree programs and curricular internationalization projects. In the area of joint/double degree programs, an element that has seen substantial proliferation in the past 10-15 years at European universities and which is, for example, supported in the Erasmus+ program (previously in Erasmus Mundus), teacher education is a virtually non-existing area (see compendia published by Education,

Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2014b). There is also evidence of efforts to establish joint degree awards for the field of teacher education which were not crowned by success (Valenčič Zuljan & Vogrinc, 2011, pp. 19–20). The development of joint curricular modules (not leading to a full degree award) appears to be somewhat more successful, so that a range of these exist across Europe: For example, the Erasmus compendia (Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, 2014b) on funded measures of 2007-2010 list four projects relating to teacher education which are all curriculum development projects aiming to establish joint courses, modules or commonly developed curricula (without awarding a joint or double degree). Overall, however, in comparison to other fields, joint curricula and modules still seem to be of countable magnitude while joint or double degree programs can hardly be found across Europe. This conclusion is in line with the observations of the Tuning project which concluded that “cross-European modules or courses [are] feasible, and this is a trend that is beginning to be seen” (Tuning Project, 2009, p. 71).

#### **2.4.5 Summary Observations: Teacher Education and the Role of Internationalization and TSM in the Field**

At the policy level we find a high and renewed attention to reforming teacher education and to promoting the quality of teacher education—to the extent that the role of the teaching profession makes appearance in the most aggregate European social and economic policies. This is due to the core role teachers have in our societies in building desired competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes) among the young generations. Although international cooperation in school education and among teacher education institutions has been promoted for longer, specifically at the European level (in the 20<sup>th</sup> century also particularly within the purposes of European integration), international experiences and competences of teachers and the role of (short-term) mobility in building relevant international competences are, in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, appearing in outlines of teacher profiles and needed/desired teacher competences with increasing frequency. The (desired) promotion of international experiences and competences among (future) teachers is framed by two perspectives: First, teachers are addressed in their function as role models and multipliers. In this function they should possess the knowledge, skills and attitudes desired to be represented in our societies. As part of the rise of the promotion of learning mobility among young people teachers are, within this function, most recently also more and more addressed as multipliers of learning mobility. Second, teachers are addressed in relation to their (other) professional tasks, in which international experiences and competences are seen as (increasingly) relevant,

such as the competence to teach in culturally diverse settings or to act as innovators within their own contexts.

When analyzing policy and governance constellations of TE degree programs, it is notable that teacher education is a double-targeted and double-anchored field. It is anchored in the school education sector, influenced by this sector's policies, and, as a regulated field, by regulations pertaining to the initial and continuing education of teachers. In addition, teacher education degree programs at HEIs are set within general HE policies. Here, the increased focus on internationalization in HE and Europeanization processes in HE policies (in particular the Bologna process) have drawn attention to internationalization in teacher education degree programs and possible difficulties of internationalizing teacher education. Calls to increase internationalization and student mobility in TE degree programs have been increasingly voiced over the past decade. Apart from the overall relevance of international experiences and competences among future teachers we find that these calls are probably justified also in view of the (limited scope and extent of) practices of internationalization within TE degree programs. Regarding (short-term) mobility, we find a high relevance and dominance of this element of internationalization in teacher education degree programs (as in the HE sector in general). Although it is the most dominant element, its prevalence (including its representation in regulations) seems to be limited, more so than in other fields (see in more detail Chapter 2.5.1.2).

Clearly, teacher education is a sector in higher education displaying several specific and characteristic features. It is a double-anchored field, a regulated field, a field that experienced late universitization, and a professionally oriented field with degrees typically involving compulsory academic as well as practice-oriented components of study. There is also considerable structural diversity in TE degree programs delivered although convergent trends are found, next to common building blocks of TE degree programs that underpin or “transcend” any structural differences. Overall, however, as a sector of specific setting and coining it seems particularly relevant to look in detail to the pathways of internationalization that appear purposeful, compatible and profitable to the field and how the field (can) relate(s) to the developments of internationalization in higher education in general.

#### **2.4.6 Combining Review and Reflections on Theory and Research to Derive Thematic Foci and Assumptions in Investigation Strand 1**

An aim of this study is to eventually derive conclusions and recommendations (on relevant program and organization strategies, in particular at the institutional-level scope of action) on ways to foster TSM in teacher education (cf. concluding question in Chapter 1.4). As described, this requires understanding the obstacles at work in the field of teacher education that apparently limit a broader diffusion of internationalization and of TSM as one of its most important elements. As also described, such understanding can be obtained from a systematic description and comparative analysis using relevant dimensions as implied by theory and empirical research on HE internationalization, and by designing an investigation that allows for a contextualized and multilevel perspective on TSM and internationalization in teacher education. Accordingly, the first research question (pursued within Investigation Strand 1) was phrased as follows: Which are the rationales, expected benefits and (major) elements of internationalization (internationalization models) in teacher education? Which distinct features, drivers or difficulties become visible in a multilevel (policies, institutions, students in TE) and contextualized (in view of 21st century HE policies) comparative perspective?

As a next step, understanding the obstacles at work in the field of teacher education for a broader diffusion of internationalization and TSM requires determining the (theory-based and empirically grounded) dimensions, based upon which the distinct features, drivers and difficulties can be observed; and to define distinct areas of inquiry by developing assumptions on possible obstacles. For this purpose, literature, empirical research and theory on internationalization in higher education and teacher education have been reviewed in the previous chapters. The following sections will condense theoretical models, concepts, and empirical observations into a set of assumptions and inquiry frames that guide Investigation Strand 1. Assumptions in the context of Investigation Strand 1 should not be understood as hypotheses to which a yes/no answer shall be provided. Rather, they should be understood as research- and theory-informed deliberations on possible barriers to a broader diffusion of internationalization (and TSM) in the field of teacher education.

Diffusion theory (Rogers, 2003; see Chapter 1.4) provides a relevant theoretical perspective in Investigation Strand 1. Using diffusion theory, internationalization is conceptualized as an innovation—a concrete idea and practice not yet adopted by the majority in the field and which thus could or is proposed to reach more extensive diffusion. Identifying

obstacles to a broader representation of internationalization in teacher education degree programs (and eventually the more extensive take-up of TSM among teacher education students) in this sense is an identification of diffusion barriers. The (perceived) lack of profitability and compatibility are important dimensions in this respect.

To make the innovation internationalization “researchable”, the concrete idea or practice needs to be described. As established in Chapter 1.3, this will be achieved through the use of concepts (reverting mainly to conceptualization of Knight, 2004 and Wit, 2002) that refer to both the why/what-for dimension as well as the how/what dimension: the underlying rationales for and the benefits expected from internationalization (and TSM), and the concrete elements of internationalization (program and organization strategies) will be used as conceptual frameworks to reveal what is in this thesis referred to as internationalization models (for details see Chapter 3).

Literature reviews on internationalization in HE and the role of TSM in Europe have clearly shown (see chapters 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3) that internationalization is not a static but a changing concept, displaying a certain zeitgeist. It is therefore of importance to describe in detail the current 21<sup>st</sup> century model “governing” internationalization in higher education. It has also been observed that certain elements of internationalization are prioritized at certain times and by specific actors or fields; and reflected that current dominant discourses on internationalization and related demands are potentially not neutral to specific types of HEIs or different subject areas in higher education. Literature reviews and assessments in Chapter 2.4 have identified the field of teacher education as displaying several specific characteristics (e.g., strong practice orientation, professional framing, comparatively high degree of regulation, traditionally national rather than international frames of reference). It is therefore expected that—in most general terms—internationalization models in teacher education might differ substantially from the models governing teacher education internationalization as part of the positioning of teacher education within the higher education sector at large. On another note (Chapter 2.3.3), it has furthermore been concluded that the extent and scope (including the rationales and benefits seen) of internationalization (as proposed) at the policy level are not necessarily mirrored to the same extent when actual practices at the institutional level are assessed. The assumption in Investigation Strand 1 therefore is that the comparison of the concrete idea and practice—internationalization—at different levels and in different contexts will indeed reveal *different* internationalization models (different trajectories described by the internationalization models) and that mismatches between different models might act as

diffusion barriers. In particular, it is assumed to find differences between HE-general and TE-specific internationalization models and that mismatches between the dominant rationales, expected benefits and supported elements of internationalization provide diffusion barriers, in terms of the HE model not being fully compatible with the TE model. In addition, it is assumed that a comparison of European policy-level internationalization models in TE with internationalization models at the institutional and individual (student) level might also reveal diffusion barriers, in terms of differences in the rationales supported and benefits expected from internationalization (and TSM), and the concrete forms of internationalization (elements) pursued. This assumption can be summarized as a non-diffusion status of policy-level internationalization models. As the single most important element of internationalization in the European context (see Chapter 2.2.4 and 2.3.3), a particular analytic focus is placed upon the element of student mobility (TSM): Clearly, weak rationales to support TSM among academic staff and/or students would act as a fundamental diffusion barrier; the assumption of lacking benefits of TSM seen among academic staff and/or students will therefore be followed up upon in the description and comparison of internationalization models across the different levels. While assumed mismatches between internationalization models act as barriers to diffusion, overlaps between models can create specific drive for the diffusion (of specific purposes or elements of internationalization). Overlaps between different models will therefore also be followed up upon in the analysis. The description of internationalization models for the HE sector in general and for the TE sector, and among policy, institutions and students in TE overall serves the revelation of specific characteristics and trajectories of internationalization models in different contexts and at different levels. It is in this sense not only foreground of the analysis but as well serves as background information to further research and results as well.

Next to defining the internationalization models and their components (rationales, expected benefits, elements in the form of concrete program and organization strategies) as major comparative areas of inquiry, the reviews conducted in the previous chapters serve to define further assumptions and areas of inquiry on possible barriers to a broader diffusion of internationalization and TSM in TE degree programs. Management models and concepts of internationalization (specifically the internationalization circle) provide a particularly helpful framework to derive assumptions on possible diffusion barriers and to define areas of inquiry. Table 6 summarizes all areas of inquiry and assumptions in Investigation Strand 1.

One area of inquiry relates to three systemic issues of potential relevance (see chapters 2.4.1 to 2.4.4): current reform competition in teacher education, structural barriers limiting profitability and compatibility, and a potential dilemma of (high potential but low factual) profitability and compatibility due to a non-international culture in TE. A second area relates to staff “readiness” and the unaccomplishment of certain stages of the internationalization circle as potential diffusion barriers (see Chapter 2.1). A third area relates to the role of learning environments with respect to bearing international dimensions and/or fostering TSM among students (see Chapter 2.1). These areas of inquiry in Investigation Strand 1, pursued in addition to the comparative analysis of internationalization models, will be outlined in detail below.

**Table 6:** Framework of Assumptions and Areas of Inquiry in Investigation Strand 1

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**Rationales for internationalization, benefits expected from TSM and elements of internationalization: mismatches (and overlaps) between internationalization models in different contexts and at different levels**

- Differences (and similarities) of internationalization models (rationales and elements) in higher education and TE sector and identification of specific characteristics of TE internationalization model
- Mismatches of internationalization models at different levels
  - Policy-level teacher education model unsupported/mismatched at the implementation level (among institutions, students) = non-diffusion status of policy-level model
  - Regarding element TSM and benefits expected thereof: lack of supporting convictions among staff and/or students as possible diffusion barrier

**Specific diffusion barriers assessed**

- Systemic issues
  - Dilemma of profitability and compatibility due to non-international culture
  - Structural barriers limiting factual profitability and compatibility of elements
  - Reform competition at the expense of internationalization
- Institutional-level diffusion barriers: staff readiness and organization strategies
  - Weak “readiness” of academic staff in TE for internationalization
  - Fundamental internationalization circle stages not accomplished : lack of awareness and commitment (stage 1-2 in internationalization circle )
  - Internationalization circle stages unaccomplished: Lack of relevant organization strategies to produce integration effect (all stages internationalization circle)
- Institutional-level diffusion barriers: study environments supporting students’ international orientation
  - Institutional environment and lecturers in TE not experienced as drivers to developing interest in TSM (lack of inspiring and motivating study environment)
  - Weak international dimensions in TE students’ study environments, possibly in particular among FL students (lack of inspiring and motivating study environment)

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*Note.* FL = foreign languages; TE = teacher education; TSM = temporary study-related mobility.

As shown above (see chapters 2.4.1 to 2.4.4), the history of teacher education is not a history of internationalization, Europeanization or globalization. What is commonly described as a certain national framing may have resulted in a non-international culture, leading to a certain incompatibility of internationalization. An overall assumption is therefore that a certain dilemma of profitability and compatibility might exist in teacher education: While we find a high *potential* or *theoretic* purposefulness of internationalization and TSM in the field of teacher education (see Chapter 2.4.2 on desired teacher profiles that include international experiences and competences), a somewhat non-international culture and a currently low institutionalization of international dimensions (to which the research-based assessments in previous chapters provided indications) may indeed limit the *factual* profitability and compatibility of internationalization in TE degree programs.

Chapter 2.4.3 also identified teacher education as a field with distinct structural features so that a further assumption relates to structural barriers potentially limiting the factual profitability and compatibility of elements of internationalization. An issue possibly relevant in this respect is a diversity of TE models across Europe which, despite common building blocks, could be a hindering characteristic. Furthermore, a dense regulation characterizes TE in comparison to most other fields of study in higher education. The density of regulation might limit factual profitability and compatibility (in terms of limited implementation opportunities) of elements of internationalization in the field. In addition, the literature review has furthermore provided pointers to a limited regard of international dimensions in TE degree programs at the (national) regulative levels. This lack of regard could be a lacking lever to a broader diffusion in the field as well.

It was furthermore observed in Chapter 2.4.1 that policy focus on teacher education and on improving the quality of TE degree programs has been substantial in recent decades. While internationalization today is a major concern and important topic in both higher education and teacher education, the renewed focus on reforming teacher education may have also created a competitive situation with respect to reforms needed in the field, whereby internationalization may in such cases be a “loosing” topic. Reform competition at the expense of internationalization is therefore an issue inquired upon.

In Chapter 2.1, on managing and organizing internationalization and TSM in ways to support diffusion and integration effects of international activities at institutions in their core functions teaching/learning and research, the need to implement adequate organization

strategies has been stressed, together with the vital role academic staff have to play with respect to effectively fostering any element of internationalization at institutions and in TE degree programs.

If internationalization is a culture change in the field of teacher education (cf. non-international coining, late universitization and formerly weaker research focus in TE), it might well be the case that academic staff themselves may not be adequately prepared to support building international study environments for students and foster TSM among students, not only in view of their attitude towards the role and relevance of internationalization (e.g., support for specific rationales, expectation of certain benefits) but also in terms of their own resources. Next to staff awareness and their convictions about internationalization and TSM, staff readiness is therefore an area of inquiry, following up on issues such as foreign language skills of academic staff, the international coining of their own work, and their contacts through international research and projects.

Strategically managing internationalization and designing adequate organization strategies (cf. management models and concepts of internationalization in Chapter 2.1.2) to support the involvement of academic staff, and to support the effective diffusion of desired elements of internationalization with an institution have been identified to be of key importance. If organization strategies to support the diffusion of internationalization (or the specific element of TSM) are inexistent or inadequate, internationalization in degree programs can remain incompatible and unprofitable. As a result, diffusion of internationalization within an organization will be limited. A lack of supportive organization strategies (strategic management, staff involvement, staff support) at the institutional level is therefore defined as a possible diffusion barrier and an area of inquiry.

Leadership and academic staff have, as mentioned, a vital role to play in fostering internationalization in HE degree programs. Academic staff plays a particularly important role in their capacity of enacting internationalization through the curriculum, in fostering international orientations among students, and in creating learning environments that bear international dimensions. If students do not encounter the institutional environment at large, their lecturers and courses, and their day-to-day study environments as supportive with respect to gaining international experiences and building international competences, this lacking lever can be expected to act as a diffusion barrier for students gaining international experiences and international competences. The role of students' study environments (in

terms of their strength of bearing international dimensions and being experienced as a driver by students) are therefore included in Investigation Strand 1 as an area of inquiry.

The contextualized, multilevel comparative approach pursued in Investigation Strand 1 (for the methodological approach see Chapter 3) will, on the basis of the assumptions and areas of inquiry derived from research and theory reviewed, provide the data and results for answering the first research question on internationalization models in teacher education and the distinct features, drivers or difficulties when it comes to internationalizing and fostering mobility in teacher education degree programs.

## **2.5 Theoretical and Empirical Perspectives on Temporary Study-Related Mobility**

This chapter treats in detail an important element of internationalization as regards both European traditions and the focus of this thesis—temporary study-related mobility.

First, in Chapter 2.5.1, the scope and extent of TSM in European higher education and teacher education is assessed, specifically evaluating the justification of deficit-based calls to increase TSM levels in the field of teacher education, as well as the role of different program forms of TSM in the field. Subsequently, Chapter 2.5.2 reviews previous research approaches and research results on the factors influencing student mobility in higher education, including obstacles. This entails a critical review of previous research as well as a look to recent developments in TSM research. In Chapter 2.5.3 a theoretical perspective on conceptualizing TSM participation and researching obstacles to TSM is introduced aiming to provide guidance to the research to be conducted in Investigation Strand 2 in this thesis. This is followed (Chapter 2.5.4) by a summary of the knowledge gained in the chapters just described.

Subsequently, in Chapter 2.5.5, summary observations and reflections are integrated and theoretical and empirical perspectives combined, so as to arrive at the detailed research framework (lines of inquiry, hypotheses) for Investigation Strand 2 which focuses on the revelation of obstacles to TSM in teacher education degree programs.

### **2.5.1 Assessing the Extent of TSM in European Higher Education and Teacher Education and the Role of Different Program Forms of TSM**

Calls to foster stronger international dimensions in TE degree programs, and in particular calls to foster TSM among students in TE degree programs, revert to different anchors (see Chapter 2.4.2): for example, increasing multiculturalism in classrooms, teachers as role models and multipliers of learning mobility, low current levels of TSM among teacher education students, or a weak institutionalization of international dimensions in the field. Two different argumentations can thus be made out: relevance-based calls for internationalization and TSM, and deficit-based calls for internationalization and TSM. Deficit-based calls revert in particular to (comparatively) low levels of TSM among teacher education students.

Mobility researchers have moaned the unsatisfactory data base in Europe regarding study-related mobility and in particular regarding temporary study-related mobility (Kelo,

Teichler, & Wächter, 2006; Teichler & Ferencz, 2011). Generally, this makes it arguably difficult to follow up upon targets such as the 20% mobility benchmark defined in the course of the Bologna process (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009) as well as in ET 2020 (European Commission/DG EAC, 2014a). And, specific to the purposes of this thesis, the weak data base demands a review and critical evaluation of available data, and thus of the grounds on which deficit-based calls for increasing TSM are made. Before turning to a review and evaluation of data currently available to assess TSM levels in the field of teacher education, the following chapter will briefly review data sources in general.

#### 2.5.1.1 From European Benchmarks to Assessing TSM Levels

Temporary study-related mobility needs to be differentiated from degree mobility and can be realized in different forms (see Chapter 1.3.4), such as temporary enrollment abroad for a trimester, semester or year (usually referred to as study abroad), in the form of study-related practical experiences abroad, or through shorter forms of study-related experiences abroad such as faculty-led excursions or study visits. TSM can also be realized in many different constellations: for example, it can be realized within a support and grant scheme such as Erasmus; it can be realized as an embedded component of the curriculum or as a formally independent element in addition to the home curriculum; it can be self-organized or organized by the institution or outside providers. All of these constellations can count as credits towards the degree program studied or not. These different forms and constellations of TSM make it a complex task to statistically register TSM, both at the institutional and national level.

In the endeavor to develop indicators in order to follow-up upon mobility targets at the European level it soon became clear that data to fully and reliably assess TSM levels across Europe cannot be compiled for the time being and in particular not through official statistics (Bologna Follow Up Group, 2012; European Commission, 2011a). Furthermore, it became clear that statistical indicators would tend to cover only a portion of all TSM, most importantly credit mobility, since TSM for which credit is given at the home institution is most easily registered at the institutional and national level. Credit mobility is important in the European context, and the accreditation of study-related periods abroad as part of the degree program at home is desirable whenever possible. However, there are many instances of other constellations of TSM. To register the full extent of temporary study-related mobility, data would have to be gathered through student and graduate surveys (Bologna Follow Up Group,

2012, p. 9). Graduate surveys, however, are currently not regularly implemented in European countries (European Commission, 2011a; European Commission/DG EAC, 2014a).

Lacking official statistics as well as regular graduate surveys assessing TSM levels in general and in teacher education, one thus has to revert to selective data sources: These cover available regular student surveys such as Eurostudent, irregularly conducted graduate surveys covering a (limited) range of European countries, and data from the largest European support scheme Erasmus+ (and its predecessor programs). Because of a lack of data referring to all different forms and constellations of TSM, it is important to keep in mind which distinct forms and constellations of TSM are in fact represented by such data, and to interpret such data with the necessary precautions, when taken as a proxy for assessing TSM levels.

#### 2.5.1.2 The Justification of Deficit-Based Calls to Increase Temporary Study-Related Mobility in the Field of Teacher Education

Teacher education<sup>19</sup> is a field criticized for (comparatively) low TSM levels. This raises the question how high TSM levels in teacher education actually are and which data we have available to conclude that TSM levels in teacher education are (comparatively) low. These two questions will be assessed in the following.

A graduate survey (Allen & Velden, 2007) covering 13 European countries and based on samples of higher education graduates of the academic year 1999/2000 is able to provide some comparative data on mobility levels in different subject areas. The study distinguishes graduates in the subject areas *education* (comprising *teacher education* as well as *educational sciences*, see previous footnote), *humanities*, *science*, *engineering*, *agriculture*, *health*, *business and law* as well as *other fields*. It covers information on whether graduates spent time abroad “for purposes of study and work” (Allen & Velden, 2007, p. 200) during their study period and in the years after graduation. Results show that, across all subject areas, 26% of graduates had obtained such experiences abroad during their higher education studies. Stays abroad for the purposes of study accounted for 75% of all stays abroad covered in the

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<sup>19</sup> In the UNESCO ISCED-97 categorization (International Standard Classification of Education) of subject areas teacher education forms part of the subject area *14-Education*, consisting of *141-Teaching and training* (in this thesis referred to as *teacher education*) and *142-Educational sciences*. The studies and data presented in this chapter all relate to the complete subject area 14-Education (no data is available for the singular subfield 141-Teaching and training which makes up the majority of students in the field, as can be validated using Eurostat data, see variables *educ\_uae\_enrt03* and *educ\_uae\_enrt04*). Authors of studies referred to in this chapter use different declarations (e.g., *education*, *education and teaching studies*, *education sciences and teaching*, *teacher training*) to refer to the subject area. To maximize readability the authors’ original declarations have been substituted for the declaration “education”.

survey, whereby the average duration of such study-abroad stays was seven months. The remainder (25%) was thus accounted for by stays abroad for the purposes of work (average duration of six months). Comparing different subject areas, Allen and Velden (2007) conclude that those who have been abroad for study or work-related purposes (here: both during and shortly after graduation) “have been over-proportionately enrolled in Humanities programmes and under-proportionately in Education or Health and Welfare” (p. xxi). The report also shows that while the subject area education represents 9% of the total sample, the stays abroad during higher education studies accounted for by students in this subject area amounts to only 7%<sup>20</sup>. Limitations of this study with respect to providing accurate knowledge on TSM levels in TE degree programs in Europe are that the study covers predominantly Western European countries, that it is able to provide only aggregate information for the whole subject area education (which includes, as said, teacher education as well as education sciences graduates), and that by focusing on study abroad and work abroad it does cover the most important forms of TSM while not all of these.

Melink et al. (2012), using data from the graduate survey just referred to and including further graduate data sets, have based their analysis on 18 European countries. They report that among six professional domains (*education*<sup>21</sup>, *business and economics*, *engineering*, *life sciences*, *medicine*, *sociology* and *political science*), education represented the field with the lowest share of graduates who had been abroad “for study” during their higher education enrollment period (Melink et al., 2012, pp. 126–127). This share amounts to 12%, as compared to, for example, 18% in the field business and economics and 20% in the field of sociology and political science (the latter representing the highest value of the six subject domains). Data for work-related stays abroad during higher education studies is not published separately for the different subject areas so that comparisons which would include this important form of TSM are not possible. The above mentioned limitations also apply for this study, whereby the skew towards Western European countries is less pronounced.

Thus far, what can graduate surveys tell us about TSM levels in the field of teacher education? Is it a field with comparatively low levels of TSM? On the basis of the data presented above, TSM levels (as measured by having implemented stays abroad for the

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<sup>20</sup> Only aggregate data has been published in the report. It can therefore not be determined whether this under-representation upon graduation marks a significant difference.

<sup>21</sup> Original declaration used by authors: education and teaching studies.

purposes of study or work abroad upon graduation) for the subject area education (of which teacher education students form the majority<sup>22</sup>) can be estimated: For this purpose, it is assumed that the relevance of work-related stays abroad is at least as high in the domain education as across all subject fields where a ratio of 75:25 has been found (see above). This results in an estimated rate of approximately 15% of graduates in the ISCED-97 subject area education having been abroad for the purposes of study or work. Teacher education is a professionally oriented field of study typically involving (extensive) practice periods. It can therefore be expected (see in more detail Chapter 2.5.1.3) that the role of practice-oriented stays is even more important than across all subject areas. Therefore, the share of graduates with study or work-related experiences abroad can be estimated to stand at 15+ to possibly up to 20 percentage points. Considering the average of 26% across all subject areas (cf. Allen & Velden, 2007), a below-average level of TSM can be found for the subject area education. It should be kept in mind, however, that despite the fact that study abroad and work-related stays abroad represent the most important forms of TSM, and despite the fact that teacher education students represent the majority of students in the larger subject area, the accuracy of estimations of the factual levels of TSM in the field of teacher education alone is, due to a lack of more precise data, burdened with a substantial factor of uncertainty.

Comparatively low TSM rates among students in the field have also been identified using data of the large pan-European student survey called Eurostudent. A recent comparative study used representative data sets from four European countries (Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Netherlands) and revealed that students in the subject area education<sup>23</sup> have significantly lower odds of both planning as well as realizing a study-abroad period (program form: temporary enrollment abroad) than the reference group—students in the field *arts and humanities* (Netz, 2013). The latter is a field known to be particularly mobile, in particular since it includes students of foreign languages (Allen & Velden, 2007; Dessoff, 2006; Orr et al., 2011). When one is aware of the reference category used, the result itself is therefore hardly surprising. However, contrary to other subject areas compared to the reference category, the results of having lower odds of planning as well as realizing study abroad were highly consistent (significant) in all four countries for the subject area education which indicates a stable pattern of comparatively low mobility intentions and implementation among

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<sup>22</sup> See Eurostat database: variables educ\_uae\_enrt03 and educ\_uae\_enrt04.

<sup>23</sup> Original declaration used by authors: education sciences and teacher training.

students in the field. Further evidence of a relatively stable pattern of comparatively low study-abroad rates among students in the subject area education is provided by another analysis of the Eurostudent data: A comparison of temporary-enrollment-abroad rates in different subject areas to the average temporary-enrollment-abroad rates (across all subject areas) in 26 European countries reveals that in the vast majority of European countries (with exceptions lying mostly in smaller non-EU countries), students in the subject area education have below-average temporary-enrollment-abroad rates (Ballowitz, Netz, & Danielle, 2014). While a relatively stable pattern can thus be identified for the subject area education, it nevertheless should be noted (as also the authors of the paper do) that other subject areas display similar patterns of below-average rates of temporary enrollment abroad: This is the case in particular for the subject area *science* as well as for the subject area *engineering, manufacturing and construction*. Finally, it remains to be critically noted that results based on Eurostudent data referred to above are based on only one form of TSM (albeit arguably the most important one in the European context)—temporary enrollment abroad for a trimester, semester or year; and that, again, the whole subject area education must be taken (and is taken by the authors without further mention) as a proxy on which conclusions of comparatively low TSM rates in the *subfield* teacher education are based upon.

Finally, participation data from Europe's largest grant and support scheme can be used to shed some light on temporary study-related mobility in the field of teacher education. Erasmus participation data distinguishes the ISCED-97 subject area *education* and covers TSM in the form of enrollments abroad of a minimum duration of 3 months<sup>24</sup>. If one relates Erasmus participation data to higher education enrollment rates in the different subject areas as published by Eurostat, an assessment of the relative representation of the subject area education in the Erasmus program (as compared to its share in the total student body across Europe) is allowed for. Data displayed in Table 7 shows that students in the subject area education are indeed underproportionally represented in the Erasmus program: The subject area accounts for approximately 8.5% of all enrollments in the EU-28 area, whereas it accounts for only approximately 3% of all study-abroad stays in all Erasmus countries<sup>25</sup>.

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<sup>24</sup> Since the academic year 2007/08 as well in the form of internships abroad (not covered in calculations due to incomplete data). The duration threshold has been lowered to two months in the latest program generation starting 2014 onwards but was three months for the period concerned here.

<sup>25</sup> Note that there is a slight difference between the EU-28 countries and Erasmus-participating countries (for the period concerned these were, most importantly, the non-EU countries Norway, Switzerland, Turkey which are included in Erasmus data).

**Table 7: Erasmus Participation and Higher Education Enrollments – Total and Subject Area Education**

	Average first decade 21 <sup>st</sup> century
Erasmus student mobility (enrollment abroad $\geq$ 3 months) – total participation	141,637
Erasmus student mobility (enrollment abroad $\geq$ 3 months)	
– subject area Education <sup>a</sup> participation	4,321
– in %	3.1%
Total enrollments in higher education <sup>b</sup> EU-28 – total	18,137,996
Enrollments in in higher education EU-28	
– subject area Education	1,544,930
– in %	8.5%

*Note.* Averages calculated based on time series of eight (enrollment data) and nine (Erasmus data) years. Data sources: Eurostat (enrollment data: educ\_ueo\_enrt03), Erasmus statistics made available to author by European Commission.

<sup>a</sup>According to ISCED-97 classification: subject area 14-Education, consisting of 141-Teaching and training and 142-Educational sciences. <sup>b</sup>According to ISCED-97 classification: tertiary education level 5 and 6.

Summarizing, we can conclude that the data basis for comprehensively assessing TSM levels in teacher education degree programs is extremely weak, mirroring the weak data basis to assess TSM levels in higher education at large. Any conclusions on TSM levels in TE degree programs are burdened with a substantial factor of uncertainty for two major reasons: First, the available data does not comprehensively cover the variety of different TSM forms. It is primarily based on study-abroad data (TSM form: temporary enrollment abroad for a trimester, semester or year) and partially includes practice-based periods abroad (internships). These two forms represent the most important forms of TSM in the European context, and are likely to cover the broad majority of all temporary study-related stays abroad. Nevertheless, they leave an unknown amount of TSM uncounted. Second, the available data invariably refers to the complete ISCED-97 subject area education while no reliable data is accessible that would allow to assess the subfield teacher education alone. Although the subfield teacher education makes up the majority of enrollments in the subject area, conclusions about the teacher education (training) sector on the basis of data for the whole subject area education—as they are commonly made due to the lack of more accurate data—should be drawn and read with the necessary precautions.

Despite all limitations, the review of data and studies regarding the assessment of TSM levels in (teacher) education degree programs implies that not only relevance-based calls to increase TSM in teacher education have their legitimation, but deficit-based calls as well. All data and studies reviewed point into the same direction, indicating that the subject area education (and thus also the subfield teacher education) is underproportionally

represented in mobility schemes (such as Erasmus), and that it is one of the subject areas with below-average TSM levels (as measured by the most important forms of TSM) in higher education in Europe.

As regards factual levels of TSM, these can be estimated to stand at around 15+ percentage points (possibly up to 20%, assuming that increases have occurred over the past years), when temporary enrollment abroad and internships abroad are counted. Considering the fact that TE degree programs include a relatively large amount of students who study foreign languages (a particularly mobile group), and in view of relevance-based considerations (e.g., increasing multiculturality), such TSM levels can indeed be considered as comparatively low and unsatisfactory.

### 2.5.1.3 Different Program Forms and Their Relevance in Teacher Education Degree Programs

TSM can be realized in a variety of forms and constellations. In Europe, influenced by the success of the Erasmus program, the classical way to implement TSM is in the form of study abroad within the Erasmus program at a partner institution of the home institution for a semester or a year. Indeed, large-scale research has shown that enrollment abroad is the most important program form of TSM in the European context (Orr et al., 2011, p. 169). The dominance of study-abroad as the most important TSM form is also mirrored in data availability and research on mobility which is not seldom based on this specific form of TSM (e.g., Netz, 2013). However, this singular program form represents only a portion (if even a substantial one) of the “TSM reality”. Regarding the different program forms, it generally appears to be of importance to consider the role that different forms of TSM may play in different subject areas—this is because previous research has provided us with indications that different program forms are of varying importance across subject areas (Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Maiworm & Teichler, 2002b): For example, among students in the professional domain *medicine* practice-oriented stays abroad are the most frequent form of mobility, whereas among students in *languages and cultural studies* it is study abroad (Maiworm & Teichler, 2002b, p. 69). Students in languages and cultural studies are also the ones who more often than other subject groups take experiences abroad in the form of language courses (ibid.). Isserstedt and Schnitzer (2002) therefore conclude that “not only student mobility in general is influenced by the culture of different subject areas but that this is as well the case for the type of mobility experiences” (p. 69; author translation).

Although research on this topic is scarce, indications can be found that teacher education is possibly a field with a distinct profile of program forms implemented by students. An Erasmus evaluation study (Maiworm & Teichler, 2002b) has shown that students in the subject area *education*<sup>26</sup> more often than most other subject areas state that their major activities during the Erasmus stay abroad were “work placements”. A high importance of practice-oriented stays abroad is plausible, given the professional focus of TE degree programs which often include relatively large practice components. Furthermore, a detailed analysis of the Erasmus evaluation study data also reveals that students in education most often (in comparison to 15 other subject areas differentiated) state that they were primarily involved in “other” activities (next to study, work placement, research work, laboratory work) (Maiworm & Teichler, 2002b). Furthermore, a study among German students (Heublein, Hutzsch, Schreiber, & Sommer, 2011) found that students in fields with state examinations (such as teacher education and law) more often than students in other fields state that they did not find interesting possibilities for stays abroad. A possible explanation for this result is that students in these fields have a specific demand profile which is co-shaped by the focus and scope of their degree programs but not fully responded to by the offers mostly accessible through their institutions. In total, the data contains pointers that in comparison to other subject areas, students in teacher education have a distinct profile with respect to the activities they pursue during their study-related experiences abroad.

### **2.5.2 Researching Obstacles to Students’ Participation in Temporary Study-Related Mobility**

This chapter turns to a detailed review and assessment of traditional and current approaches in researching obstacles to TSM and the knowledge gained in such research. In the first part (Chapter 2.5.2.1), research on obstacles to student mobility as conducted primarily in the European context and its state of knowledge are summarized. This is continued with a critical assessment of research conducted, approaches used and knowledge necessary and available in Chapter 2.5.2.2. Subsequently, latest developments in TSM research are outlined and the results of this research presented, summarizing relevant knowledge on obstacles to TSM participation and known factors influencing TSM participation (or non-participation).

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<sup>26</sup> This includes students in TE degree programs as well as students enrolled in programs of education sciences.

### 2.5.2.1 Research on Obstacles to Student Mobility: The European Tradition and its State of Knowledge

With the rise of TSM in national and European policies and the specification of certain TSM levels as targets, knowledge on how to foster TSM and on how to “mobilize” larger shares of students has become more relevant than ever before. Research on the existing obstacles to implementing (specific forms of) TSM, on the difficulties encountered by students, and on the factors influencing TSM participation has a certain tradition in the European context. Small and large-scale research on obstacles to TSM has been conducted. Most of the large-scale studies include research on the obstacles to TSM as part of a broader research agenda and have been commissioned or supported by the European Commission. This is, for example, the case for the regularly conducted Flash Eurobarometer surveys (The Gallup Organization, 2009, 2011), and the surveys conducted as part of the evaluation of the EU’s major programs, most importantly the Erasmus program (CHE Consult et al., 2014; Lanzendorf & Teichler, 2002; Vossensteyn et al., 2010). Another important large-scale data source is the regularly conducted Eurostudent survey (Hauschildt, Christopf, Nicolai, & Shweta, 2015; Orr et al., 2011; Orr et al., 2008), covering obstacles to and factors influencing TSM as part of research on the social and economic conditions of students in European higher education. In addition to further research on mobility conducted outside the European context (e.g., Green, 2005), smaller-scale research on relevant mobility drivers and obstacles add to the body of knowledge in the field. Such research is often conducted as part of institutional research at singular institutions or specific departments (e.g., Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011) or providing detailed analysis for specific countries (e.g., Di Pietro & Page, 2008; Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002). In summary, despite a certain frequency of research on TSM and obstacles to TSM, the amount of large-scale studies which can best avoid setting-specific biases is nevertheless limited. A further limitation is the legacy of research on obstacles to TSM having strong roots in the evaluation of major European mobility programs: Some generally important information sources on the difficulties encountered by students base their conclusions on students who have already been mobile (and/or group all students together, irrespective of whether students successfully implemented a stay abroad or whether they did not do so). This is potentially problematic since students who have been mobile are a distinct group among HE graduates and the relevance of obstacles for this group of students can be expected to differ from those who did not gain study-related experiences abroad.

After having described the research bases, we can turn to the knowledge on obstacles to TSM that research provides us with. Taking into account the limitations addressed above, the following review will, wherever possible, put a focus on such studies and results that are able to provide the most reliable and differentiated perspectives on obstacles to TSM as relevant in the European higher education context.

As part of the large European study *Mapping Mobility in European Higher Education*, a research review on obstacles to study-related mobility was conducted (Rumbley, 2011)<sup>27</sup>. Rumbley (2011) identifies eight recurring obstacles to mobility:

A lack of information about mobility opportunities; low motivation levels or little to no personal interest in being mobile; inadequate financial support; foreign language deficiencies; a sense of insufficient time or space for an international experience within the framework of an established curriculum or programme of study (. . .); concerns about the quality of mobility experiences; legal barriers, particularly relating to visa and immigration issues; and problems with gaining recognition for academic work completed abroad. (p. 197)

Further knowledge on the broad themes complicating or deterring mobility experiences among young people in Europe can be obtained from Eurobarometer surveys which are among the most encompassing sources on obstacles to (temporary) mobility (they cover all EU Member States and use country samples of people aged 15-35). A survey conducted specifically on youth mobility asked young people (note that the survey also covers learning mobility beyond the HE sector) about their main reasons „not to spend any time abroad for education, training, working or volunteering“ (The Gallup Organization, 2011, p. 44). The main reasons stated and thus the major obstacles are (ordered according to the percentage of persons stating an issue as their first or second most important reason):

- Not interested in going abroad: 37%
- Lack of funding/too expensive to stay abroad: 33%
- Family commitments (children, dependent relatives, etc.): 25%
- Lack of information/guidance about mobility opportunities: 14%

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<sup>27</sup> Although the review covers obstacles for degree and temporary study-related mobility, the authors stress that the underlying body of research mainly relates to TSM so that the review provides an overview on the most important obstacles that have been identified in previous research.

- Lack of foreign language skills: 13%
- Legal obstacles: 4%
- Could not get study/training recognized (in cases where studying or training was the plan): 4%
- Concerns about the quality of the training or other activities available abroad: 3%
- National/regional student loans or grants could not be transferred abroad: 3%

For the higher education sector, the most comprehensive source of information is the Eurostudent III survey (Orr et al., 2008) which used large samples from the majority of European countries (23 countries). The Eurostudent III survey asked students without any study-related experiences abroad (such as enrollment abroad, internships abroad, language courses abroad, etc.) about the most important obstacles to gaining study-related experiences abroad<sup>28</sup>. Across all 23 countries, important self-identified obstacles among students in higher education to gain study-related experiences abroad are (ibid.): financial insecurities (57% of students rated the issue as 4 = *very important* or 5 = *important* on a scale from 1-5), insufficient support in home country (49%), lack of individual motivation (i.e., lack of personal drive) (48%), insufficient support in host country (24%) and a lack of language competences (23%).

Thus far, the general overview on relevant obstacles for students with respect to gaining study-related experiences abroad provides the following picture: Financial concerns, lack of personal motivation, and foreign language competencies are core issues complicating or deterring TSM participation. Lack of information and guidance and lack of support from the home and/or host institution are other important obstacles that students identify. Furthermore, family commitments appear to place specific burden on students when it comes to gaining study-related experiences abroad.

A recent Erasmus evaluation study conducted with the purpose to improve participation in the program (Vossensteyn et al., 2010) provides insights on obstacles specifically relevant to those who already went abroad (as part of the Erasmus program): 45% of Erasmus-mobile students state that the grant levels are too low and that this posed a very important or important obstacle to them. This financial issue is followed by obstacles which

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<sup>28</sup> Note that the survey thus uses a broad concept of TSM while subsequent editions of Eurostudent (Hauschildt et al. (2015); Orr et al. (2011)) focus only on obstacles to the specific TSM form “enrollment abroad”.

were all of approximately the same relevance to students (approx. 35%): (expected) difficulties with credit recognition, and—what may be a related problem—the lack of integration between the study program at home and abroad; uncertainties about the education system abroad, a lack of student services abroad and difficulties with the administration of the program.

If we compare the self-identified obstacles among students who participated in Erasmus to the self-identified obstacles among *all* students (with or without TSM experience), it becomes clear that mobile students are (or were) mainly concerned with financial and administrative/organizational issues as well as with the curricular integration of their stay abroad (such as obtaining recognition for the study program at home). Issues that relate to benefit considerations and uncertainties, a lack of interest or motivation, foreign language competences, and personal relationships and commitments, do not appear among the most relevant obstacles for this group of students. Furthermore, information-related matters and support-related matters as well as concerns about the quality of programs abroad are less coining for this group of students who have already implemented TSM experiences. These differences underline the deliberation made above—that mobile and non-mobile students differ in terms of which issues they perceive and identify to act or have acted as relevant obstacles for them. Because strategies to foster TSM need to be informed in particular on the perceived obstacles and impediments among those who do *not* participate in TSM programs, the remainder of this chapter will be devoted to a review of studies able to provide knowledge on obstacles to non-mobile students.

Table 8 presents results of studies that included non-mobile students and which published results on the perceived obstacles to gaining (specific forms of) experiences abroad among these groups. The group of non-mobile students comprises students who have a certain interest in gaining TSM experiences (but due to certain obstacles did not realize a study-related stay abroad) as well as students who never planned to gain experiences abroad in the first place. The table lists the items used in the surveys and percentage results (if published) for the items. Items which cover similar issues have been grouped together in rows.

**Table 8:** Item Batteries Researching Obstacles to TSM Among Non-Participants in Different Large-Scale Surveys and %-Results (if Available)

<b>Eurostudent V/IV<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>Flash Eurobarometer<sup>b</sup></b>	<b>Erasmus study on improving participation<sup>c</sup></b>
Obstacles to enrollment abroad	Obstacles to studying abroad	Obstacles to studying abroad
<i>% of student ratings in Eurostudent V as “very important” or “important” in parentheses (if available)</i>	<i>% of student ratings as “very big” or “big obstacles” in parentheses (if available)</i>	<i>% of student ratings as “very important” or “important” in parentheses</i>
<i>Data basis: students who have not been and do not plan to be enrolled abroad</i>	<i>Data basis: Students who have not been and do not plan to study abroad</i>	<i>Data basis: students who have not been and do not plan to participate in Erasmus</i>
Additional financial burden (63%); loss of social benefits (e.g., child allowance, price discounts for students)	Lack of funds (61%)	Study abroad is too costly (57%); Erasmus grant is insufficient to cover additional costs of period abroad (37%)
Separation from partner, children, and friends (47%)		Family reasons or personal relationships that make going abroad difficult (46%)
Insufficient foreign language skills (29%)	Language barriers (38%)	Lack of language skills to follow a course abroad (41%)
Expected problems with the recognition of credits gained abroad problems with recognition of results achieved abroad (22%)	Lack or difficulty to obtain recognition for study periods spent abroad (36%)	Expected difficulties with the recognition of credits in my home institution (34%)
A lack of information provided by the home institution (22%/)/difficulty in getting information	Lack of information on the opportunities to study abroad (35%)	I never heard of the Erasmus program (18%); could not find enough information about the Erasmus program and how it works (27%)
Expected delay in progress of study		Study abroad would delay my graduation (36%)
Limited access to mobility program in the home country		Difficulties to find an appropriate institution and/or study program abroad (32%); choice of institutions is too limited in the Erasmus program (17%); lack of study programmes in English in hosting institution (abroad) (20%)
	The different quality of education abroad (28%)	I am uncertain about education quality abroad (32%)
	Professors/teachers in my university do not encourage mobility (22%)	

**Table 8:** Item Batteries Researching Obstacles to TSM Among Non-Participants in Different Large-Scale Surveys and %-Results (if Available) (Continued)

<b>Eurostudent V/IV</b>	<b>Flash Eurobarometer</b>	<b>Erasmus study on improving participation</b>
Lack of personal drive	Never planned to study abroad (41%) (separate question on whether students went abroad or were interested)	Not interested in a study abroad program (24%); uncertainty about the benefits of the Erasmus period abroad (34%); study abroad is not important for my future career (21%)
		Lack of integration between the curriculum abroad and country of study (31%)
		Study period abroad too long (13%); study period abroad too short (3%); incompatibility of calendar year between my current institution and institutions abroad (17%); decided to study abroad for a full degree at a later date (7%)
Loss of opportunities to earn money		Work responsibilities in my home country of study (26%)
Problems with accommodation in the host country; problems with access regulations to the preferred country (visa, residence permit)		I am uncertain about education system abroad (e.g., examinations) (38%); lack of support to find accommodation abroad (16%); too high competition to obtain an Erasmus grant (24%); difficulties to meet Erasmus administrative requirements (16%)

<sup>a</sup>Orr et al. (2011); Hauschildt et al. (2015). <sup>b</sup>The Gallup Organization (2009). <sup>c</sup>Vossensteyn et al. (2010).

Financial concerns (including work commitments and potential loss of income), the separation from family and/or friends, and a lack of foreign language skills clearly emerge as the most important obstacles among non-participants. Furthermore, a lack of motivation (due to) uncertainty about benefits and career relevance of TSM, and (consequently) low overall interest constitute an important group of obstacles. Also important to non-participating students are expected difficulties with recognition and (consequently) a possible delay of progress towards graduation. Other problems refer to information, support and organization, such as information deficits, uncertainties about the education system abroad, (fearing) organizational/administrative hurdles, and a lack of encouragement through academic staff at the home institution. Furthermore, students state that program access and program suitability constitute a problem, relating to issues such as concerns about the quality of programs abroad, limited/inappropriate choice of programs including limited access to English-language programs, and curricular incompatibilities (most importantly the lack of integration with the degree program at home).

Finally, an important note with respect to TSM obstacles as experienced by students is that subjectively perceived obstacles do not necessarily mirror objective facts. Previous research has pointed to the existence of student misperceptions in particular about possible problems and negative consequences (see HIS Hochschul-Informationen-System, 2011; Souto-Otero et al., 2013; Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011), such as: the limited offer of programs accessible at HEIs, a prolongation of studies, the requirements with respect to speaking foreign languages or financial support opportunities. Research has also shown that students with weak dispositions or no intent to gain experiences abroad are ill-informed and that they have mostly not sought personal advice at their institution (Souto-Otero et al., 2013; Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011). At the same time, while obstacles as perceived by students may not mirror objective factors, subjectively perceived obstacles of course need to be appreciated as real obstacles to students since it is in this manner that they exert their influence. It is therefore the knowledge of the subjectively perceived obstacles among students upon which strategies to foster TSM must be built.

### 2.5.2.2 Current State in Research on Temporary Study-Related Mobility: Critical Assessment of Research Conducted

This chapter will review traditions, current needs and developments in TSM research so as to (1) curtail further foci of the research review of obstacles to TSM as well as to (2) further determine the approach and shape of the study on obstacles to TSM among students in TE degree programs as performed in this thesis.

Item batteries which directly ask students which issues concern them as obstacles to planning or implementing a study-related experience abroad are frequently used in TSM research. An examination of such item batteries reveals that specific issues (potential obstacles) are more frequently covered than others: It can be critically noted that item batteries tend to have a skew towards issues that are likely to be most relevant to students who already have an above-average motivation to gain international experiences (or already did so) and a skew towards broadly covering organizational and structural issues as well as possible adverse consequences. These skews can be seen as a legacy of the tradition in TSM research to identify obstacles by using samples of previously mobile students (which has also been criticized by Souto-Otero et al., 2013). Shaped by such a tradition, a substantial number of frequently used items refer to evaluations that students are only likely to make once they have developed motivation or determination to go on TSM experiences abroad, such as the provision of appropriate programs, problems with seeking accommodation or legal issues. In comparison, issues that aim to uncover obstacles that relate to a lack of interest due to a lack of (professional or personal) relevance, value and benefits seen among students are more weakly represented in research on obstacles to TSM. This is despite the fact that value- and benefit-related dimensions can be seen as *fundamental* barriers to seeking information about and developing intentions to plan study-related experiences abroad in the first place.

Similarly, when thinking about what might influence students in the early stages of a process which might eventually lead to the implementation of TSM, it would also appear relevant to try and uncover in more detail how students who have a certain interest in gaining international experiences evaluate their own resources and abilities. For example, whether they are insecure about being able to cope with the challenges abroad, or whether they feel overly burdened with additional work-load and as a consequence of such apprehensions display a certain hesitation to go abroad. While it has been shown that student apprehensions and students' own judgement of their resources are important dimensions on which participants and non-participants in mobility programs differ (Goldstein & Kim, 2006;

Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011), such issues are seldom covered in item batteries on obstacles to TSM (with the exception of students' doubts about their language competences). Overall thus, large-scale research on obstacles to TSM in the European context bears a relatively weak focus on obstacles that might be relevant to a large majority of students at early stages of decision-making, such as value-related concerns, personal resource-oriented issues, and other student apprehensions. More knowledge on such issues, however, would be needed in order to effectively design strategies to “mobilize” the major group of students in the European context who currently do *not* gain study-related experiences abroad.

Another omission from TSM research can be critically noted in the European context<sup>29</sup>: It is a lack of contextualization of student development towards TSM participation within institutional environments, in particular within their study environments, as created by academic staff and leadership at institutions and in degree programs. When referring to the institutional level, research tends to cover administrative aspects and recognition, to a lesser extent also program suitability, but seldom the role of academic staff and the role of international dimensions in students' day-to-day study environments for fostering interest and participation in TSM programs. The overall climate at an institution can be fundamentally supportive—or unsupportive—of students developing generally favorable dispositions towards gaining study-related experiences abroad, for example, through a high visibility of international activities at an institution, through a discursive climate in which international dimensions play an important role, or through academic staff actively promoting and explaining the benefits of TSM to students. Academic staff is a particularly critical factor when it comes to promoting international activities (see Chapter 2.1.2). Their own knowledge, experience and fundamental orientations regarding internationalization and mobility shape the environments in which students are socialized. Rumbley (2011) in her review on obstacles to mobility briefly touches upon the role of educators in promoting mobility (which is, generally, hardly covered in research) among the student body when she writes:

Meanwhile the question of obstacles extends beyond (. . .) the direct transmission of information to potentially mobile students. For example, the 2008 *Report of the High Level Expert Form on Mobility* concluded that potential “promoters of mobility“ (. . .)

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<sup>29</sup> The US-American context tends to put a stronger focus on the concept of internationalization of the curriculum, the role of academic staff with respect to internationalization and TSM, as well as the institutional and staff roles in research on TSM (e.g., Green (2005); Trilokekar and Rasmi (2011)).

also lack information (as well as personal experience with mobility themselves). This is understood to hamper effective transmission to potential participants (. . .). (p. 198)

That academic staff experiences and orientations are an important and possibly problematic issue that should be covered in research on obstacles to TSM is not only a deliberation based on theoretical or discursive grounds: Research from the US-American context (covering all types of institutions from research universities to community colleges), for example, found that students enter higher education programs with a generally positive disposition for international learning (at home and abroad), while their study environments are not extensively supportive to sustain or build this orientation (Green, 2005): Between 45 to 50% of students report that their academic staff never or only rarely „encourage(d) students to participate in international activities“ (p. 20), brought „international reading material into their classrooms“ (ibid.), or discussed „their international experiences in class“ (ibid.). Such conditions can be seen as factual obstacles to students' TSM participation in the sense of a lacking leverage to promoting international orientations and potential interest in gaining first-hand international experiences through international dimensions in students' learning environments. For this reason, a more extensive inclusion of the role of academic staff experiences and orientations in research on TSM would be desirable.

To overcome mentioned shortcomings in TSM research, it appears helpful to more clearly conceptualize TSM participation as the eventual possible outcome of a set of experiences, decisions, considerations and actions. In other words: to conceptualize TSM participation and non-participation as a process rather than a decision at a singular point in time. The need for more process-related conceptualizations of TSM participation has also been voiced and taken up in the most recent wave of research (see, e.g., Netz, 2013). A process-related conceptualization opens up a view towards more clearly distinguishing between obstacles as they may be relevant to students at different stages in the process. On this basis, item batteries could be developed that cover relevant issues along the *whole* process in a more balanced manner than has previously been the case.

A purposeful strategy in this respect would be the conceptualization of more abstract dimensions (i.e., above the level of singular items), expected to be of different relevance at different stages in the TSM process. Such conceptualizations can be based on previous empirical results and/or theoretical models. On the basis of the variety of (potential) obstacles identified in the course of the literature review thus far, one could differentiate a fundamental

obstacle dimension that refers to students not seeing enough value in gaining experiences abroad (examples: lack of motivation/interest, uncertainty about career relevance). Another dimension would be the anticipated or occurring negative consequences, such as negative financial consequences, the absence from family and friends, or graduation delays. A third dimension could be identified as relating to students' judgement of their own resources and abilities, and certain apprehensions they may have on the basis of their judgements, such as whether their foreign language skills are sufficient, or whether they will be able to cope abroad. Other issues that repeatedly appear as (potential) obstacles could be grouped into a dimension of a lack of information, guidance or support at institutions (example: difficulty in finding information). Finally, a set of issues could be summarized by a dimension relating to suitable program offer (examples: difficulty in finding appropriate programs, limited offer of English-language programs).

A further shortcoming in TSM research is that it has traditionally tended to lack differentiation (and a comparative dimension on the differences) between those who participate in TSM and those who do not, and on the obstacles relevant to different groups of students. In particular, a gap of research on the differences between participants and non-participants and on the factors influencing a student's path towards gaining experiences abroad (from developing interest to obtaining information on options and eventually to participation) has been increasingly noted by the research community (e.g., Souto-Otero et al., 2013). This gap is also gradually being addressed in current research that increasingly differentiates groups of students, and turns to analyzing obstacles in a comparative manner<sup>30</sup>. Souto-Otero et al. (2013) correctly draw attention to the fact that distinctions such as between participants and non-participants are of high „policy relevance when thinking about the design of incentives for participation in the program“ (p. 72). As already briefly mentioned further above, such distinctions in addition are particularly relevant at the institutional level where specific strategies to increase student participation in mobility programs are designed. The results of a study by Trilokekar and Rasmi (2011) empirically underline the purposefulness to differentiate obstacles as relevant for different groups of students, and to design differentiated institutional strategies based upon such knowledge.

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<sup>30</sup> Important contributions in this respect are Netz (2013); Souto-Otero et al. (2013); Trilokekar and Rasmi (2011); Goldstein and Kim (2006); a turn towards more differentiated TSM research and obstacles research can also be noted in the latest Erasmus evaluation studies drafted for the European Commission, see Vossensteyn et al. (2010); CHE Consult et al. (2014).

Finally, what remains to be critically noted is a need in TSM research for theoretically better underpinned approaches. In particular, the larger-scale studies on TSM participation and obstacles to TSM have lacked theoretical guidance. Several authors (e.g., Goel, Jong, & Schnusenberg, 2010; Netz, 2013; Souto-Otero et al., 2013) have noted a lack of theory-guided research, theory development or integration in TSM research. Accordingly, in more recent research, a gradual turn in this respect can be observed (e.g., Goel et al., 2010; Netz, 2013). The conceptual and theoretical shifts gradually taking place in TSM research have also been linked to statistically more advanced analyses and to a more transparent reporting of results and conclusions, moving away from basing conclusions solely on descriptive data, and towards an increased use of inferential analysis to arrive at results and derive conclusions. Netz (2012, 2013), for example, has used the Rubikon model of action phases (described in detail in Chapter 2.5.3) to differentiate a *decision threshold* and a *realization threshold* and to differentiate and compare three status groups of students (pre-planning, planning and post-realization group). Similar approaches were used by other researchers in this newer tradition of TSM research (Di Pietro & Page, 2008; Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Souto-Otero et al., 2013; Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011). Results of these studies exemplify the relevance of differentiating between different status groups of students, and of theoretical and conceptual guidance in order to identify the obstacles and factors relevant at different stages in the TSM process.

Having identified shortcomings and current developments in research on obstacles to TSM, the next chapters will put a focus on the review of recent research that overcomes previous shortcomings. It will summarize the knowledge we currently have on differences between different groups of students (such as participants, non-participants) and on the factors known to influence whether students proceed to eventually implementing study-related stays abroad or not. In theoretical terms, one of the most promising contributions to TSM research has been the introduction of the Rubikon model of action phases which will therefore also be reviewed in the following.

### 2.5.2.3 State-of-the-Art in Latest Mobility Research: Obstacles to Participation, Factors Influencing Participation

Recent TSM research has shaped our body of knowledge on the factors influencing TSM participation. A range of studies has been conducted, differentiating student groups with positive dispositions towards implementing TSM and/or those who have already implemented TSM, versus student groups who have not participated and have no intent to participate. Such

studies have also statistically linked (tested) the role and influence of several variables (e.g., social background) on whether students fall into one group or the other. The following sections will present research results on the variables influencing TSM intent and eventual participation. For this purpose, students can broadly be grouped into a student group with positive intent (including those who have already gained TSM experiences abroad) and a group with no such positive intent (students who state to have no interest or plans to participate in TSM).

Several studies from the European and US-American context have identified students' social background as an important factor impacting upon TSM intentions and on TSM implementation (CHE Consult et al., 2014; Di Pietro & Page, 2008; Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Orr et al., 2011; Orr et al., 2008; Salisbury, Umbach, Paulsen, & Pascarella, 2009). Parental education emerges as a significant variable, impacting on students' intent and implementation of TSM: Having an academic family background (defined as at least one parent having academic education) is positively associated with making plans to realize experiences abroad, and with the actual implementation of such plans; parental education has also been shown to impact on students' TSM intent and participation<sup>31</sup> (Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Orr et al., 2011; Orr et al., 2008).

Students' social background, in terms of parental education, has also been shown to impact upon students' international (non-touristic) experiences prior to entering higher education (Gerhards & Hans, 2013). Prior international experiences themselves have been shown to increase the likelihood that students gain further international experiences in the course of their higher education degree programs (Doyle et al., 2010; Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002). Parental education thus serves as „institutionalized cultural capital“ (Gerhards & Hans, 2013, p. 117). It mediates previous international experiences prior to entering higher education which, in turn, positively influence the likelihood to gain study-related international experiences during higher education studies.

In comparison to the strong influence of parental education, the results for the socio-economic status of students' family, as measured by income, are slightly less clear. A US-American study finds that lower family income impacts negatively on plans to gain experiences abroad (in addition to educational background; Salisbury et al., 2009). A

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<sup>31</sup> This is the case not only across Europe and in singular European countries but also in countries with relatively equitable access to higher education, such as Finland, Switzerland, Ireland or Netherlands.

European study did not find a negative influence of lower socio-economic status (Di Pietro & Page, 2008)<sup>32</sup>. Nonetheless, the results of pan-European student surveys support the conclusion that lower social background (measured in terms of parental education) is related to higher financial *concerns* of students regarding TSM. Netz (2013) has shown that financial concerns, in turn, are factors lowering the likelihood that students who are interested in gaining study-related experiences abroad „progress“ to the planning stages (these results are also supported by Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002). Students from lower social backgrounds (measured in terms of parental education) are apparently subjectively more concerned about financing stays abroad which in turn inhibits that students move to planning and implementing stays abroad. In this subjective and indirect sense, the conclusions of Salisbury et al. (2009) that „insufficient financial capital significantly inhibits the likelihood of participation in study abroad even in the earliest stages when the beginnings of predispositions, plans or intentions to study abroad are being formed“ (p. 133) can be supported.

Regarding the age of students and their length of enrollment, results from several studies indicate that, unsurprisingly, those who have been longer enrolled in higher education (and thus are also older) are more likely to have implemented stays abroad than younger students and those who are less long enrolled (Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Netz, 2013). At the same time, length of enrollment and increasing age are negatively associated with (still) having plans to gain study-related experiences abroad (ibid.). Netz (2013) found a negative impact of increasing age (beyond the effect that is due to its correlation with length of enrollment as well as having responsibility for children under 18 years of age) on both planning and having implemented temporary enrollment abroad. These results are plausible, considering that students who are highly interested in gaining study-related experiences abroad will, after a certain period of enrollment (and thereby increasing age), have implemented their stays abroad.

Gender has been identified in several studies as a relevant variable impacting on TSM intent and implementation. Research suggests that females more often than males tend to both plan and realize TSM experiences abroad (CHE Consult et al., 2014; Di Pietro & Page, 2008;

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<sup>32</sup> Regional differences may exert their influences here. This can, however, not be determined, since both studies do not represent USA or Europe as a whole.

Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Orr et al., 2008; Salisbury et al., 2009)<sup>33</sup>, whereby the overall gender-related effect according to the Eurostudent survey (Orr et al., 2008) is relatively small.

Having own children can easily be perceived to be a barrier to implementing study-related experiences abroad. Accordingly, Netz (2013), for example, writes that „the objective social costs of studying abroad should be particularly high if students are responsible for minor children“ (p. 6), and indeed a negative impact of having children on planning and in particular on participating in TSM has been demonstrated in research (Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Netz, 2013).

With respect to the absence from close family and/or social relationships subjective evaluations play an important role: self-rated expected strain through a separation from family/children/partner/friends differentiates those who plan (or have implemented) TSM experiences abroad from those who state to have no intent or plans to gain experiences abroad (Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Netz, 2013; Souto-Otero et al., 2013).

Similarly, perceived insufficiency of one's foreign language skills has not only been identified as one of the most important obstacles among students who do not plan to participate in TSM in absolute terms; it is also one of the variables differentiating those who intend to gain experiences abroad from those who do not (Netz, 2013; Orr et al., 2008; Souto-Otero et al., 2013; Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011). As Netz (2013) has shown, self-rated insufficient foreign language skills seem to exert their deteriorating influence at an early stage in the process of intending, planning and implementing TSM experiences abroad. It is furthermore noteworthy that students from non-academic family backgrounds have higher concerns about their foreign language skills than students from higher-educated family backgrounds (Orr et al., 2011; Orr et al., 2008). Whether this is due to factually lower foreign language skills cannot be determined by the results of the studies. Netz (2013) included both subjective evaluations of lacking foreign language skills and educational background of parents in his study, finding that both variables exert a separate influence. The subjective evaluation of lacking foreign language skills to cope abroad is thus a(n) (independent) deteriorating factor, while the extent to which students are concerned with a lack of foreign

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<sup>33</sup> However, Netz (2013), researching factors influencing plans and implementation of the specific form of enrollment abroad found ambiguous influences of being female (mostly negative at the planning threshold but mostly positive at the realization threshold). It cannot be determined whether this is due to a specific focus of research (for example covering only enrollment abroad).

language skills also appears to be mediated through their social background (parental education).

Two studies (Isserstedt & Schnitzer, 2002; Souto-Otero et al., 2013) have shown that non-participants differ from participants on value-related variables: expectation of low benefits or uncertainties about the benefits are notions more characteristic of non-participants.

Rather unsurprisingly, non-participants in mobility programs are more likely than participants to be ill informed about opportunities (Souto-Otero et al., 2013). However, the perceived difficulty of finding information about opportunities is a variable positively associated with planning to gain experiences abroad (Netz, 2013). Finally, (the expectation of) negative academic consequences such as problems with recognition or (as a result) delayed graduation have been shown to be important to both participants and non-participants. Souto-Otero et al. (2013) find problems with recognition to be an obstacle positively associated with having implemented a stay abroad (as compared to its relevance to non-participants); Netz (2013) finds a negative impact of expecting a delay in study progress on the likelihood of students to have moved to the planning stages. Thus, it is implied that negative academic consequences are factual obstacles regarding TSM, and that the (extent of) *expecting* such negative academic consequences discourages students from pursuing plans to gain study-related experiences abroad.

Although very little research is available, in particular in the European context, we also find empirical indications for the importance of study environments in building or sustaining intent among students to gain study-related experiences abroad. A high level of institutional support (such as advice and support from academic and other staff) and a feeling to be surrounded by others who value experiences abroad have been shown to differentiate those intending to gain experiences abroad from those who do not or are yet unsure (Trilokekar & Rasmi, 2011). The fact that academic staff is often not perceived as a relevant promotor or source of active information among students (Green, 2005) can be seen as a critical factor in this respect.

Different institutional types (and thus their specific culture) have also been shown to influence students' likelihood to plan and implement experiences abroad: In the European context, students enrolled at universities have a higher likelihood to plan study-related experiences abroad than students at other types of institutions (while the influence cannot be

observed at the implementation stage; Netz, 2013)<sup>34</sup>. The fact that the type of institution exerts an independent effect on student plans suggests that institutional environments at large leverage students' general orientations towards gaining TSM experiences. This conclusion is supported by Green's (2005) research in the US-American context: Her findings suggest that institutions highly active in internationalization successfully build a climate that fosters students' awareness of and intent to gain experiences abroad before graduating. Green (2005) also found that most students at highly active institutions had a high awareness of international opportunities offered<sup>35</sup>, and that at least a portion of those students had been largely unaware of such options before enrolling at the institution.

As noted above, students' evaluations of their own resources and abilities to deal with challenges abroad can be hypothesized to be an important dimension of obstacles, currently only weakly regarded in TSM research (apart from financial resources and foreign language skills), again also in particular in the European context. Empirical research underlines the assumed importance of such dimensions: Trilokekar and Rasmi (2011) found that students with no intent to gain experiences abroad are more likely to expect sociocultural barriers abroad, such as problems to make friends, to understand the culture or language abroad, or to experience loneliness abroad. Goldstein and Kim (2006) found that (future) participants had more positive expectations about their planned stay abroad, and more often than future non-participants expected to meet interesting people abroad, that the time would not be stressful, that they would enjoy the time, and that it would build their self-confidence. A recent European study (CHE Consult et al., 2014) found that, already prior to their stays abroad, participants had higher scores on the personality factors curiosity (openness to new experiences) and serenity (awareness of own strengths and weaknesses) than non-participants. These results underline the subjectiveness of expectations on the possible positive and negative consequences of endeavoring to gain study-related experiences abroad, and the role of students' expectations and apprehensions as obstacles to implementing stays abroad.

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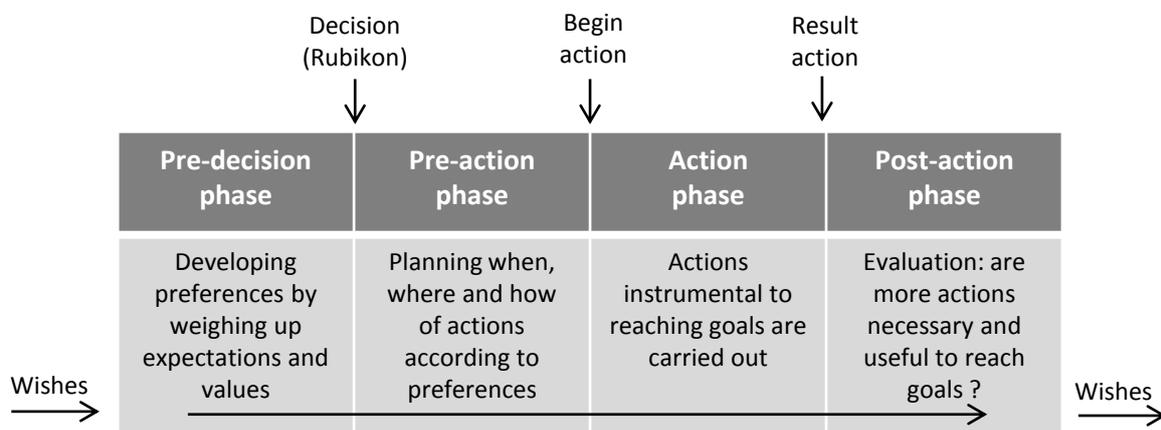
<sup>34</sup> Similarly, in the US-American context students at liberal arts colleges are more likely to intent to study abroad than students at regional comprehensive and research universities and at community colleges.

<sup>35</sup> Readers should nevertheless be aware that highly active institutions also had a student body slightly more internationally travelled than less active institutions which, as was shown above, influences student dispositions to gain study-related experiences abroad.

### 2.5.3 Theoretical Perspective: Rubikon Model of Action Phases

The turn in TSM research towards more differentiated approaches has also opened up a perspective on relevant theoretical models to underpin and guide research. As mentioned, one of the most promising contributions is the introduction of the Rubikon model of action phases (originally published by Heckhausen and Gollwitzer in 1987; described in detail, including empirical confirmation and related motivational and volitional psychological concepts, e.g., by Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010 in Heckhausen & Heckhausen, 2010) into TSM research. The Rubikon model of action phases and its assumptions have been extensively confirmed in research (Rudolph, 2009, p. 163). In the following, the model will be presented, followed by reflections on how the Rubikon model can guide research on obstacles to mobility, in particular also as regards the aim of presenting strategies on ways to foster TSM.

The Rubikon model of action phases (see, e.g., Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010; Rudolph, 2009) distinguishes four phases (see Figure 4): a pre-decision phase ending with a *goal intention* (which represents the crossing of the *Rubikon*); a pre-action phase that ends with a concrete plan of where, when and how to realize the intention (*implementation intention*); followed by the action phase and the post-action phase.



**Figure 4.** Rubikon model of action phases (figure adapted from Rudolph, 2009; author translation).

In the pre-decision phase thoughts are focused on subjective expectations and values. In this phase a person considers *desirability*: the value of expected results—in the case at hand the value of gaining study-related experiences abroad; and *realizability*: the expectation that one's actions can and will successfully lead to eventually realizing study-related experiences

abroad (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010). In determining the realizability of concerns or wishes questions like the following are relevant (ibid.):

- Is it possible to realize desired results through and by one's own actions?
- Does the context into which a person sees his/her actions embedded play a negative or positive role?
- Does the person have the time needed and access to relevant resources?
- Will suitable opportunities arise?

In determining the desirability of a potential goal or current wish, a person evaluates questions such as (ibid.):

- When trying to realize the goal, which short- and long-term consequences will arise?
- How positive and negative are these?
- What is the likelihood that these consequences will actually become relevant?

A person's mindset in the pre-decision phase is referred to as being motivational (as opposed to volitional mindsets that characterize the pre-action and action phase and which bear a focus on the realization of opportunities; see Rudolph, 2009, pp. 162–163). In this phase subjective expectations and considerations of the value of expected results prevail. The pre-decision phase ends with the formation of a (yet abstract) goal intention, in the case at hand the desire and goal to gain study-related experiences abroad. As described by Achtziger and Gollwitzer (2010), moving from pre-decision to pre-action requires that a sufficient amount of knowledge and clarity has been reached; the level of such knowledge and clarity correlates with the importance of a decision, as well as with the costs associated to gaining and evaluating relevant information that is required for a decision.

In the pre-action phase goal intentions, which do not yet bear associations with a concrete plan, are transferred into implementation intentions. At the end of this phase the person has a concrete plan of where, when, for how long and how to implement the goal—the study-related stay abroad (see Rudolph, 2009). That is, the person will have a concrete plan if the phase is completed “successfully”. Whether this will occur is dependent on the strength of the so-called *fiat tendency* which is associated to the pre-action phase. It is thus important to keep in mind that goal *intentions* are established with a certain degree of commitment at the

end of the pre-decision phase and do not readily lead to actions that eventually result in goal *implementation* (Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010): Rather, the strength of the tendency to *act upon* goal intentions (the fiat-tendency) is a result of (1) the *volitional strength* (underlying motivation determined by evaluations of desirability and realizability), and (2) the propitiousness of opportunities and situations to realize intended goals (ibid.). Importantly, fiat tendencies related to *different* goals are “competing” with each other, and actions will be initiated in given situation for the goal with the strongest fiat tendencies (ibid.)

In the pre-action phase and action phase, thoughts are focused on opportunities for action and on (overcoming) possible obstacles (Rudolph, 2009). In the action phase, the focus is on successfully carrying out the plan (the implementation intentions) and thereby realizing one’s goals. Upon completion of the action—in our case the implementation of TSM—a post-action phase starts in which the results of one’s actions (having gained study-related experiences abroad) are evaluated in a positive or negative manner, resulting in satisfaction or further action (ibid.).

Reflecting the Rubikon model of action phases with regard to the formation of an intention to realize a study-related stay abroad, it thus becomes clear that the phase before crossing the Rubikon includes implicit and/or explicit evaluations of a plethora of issues and dimensions: not only of the possible and expected positive and negative consequences and the resulting value of expected outcomes (cf. desirability), but as well evaluations of own abilities and resources, and of the opportunities and constraints perceived with regard to one’s context (cf. realizability). Reflecting the model, it also becomes clear that desirability is a basic condition for students to progress to later action stages. Unless students see possible positive consequences arising from potential participation in TSM—that is, unless they see certain benefits such as career/professional relevance, the improvement of foreign language skills, the possibility to gain knowledge through learning in and from other cultures, structures and systems, or simply their personal satisfaction through experiencing stays in new environments—they will not cross the Rubikon. The positive consequences seen must also be high enough to counterbalance possible negative consequences and obstacles. In this sense, the pre-decision phase is a profoundly fundamental phase, to which organizational strategies aiming to foster TSM in teacher education (and beyond) need to attend. In terms of organizational strategies to foster TSM, attention would need to be directed to the formation of positive attitudes, to the communication of general opportunities available at the institution,

to support (financial, information, etc.) that is accessible, and to building resources as relevant to students (e.g., foreign language skills in cases where this is an obstacle to students).

The pre-action phase can also be seen as critical in fostering eventual participation in TSM programs. Students at this stage do show interest in gaining international experiences, seeing them as basically desirable and realizable. However, many students can be “lost” at this stage, never arriving at a concrete plan on where, when and how to implement TSM. At this stage students need to find relevant detailed information; they need to find appropriate programs that match their personal and academic situation; and they need to overcome possible remaining doubts about implementing TSM stays abroad. Issues of factual realizability and opportunities arising in one’s context are relevant at this stage. At this stage, students’ interest and intentions to gain experiences abroad also compete with other goals. The volitional strength (motivation) associated to gaining TSM must not only be strong enough to sustain and overcome certain obstacles, but also to possibly prioritize it in relation to other goals. The provision of adequate information and guidance in planning a stay abroad and in particular also the provision of suitable programs, experienced by students as opportunities to transform their goals and intentions into implementation, are therefore possible strategies for institutions to foster eventual TSM participation among students at this stage, derived from a theoretical perspective.

Institutional strategies relating to the action phase and post-action phase would be less directly concerned with easing obstacles to mobility, but rather with sustaining support for mobile students and managing their experiences in a manner profitable both for the student and the institution. This could entail student preparation and support while abroad, support with accreditation and integration of mobility periods with the study program at home, the „utilization“ of student experiences upon their return wherever possible (e.g., in courses, in information events), and the evaluation of the student experience on the programs offered by the institution.

#### **2.5.4 Summary: Mobility Levels, Obstacles to Mobility and Theoretical Perspectives for Research on Temporary Study-Related Mobility**

Despite severe limitations regarding the availability of data to assess TSM levels in higher education in general and specifically for the field of teacher education, the secondary analysis of a variety of data sources allows concluding that teacher education is very likely indeed a field with comparatively low and underproportionate TSM levels. In absolute terms, it has been estimated that TSM levels stand at around 15+ percentage points, counting the two major forms of mobility—temporary enrollment abroad and internships abroad. Both relevance- as well as deficit-based calls to increase TSM in teacher education degree programs therefore appear to be justified.

The assessment of TSM levels in teacher education has made clear that TSM can be realized in a variety of different forms and constellations, and that it is of importance to consider the role that different program forms have in different subject areas. Institutional offers, in order to foster TSM, would need to base their program offer on specific relevance profiles in different subject areas. As regards teacher education, indications of a distinct profile of relevant program forms can be found, implying a specific importance of practice-based forms of gaining experiences abroad.

Research on obstacles to mobility has a certain tradition in Europe, not least as part of the evaluation of large European programs such as Erasmus. To identify obstacles to mobility, item batteries are frequently used in which students assess the relevance of different issues as obstacles to TSM for them. Table 9 summarizes important obstacles to TSM for students, thereby also giving an overview of major issues covered in previous studies.

**Table 9: Obstacles to TSM – Overview Important Issues Found in Previous Studies**

All students	(Likely) Participants	(Likely) Non-participants
Not interested in going abroad	Financial issue: grant levels too low	Financial concerns (including work commitments and potential loss of income)
Lack of funding/too expensive to stay abroad	Difficulties with credit recognition	Separation from family and/or friends
Family commitments (children, dependent relatives, etc.)	Lack of integration between study program at home and abroad	Lack of foreign language skills
Lack of information/guidance about mobility opportunities	Uncertainties about the education system abroad	Lack of motivation (due to uncertainty about benefits and career relevance)
Lack of foreign language skills	Lack of student services abroad	Expected difficulties with recognition and (consequently) a possible delay of progress towards graduation
Legal obstacles	Difficulties with the administration of the program	Information, support and organization (information deficits, expectation of organizational hurdles, uncertainties about education system abroad)
		Lack of encouragement through academic staff
		Program access and program suitability

In recent research, differentiations between different student groups have increasingly been made. This is of core importance since obstacles can be expected to vary between different groups of students. Research has identified factors influencing TSM participation or variables differentiating (likely) participants from (likely) non-participants. Sociodemographic and socioeconomic variables are important factors impacting on whether students belong to a group with no/weak or with high intentions to gain TSM experiences abroad (or have already done so): An academic background of students' parents exerts a positive influence. Increasing age, increasing length of enrollment, male gender and having children have been shown to exert negative influences. Previous international experiences (prior to entering higher education), the expectation of concrete positive benefits, and the expectation of having a positive experience abroad (sociocultural issues such as coping with language, culture, and new environment; making friends, etc.) have also been shown to be associated with (likely) participation. Students' foreign language skills and the negative impact of subjectively evaluating one's foreign language skills as insufficient have been revealed as an obstacle. Comparative research between (likely) participants and (likely) non-participants has also shown (although not clearly determined) the role of receiving/finding

information in fostering plans and implementation of TSM, as well as pointed to the role that institutional and learning environments may have in fostering students awareness, interest and intent to gain TSM.

On the basis of a critical review of previous research and theory-based considerations, it is concluded that it is of central importance in TSM research to differentiate at least between participants and non-participants when identifying obstacles to TSM. More broadly phrased, it is important to conceptualize (eventual) TSM participation (or non-participation) as a process and outcome based on a range of experiences, information, considerations, opportunities, decisions and actions taken, and to identify obstacles at the process's different stages.

The Rubikon model of action phases is a very well confirmed theoretical model. With its differentiation of different stages, it underpins the relevance of conceptualizing (eventual) TSM participation as a process. The process is related to “successfully” completing a range of different stages at which different considerations and issues are relevant to students. TSM research aiming to support the development of appropriate strategies needs to attend to the broad range of issues that can act as obstacles in the TSM process. The Rubikon model outlines underlying dimensions that influence whether students will move from one stage to the next. Important dimensions are the overall evaluation of desirability and realizability; information and knowledge also play a role; as do student resources as well as “resources” in the environment in terms of the (perceived) opportunities in one's context to realize one's interests and intentions.

The Rubikon model of action phases provides valuable guidance for research that conceptualizes TSM participation (or non-participation) as a process: It can be used to guide research on obstacles to TSM that provides for a balanced thematic coverage of the breadth of issues relevant as potential obstacles to students. This is important since it has been observed that existing item batteries and previous TSM research tend to display a skew towards issues likely to be relevant at later stages, at the same time less extensively covering issues likely to be important at the early stages of the TSM process (i.e., in the pre-decision phase or pre-action phase): The softer notions of obstacles, such as value-related issues or apprehensions of students with respect to their competences and coping skills, are less extensively represented in research than structural and organizational issues. To develop approaches (item batteries) suitable to reveal a broad range of obstacles as relevant “along” the whole TSM process, it can therefore be purposeful to revert to existing item batteries, and, in addition, to

theoretically derive major domains of obstacles and ensure that these are covered in item batteries on obstacles to TSM.

### **2.5.5 Combining Theoretical and Empirical Perspectives to Study Obstacles to Temporary Study-Related Mobility Among Students in Teacher Education (Investigation Strand 2)**

This chapter will condense theoretical considerations, methodological conclusions and the review of research on obstacles to TSM among students into an integrated conceptual framework (including methodological implications as relevant at this stage), and the detailed foci and hypotheses for Investigation Strand 2. Investigation strand 2 aims to answer Research Question #2 on relevant obstacles (for different groups of) students in teacher education degree programs for gaining temporary study-related experiences abroad. Furthermore, Investigation Strand 2 aims to provide results that—together with the results from Investigation Strand 1—will allow to arrive at conclusions and recommendations (relevant program and organization strategies) on ways to foster TSM in teacher education (cf. concluding research question), in particular as relevant to the institutional scope of action.

Based on summary considerations as just outlined in Chapter 2.5.4, two general methodological implications are derived for the study to be conducted on obstacles to TSM in teacher education degree programs (also being relevant in Investigation Strand 1).

The first implication is the need to base investigations on a broad concept of TSM and to overcome a traditional dominance (both in research and practice) of the singular program form enrollment abroad. A broad concept of TSM includes the variety of different TSM forms such as academic, practice-oriented, shorter, or longer forms.

A second methodological implication is to base investigations on the differentiation of different groups of students and view TSM participation as a process. This is because different issues and obstacles can be expected to be relevant, for example, to those who already have a strong determination to gain study-related experiences abroad, as opposed to those who are less determined in this respect or who have rather unfavourable dispositions. Unless concrete knowledge is obtained on the issues relevant to students at different stages, institutions will not be able to meet the task of designing appropriate strategies and foster TSM on a larger scale than currently achieved (in TE degree programs and beyond).

The Rubikon model provides guidance to determine different status groups of students as conceptually relevant in research on TSM: A group of students has already implemented (or is currently implementing) experiences abroad as part of their studies. These students are in the post-action or action phase. Another group can be distinguished which has crossed the Rubikon *and* already has (definite and concrete) plans to gain experiences abroad. These students are in the pre-action phase. Also in the pre-action phase are students who basically evaluate desirability and realizability as positive; who thus show interest in gaining TSM (goal intentions), but who have *not* yet developed plans (implementation intentions). Finally, there are students who have not crossed the Rubikon, who “complete” the pre-decision phase by not having developed any interest and intentions to seek study-related experiences abroad, that is, students who arrive at a negative overall evaluation of desirability and/or realizability. As mentioned, for these four student groups different obstacles are expected to be relevant.

Four groups will therefore be differentiated in the study: an implementation group, a plans group, an interest group and a no-interest/intentions group (referred to as no-interest group). This allows conducting analysis separately for the four status groups, and the conceptualization of three thresholds: the no-interest—interest threshold, the interest—plans threshold and the plans—implementation threshold (referred to as the *interest threshold*, *plans threshold* and *implementation threshold* respectively). These thresholds represent certain stages in what in this thesis is referred to as the TSM process. In view of the aim to increase TSM in higher education, the goal would be that more students complete the TSM process in an “ideal” manner, that is, that more students progress to the implementation stages; or, vice versa, that less students complete the TSM process in a manner in which they remain at the no-interest, interest or planning stages upon graduation. Importantly, the TSM process should therefore be seen as a theoretical line of a *possible* (and in view of aims to increase TSM ideal) development among students. The “outcome” of the TSM process is thus not necessarily to have gained study-related experiences abroad but can be at any of the four stages. Obstacles to implementing TSM are therefore not only conceived as difficulties relating to TSM implementation itself, but as well in relation to the whole TSM process, and thus also as obstacles to developing interest and intentions in the first place.

The study in Investigation Strand 2 will be a contribution to provide insights into the obstacles of implementing TSM for teacher education students, and on the factors (variables) that could be addressed in order to support students in “moving” from the status group no-interest to the status group interest, to the group having plans and eventually to implementing

TSM (thus along the process passing the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation). In order to provide such knowledge for developing suitable strategies, the study will be pursued in three thematic lines of inquiry—derived from the research and literature review in the previous chapters—that represent different realms of potential obstacles (and drivers).

The first thematic line of inquiry focuses on a comparison of the demand profiles of students and the program offer at institutions, as a realm in which obstacles could be existent and on which strategies for fostering TSM could be based.

The second thematic line of inquiry focuses on using a concrete set of issues (item battery) which will be directly assessed by students in terms of their relevance as obstacles to TSM for them, in order to provide detailed knowledge on distinct issues and their relevance as obstacles to students. Extending previous mobility research, a balanced and theory-based set of issues will be used; analysis will be conducted separately for four different status groups of students and include a multivariate analysis at each threshold in order to determine the most important and differentiating variables at different thresholds.

The third thematic line of inquiry to reveal obstacles and derive strategies for fostering TSM focuses on the role of sociodemographic and study-related background, the role of (international dimensions in students') study environments, professional relevance associated by students to gaining international experiences, and students' knowledge and awareness in the TSM process.

Within these three lines of inquiry (in the following described in more detail), investigations will be guided by the following “detailed research questions” that will be posed to the material so as to provide an answer to Research Question #2 (obstacles to TSM):

- Which obstacles can be revealed on the basis of a comparison of student demand profiles (in the four status groups) and program offer at institutions, using a differentiated set of program forms of TSM? (#2\_1)
- Which obstacles (items, domains) are relevant for the four different status groups of students? (#2\_2)
- In a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation, which issues (variables) have a significant influence on the

likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold?  
(#2\_3)

The third detailed research question (#2\_3) shall be answered using data from the second and third line of inquiry.

A forward-looking question will be posed to the results of Investigation Strand 1 (also integrating the larger context as revealed by the results in Investigation Strand 2, see Method chapter for more details), so as to derive conclusions and recommendations (relevant program and organization strategies) on ways to foster TSM in teacher education (cf. Research Question #3).

#### 2.5.5.1 Researching Obstacles to Temporary Study-Related Mobility Through Comparing Program Demand and Offer

Previous chapters have shown how the Erasmus program has fundamentally shaped internationalization and TSM in the European arena. The Erasmus study-abroad semester is *the* classical form of gaining TSM in Europe. There is also a tradition of program-supported TSM experiences lasting for a minimum duration of three months (only in the most recent program generation the minimum duration for study abroad and internships abroad has been reduced to 2 months). At the same time, varying relevance of different program forms across different subject areas was observed and indications found that teacher education probably displays a specific demand profile (cf. Chapter 2.5.1.3). This observation, together with the above mentioned dominance of the program form study-abroad, provides the basis for the overall assumption that unmet demand profiles of students in teacher education degree programs are one of the obstacles to a broader diffusion and implementation of TSM experiences. That is, it is expected to find a specific demand profile of TSM program forms among teacher education students, whereby a particular relevance of practice-oriented stays in teacher education degree programs is assumed, as well as a particular relevance of shorter program forms (the grounds on which this is assumed will be explained in the next paragraph). The assumption also entails the expectation to find that the implementation of this specific demand profile is being hindered by non-corresponding institutional offers. These institutional offers are expected to be strongly shaped by European traditions, and therefore to be geared primarily towards offering TSM experiences in the form of longer academic stays abroad.

Due to a certain structural complexity of TE degree programs (academic study combined with practical components, in most cases multiple disciplines combined within a degree) and comparatively dense regulation, it is assumed that students in TE degree programs may in particular find shorter programs—of less than three months’ duration—more suitable to their needs and degree program context than longer program forms. In addition, such shorter program forms may be generally relevant to students since they provide a more accessible route of entry into international educational experiences for those who have certain apprehensions or limited resources available. Practice-oriented program forms are assumed to be of particular relevance on the basis of the professional coining of TE degree programs which typically include practice-based periods of study.

The assumed particular relevance of practice-oriented and shorter program forms will be mirrored in the operationalization of TSM into seven different program forms (see in detail Method chapter), covering shorter and longer program forms as well as academic and practice-based program forms.

Summarizing, on the basis of previously outlined considerations, the overall assumption in the first line of inquiry is to find unmet *student demand profiles* as an obstacle to the diffusion (implementation) of TSM among teacher education students. The detailed research question (#2\_1) formulated is: Which obstacles can be revealed on the basis of a comparison of student demand profiles (in the four status groups) and program offer at institutions, using a differentiated set of program forms of TSM? The following concrete hypotheses are formulated:

- A high(er) relevance of shorter program forms (less than three months) as opposed to longer program forms (more than three months)
- A higher(er) relevance of practice-oriented TSM forms as opposed to academic TSM forms
- Discrepancies between student demand profiles on the one side and factual implementation (*implementation profiles*) and institutional offer on the other side

### 2.5.5.2 Researching Obstacles to Temporary Study-Related Mobility Through Students’ Assessment of a Distinct Set of Issues

In the second line of inquiry, a set of concrete (potential) obstacles is directly evaluated by students. As implied by reflections in Chapter 2.5.4, the set of obstacles is developed on the basis of item batteries used in previous studies (e.g., Maiworm & Teichler, 2002b; Orr et al., 2011), while aimed to overcome shortcomings (skews) of said existing item batteries: A broad and balanced set of obstacles that relates to five empirically based and theoretically guided domains of obstacles will be employed. Integrating dimensions of the Rubikon model of action phases (desirability, realizability, see Chapter 2.5.3) with the empirically-derived obstacle groupings (Chapter 2.5.2.2), the item battery on obstacles to mobility will cover: dimensions of value and desirability—the subjective assessment of (1) positive and (2) negative consequences; and dimensions of realizability and opportunities—(3) the assessment of own resources and abilities (such as foreign language skills, coping confidence), (4) the information and support environment at institutions and (5) the judgement of opportunities with regard to reaching the goal of gaining experiences abroad, that is, the suitability of program offer at students’ institutions. Table 10 below lists the five domains of obstacles and presents a sample item for each domain. The development of the item battery is described in more detail in the Method chapter.

**Table 10:** Five Domains of Obstacles and Sample Items

Domain	Sample item
(1) Lack of (anticipated) positive consequences/ lack of benefits seen (Short name: <i>Lack of value</i> )	Expected low contribution to my professional development, profile and career prospects.
(2) (Anticipated) negative consequences (Short name: <i>Negative consequences</i> )	Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.).
(3) Apprehensions about own abilities, personal resources and coping skills (Short name: <i>Apprehensions</i> )	I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to do this and just go into a foreign environment.
(4) Problems with information, guidance and support from institutions (Short name: <i>Guidance</i> )	Not enough individual counseling or workshops at the beginning of studies for students who are interested in going abroad [...].
(5) Limitations in suitable program offer and program integration with regular studies (Short name: <i>Mismatch programs</i> )	Limited offer and access to interesting programs and places to gain experiences abroad.

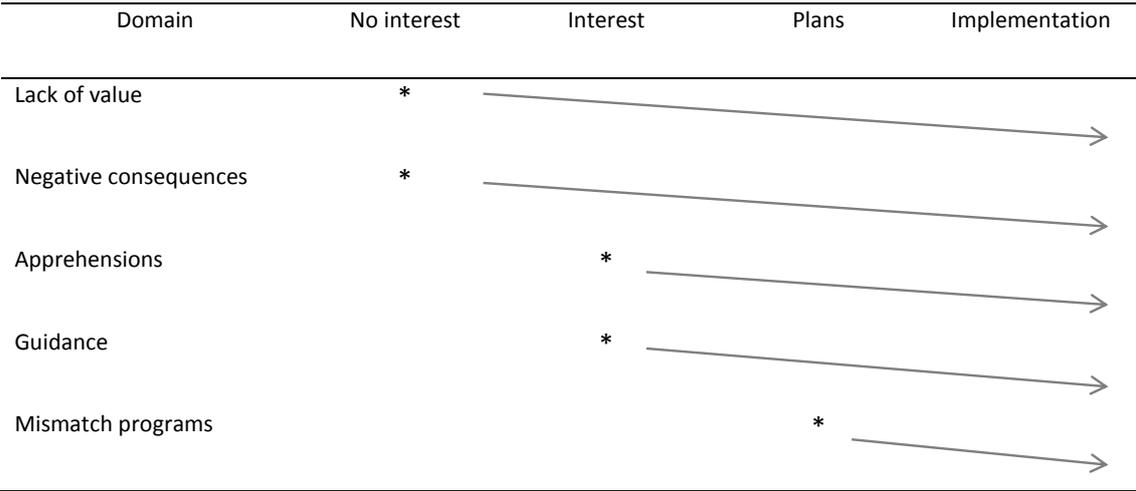
The aim of this line of inquiry is to provide points of departure for designing purposeful strategies for fostering TSM among students (in teacher education). As concluded above (see Chapter 2.5.4), it is important to conceptualize TSM participation as a process and to differentiate different status groups of students in reference to the TSM process, so as to

provide knowledge on the issues (obstacles) relevant at different stages, that is, for different status groups of students.

The second line of inquiry provides results to answer two of the detailed research questions (#2\_2 and #2\_3). First, it will provide answers to the question of which obstacles (items, domains) are relevant for the four different status groups of students (#2\_2).

On the basis of having reviewed relevant theory and previous empirical research on obstacles to TSM (cf. summary reflections in Chapter 2.5.4), the hypothesis is formulated that there will be *different* issues revealed as most relevant in the four different status groups (no-interest, interest, plans and implementation group), both at the item and domain level. In other words, it is expected to find different *configurations of obstacles* (or: obstacle domains) in the four status groups to which strategies to foster TSM among students (in TE degree programs) would have to attend in order to effectively “mobilize” each group concerned.

On the basis of the Rubikon model of action phases, and in view of insights gained from the review of previously conducted research on obstacles to TSM, some considerations regarding the differing relevance of the five domains of obstacles “along the TSM process” can be made. These considerations (as summarized in Figure 5) should not be understood as a precise framework to be tested, but rather as assumptions on likely obstacle domain configurations in the different status groups.



**Figure 5.** Assumed relevance of different obstacle domains “along the TSM process”. Stages where obstacle domains are assumed to become relevant or characterizing are marked with an asterisk; downward arrows indicate an assumed sinking relevance of obstacle domains along the TSM process.

In this sense it is expected that issues relating to the domain *lack-of-value*—due to unclarity or a lack of benefits seen as associated with mobility experiences—will be of major relevance in the no-interest group, while of low importance in the obstacle domain configurations of the other status groups: At these subsequent stages students do state to have a definite interest in gaining experiences abroad and, obviously, see the benefits of mobility. According to the Rubikon model, desirability (which must be positive in order to cross the Rubikon) is a combination of expected positive and negative consequences. It can therefore also be expected that the domain *negative-consequences* is of high concern in the no-interest group, while for students in the interest, plans and implementation group, this domain will become less relevant. At the same time, previous research shows that issues representing the domain *negative-consequences* (such as a delay in study progress or financial difficulties) are among the major obstacles generally identified. This domain could therefore also be expected to remain of *some* relevance throughout all stages. Possible *apprehensions* that students have about their own abilities are expected to become a characterizing domain only in the interest group: This group shows interest in gaining experiences abroad and the desirability of TSM might now actualize their apprehensions about their own abilities and resources (cf. dimension realizability), such as whether one’s foreign language skills will be sufficient, or whether one will be able to cope in a foreign environment (whereas students who have no motivation to gain TSM also need not be concerned about their abilities and resources). The domain *guidance* is expected to become relevant in the obstacle domain profiles from the interest stage onwards. Finally, the domain *mismatch-programs* which relates to realizability and the opportunities in one’s context is expected to be of high importance in particular to those who seek concrete opportunities to gain experiences abroad (plans and implementation group), while less importance is assumed for the earlier stages at which students are probably not yet concerned with *concrete* program options. The downward arrows in Figure 5 signify the thought that each group will be characterized by a distinct obstacle domain profile, while obstacles will be experienced as less severe by higher status groups.

Conclusions in Chapter 2.5.4 pointed to the importance of comparative perspectives on different status groups of students (in relation to the TSM process), and of conducting research on what distinguishes the different status groups, that is, to identify the issues (variables) significantly impacting upon whether students “progress” in the (ideal) TSM process and thus towards implementation. Approaches able to identify variables that have a significant impact in the TSM process (in this study modelled through the three thresholds

interest, plans, implementation) are suited to provide the knowledge needed to understand TSM participation and non-participation in detail, and to design the most appropriate strategies to increase TSM. To arrive at such knowledge, the distinct issues evaluated as obstacles by students (obstacles item battery) shall therefore also be subjected to the third detailed research question (#2\_3): Which issues (variables) have, in a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation, a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold?

Table 11 summarizes the direction of influences that items from the different domains of obstacles are expected to perform (*if* they are revealed to exert a significant influence in a multivariate analysis). For items of the domain negative-consequences it is expected that the more they are evaluated as relevant obstacles by students, the lower the likelihood that students fall into the higher group at a threshold (thus, items perform a negative impact). For example, at the plans threshold, which is comprised of the interest group and the plans group, it is expected that a higher rating of the negative consequence “being absent from friends and partner” will decrease the likelihood of students belonging to the plans group. Thus a higher rating as an obstacle would rather be indicative that students are “still” in the “lower” status group interest. Negative impacts are expected because negative consequences envisaged decrease the desirability of gaining experiences abroad, thus acting as a brace for progressing towards eventual participation in TSM. The opposite is true for positive consequences envisaged by students (the benefits associated to gaining TSM): They increase the desirability of gaining TSM. The more students are convinced about benefits and wish to gain TSM experiences, the higher their motivation will be to overcome other obstacles. A *lack* of positive consequences seen by students (items from the domain lack-of-value) is therefore expected to impact negatively at all three thresholds. While all items were assessed by students in their role as obstacles, this does not necessarily mean that they perform only a negative influence in a multivariate analysis aiming to identify variables that differentiate between two status groups. High student concern with a specific issue, for example which concrete programs are available or whether one really has the resources to cope abroad, could as well be indicative of already having passed certain thresholds (otherwise students would not be concerned with such issues *at all*; such a positive impact of “obstacles” is expected to be particularly prevalent at the interest threshold). As shown in Table 11, some issues are therefore expected to have a positive impact at certain thresholds, the more they are evaluated as obstacles: High(er) values on the items from the domain apprehensions are expected to be

indicative of the higher status group at the first threshold because having apprehensions, doubts and insecurities about own resources, skills and capabilities can be viewed as indicative of having crossed the interest threshold. On the other hand, when apprehensions are not overcome at some point, their influence is expected to be negative (negative impact at plans and implementation threshold as shown in Table 11). The same pattern is expected for the domain guidance: high(er) values on the items from this domain are expected to be indicative of having crossed the interest threshold, but are expected to exert negative influences at the plans and implementation thresholds. Furthermore, high(er) values on the items from the domain mismatch-programs with regular studies are expected to perform a positive influence at the interest threshold (students in the no-interest group would be less concerned with these concrete issues) as well as at the plans threshold. Students, at the stage of planning, will have to decide on specific program forms and secure their places on programs. Thus, a concrete concern of program offer as a potential obstacle can be expected to be indicative of having moved to the “higher” status group plans already. At the implementation threshold, however, a negative influence is expected since high concerns as regards finding suitable programs can actually prevent eventual implementation.

**Table 11:** Expected Direction of Influences at Thresholds by Items From Different Domains

Item domain	Threshold		
	Interest	Plans	Implementation
Lack of (anticipated) positive consequences/lack of value	-	-	-
(Anticipated) negative consequences	-	-	-
Apprehensions about own abilities, personal resources and coping skills	+	-	-
Limitations in suitable program offer and program integration with regular studies	+	+	-
Problems with information, guidance and support from institution	+	-	-

### 2.5.5.3 Researching Obstacles to Temporary Study-Related Mobility: The Role of Students' Background, Study Environments, Professional Relevance and Student Knowledge of Temporary Study-Related Mobility

The third line of inquiry turns to important dimensions, as implied by previous research and theory, and determines the role of (1) sociodemographic and study-related variables, (2) study environments of students, (3) professional relevance associated by students to TSM, and (4) knowledge and awareness of TSM options among students. It is related to the third detailed research question (#2\_3) of which variables have a significant

influence (in a multivariate analysis) on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each of the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation.

A group of study-related and sociodemographic variables, which can be referred to as *student resources*, shall be included in the analysis. These relate to the dimension of realizability which is an important determinant of whether students cross the Rubikon and eventually progress to implementation. Student resources should not be thought of as financial or physical resources only, but also as related to (institutionalized) cultural capital such as educational background of parents. Variables included (as implied by previous research results, see Chapter 2.5.2.3) will be educational background of parents, financial background (income), students' foreign language skills, and their previous international experiences. Students' academic achievements shall also be included in the analysis. We know from previous research that the expected organizational burden and administrative hurdles (including recognition issues) are student concerns when it comes to gaining TSM. This could have the effect that only students with high academic achievements in their study program might feel to have the resources to add yet another element—international mobility—to their study experience. In addition, whether students have an international family background (migration background) shall be looked upon. Similarly to previous international experience, having international family background might, through exposure to international and intercultural settings, foster students' intent to gain international experiences. All these resource-related variables are expected to exert a positive influence at each threshold if variables become significant in a multivariate analysis (see Table 12): For example, previous international experiences are expected to increase the likelihood that students will fall into the higher group at a given threshold.

Previous research identified further variables to include in the analysis of factors that perform significant influences at the three thresholds: Gender, which has been identified as an influential factor (albeit with little size of effects). In cases where this variable may become significant in a multivariate analysis, being female is (on the basis of previous research results) expected to exert a positive influence, see Table 12). Furthermore, having children has been identified as a barrier in previous research and will be included, whereby negative influences are expected. In addition, age and study year shall be included in the analysis. It is expected that these two variables (higher age and higher study year) exert a negative impact at the first threshold (no-interest—interest), since a certain amount of students will progress in their study program without changing their orientation towards gaining TSM, thus remaining

in the no-interest group. This is expected to offset any effects where institutions successfully “move” students from the no-interest stage to the interest stage as they progress in their studies. At the second and third threshold, however, a positive impact of increasing age and study year is expected. A further study-related variable of interest specifically in the field of teacher education is whether students study foreign languages or not. Here, it is expected that gaining experiences abroad may generally appear more opportune to students who study to become a teacher in a foreign language than to those who do not. Not studying a foreign language is therefore expected to exert a negative influence at all three thresholds.

Two further areas related to the dimension of desirability in the Rubikon model are implied to be included by the literature review conducted: International dimensions conveyed through study environments, and the professional relevance associated with gaining international experiences. Study environments—the learning environment as shaped mostly by academic staff but the broader institutional environment as well—have been identified as important potential levers to building student interest and motivation to gain experiences abroad (see Chapter 2.5.2.2 and 2.5.2.3). A positive impact of study environments carrying international dimensions is therefore expected. The professional relevance associated with international experiences and competences relates to the value- and benefits-based dimensions (cf. desirability dimension in the Rubikon model), the fundamental role of which was derived above. It is professional relevance (instead of personal motivation) that shall be included in an analysis, since professional relevance is expected to shape decisions “for” or “against” gaining study-related experiences in a professionally oriented degree program among all those students not belonging to the small group anyway endeavoring to gain international experiences, no matter which discipline or program they study in. Professional relevance is also of key importance since it is one of the major arguments why teachers should gain international experiences and build professionally relevant international competences. If significant in a multivariate analysis, positive impacts of higher professional relevance seen are expected to be found at all thresholds.

Finally, information-related aspects are often identified as obstacles among students, and an aspect relevant within the Rubikon model of action phases (see Chapter 2.5.3). Student awareness and knowledge influence students’ (implicit or explicit) decisions along the TSM process. Therefore, a fourth area of variables that shall be covered is the knowledge and awareness of students with respect to opportunities to gain experiences abroad. Positive impacts of students’ knowledge and awareness of options and opportunities with respect to

gaining TSM are expected to be observed at each threshold (if variables become relevant as significant predictors).

**Table 12:** Expected Direction of Influences at Three Thresholds

Domain	Threshold		
	Interest	Plans	Implementation
Educational background	+	+	+
Income	+	+	+
Academic achievements	+	+	+
Foreign language skills	+	+	Not included
Previous international experiences	+	+	Not included
International/migration background family	+	+	+
Gender (female)	+	+	+
Having children	-	-	-
Age	-	+	+
Study year	-	+	+
Not studying foreign languages	-	-	-
Study environment	+	+	+
Professional relevance	+	+	+
Knowledge and awareness of opportunities	+	+	+

#### 2.5.5.4 Overview Investigation Strand 2

The knowledge gained in all lines of inquiry will contribute to a revelation of obstacles to TSM (cf. Research Question #2) and to providing conclusions and recommendations on ways to foster TSM in teacher education degree programs (cf. concluding question, Research Question #3). At the same time, the results will not only be relevant to fostering mobility in teacher education, but also beyond, due to an inquiry into obstacles (and drivers) to temporary study-related mobility on the basis of a differentiated conceptual approach that identifies four different status groups of students (modeling TSM participation as a process), and that is built on thematic dimensions that take into account previous research as well as theoretical models. Table 13 summarizes inquiry and thematic coverage in Investigation Strand 2. Further details on the implementation of the study will be provided in the subsequent chapter Method.

**Table 13: Investigation Strand 2—Overview Thematic Coverage and Research Questions**

Thematic coverage in three lines of inquiry	Research questions	Concluding question (Research Question #3): Conclusions and recommendations (relevant program and organization strategies) on ways to foster TSM in teacher education?
<p>Program forms</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Student demand profiles on the basis of differentiating different program forms of TSM</li> <li>• Institutional offers</li> </ul>	<p>#2_1: Which obstacles can be revealed on the basis of a comparison of student demand profiles (in the four status groups) and program offer at institutions, using a differentiated set of program forms of TSM?<sup>a</sup></p>	
<p>Set of distinct obstacles</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of (anticipated) positive consequences/lack of value</li> <li>• (Anticipated) negative consequences</li> <li>• Apprehensions (about own abilities, personal resources and coping skills)</li> <li>• Problems with information, guidance and support from institution</li> <li>• Limitations in suitable program offer and program integration with regular studies</li> </ul>	<p>#2_2: Which obstacles (items, domains) are relevant for the four different status groups of students?<sup>a</sup></p> <p>#2_3: In a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation, which issues (variables) have a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold?<sup>a</sup></p>	
<p>Dimensions potentially influencing TSM interest, plans and implementation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sociodemographic background and study-related variables</li> <li>• International dimensions in study environment</li> <li>• Recognition of professional relevance</li> <li>• Knowledge and awareness of opportunities</li> </ul>	<p>#2_3: In a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation, which issues (variables) have a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold?<sup>a</sup></p>	

<sup>a</sup>Detailed Research Questions #2\_1, #2\_2 and #2\_3 are posed to contribute to answering Research Question #2: What are relevant obstacles for (different groups of) students in teacher education degree programs for gaining temporary study-related experiences abroad?

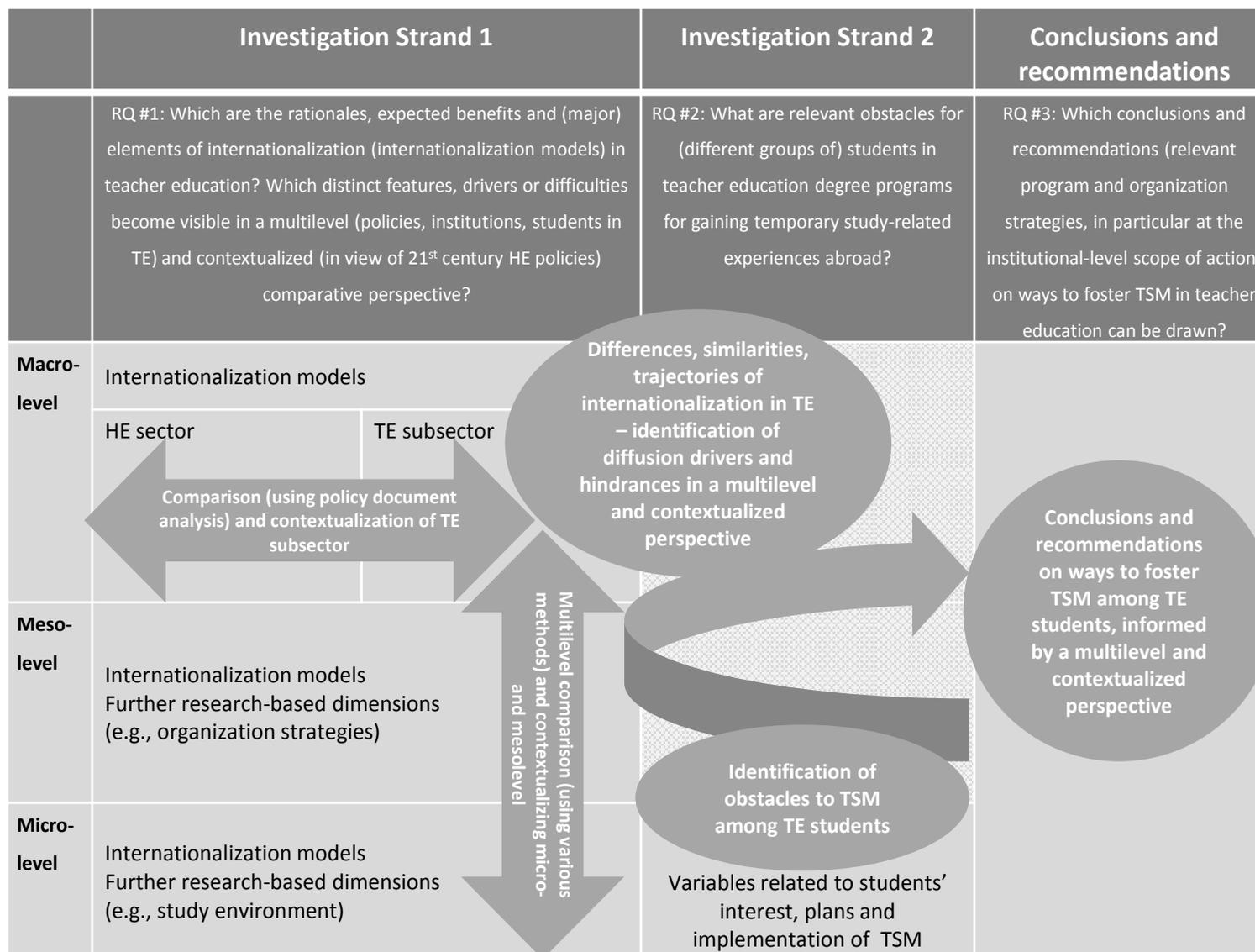
### **3. Method**

This chapter on methods first sets out the overall methodological approach and study design (Chapter 3.1), including underlying methodological considerations and important principles underpinning the study. Chapter 3.2 continues with a detailed description of the data used in the study, including the different data collection methods and a summary thematic overview of the data collected and used in Investigation Strand 1 and 2. Finally, Chapter 3.3 outlines in detail the strategies of data analysis employed (including measures and methods used) to arrive at results for answering the research questions.

#### **3.1 Methodological Approach and Study Design**

##### **3.1.1 Overview**

The study aims to close a gap in TSM and internationalization research on the barriers at work in the field of teacher education degree programs that result in a gap between the ideal of teacher education graduates having international experiences, and the factually low and underproportionate mobility rates in teacher education degree programs in Europe. The study design follows the aim to describe, understand and provide explanations for the gap mentioned so as to eventually derive conclusions and recommendations on ways to foster TSM in teacher education degree programs (cf. meliorist concern in comparative and international education; see e.g. Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007; Hörner, 2004). It aims to reveal the trajectories (distinct features, drivers or difficulties) of internationalization in the specific field of teacher education degree programs at higher education institutions in Europe (cf. ideographic concern as one of the core functions of comparative studies; see, e.g., Hörner, 2004, 2013), and to reveal obstacles to a broader diffusion of TSM among teacher education students. A multilevel and contextualized comparative approach both descriptive and analytic in nature (with a strong reliance on evaluative lines of investigation using empirical data) is employed to accomplish these aims. The overall methodological approach is presented in Figure 6.



**Figure 6.** Overview of methodology—multilevel and contextualized comparative approach.

In view of the study's aims the study design (see Figure 6) involves two strands of investigation of different scope and focus. In order to describe and understand internationalization in teacher education, to analytically reveal distinct features, drivers, or difficulties as well as concrete obstacles to TSM in teacher education degree programs, the study relies on multifaceted data stemming from different levels of observation (data is described in detail Chapter 3.2). In Investigation Strand 1, a comparative inquiry into theory- and research-based dimensions at the policy (macro), institutional (meso) and student (micro) level that can support or hinder the diffusion of internationalization and TSM in TE degree programs is pursued. Different data sources are employed in Investigation Strand 1 (student survey data, institutional core data on internationalization and staff survey data, document analysis of policies and policy-making discourses). In Investigation Strand 2, based primarily on student survey data, a quantitative inquiry into the obstacles to TSM among students in TE degree programs is performed. On the basis of theory and previous research, a set of issues (variables) is investigated and their role in the TSM process determined. Investigation Strand 1 (answering Research Question #1) enables revealing trajectories of internationalization in teacher education and identifying obstacles to TSM in teacher education degree programs from a comparative, multilevel perspective, contextualized within general higher education internationalization environments. By contextualizing findings of Investigation Strand 2—which focuses on revealing obstacles for gaining TSM at the student level (answering Research Question #2)—within the broader results of Investigation Strand 1, the study design allows to eventually draw conclusions and recommendations on ways to foster study-related mobility in teacher education from a multilevel and contextualized perspective (answering concluding question in the thesis, Research Question #3).

### **3.1.2 Methodological Characteristics and Principles**

Having provided an overview of the study's approach in the previous chapter, this chapter sets out important methodological characteristics and principles underpinning this approach. In very brief terms, they relate to the study's meliorist stance, its ideographic interest in the field of teacher education, and the use of a systematic comparative approach based on empirical data, multilevel inquiry, and contextualization as core features of the study; additionally, to the integrated methodological aim of both understanding *and* explaining internationalization in teacher education and gaps to a broader diffusion of TSM among teacher education graduates.

Having a meliorist stance and employing a systematic comparative approach to generate empirical knowledge on the topic studied, the study relates to both of the two purposes which are foundational and defining to the field of comparative education (see Hörner, 2004, 2012, 2013; see also Adick, 2008, pp. 160–167; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007, pp. 14–17). The first is a politically-relevant, practically-inspired interest in generating comparative knowledge for the purposes of improvement—traditionally by studying education systems abroad, or aspects of these, in order to improve one’s own education system (Hörner, 2013, pp. 109–110). The second is a systematic-theoretical interest in using the comparison of phenomena in education (traditionally again pursued at the nation state level, Adick, 2012) as an approach towards generating empirically established knowledge in education (Hörner, 2013, pp. 109–110). Practical (meliorist) purposes are seen as the historical roots of comparative education, while the concern with theoretical purposes is seen as historically tied to the establishment of comparative education as a discipline or disciplinary branch in education studies (Hörner, 2013). Meliorist purposes continue to underpin most research in the field of comparative education today (Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007), while at the same time the theoretical purposes (generating knowledge in the field of educational sciences through systematic comparative inquiry) define current high-quality comparative education studies (Adick, 2012) that follow a meliorist concern. Practical and theoretical purposes for employing comparative approaches are thus not mutually exclusive (as described also by Hörner, 2013); the study at hand indeed combines both.

Next to both practical and theoretical purposes underpinning the study, one of its characteristics is that it pursues an ideographic interest. In ideographic studies, comparison serves to identify, describe and explain the unique—the specific—characteristics in the educational phenomena under investigation (Hörner, 2004). The ideographic function in this study relates to describing and analyzing, that is, understanding in detail, the situation with respect to TSM and internationalization in the specific field of teacher education. Juxtaposition and comparison of internationalization in *teacher education* with internationalization in the *higher education* sector in general (see Figure 6) serve the purpose to reveal what is specific about internationalization and TSM in teacher education. Such relational positioning of higher education and teacher education has also already been underpinning the research and literature review (as performed in Chapters 2.2 to 2.4). While being deliberately positioned “against” each other in relevant sections of this thesis, the look to internationalization and TSM in higher education in general also serves as a

contextualization for the results of the teacher education sector—which is a subsector in higher education.

Contextualization, as shown in Figure 6, is a defining principle of the study at hand. In undertaking comparison, the need to embed the study of specific educational phenomena into a consideration of relevant contexts has been a demand since Michael Sadler’s first definition of standards for comparative education studies (see Hörner, 2013, p. 111). Contextualization is a core principle in comparative research (Allemann-Ghionda, 1995; Hörner, 2013; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007), enabling the derivation of valid conclusions and preventing “naïve educational borrowing” (Hörner, 2012, p. 366). As Phillips and Schweisfurth (2007) have put it: “We can only properly understand an educational phenomenon in terms of the contextual factors that have created and shaped it. Indeed, it is essential in comparative studies to insist on the centrality of context for degrees of explanatory power” (p. 12). With respect to comparative inquiry and contextualizing educational phenomena in adequate frames of reference, authors have proposed an increased use of *multilevel perspectives* (Bray & Thomas, 1995) and approaches of dynamic contextualization (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004, pp. 201–202; Allemann-Ghionda, 2010, pp. 27–29). Such approaches enable a more multifaceted and precise understanding of educational phenomena: Bray and Thomas (1995), while acknowledging various flaws of multilevel comparative studies they reviewed, assert that “the fact that they [multilevel studies] consider their subjects from several different angles facilitates a comprehensive and possibly more accurate presentation of the phenomena they address” (p. 484). The approach of dynamic contextualization reverts to Bray and Thomas’ concept of multilevel inquiry: It involves a systemic perspective in which the educational phenomena under investigation are situated (researched and interpreted) within a multilevel perspective, and in which these different levels are not seen as static but as dynamically influencing each other (Allemann-Ghionda, 2004, 2010). The multilevel and contextualized comparative approach pursued in the study does allow for dynamic contextualization (see Figure 6), on the basis of which interpretations are made and conclusions drawn.

When situating the study at hand within the field of comparative studies in education, it is furthermore important to note its departing from comparisons at the nation state level. Characteristic of the field, both historically with respect to the field of comparative education coming into existence and today, the nation state is the most immediate and common level of comparison in comparative education (Bray & Thomas, 1995; Hörner, 2013; this focus is also easily observable when looking into classical current textbooks, e.g., Adick, 2008; Phillips

& Schweisfurth, 2007). Bray and Thomas (1995) have criticized comparative education studies' too immediate use of the nation state as the level of comparison and noted that "the chief focus in comparative education literature has been on countries and world regions, and that this has tended to lead to unbalanced and incomplete perspectives" (p. 472). They underline that the state or regional level may not always be the most appropriate unit for analysis due to, for example, the fact that nation states and world regions are not always equivalent units with respect to the educational phenomena investigated (ibid.). As outlined above (see also Figure 6) the comparisons in the study at hand are constructed around the higher education sector and the subsector teacher education, as well as around three levels of acting—the macro (policy), meso (institution) and micro (student) level—all of them co-determining outcomes with respect to the educational phenomenon under investigation.

In the sense of an *integrated methodological research program* (Kelle, 2007), both *understanding* and *explaining* gaps to more broadly diffusing TSM in teacher education degree programs are aims guiding the research design. The traditional divide between understanding being associated with the qualitative paradigm, and explaining with the quantitative, is overcome in integrated research designs. To achieve such a *verstehende Erklärung* (an understanding explanation; Kelle, 2007, pp. 263–268)<sup>36</sup>, both investigation strands are based on empirical data (with a strong reliance on quantitative data and evaluative lines of inquiry): The research in Investigation Strand 1 is designed to achieve a deep understanding of internationalization in teacher education while at the same time allowing a search for explanations through including and interpreting results from a multilevel and contextualized perspective. This is achieved by employing different data sources (from multiple levels) and linking results of various analyses (e.g., document analysis, descriptive and inferential statistical analysis of survey data). In comparison, Investigation Strand 2 is more narrowly designed to evaluate concrete hypotheses on obstacles to TSM (using mostly student survey data and multivariate inferential data analysis), and thus to explain. By means of contextualizing findings of Investigation Strand 2 within the findings of Investigation Strand 1, it becomes possible to situate concrete results and explanations of Investigation Strand 2 within the broader understanding gained in Investigation Strand 1, and thus to derive context-aware conclusions and recommendations on ways to foster TSM.

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<sup>36</sup> The original German terms used are *Sinnverstehen* (understanding) and *Erklärung* (explanation) as traditional aims in qualitative and quantitative research designs respectively, and *Verstehende Erklärung* (an understanding explanation) as related to integrative research approaches that aim to overcome traditional divides between qualitative and quantitative paradigms, and to achieve both understanding and explanation.

Both investigation strands are guided by theory and previous research and, on this basis, make certain assumptions and hypotheses. In line with the specific aims of both investigation strands, the role of assumptions and hypotheses is different in the two investigation strands (and therefore the terms assumptions and hypotheses are differentiated): In Investigation Strand 1, which is more explorative and interpretative in total, the theory- and research-based assumptions (see Chapter 2.4.6) are broader, and the interest is on the general role of certain issues in a multilevel and contextualized perspective (while less on the exact quantitative influences of certain variables). As Investigation Strand 1, Investigation Strand 2 reverts to previous research—the areas of inquiry (issues and variables investigated) are defined on the basis of an extensive literature review and guided by the Rubikon model of action phases. In comparison to Investigation Strand 1, the hypotheses (see Chapter 2.5.5) here are more specific and concrete, and it is the exact quantitative role and influence of specific variables that is of interest. Results gained through both investigation strands provide for the possibility to arrive at the above mentioned understanding explanation of the gap between “internationalization ideals” and “internationalization realities” in teacher education degree programs.

## **3.2 Data: Affordances, Thematic Coverage, Data Collection**

Having outlined the lines of inquiry, together with assumptions and hypotheses in Investigation Strand 1 and 2 (Chapters 2.4.6 and 2.5.5), and the overall approach and methodological principles in the previous chapter (Chapter 3.1), the following chapters turn to the data-related implementation of the study, outlining affordances in data collection and data used in the study as well as the process and methods of data collection.

### **3.2.1 Affordances and Implied Data Collection Strategies**

Due to a lack of research specifically focusing on internationalization and TSM in teacher education in view of current higher education (policy) environments, the study pursues a comprehensive approach related to the aim of describing and understanding trajectories of internationalization and obstacles to TSM in teacher education degree programs. At the same time, in order to derive conclusions on ways to foster TSM in teacher education, the study design (and data collection) needs to be sufficiently detailed and concrete with respect to identifying obstacles as relevant to students. Affordances in the design of the study and the conceptualization of data collection therefore related to enabling a comprehensive understanding that embeds TSM into internationalization models and

trajectories as relevant to the field, as well as to enabling a sufficiently detailed and concrete perspective on the obstacles to TSM as encountered by students in TE degree programs. The data collection also needed to include a relatively broad set of issues, covering both obstacles to TSM and specific features of internationalization in teacher education. Furthermore, in order to link student results (microlevel) with the results at the institutional level (mesolevel), the data ideally needed to come from the same field (i.e., the same institutions) in order to avoid a confounding influence of unknown variables.

To accomplish the data collection task in a feasible and effective manner, a questionnaire survey among students as well as among staff was conducted at several institutions offering TE degree programs. These surveys provided the bulk of data to investigate implementation and practices (meso- and microlevel) of internationalization and TSM. In addition, “core data sheets” (collecting factual data about the institutions involved, mainly relating to internationalization) were collected from all the institutions involved. Where necessary, information and interpretation was verified through further email exchanges and interviews with relevant contact persons (international officers at institutions). To investigate the policy level, a document analysis of European-level policies and policy-making discourses was the method chosen to collect data on the basis of which current higher education and teacher education internationalization models could be revealed.

Table 14 provides an overview on the data sources used to collect data at different levels, the scope of data, and constituencies referred to.

**Table 14:** Overview on Data Sources, Terminology Used to Refer to Different Constituencies and Scope of Data

	Macrolevel	Mesolevel	Microlevel
Data source	Document analysis	Survey and core data sheet	Survey
Constituency	Policy level	HEIs and staff in teacher education	Students in teacher education degree programs
Scope	Policies and policy-making discourses on int'n and TSM in Europe (HE and TE)	Level of implementation and practices of int'n and TSM (teacher education)	

*Note.* HEIs = higher education institutions; Int'n = internationalization; TSM = temporary study-related mobility; HE = higher education; TE = teacher education.

### **3.2.2 Thematic Issues Covered**

As was already indicated (see, e.g., Figure 6), comparisons of internationalization models (rationales and elements of internationalization in HE and TE as well as across three systemic levels in TE) in Investigation Strand 1 are enriched by an analysis of relevant dimensions at the meso- and microlevel that can support or hinder the diffusion of internationalization and TSM in teacher education degree programs. The thematic areas of inquiry in Investigation Strand 1 were derived and summarized in Chapter 2.4.6 and are listed in Table 15 (left-hand column) which provides an overview on the thematic issues covered both in Investigation Strand 1 and 2. Investigation strand 2 relies on a data collection of relevant thematic issues as implied reverting to theoretical considerations (in particular the Rubikon model of action phases) and an extensive review of empirical research specifically on TSM and obstacles to TSM. Three lines of inquiry were derived in Chapter 2.5.5. Thematic coverage in Investigation Strand 2 is summarized in the right-hand column of Table 15.

Regarding the final specifications of thematic data coverage and data collection for Investigation Strand 1 and 2 (as included in surveys among staff and students in TE), it is also relevant to note that this was in addition informed by the interim results of the macrolevel policy-document analysis. This allowed the researcher to draw upon as much knowledge as possible when finalizing the contents of data collection at the meso- and microlevel.

**Table 15:** Overview of Data Collected

Level	Investigation Strand 1	Investigation Strand 2
Macro-level	<u>Internationalization models in HE and TE in policies and policy-making discourses</u> ; Rationales for int'n in HE and TE and elements (program and organization strategies) of int'n in HE and TE	
Meso-level	<u>Internationalization models at TE institutions</u> ; Staff support for most relevant policy-level rationales and relevance of different elements of int'n at institutional level  <u>Further research-based dimensions</u> : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staff convictions about TSM benefits</li> <li>• Systemic diffusion barriers (limited profitability and compatibility due to non-international culture and structural barriers; reform competition)</li> <li>• Institutional-level diffusion barriers (staff readiness; accomplishment of internationalization circle stages, in particular awareness and commitment and implementation of organization strategies to support diffusion of TSM and int'n)</li> </ul>	<u>Relevance of different TSM program forms</u> (academic vs. practice-based, shorter vs. longer) at institutions providing TE degree programs (institutional offer profile)
Micro-level	<u>Internationalization models among students in TE degree programs</u> ; role of different (policy-relevant) rationales for students, and relevance of different elements of int'n (abroad-elements and at-home elements)  <u>Further research-based dimensions</u> : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Benefits expected (and realized) through TSM experiences</li> <li>• Role of study environment as a driver for international orientations</li> <li>• International dimensions in TE students' study environments</li> </ul>	<u>Thematic area 1: Relevance of seven program forms of TSM</u> to students in teacher education (student demand profiles)  <u>Thematic area 2: Concrete obstacles to TSM</u> (among different status groups of students) relating to domains: lack-of-value, negative-consequences, apprehensions, guidance, mismatch-programs  <u>Thematic area 3: Further dimensions influencing TSM interest, plans and implementation</u> (sociodemographic background and study-related variables; international dimensions in study environment; recognition of professional relevance; knowledge and awareness of opportunities)

*Note.* Int'n = internationalization; HE = higher education; TE = teacher education; TSM = temporary study-related mobility.

### 3.2.3 Macrolevel Data Basis: Policy-Level Documents

Data to reveal the policy-level internationalization models in higher education and its subsector teacher education was obtained by way of a text (content) analysis (see Atteslander, 2010; Bortz & Döring; Kromrey & Strübing, 2009) of relevant policies and documents of policy-making discourses (in the following referred to as policy-document analysis, see further details in Chapter 3.3.2). European-level policies and discourses were selected for analysis (as opposed to analyzing a limited number of country-specific discourses) since they represent current trends, discussions and rationales for reforms in countries across Europe (see Chapter 2.3.3).

In the first phase of the content analysis (see Atteslander, 2010 for steps in such analysis), documents and relevant text passages were identified. In this process the researcher reverted to an extensive review of policy-making bodies and entities issuing policy-making papers, as well as of the concrete policy documents themselves. Knowledge gained from analyzing research and literature in Chapters 2.2 and 2.4 in particular served as the basis for determining relevant documents. The preparation for drafting the context description of European-level policies and relevant actors in current teacher education policies and discourses (first step in revealing results, see Chapter 4.1.1) also served as the knowledge base for an informed selection of policy documents.

Based on the aim to reveal policy-level internationalization models, criteria for selecting documents for each sphere (HE and the subsector TE) were that they related to European-level policies and policy-making discourses and, of course, that they contained references to the internationalization of HEIs and teacher education degree programs respectively. In addition, documents needed to be able to reveal current conceptualizations of internationalization. Therefore, documents selected stem from the 21<sup>st</sup> century, among them a majority from around the second half of the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. An example document used to reveal the HE internationalization model is the *Council Conclusions on the Internationalization of Higher Education* (Council of the EU, 2010b). An example document selected to reveal the internationalization model for the teacher education sector is a report on *Improving the Education of Teachers and Trainers* issued by a cross-European working group (European Commission/DG EAC, 2004). A full list of documents selected is provided in Appendix A).

Sections of documents with references to internationalization were included in the document analysis. This selection process resulted in the analysis of texts amounting to approximately 7000-9000 words for each the higher education sector and the teacher education subsector (for the framework of the analysis itself see Chapter 3.3.2).

### **3.2.4 Institutional- and Student-Level Data Basis**

Venues for possible data collection were selected in view of the fact that TE degree programs generally bear far-reaching similarities with respect to basic conceptualizations and the programs' constituent components, while at the same time there are variations in the precise implementation and focus (see Chapter 2.4.3). As a matter of course, the settings chosen for data collection needed to allow for the study of internationalization and TSM in *teacher education* and therefore exemplify typical program components and practices (subject-related study, pedagogical and didactical studies, importance of practice-components) in teacher education. Based on this, German Universities of Education were selected, as specialized institutions offering a majority of degrees in teacher education. However, conducting an analysis at any one institution, any one type of institution or in any one specific governance environment could have easily produced idiosyncratic results. The settings chosen for data collection were therefore systematically varied to include a certain variety of different specific implementation forms of TE degree programs within the concurrent model of teacher education (which is highly common in Europe, see Chapter 2.4.3). The total sample reverted to six institutions in two different countries. The six institutions cover TE degree programs which vary in the extent they emphasize different constituent components such as the extent of subject-specific study, pedagogical and didactic education, and practice components. Furthermore, they relate to two different regulative contexts (Germany and Denmark). Importantly, both countries are similar with regard to their general internationalization policies in research and education (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, 2008; Gemeinsame Wissenschaftskonferenz, 2013; Danish Ministry of Science, Innovation and Higher Education, 2012, 2013, 2014). Both also have substantial TSM rates among higher education graduates in general (see Orr et al., 2011). Furthermore, parallel to the important role assigned to TSM, in both countries increasing attention has recently been directed to the importance of international experiences of teaching graduates and to increasing mobility levels in the field of teacher education (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, 2013; Rådet for Internationalisering af Uddannelserne, 2008). Summing up, the sample “exemplifies” the field of teacher education (without being representative for Germany, Denmark or Europe), in the

sense that it enables observation of internationalization and TSM in teacher education degree programs as delivered by higher education institutions in Europe, within a context that generally advocates the internationalization of higher education and the promotion of TSM specifically, and covers a range of TE degree programs that (are similar in general but) vary in their detailed focus and structure and generally represent the concurrent model of TE in Europe. To ensure anonymity the individual institutions are not described in more detail as regards, for example, their size, programs offered or strategies pursued, since this would easily make the six institutions in the sample identifiable.

### **3.2.5 Data Collection at Teacher Education Institutions and Data Set**

Teacher education institutions were contacted with information about the purpose, goals, and requirements of the study on the side of institutions (such as centrally mailing out a questionnaire to students). They were asked to indicate whether they would be interested to participate in the research. In line with good scientific practice (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2003), institutions were guaranteed anonymity as well as a feedback report on the results for their institution, and the submission of data files for their institution for further use. Six institutions agreed to participate in the study, involving data collection (using questionnaires) among students and staff, and the completion of the core data sheet to obtain relevant factual information about institutions.

For the student survey it was important to secure the participation of institutions who agreed to centrally mail out the survey to all students enrolled in their TE degree programs. This served to avoid different selection effects at different institutions. Accordingly, relevant research authorizations were obtained at all institutions prior to data collection which was completed in 2013. Naturally, a *volunteer bias* (Belson 1986 cited in Cohen et al., 2003, p. 265) can be expected to exist in the survey in the form of a skew towards those teacher education students for whom the announced topic—international dimensions and experiences abroad in TE degree programs—already had a certain relevance, and who were thus more likely to respond to the survey. Importantly, this bias is, however, the same across all institutions since the relevant student population (all students enrolled in teacher education programs) was contacted using the same method.

In line with ethical standards (Cohen et al., 2003), students were informed on the purposes of the survey including full contact information of the author, and guaranteed the use

of data solely for the purposes of research. As institutions, students were offered the possibility to obtain a short report on the overall results of the survey.

Drafts of the structured questionnaire that operationalized the research questions and areas of inquiry, using predominately closed questions (due to advantages of such an approach with larger samples and when aiming for quantitative analysis and group comparisons, see Cohen et al., 2003, pp. 247–248, 255), were subjected to piloting using different methods such as a think-aloud protocol<sup>37</sup>.

The student questionnaire was administered online (for all details see Appendix F). Students in Germany received a German version of the questionnaire; students in Denmark received an English version (see Appendix G for full questionnaire). German and English-language versions were proofed and checked for correspondence to each other<sup>38</sup>. An email announcing the survey was sent to all students enrolled in TE degree programs by a staff member of the institution. A standard introductory text written by the researcher was provided to institutions for this purpose (see Appendix F). Where relevant and possible, reminders to complete the survey were sent to the students. In total, approximately 17,800 students enrolled in TE degree programs at the six institutions were contacted; 1,396 students responded to the survey, equaling an average response rate of 7.9%<sup>39</sup>. After data editing and

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<sup>37</sup> Drafts were discussed with experts (education, teacher education, quantitative analysis) to evaluate issues such as sequencing, length and redundancies, operationalizations, clarity, wording and question types at several stages of the development process. The questionnaire was also sent for consultation to all participating institutions. After revisions a think-aloud pre-test was conducted with one person to elicit in particular problems with respect to wording (ambiguities, misunderstandings) and improve the questionnaire's validity. Finally, the student questionnaire was pre-tested with a sample of 12 persons in order to identify any items to be revised or omitted from the questionnaire (due to lack of differentiability, systematically missing answers, etc.).

<sup>38</sup> Native speakers proofed German and English versions. Two English-language graduates and native German speakers familiar with terminology in education and internationalization reviewed the German and English versions for accuracy and semantic equivalence.

<sup>39</sup> Institutional response rates varied from 5% to 13.5%. Different response rates across the institutions are assumed to be due to: different survey fatigue among students at different institutions due to institutional surveying schemes in the winter term 2012/2013; at the institution with the highest response rate, the survey had been sent out by a senior management member which may have been motivating for the students; a below-average response rate at both of the Danish institutions (approx. 5%) is assumed to be due to intensive surveying that had taken place among students at these institutions. In addition, Danish students answered a questionnaire in English whereas German students answered a questionnaire in German. Despite Danish students generally having a very good command of English this may have still somewhat lowered the response rate.

reduction (cf. Cohen et al., 2003, p. 256)<sup>40</sup>, the sample size for analyses resulted in  $n = 1,058$ <sup>41</sup>.

The institutional questionnaire to obtain information from staff in TE degree programs, after discussing drafts with experts in education, was administered in English. Staff at institutions was contacted, guaranteeing confidentiality and anonymity (see Appendix D), and asked to complete the questionnaire (see Appendix E). In the institutional survey, the sampling strategy included securing a set of responses from different academic fields, from staff with a role in internationalization (e.g. departmental coordinator) as well as from staff without such a role. In addition, an international officer from each institution completed the core data sheet about the institution, its TE degree programs, and internationalization and TSM at the institution (see Appendix C). The effective sample size for the Institutional Questionnaire was  $n = 35$ . Core data sheets were received from all institutions. Where necessary, further questions (e.g., clarification of data submitted on TSM numbers per year, exact responsibilities of different institutional departments, understanding of challenges noted) were clarified via email and face-to-face interviews (which were recorded and transcribed) with the International Officer at each institution (for list of interviews see Appendix B).

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<sup>40</sup> Most importantly, eliminating cases with missing data on central variables (such as the institution, TE study program, important grouping variables), cases where the survey had generally not been completed to a sufficient extent, cases detected with an unquestionable flaw in the answers provided (e.g., consistently marking the same scale value).

<sup>41</sup> Due to different institution size and response rates, the students from the different institutions make up different percentages within  $n = 1,058$ : Institution 1 = 18.1%, Institution 2 = 13.7%, Institution 3 = 37.9%, Institution 4 = 15.3%, Institution 5 = 8.6%, Institution 6 = 6.4%.

### **3.3 Details on Specific Methods and Measures Used in Investigation Strand 1 and 2**

Comparative methodology in education studies is not linked to a specific set of methods. Depending on the research questions, hermeneutic as well as empirical-analytic methods are used (Hörner, 2012). The contextualized approach of this study relies on two investigation strands. Even though (as described in detail previously) Investigation Strand 1 is more explorative and Investigation Strand 2 more evaluative, both investigation strands rely to a strong extent on empirical and quantitative data. Additionally, both investigation strands revert to descriptive as well as inferential (univariate and multivariate) statistical analysis to evaluate assumptions and hypotheses.

The following chapters will outline in detail the steps of analysis conducted in both investigation strands (including measures and methods used) in order to arrive at the results to provide answers to the stated research questions.

#### **3.3.1 Comparative Inquiry in Investigation Strand 1: Tertium Comparationis, Steps in Comparative Inquiry and a Multilevel Approach to Comparison**

The methodology at the core of Investigation Strand 2 is a comparison of internationalization in the higher education sector and the teacher education sector, and across different systemic levels (the macro-, meso- and microlevel).

When doing comparisons it is important to explicate the phenomenon or dimension along which the sectoral and system-level comparisons are made. As Hörner (2012) has summarized, “comparison, from a logical perspective, is to relate the objects of inquiry to a third measure, the criterion of comparison (*tertium comparationis*)” (p. 365; author translation). In this study, what is compared across the higher education and teacher education sector and across the three different systemic levels are the underpinning models of internationalization. These models are constructed using two theoretically derived analytical dimensions that were described in detail in Chapter 1.3: rationales which refer to the underlying purposes of internationalization (to the question of why and what for), and elements of internationalization which describe the concrete program and organization strategies (what, how) proposed under a specific set of rationales. The *tertium comparationis*, the criterion of comparison, is the figurative composition of the means and ends of internationalization (in different sectors, at different systemic levels) as visible in

internationalization models, described by using the concepts of rationales and elements of internationalization.

Schemes of comparative inquiry have been published outlining certain steps in comparative approaches, starting with (1) a description of phenomena of interest and (2) their contextualized interpretation, and then moving to the (3) juxtaposition of contextualized phenomena and subsequent (4) systematic comparison (summarized in Adick, 2008, pp. 144–145; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007, pp. 97–101). While such schemes provide for a systematic approach, comparative educationists do not propose to rigidly employ such a scheme for all types of comparative research (see, e.g., Hörner, 2012; for a critical evaluation see Adick, 2008, pp. 145–147). Both comparative lines of Investigation Strand 1 (comparing internationalization models in the (a) higher education and teacher education sector and (b) across different systemic levels in teacher education) were pursued using schemes of comparative inquiry and related steps as guidance. The higher education—teacher education comparison progressed relatively straightforward along the scheme, while the comparison across different levels (internationalization models at different levels) reverted to these steps but did so in a more implicit and flexible manner, also enriching the comparison of internationalization models across different levels with further data. Investigation Strand 1 followed an approach where in particular the contextualization of relevant phenomena and results is built into the methodology, thus leading to a relational and dynamic comparative analysis and interpretation of the data.

In the comparison of the macrolevel HE and TE internationalization models, the first step conducted was a description of European-level policies and policy-making networks in teacher education and their “treatment” of international dimensions in TE degree programs. This step supported the achievement of a detailed understanding of the discourses regarding the internationalization of teacher education, and served to contextualize the distinct internationalization model itself as well as to help interpreting it correctly (this step is similar to the review of HE policies and discourses on internationalization performed in Chapter 2.2 which served as both the general background for this thesis and as the background to correctly interpreting the HE model revealed). In the comparison’s second step, the internationalization models themselves were revealed and each described in detail. Subsequently, Step 3 turned to a juxtaposition and comparison of the HE and TE models, that is, to interpreting them side-by-side and to revealing similarities and differences through comparison. Finally, in a fourth

step results and interpretation were condensed into a summary of comparative insights and conclusions.

Analysis in Investigation Strand 1 then turned from the macrolevel to the level of implementation and practices (meso- and microlevel). At the mesolevel, the surveys collected data on the rationales for internationalization as supported among staff, and on the elements of internationalization (program and organization strategies) as relevant at the institutions. Using this data, internationalization models at the institutional level were revealed and compared to the policy level. A particular focus in the analysis at the institutional level was also placed explicitly on the “rationales for mobility”, that is, the benefits for TSM seen among staff. This comparison of policy-level and institutional-level internationalization models<sup>42</sup> was subsequently enriched through the interpretation of further data, in order to describe characteristics of internationalization in TE, and possible drivers and difficulties of its diffusion. This further data related to the areas of thematic inquiry as derived in Chapter 2.4.6 (see summarized in Table 15 in Chapter 3.2.2; items used and all necessary variable references are provided directly in the chapter outlining results) such as on systemic barriers, including the role of national governance, staff readiness, and supportive organization strategies implemented.

At the student level basically the same approach was used. Students were surveyed about rationales supported and elements of internationalization most relevant to them. They were surveyed about the benefits expected from TSM as well. This data was used to reveal student-level internationalization models which were compared to the mesolevel and macrolevel internationalization models, so as to make discrepancies and overlaps between the conceptualizations of internationalization by the different constituencies visible. To enable a yet more fine-grained understanding of the characteristics, features, drivers, and difficulties regarding internationalization in teacher education, this data was, as at the institutional level, enriched by further data on how students experience their study environments with respect to internationalization, and the extent to which they encounter international dimensions in their study environments (for an overview of areas of thematic inquiry at the microlevel in

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<sup>42</sup> The multilevel comparison of rationales, expected benefits and elements is of course not based on 1:1 statements, since analysis at the macrolevel reverted to a document analysis in which rationales were revealed, while analyses at the meso- and microlevel reverted to statements drafted for the staff and student surveys that conveyed the meaning and argumentation of these specific rationales.

Investigation Strand 1 see Table 15 in Chapter 3.2.2; items used and all necessary variable references are provided directly in the chapter outlining results).

In the analysis in Investigation Strand 1, descriptive and where relevant (mostly univariate) inferential methods of analysis (as implied, e.g., *t*-tests, chi-square tests, ANOVA, non-parametric tests, etc.) were used to determine whether differences revealed are significant. Inferential statistics were in particular used when different groups of students were differentiated in the analysis. The most important distinction made in this respect in Investigation Strand 1 was that between FL and non-FL students. This seemed relevant, for example, in the analysis of the potential benefits that students see or international dimensions as encountered by students.

Throughout the analysis and reporting of results in Investigation Strand 1, the results revealed at the different levels of inquiry were dynamically linked and interpreted in view of each other and thus contextualized. While the thematic coverage allowed assessing the assumptions on specific characteristics, features, drivers, and difficulties of internationalization in TE, the comparative and multilevel study design and dynamic approach to analysis allowed for a contextualized interpretation in Investigation Strand 1.

### **3.3.2 Thematic Content Analysis to Reveal Internationalization Models at Policy-Level (Investigation Strand 1)**

To reveal the specific characteristics of internationalization models as negotiated in the field of teacher education, a comparative analysis of the higher education sector in general and of teacher education is pursued. An analysis of policy-level documents relating to internationalization in higher education and teacher education in the European arena was conducted for this purpose.

As previously described, internationalization as an idea or practice can be described using the concepts of rationales (motivations, expected benefits) and program and organization strategies (forms, elements) of internationalization. The document analysis was therefore focused on extracting these two concepts. As also outlined previously, the purpose of revealing HE and TE internationalization models was based on the aim to enable a figurate and compositional comparison of the main purposes and argumentations (cf. rationales) as well as the main forms and elements (cf. program and organization strategies) of internationalization associated with each sector. Such a comparison allows identifying

similarities and differences as well as any specific characteristics and trajectories of the teacher education internationalization model. In this comparison it was considered important to enable a representation of the importance or dominance of certain rationales and elements in internationalization models.

The analysis therefore reverted to the method of a *thematic content analysis* (for introductions see Atteslander, 2010; Kromrey & Strübing, 2009; in more detail see Mayring, 2015) and employed different techniques (deductive and inductive drafting of categories for rationales; inductive grouping of appearing elements of internationalization; frequency analysis).

Overall, to enable a representation of the importance of different rationales in the internationalization models by way of ranking these according to their frequency, the thematic analysis reverted to the technique of a *frequency analysis* (Kromrey & Strübing, 2009, p. 322; Mayring, 2015, pp. 13–15). To reveal and classify underlying purposes and aims of propositions “to internationalize research and education at HEIs” in policy-level documents, a category system of rationales was used to code relevant text passages. Established rationales “catalogues” (published by Knight, 2004; Wit, 2002) were adapted and refined for this purpose, resulting in a category system of 16 macro-, meso- and microlevel rationales (see Table 16). The categorical system was thus deductively defined and adapted inductively, representing a common approach to arrive at appropriate categorical systems (Mayring, 2015, p. 151; see also Mayring, 2015, pp. 85–87). Based on the review of literature in Chapter 2 as well as on a first screening of policy-level documents with respect to argumentations, the use of specific concepts and terminology<sup>43</sup>, three lines of adaptations and refinements were made.

First, the rationales framework was adapted by way of relating different rationales for the internationalization of higher education to three levels of purpose and impact. Macro-, meso- and microlevel rationales were differentiated. Macrolevel rationales relate to the impact of HE internationalization at the general societal level; mesolevel rationales are more genuinely based within the HE sector and connected to impact at the institutional level/within the HE sector; and microlevel rationales propose the internationalization of HE on the grounds of envisaged individual-level impact. This differentiation allowed for a precise

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<sup>43</sup> This screening also assessed the (different) use of certain concepts and terms in policy documents in order to understand and correctly interpret them. This relates, e.g., to the different facets that the use of the European dimension can carry (structural-systemic, socio-cultural) or, for example, to the use of the term internationalization itself (in some policy documents only used to refer to HE cooperation beyond Europe).

determination of the purposes of internationalization as visible in policy documents. For example, it allowed differentiating a rationale underpinning the proposition of HE internationalization for purposes of economic competitiveness (thus an instrumentalized view on HE internationalization) versus a rationale proposing internationalization in order to increase the competitiveness of the higher education sector itself. Importantly, the differentiation of different impact levels also allowed for a differentiated interpretation, taking into account the hierarchy and links between different-level rationales as they appeared together (or not), making the analysis more fine-grained.

A second line of adaptations was made to best fit the rationales framework to the European context. This implied a differentiation of some rationales (e.g., distinctions between more value-based European-citizenship/identity rationale, and the more structural/systemic rationale of strengthening the European dimension), and a re-grouping of others which are less distinguishable in the current European context (e.g., the rationales peace-and-mutual understanding and development-cooperation were merged, since these are almost always presented together in the European context).

A third line of adaptations was made to best capture current conceptualizations of HE internationalization, taking account of internationalization being an evolving phenomenon, and of time-dependent emergence and development of specific rationales in specific contexts (cf. *emerging rationales* noted by Knight, 2004). For example, in view of an extensive discourse on the quality of higher education that emerged in recent years, it appeared relevant to distinguish between education and research when it comes to quality-contributing arguments of HE internationalization.

Policy-level documents relatively seldom use the specific term internationalization (and if, not necessarily as defined in this thesis), whereas they are concrete in the specific strategies and elements proposed. Therefore, text passages (sentences and paragraphs) referring to elements of internationalization at the level of higher education institutions—which is the relevant scope of the concept as used in this thesis—were identified upon the explicit and/or directly implied mention in policy documents (e.g., the promotion of the element of TSM; the increase of international students enrolled in European degree programs; the increase of international research partnerships). Knight's (2004) "catalogue" of internationalization activities relating to both program and organization strategies served as heuristics for determining such elements of internationalization at the level of HEIs. This

principle in identifying relevant text passages was key to maintaining a focus on internationalization at the level of HEIs, thereby avoiding diluted concepts of internationalization (and Europeanization)<sup>44</sup>. The principle to relate to program *and* organization strategies as elements of internationalization was key to ensuring the revelation of elements of internationalization in their full breadth at the institutional level.

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<sup>44</sup> Policy-level documents often refer to both internationalization and Europeanization. Europeanization itself, as a macrolevel process, is differentiated from internationalization in this thesis and different from internationalization at the level of HEIs. Elements and rationales exclusively relating to Europeanization were therefore not included in the analysis. Therefore mentions of issues such as implementing the EHEA at large, of increasing compatibility and transparency of HE systems at large, or of a Europeanization of HE governance (e.g., international cooperation of regulative bodies such as quality assurance and accreditation agencies) were not taken into account, if not explicitly brought forward together with propositions of the implementation of elements of internationalization at the level of HEIs.

**Table 16: Rationales Framework Used as Categories in Quantitative Analysis of Policy Level Documents**

Rationale short name	Rationale key words and arguments
<b>Macrolevel rationales</b>	
Foreign relations—political and economic ties	Political and economic rationale to strategically strengthen political and economic ties through HE int'n, including security-related political motivations
Foreign relations—dissemination culture & values	Political and cultural rationale to promote own culture and identity, cultural achievements and values and strengthen a country's position in the world through HE international relations and cooperation
Foreign policy/peace and mutual understanding/development cooperation	Political rationale with a “humanistic” stance—fostering peace and mutual understanding in the world, and improving situation in less-developed countries (technical assistance and development cooperation) through HE international relations and cooperation
Economic growth/competitiveness (innovation)	Economic rationale to improve economic competitiveness and growth (often through technological innovation) through HE int'n (for broader, “beyond-economy” argumentations cf. social-growth rationale; for HE-sector specific arguments cf. HE-attractiveness/competitiveness rationale)
Labor market demands	Economic and academic rationale to better satisfy current labour market demands through int'n in research and education (for labor-market relevant graduate competences cf. employability-through-international-competences rationale)
Societal growth (knowledge transfer, systems/social innovation)	Social and academic rationale to strengthen HEI's sociocultural function contributing to societal development at large (“softer competitiveness notion”), to foster—through increased international cooperation, exchange and knowledge transfer—HEI's contribution to social and system innovation
European dimension	Merge of political and academic (indirectly also economic) rationales to strengthen European dimension through HE int'n, i.e., foster Europeanization, European-level cooperation, common European systems, structures, frameworks and regulations (for socio-cultural aspect cf. European-citizenship/identity rationale)
<b>Mesolevel rationales</b>	
Individual/social/community development	Academic, cultural and social rationale related to the sociocultural function HEI: HEIs as places of individual and social development through the creation and reflection of knowledge, education and society at large in which international dimensions represent a “matter-of-course” in today's globalized environments; strengthening of international dimensions as a “natural” process in HE development (in comparison to social-growth-rationale, the HE sector is less directly held accountable)
Modernization/int'n of education	Academic and social rationale to modernize education at HEIs through and by further int'n, i.e., to update HE programs delivered in view of globalized and multicultural societies in the process of which int'n is seen as a need and pathway at the same time

**Table 16:** Rationales Framework Used as Categories in Quantitative Analysis of Policy Level Documents (continued)

Rationale short name	Rationale key words and arguments
<b>Mesolevel rationales</b>	
Quality education	Academic rationale of HE int'n in order to enhance and contribute to quality in education (similar to modernization/int'n-of-education rationale but more explicit quality-contributor aspect)
Quality research	Academic rationale of HE int'n in order to enhance and contribute to quality in research
Attractiveness and competitiveness of HE	Academic rationale to improve both attractiveness and competitiveness of HEIs and HE sector at large (as measured e.g., by international prestige, top ranking positions, internationalized program offers and activities, etc.) through increased int'n of education and research and international visibility (int'n as a goal and quality criterion)
Revenues	Economic rationale related to direct financial benefits of international activities of HEIs
<b>Microlevel rationales</b>	
Employability through international competences	Economic, social and academic rationale to increase the employability of graduates through building international competences (relevant international and intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes) among students needed in current world-of-work settings
Extension academic horizon	Academic rationale of broadening and extending academic horizons through international dimensions and activities in education
Personal development/intercultural competence	Social and cultural rationale to foster personal development through internationalized study environments with a strong bearing on the relevance of intercultural competences in globalized and multicultural societies
European citizenship/identity	Political, social and cultural rationale to strengthen European citizenship and identity (European belongingness, European values, European knowledge, European experiencedness, etc.) through int'n in education
Global education	Merge of social, cultural, political, economic and academic rationales to broadly prepare graduates to live and work in global settings and contribute as "global citizens" to a viable global development (broader, more unspecific argumentation than other individual-level rationales)

*Note.* Int'n = internationalization; HE = higher education; HEIs = higher education institutions.

Subsequent to the rationales analysis (employing the categorical system as shown in Table 16), all relevant text passages were analyzed with respect to the concrete elements of internationalization proposed to be implemented or strengthened (“under” certain rationales) at the level of HEIs. In this process the interest was not to reveal the exact frequency of one specific element of internationalization, but to reveal groupings or major “threads” of elements of internationalization as mentioned in the policy documents in the HE and TE sector. The use of a predefined theory-based categorical system (such as Knight’s, 2004, systematization of program and organization strategies) was considered as too limiting, and unable to vividly depict the major threads of internationalization elements as relevant in HE and TE policies and policy-making discourses in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The process of analysis therefore reverted to the technique of *summarizing* (Mayring, 2015, p. 65), which is a data-reducing technique usually employed to analyze material and arrive at a categorical system. Accordingly, program and organization strategies in relevant text passages were paraphrased and subsequently generalized (summarized) in larger groupings of proposed program and organization strategies. These, in turn, were ordered according to their importance in the two specific document sets (the HE and TE policy-document set).

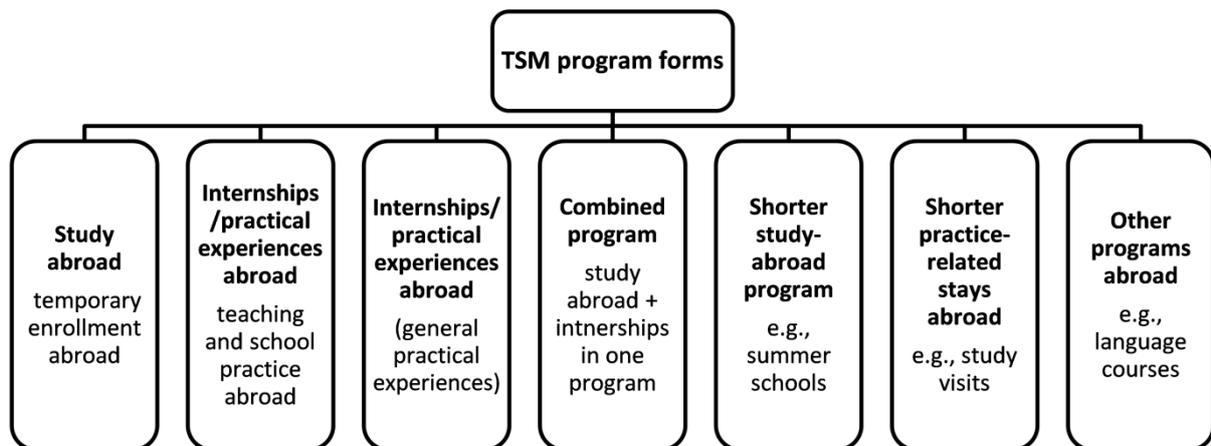
This process of analysis (frequency analysis for rationales and extraction of summarized threads of elements of internationalization) resulted in the revelation of internationalization models for both the higher education sector and the teacher education sector, representing the (importance of) different rationales for and major elements of internationalization. To enable a deeper understanding of the material analyzed, in the comparative analysis of the internationalization models of both sectors a focus was furthermore placed upon the links between different rationales (rationales often appearing together), and the links between rationales and specific elements of internationalization. In total, the analysis thus enabled a figurative and compositional comparison of internationalization models in higher education and teacher education. It allowed for the identification of similarities and differences (overlaps and mismatches) as well as of any specific characteristics and trajectories of the TE internationalization model in view of the HE-general internationalization model.

### 3.3.3 Statistical Analysis of Quantitative Data

Having outlined the analytical steps, strategies and methods in Investigation Strand 1, this chapter now turns to details regarding the use of quantitative data. General notes on quantitative data and data analysis, as presented in the next chapter (Chapter 3.3.3.1), relate to both investigation strands, while the subsequent parts (Chapters 3.3.3.2 to 3.3.3.5) outline in detail the data, measures and data analysis (including important statistical methods) employed within the three lines of inquiry of Investigation Strand 2.

#### 3.3.3.1 Operationalization of TSM, Distinguishing Four Different Status Groups of Students, Further Notes on Data and Analysis (Investigation Strand 1 and 2)

To adequately represent the breadth of different forms of gaining study-related experiences abroad, a differentiated portfolio of TSM forms is used in the study (as shown in Figure 7), covering shorter and longer forms of TSM as well as academic and practice-oriented forms of TSM. Based on TSM traditions in the European context (see Chapter 2.2.4), longer program forms were defined as having a minimum duration of three months.



*Figure 7.* Seven different program forms of temporary study-related mobility.

In the questionnaire to students (as well to institutions) more detailed explanations on the scope and focus of each program form were given (as shown in Table 17), so as to make sure that students (and staff) had a clear understanding of the different options they were asked to evaluate.

**Table 17: Seven Different Program Forms of TSM and Detailed Description as Used in Surveys**

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Program forms

**(I) Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad** (trimester, semester or year at a HEI abroad where you are taking courses offered by the host institution, includes stays abroad for research/thesis work)

**(II) Internships/practical experience abroad - Teaching and school practice abroad** (e.g., taking obligatory or additional practical periods abroad that involve assisting in teaching and participation in other tasks of school life)

**(III) Internship/practical experience abroad - Collecting general practical experiences abroad** in internships related to your study program (e.g., in companies, NGOs, political administration, etc.)

**(IV) Combined programs offering both study abroad and internship/practical experience abroad in one program** (e.g., one followed by the other)

**(V) Shorter study abroad programs** (e.g., participation in international summer schools, intensive thematic programs abroad; less than 3 months)

**(VI) Practically oriented study visits/excursions/project work abroad** (less than 3 months)

**(VII) Other programs abroad** (language courses and any other programs)

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*Note.* Item references: Appendix G (C9\_1 to C9\_7).

In order to differentiate four different status groups, students were asked in the survey to rate each program form in terms of their interest and status with respect to (possibly) implementing it, using the following scale: 1 = *not really interested, no intentions/plans*, to 2 = *quite interested*, to 3 = *(definite) plans* to 4 = *currently taking/have taken option*. This allows to differentiate different status groups of students with respect to implementing TSM, and to analyze the role of different program forms in detail.

On the basis of students' ratings for each of the seven different TSM program forms the following four status groups were differentiated:

- No-interest group: Those who rated none of the seven program forms with at least 2 = *quite interested* and thus all program forms with 1 = *not really interested, no intentions or plans*;
- Interest group: Those who rated at least one of the seven program forms with 2 = *quite interested*;
- Plans group: Those who rated at least one of the seven program forms with 3 = *(definite) plans*;
- Implementation group: Those who rated at least one of the seven forms with 4 = *currently taking/have taken option*.

For most items included in the questionnaires a scale ranging from 1 (lowest rating) to 5 (highest rating) was used. For example, when measuring international dimensions in students' study environments, for the item "In my courses we frequently use international

literature and research, and our lecturers use international examples and references”, a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) was used. In keeping with a common interpretation in the social sciences (see Baur, 2010; Acton, Miller, Fullerton, & Maltby, 2009), the variables based on this scale were treated as interval-scaled, while being aware of the danger of arriving at wrong interpretations of data when using this approach. The choice to treat the data as interval-scaled was not only due to pragmatic reasons relating to a vast lack of methods of analysis for ordinal data (contrary to nominal and interval-scaled data; Baur, 2010). Simulation studies have also shown that the risk to actually arrive at wrong conclusions is “extremely rare” (Baur, 2010); that the treatment of ordinal-scaled as interval-scaled variables almost entirely leads to an underestimation of “real” associations between variables (as measured, e.g., by correlation coefficients, regression coefficients,  $R^2$ , factor loadings, or  $\alpha$ -coefficients), and that differences between “measured” and “real” associations in the social sciences in the vast majority of cases are of an extent that would not lead to different or changed theories and conclusions (Schulze, 2000).

Regarding both investigation strands it is also relevant to note that a significance level of  $\alpha \leq .05$  is referred to, when significant differences or influences are reported.

### 3.3.3.2 Measures and Analysis Investigation Strand 2—First Line of Inquiry: Relevance of Seven Different Program Forms

The first line of inquiry to reveal obstacles to implementing study-related experiences abroad was based on a comparison of the relevance of seven different program forms for students (demand profiles) and at institutions (offer profiles). The detailed research question (#2\_1) in this line of inquiry was stated as follows: Which obstacles can be revealed on the basis of a comparison of student demand profiles (in the four status groups) and program offer at institutions, using a differentiated set of program forms of TSM? Three hypotheses were formulated: (1) A high(er) relevance of shorter program forms (less than three months) as opposed to longer program forms (more than three months); (2) A high(er) relevance of practice-oriented TSM forms as opposed to academic TSM forms; (3) Discrepancies between student demand profiles on the one side and factual implementation (*implementation profiles*) and institutional offer on the other side. These were assessed as follows:

As throughout Investigation Strand 2, analyses reverted to a differentiation of four different status groups of students (no-interest, interest, plans and implementation group) in

order to provide most detailed results. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were both assessed in a two-fold manner, using data collected through the student survey.

First, two items were analyzed (using ANOVA and post-hoc tests to identify group differences) in which students directly stated their preferences regarding major distinctions of different program forms, that is, regarding the duration of programs (shorter or longer) and their focus (academic or practice-oriented).

**Table 18:** Items Assessing Student Preferences for Major Program Distinctions

Variable (items) <sup>a</sup>	Variable encoding
I would generally prefer academic programs abroad over practice-oriented programs abroad. (C11_3)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> )
I would generally prefer shorter programs (less than 3 months) to longer programs (3-12 months) abroad. (C11_4)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> )

<sup>a</sup>Item references (see Appendix G) in parentheses.

Second, the degree of relevance was calculated for each of the seven different TSM program forms (see Table 17 in the previous chapter), on the basis of students' ratings for each program form: Relevance of a program form was defined as at least rated with the scale value 2 which signified a stated interest (on the scale where 1 represented no interest and 4 represented having implemented this program form). Degrees of relevance were calculated for each program form and separately for each status group (whereby statistical tests were used to determine significant differences in the relevance of program forms within each status group). As per definition, the no-interest group that rated none of the seven program forms as relevant to them was excluded from the analysis. This allowed analyzing which program forms are most relevant for different status groups of students (demand profiles of students) and detecting any patterns of change along the TSM process, that is, when looking to the demand profile of the status groups interest, plans or implementation.

For the status group implementation the survey delivered further information—on the program forms actually implemented by students. This allowed a comparison of eventual implementation profiles (which are influenced by factual accessibility and thus institutional offers) with general relevance (demand) profiles of students. Such a comparison enabled the detection of any discrepancies between demand and implementation profiles, thereby providing data to assess Hypothesis 3 in this line of inquiry. Furthermore, also in reference to Hypothesis 3, data was collected at the TE institutions on institutional offers, and the organization and accessibility of different program forms which allowed for a direct comparison of institutional offers and students' demand profiles.

### 3.3.3.3 Measures and Analysis of Investigation Strand 2—Second Line of Inquiry: Set of Issues Assessed As Obstacles by Students

The second thematic line of inquiry reverted to the use of an item battery with 23 concrete issues directly assessed by students in terms of their role as obstacles to TSM for them. The 23 items, grouped into five theoretically and empirically derived domains, are listed in Table 19. Two detailed research questions (#2\_2 and #2\_3) guided this second line of inquiry to reveal obstacles to TSM among students in TE degree programs: Which obstacles (items, domains) are relevant for the four different status groups of students (#2\_2)? In a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation, which issues (variables) have a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold (#2\_3)? The steps of analysis that were performed in order to provide answers to the questions and related hypotheses formulated (see in detail Chapter 2.5.5) are described in the following.

The analysis was first conducted at the level of the five obstacle domains, for each of the four status groups of students separately. For this purpose, items in each of the five domains were subsumed into scales. Reliability analyses<sup>45</sup> showed that the items in each domain represented one underlying dimension and were therefore suited to be combined into one scale per domain. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  reached satisfying values for each domain (values shown in Table 19); reliability analyses also confirmed that all singular items in each domain contributed significantly to enhancing Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ; furthermore, all items reached sufficient item-total correlations. Therefore, no items were excluded from the domain scales. Subsuming items into a scale per domain allowed assessing the overall relevance of different obstacle domains in the different status groups, whereby descriptive results as well as relevant tests of significance and MANOVA (Domains x Status groups) including post-hoc tests were used to identify differences and interpret results.

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<sup>45</sup> For dimensional (reliability) analysis and guidelines/conventions on thresholds for statistical values (which were applied in this thesis) see Baur (2013); Fromm (2008); Kopp and Lois (2014).

**Table 19: Item Battery “Obstacles to TSM” on the Basis of Five Obstacle Domains**

**Lack of (anticipated) positive consequences/lack of value** (*Short name: Lack of value; Cronbach's  $\alpha = .756$* )

Simply no interest in going abroad/ Don't see enough value in it (C13\_18)

It's not a requirement in my program so that's why I won't do it (C13\_19)

Expected low contribution to my professional development, profile and career prospects (C13\_17)

Presumed low benefit for my studies at home/ low academic benefit (C13\_10)

**(Anticipated) negative consequences** (*Short name: Negative consequences; Cronbach's  $\alpha = .598$* )

Separation from family and children (C13\_5)

Separation from friends and partner (C13\_6)

Loss of opportunities to regularly earn money (C13\_9)

Lack of grants available to students to cover expected costs (C13\_21)

Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.) (C13\_12)

**Apprehensions (about own abilities, personal resources and coping skills)** (*Short name: Apprehensions; Cronbach's  $\alpha = .661$* )

Level of foreign language skills/ insufficiency of specific foreign language skills (C13\_3)

I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to do this and just go into a foreign environment (C13\_8)

I would not like to live/study/work in a foreign environment (C13\_7)

My course load is already so demanding that I do not find enough time to add experiences abroad (C13\_20)

Expectation that the organization is too burdensome/ do not have enough drive to organize all this (C13\_16)

**Problems with information, guidance and support from institution** (*Short name: Guidance; Cronbach's  $\alpha = .863$* )

Never got information on which options are available in my study program/Got such information too late (C13\_1)

Lack of guidance and support at home institution and difficulties in getting information (C13\_11)

Difficulties to determine who is the responsible person to advise students/ too much complexity or lack of transparency on options available (C13\_15)

Not enough individual counseling or workshops at the beginning of studies for students who are interested in going abroad to help them deal with specific barriers they might encounter (finding appropriate programs, how to finance stays, etc.) (C13\_22)

Not enough support for students in teacher education programs who experience specific barriers due to dense/national regulations of their programs (C13\_24)

**Limitations in suitable program offer and program integration with regular studies** (*Shortname: Mismatch programs; Cronbach's  $\alpha = .696$* )

Limited offer and access to interesting programs and places to gain experience abroad (C13\_13)

English is my major foreign language but the offer in English-speaking countries is too limited (C13\_4)

Concerns about the quality of the education and training options available abroad (C13\_2)

Difficulties in combining stays abroad with structure, regulations and standards in program at home / available programs are not well integrated with the study program at home (C13\_14)

*Note.* TSM = temporary study-related mobility. Item references (see Appendix G) in parentheses. All items measured on a scale from 1 (*very weak relevance*) to 5 (*very high relevance*).

In a second step, the analysis turned to the item level since it was not only of interest to assess the overall configuration of obstacle domains as relevant to the different status groups, but also to know the concrete issues (i.e., the singular items) most relevant as obstacles to students. To focus the analysis on the most important issues, the twelve most important obstacles of students per status group were therefore analyzed and interpreted in more detail in this step (the twelve most important were chosen since this corresponds to items having a level of at least 20% relevance in all status groups).

The two first steps in the analysis provided results to answer the detailed Research Question #2\_2—Which obstacles (items, domains) are relevant for the four different status groups of students?

Finally, in a third step, the analysis turned to the question of which items (obstacles) exert significant influences at the thresholds interest, plans, and implementation (comprised of the groups no-interest—interest, interest—plans, and plans—implementation respectively). To identify variables that significantly influence the likelihood to fall into the higher status group, binary logistic regressions (BLR; described in detail in Acton et al., 2009; Backhaus, Erichson, Plinke, & Weiber, 2011; Baltes-Götz, 2012; Fromm, 2012; Schendera, 2014) were calculated at each threshold. Thus, the third step in the analysis turned to answering the third detailed research question within Investigation Strand 2: Question #2\_3—Which issues (variables) have a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold? As already indicated above (Chapter 2.5.5), the third detailed research question was answered reverting to two different sets of variables—(a) the obstacles item battery, as introduced above, and (b) a set of further variables, as introduced below. While two different variable sets were used, it is the same approach to analysis (conducting BLRs at three thresholds) that was employed to answer the third detailed research question. Therefore, technical details as relevant to the conduct of BLRs at the three thresholds are jointly stated for both variable sets in a separate chapter (3.3.3.5) below.

Summarizing, on the basis of the three steps of the analysis, reverting to the use of the obstacles item battery, it was possible (1) to identify the relevance of specific domains of obstacles in the four different status groups of students, (2) to identify the specific obstacles that are the most relevant issues in each status group, and (3) to identify those variables (obstacles) that (in a multivariate perspective) exert significant influences at three thresholds which were used to model the TSM process.

Students enrolled in programs with compulsory experiences abroad were excluded from the analysis. These students represent a group that had already entered the institution with the distinct decision to enroll in a program where experiences abroad are mandatory. Furthermore, programs with compulsory experiences abroad exist only at two out of the six institutions so that their inclusion would have brought additional variance to the analysis.

Finally, readers should also note that the implementation group assessed obstacles in a retrospective manner. Students who had already been abroad were advised to “think back upon which issues were relevant” for them. Such a retrospective assessment of obstacles is common in research on obstacles to TSM, but nevertheless problematic to a certain extent. The interpretation of results for the status group implementation (and at the implementation threshold, comprised of the plans and the implementation group) was therefore made—and should, accordingly, be received by readers—having this detail in mind.

#### 3.3.3.4 Measures and Analysis Investigation Strand 2—Third Line of Inquiry: Temporary Study-Related Mobility and the Role of Student Background, Study Environments, Professional Relevance, and Student Knowledge

The third line of inquiry within Investigation Strand 2 was based on a set of variables relating to students’ sociodemographic and study-related background, study environments, professional relevance of, and student knowledge on TSM. It provided (together with the last analysis conducted in the second line of inquiry) the results to answer the third detailed research question within Investigation Strand 2—In a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation, which issues (variables) have a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold (#2\_3)? To identify variables that differentiate at the three thresholds (in statistical terms: variables that significantly influence the likelihood to fall into the higher status group of students at the three thresholds), multivariate analysis (binary logistic regression) was employed, subsequent to prior descriptive and univariate analysis of all four status groups regarding the variables concerned (e.g., percentage of students having children, or significant differences between the four status groups regarding this percentage). As before, students enrolled in programs with compulsory experiences abroad were excluded throughout the analysis. Table 20 provides an overview of all variables of the third thematic line of inquiry, together with important variable information (measurement levels and encoding, reference categories used in binary logistic regression—on the latter see in detail Chapter 3.3.3.5). As already indicated above, answers to the detailed Research Question #2\_3 were provided

through conducting binary logistic regressions reverting to two different sets of variables (the TSM obstacles item battery as presented in the previous chapter as well as the data presented in Table 20). Technical details as relevant to the conduct of BLRs at the three thresholds are jointly stated for both variable sets in the next chapter (3.3.3.5) below.

**Table 20:** Overview of Variables in Third Line of Inquiry

Variable (Item references)	Variable information, encoding, and reference categories in BLR (for categorical variables)
<b>Study environment</b>	
The institutional environment at large (flyers, events, [...]) has drawn my attention to int'l dimensions in my studies and to gaining experiences abroad (E1_4)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> ) <sup>a</sup>
Fellow students and friends have drawn my attention to ... (E1_3)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> ) <sup>a</sup>
My lecturers and courses have drawn my attention to ... (E1_2)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> ) <sup>a</sup>
In my courses we frequently use int'l literature and research, and our lecturers use int'l examples and references (E1_1)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> ) <sup>a</sup>
I have many opportunities in my day-to-day life as a student to learn about int'l issues [...], develop int'l [...] competences, and experience an int'l dimension in general – without explicitly having to look for it (E1_9)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> ) <sup>a</sup>
<b>Recognition of professional relevance</b>	
Having int'l experiences and competences (such as [...]) is important for working in my future professional area (B1_2)	1 ( <i>strongly disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>strongly agree</i> ) <sup>a</sup>
<b>Knowledge and awareness</b>	
I have received information from my department/school/institution about experience abroad (e.g., at the beginning of my studies, [...]) (C5)	0 = <i>no</i> , 1 = <i>yes</i> <sup>b</sup>
I know where to get information on options to gain experience abroad at my institution (C2)	0 = <i>no</i> , 1 = <i>yes</i> <sup>b</sup>
I know several programs, schemes or agencies that offer opportunities and/or funds to gain experience abroad (C8)	0 = <i>no</i> , 1 = <i>yes</i> <sup>a</sup>
<b>Sociodemographic variables and study-related (control) variables</b>	
Institution (A1)	1 = <i>inst. with European average TSM level</i> (reference category); 2, 3 = <i>above average</i> ; 4 = <i>slightly above average</i> ; 5, 6 = <i>below average</i> <sup>b</sup>
(Not) studying foreign languages (A6_1_2)	0 = <i>studying FL</i> , 1 = <i>not studying FL</i> <sup>b</sup>
Study year in teacher education program (A3)	continuous <sup>a</sup>
Age (A7)	continuous <sup>a</sup>
Academic achievements in study program (school, if relevant) so far (A19)	1 ( <i>lower third of my year</i> ) to 3 ( <i>upper third of my year</i> )

**Table 20:** Overview of Variables in Third Line of Inquiry (continued)

Variable (Items)	Variable information, encoding and reference categories in BLR for categorical variables
Educational background parents	1 ( <i>very low</i> ) to 7 ( <i>very high educational background parents</i> ) <sup>a, c</sup>
Income status family (A16)	1 ( <i>considerably lower than country average</i> ) to 5 ( <i>considerably higher than country average</i> )
Having children (A10)	0 ( <i>not having children</i> ), 1 ( <i>having children</i> ) <sup>b</sup>
Gender (A8)	0 ( <i>male</i> ), 1 ( <i>female</i> )
International (migration) background family	0 ( <i>no int'l background family and/or student migration after high school</i> ), 1 ( <i>int'l background family</i> ) <sup>d</sup>
Amount of languages (including native language) spoken at proficient level (at least rated <i>confident in everyday writing and conversation</i> )	continuous (max. 4) <sup>a, c</sup>
Previous int'l experiences (months abroad since age 15) (A18)	1 ( <i>less than 1 month</i> ) to 4 ( <i>more than 12 months</i> ) <sup>a</sup>

*Note.* BLR = binary logistic regression; Int'l = international; FL = foreign languages; TSM = temporary study-related mobility; Inst = institution. Item references (see Appendix G) in parentheses.

<sup>a</sup>Variable entered as metric predictor in BLR reported. <sup>b</sup>Variable entered as categorical predictor in BLR reported (reference category is the category coded 0 if not indicated). <sup>c</sup>Variable combines educational background of mother (variable A15\_1) and father (variable A15\_2): Scale value 1 signifies that both parents have maximum compulsory education/lower secondary education and no vocational training while the highest possible scale value 7 signifies that both parents have a higher education degree (variable references: Appendix G).

<sup>d</sup>International background of family: either student born abroad or at least one parent born abroad; individual student migration for full degree after graduating from high school not included (see variables A12, A13, A14\_1 to A13\_3 in Appendix G:). <sup>e</sup>Variable combines data on proficiency level in up to four languages (see variables A17\_1 to A17\_4 in Appendix G); scale for each language ranged from 1 (*native speaker/very good*) through 3 (*confident in everyday writing and conversation*) to 5 (*no knowledge*).

The third line of inquiry provided results to characterize the different status groups along important dimensions (i.e., the variables as included in the third thematic line of inquiry such as age, having children, prior international experience, professional relevance associated to TSM, knowledge on TSM options), and to identify those variables that perform a significant influence at certain thresholds in the TSM process (including the evaluation of the hypotheses formulated on the basis of previous research and theory on the direction of influences of these variables, see Chapter 2.5.5).

### 3.3.3.5 Analysis Using Binary Logistic Regression to Identify Influential Variables at Three Thresholds in the TSM Process (Investigation Strand 2)

Binary logistic regression (described in detail in Acton et al., 2009; Backhaus et al., 2011; Baltes-Götz, 2012; Fromm, 2012; Schendera, 2014) was the statistical procedure employed to identify influential variables at the three thresholds from a multivariate perspective.

Logistic regression was chosen since it is a multivariate, inferential statistical procedure, known to be relatively robust, and requiring less strict assumptions than several other methods of analysis (Backhaus et al., 2011) so that it can be used with relatively diverse data sets. BLR provides the specific advantage of using both metric and categorical variables as independent variables (predictors) simultaneously in a model of predictors (ibid.). The dependent variable in binary logistic regression is a binary variable coded 0 and 1. In this study, BLRs were conducted at three thresholds which were modelled using the four status groups of students: the interest threshold (no-interest group—interest group), the plans threshold (interest group—plans group), and the implementation threshold (plans group—implementation group). At all of the three thresholds the “lower” status group was coded 0 while the “higher” status group was coded 1. For example, the no-interest group was coded 0, and the interest group coded 1 at the first threshold. The dependent variable thus was a binary variable representing the membership in one of the two status groups at each threshold.

What BLR results allowed to determine is whether and which independent variables (predictors; e.g., whether students have children) continue to have a significant impact on the dependent variable in a multivariate model (i.e., simultaneously taking into account the influence of other predictors as well). Precisely, it allowed identifying those variables that significantly influence (increase or decrease) the likelihood to belong to the category of interest of the dependent variable—the higher status group at each of the three thresholds. In this study, BLR results therefore tell us whether a predictor significantly increases or decreases the likelihood of belonging to the interest group (instead of the no-interest group) when BLR was performed at threshold interest; to the group plans (instead of the group interest) when BLR was performed at the threshold plans; and to the implementation (instead of the plans group) when BLR was performed at the threshold implementation. The results allowed the identification of those variables that significantly differentiate two status groups of students at a threshold, thus, the identification of those variables which are „indicative“ of either the higher or the lower status group (depending on whether a predictor increased or

decreased the likelihood to belong to the higher status group). This allowed a relational characterization of the status groups at each threshold, and the identification of (a) factors which seem important as „drivers“ in the TSM process (when variables are positively associated with the higher status group of students at a threshold) or (b) potential obstacles that seem important to overcome in order to „progress“ along the TSM process (when variables are negatively associated with membership in the higher status group).

As mentioned, independent variables in BLR can be metric or categorical. Categorical independent variables are entered into the analysis specifying a so-called *reference category* (coded 0) against which effects of other categories are determined. For the binary categorical variable children, for example, having children was specified as the reference category. Thus, results could be interpreted as effects of not having children (in comparison to having children) on the likelihood to belong to the higher status group at each threshold. Multinomial categorical predictors can be used in BLR, but need to be split into binary dummy variables so that eventually binary combinations of the reference category and each of the other categories are analyzed<sup>46</sup>.

The statistical analysis was conducted using the statistical software package SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics 21). This package allows for two procedures (referred to as NOMREG and LOGISTIC REGRESSION) to conduct binary logistic regressions. They produce the same core results but are based on slightly different algorithms for measures used to assess the *quality* of the results (Baltes-Götz, 2012; Schendera, 2014). The data set used in this study represented so-called individual data (as opposed to aggregate data; categorical and metric predictors were included in models so that many predictor value combinations had only singular representations in the data set) and therefore, as recommended by Baltes-Götz (2012) and Schendera (2014), the SPSS procedure LOGISTIC REGRESSION was used.

In line with the literature on the requirements of binary logistic regression (Backhaus et al., 2011; Baltes-Götz, 2012; Fromm, 2012; Schendera, 2014) the absence of autocorrelation and multicollinearity was ensured and an analysis of outliers and influential cases (using the measures Pearson residuals and Cook's distances, see Baltes-Götz, 2012; Fromm, 2012) was conducted, resulting in the exclusion of a very small amount of cases. Students enrolled in programs where compulsory experiences abroad were excluded from the

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<sup>46</sup> This recoding into binary combinations (*dummy coding*; the technical term used is *contrast coding* „Indicator“) is performed automatically when using SPSS (see Fromm (2012)).

analyses. The resulting data set contained  $n = 845$  cases, of which 99 fell into the group no-interest, 293 into the group interest, 180 into the group plans, and 273 into the implementation group. Although no rules for appropriate sample sizes in BLR can be established, some guidelines are sometimes mentioned: According to relevant literature minimum sample sizes for BLR should amount to 50 cases (25 in each group of the dependent variable), while a sample size of 100 (50 in each group) is usually considered to yield highly reliable results (Backhaus et al., 2011; Fromm, 2012). The sample sizes and the data set as used in this study thus provided the basis for meaningful and reliable results. As the number of predictors in a model increases, sample sizes should also be kept in mind (Fromm, 2012). In the detailed specifications of the BLR regression models (see below) this was therefore taken into account.

As mentioned above, two different sets of variables (as shown above in Table 19 and Table 20) were used to specify models for the BLRs, each conducted at the three thresholds. In both models (the two models relating to the different variable sets), the variable institution was in addition included as a control variable. As reported previously, data stemmed from six different institutions, spanning a certain diversity of TE models and degree programs. These institutions were, not least due to their different size, represented to a different extent in the sample. Since it was of interest in the analysis to identify those variables that generally differentiate at the three thresholds—beyond possible institutional differences—the multinominal categorical variable institution (with six categories corresponding to the six institutions) was therefore included in both models as a control variable. As mentioned above, in BLR multinominal categorical predictors are split into binary dummy variables and effects are determined using a purposeful reference category specified by the researcher. Reference categories should be thematically purposeful and display an adequate number of observations so as to conduct reliable analyses (cf. Fromm, 2012). Therefore, out of the six institutions, an institution with an estimated TSM level<sup>47</sup> in teacher education degree programs that

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<sup>47</sup> Estimations were made on the basis of detailed yearly mobility data of institutions and further data collected through the surveys and the institutional core data sheet (validated through interviews). This data allowed estimating the role and extent of different program forms at institutions. On this basis, mobility rates (corrected for the extent of multiple mobilities among students and taking into account different average duration of degree program completion) in TE degree programs upon graduation were estimated. Estimated mobility rates of the six institutions varied between roughly 5 and 30%. Across all institutions, estimated mobility rates upon graduation amounted to approx. 15-20%, taking into account all seven different program forms, and thus to European averages.

corresponded to European averages was chosen as the reference category (Institution 1)<sup>48</sup>. In the BLR models, the effect of institutions was thus determined in reference to Institution 1 which represents an average estimated European TSM level in teacher education. Institutions 2 and 3 had estimated TSM levels above European averages, Institution 4 had an estimated TSM level slightly above average, and Institutions 5 and 6 had estimated TSM levels below European averages.

The variable FL—non-FL was also included in both models as a control variable. Although this variable was itself of a certain interest as a predictor, it also served the role of a control variable in the models since it was of interest to determine influential factors beyond effects due to studying foreign languages or not. The inclusion of this variable as a control variable was important, for example, due to its links to other variables such as foreign language skills of students, or international dimensions in study environments. Students who studied foreign languages were used as the reference category. Thus, it was the effect of *not* studying foreign languages (as compared to studying FL) on the likelihood to belong to the higher status group at any of the three thresholds which was determined.

BLR allows to specify models in which all predictor variables are entered in one block, or in which predictor variables are entered in separate blocks (see Backhaus et al., 2011; Schendera, 2014). Entering data in separate blocks allows to track any changes to the results of previous blocks upon entering new predictor variables and thus to detect links between variables. Furthermore, different methods can be specified for the inclusion of predictors within each block. First, the method ENTER (as it is termed in SPSS) can be used. This method ensures that all variables of the block concerned are included as predictors throughout (the different steps) the analysis (Schendera, 2014). This is appropriate for any variables that the researcher wants in the analysis in any case, such as control variables. Second, stepwise methods (forward or backward, abbreviated in SPSS as FSTEP and BSTEP) can be used. Using the stepwise forward method, not all variables are entered into the model simultaneously (by contrast to BSTEP), and not all of them remain in the model throughout the procedure (by contrast to ENTER): Only one predictor of a block is entered at one step,

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<sup>48</sup> Purposeful other reference categories could have been the institution with the highest or lowest TSM level. Decision, however, was made against using any of these two as the reference category, since this would have resulted in unacceptably low case numbers in particular at the interest and the implementation threshold, and would have produced unreliable results.

depending on its regression weights and significance levels<sup>49</sup> (Fromm, 2012). An advantage of the stepwise forward approach is that it ensures that throughout the different steps of the procedure, the amount of predictor variables does not become too large in view of sample sizes<sup>50</sup>. To ensure reliable results in view of this study's sample sizes and the amount of predictors in the BLR models, the FSTEP method was prioritized (over BSTEP). The probabilities in the stepwise procedure for the entry and removal of variables<sup>51</sup> were set at .05 and .10 respectively (which are commonly used and non-relaxed thresholds for determining effects, Schendera, 2014).

While general conditions of how BLRs were conducted have been summarized above, the remainder of this chapter will turn to a detailed description of the models used for each of the variable sets. Generally, in a first block the variables to remain in the model throughout the BLR procedure were entered using the method ENTER; then, using the method FSTEP, further variables were entered in a separate block to determine their effects on increasing or decreasing the likelihood that students fall into the higher status group at each of the three thresholds. BLRs were conducted separately for the two models, and separately at each of the three thresholds, leaving in total six BLRs to be calculated.

In the first model, at each of the three thresholds, two categorical control variables were used, along with 23 metric predictors representing the issues that students assessed in terms of their role as obstacles to TSM for them.

- 1) In the first block, the two control variables—the multinominal categorical variable institution and the binary categorical variable whether students studied FL or not—

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<sup>49</sup> The obstacle with the lowest significance value in the score statistic is entered into the model first, upon which all variables in the model are tested for exclusion, whereby the variable with the highest level of significance in the LR (likelihood ratio) statistic is excluded. Subsequently, all variables remaining in the model are tested for exclusion. When no more variables in the model fulfil the criteria for exclusion (using the LR statistic), the model is again tested for the addition of further obstacles as relevant predictors (for details see Schendera (2014)) The criteria for the addition of variables in SPSS is always the score statistic while SPSS allows choices of the statistic used as a criterion for the removal of variables (Baltes-Götz (2012)).

<sup>50</sup> By contrast, using the stepwise backward method, all predictor variables of a block are first added to the model and subsequently variables with insufficient parameters are excluded “step by step”. Accordingly, this method has the disadvantage that in case of many predictor variables (e.g., as relevant in one of the models of this study: 23 items of the obstacles item battery), group sizes should be adequately high to ensure reliable results.

<sup>51</sup> Using FSTEP, the criterion for the addition of variables is the score statistic; for the removal of variables, SPSS provides parameter choices (see Baltes-Götz, 2012). In line with recommendations in research literature (ibid.), the results of significance tests for the LR (likelihood ratio) statistic were specified as the relevant removal criterion.

were added using the method ENTER<sup>52</sup>. These two variables thus remained in the model throughout the BLR procedure, regardless of whether their effects became significant or not.

- 2) In the second block, 23 metric variables (corresponding to items in the obstacles item battery, see Table 19) were entered utilizing the stepwise forward method (FSTEP). Thus, variables (here: issues assessed as obstacles) were added to the final model at each threshold that significantly influence (decrease or increase) the likelihood that students belong to the higher status group.

Evaluation of outliers and influential cases led to the exclusion of only one case (at the threshold interest). The models produced results satisfying with respect to relevant statistical quality criteria (goodness of fit using the Hosmer-Lemeshow test<sup>53</sup>, and the amount of explained variance using Naglekerke's Pseudo  $R^2$ <sup>54</sup>), plausibility of results and their manifestness of interpretation, model efficiency, and sample sizes. The results for the model as specified above are therefore reported in the results chapters.

The model reverting to the second variable set was as follows:

- 1) In Block 1, study-related data and sociodemographic variables were entered using the method ENTER, thus remaining in the model throughout the BLR procedure. This was deemed important because variables in Block 1 were control variables and other study-related and sociodemographic variables that have been shown to be associated with student mobility in previous studies. Their exclusion could have

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<sup>52</sup> Prior to deciding to enter the two control variables jointly in Block 1, links between the two variables were examined by entering the variables in separate blocks (using the method ENTER). No links were detected (adding the FL—non-FL variable separately in Block 2 did not change results and significances in Block 1 where the variable institution had been added) so that the control variables institution and FL—non-FL were subsumed into a common Block 1.

<sup>53</sup> Non-significant results for the Hosmer-Lemeshow test ( $p \leq .05$ ), which should be chosen to evaluate goodness of fit for individual data (see Schendera (2014)), indicate a suitable fit of the model to the data. Since results of the Hosmer-Lemeshow test can become unreliable in case of many low or empty cell frequencies, the expected cell frequencies were analyzed following Schendera's (2014) recommendations (expected frequencies should be higher than 2; for a maximum of 20% of all cells below 5 and ideally not 0). Results indicated that the Hosmer-Lemeshow test provided good power for the analysis at hand, thus, its results were reliable at all three thresholds.

<sup>54</sup> Pseudo  $R^2$  statistics attempt to quantify the amount of variance explained by a model. Naglekerke's Pseudo  $R^2$  can reach values between 0 and 1 (Fromm (2012); Backhaus et al. (2011)). Pseudo- $R^2$  measures increase with the amount of predictors and are usually lower than  $R^2$  results in linear regression analysis (Baltes-Götz (2012)). Backhaus et al. (2011) nevertheless proposes a relatively strict scheme of interpretation, with values from .2 onwards as acceptable, and values above .5 as very good.

also resulted in misleading results for the variables entered in Block 2. Further details on the variables added in Block 1 are given below.

- 2) In Block 2, variables relating to (a) students' study environment (5 metric items, as shown in Table 20), (b) recognition of professional value of gaining international competences and experiences (1 metric item, see Table 20), and (c) knowledge and awareness on TSM options (3 items binary items, see Table 20) were entered. Again, the stepwise forward method was used, having the effect that not all of the variables in Block 2 were added to the final model, but only those with additional predictive value, which is what was of interest with respect to these variables. As before, the stepwise forward method ensured that the amount of predictor variables did not become too large in view of the sample sizes at each threshold.

The variables entered in the first block were (for full variable references including measurement scales see Table 20): (1) Institution (multinomial categorical variable; reference category: Institution 1 which had TSM levels corresponding to European averages); (2) whether students studied a foreign language or not (binary categorical variable; reference category: FL); (3) student's age (metric); (4) students' study year (metric); (5) educational background of parents (metric); (6) whether students had children or not (binary categorical variable; reference category: not having children); (7) the amount of languages spoken at proficient level (metric); and (8) previous international experience since age 15 (metric).

Two variables, languages spoken at proficient level and previous international experience, were not entered into the model at the implementation threshold due to the primary effects of having implemented a stay abroad on these variables.

Educational background of parents and previous international experiences of students were based on ordinal categories but were treated as metric variables in the models. While the use of ordinal variables in BLR is generally unproblematic, ordinal variables are, however, as described above split into binary combinations resulting in an increase in the number of predictors which was aimed to be avoided. Options were to treat them as metric; or to subsume the several ordinal categories into two remaining categories only, representing the distinction at which effects of the variable could be observed (e.g., if a certain minimum educational level of parents has an effect on students' likelihood to be interested, to plan or to have implemented study-related experiences abroad, but beyond that level no influence can be

observed). Therefore, level effects were tested for both variables<sup>55</sup> so as to determine whether the variables could be recoded and entered as binary variables. For both variables no such level effects could be traced. Therefore, the decision was taken to enter both variables, treating them as metric.

Finally, the variables income, gender, and whether students had a migration/international background were not included in the analysis. The three variables mentioned were identified as candidates for exclusion since they showed little variation across the four status groups of students<sup>56</sup>. They were excluded aiming to ensure adequate proportions of sample sizes in relation to the total amount of predictors used (to ensure reliable results, this was particularly relevant at the first threshold where the group sizes were lowest). Further candidates identified for exclusion, on the same grounds as above<sup>57</sup>, were students' self-rated academic achievements and educational background of parents. For the variable parents' educational background, the decision was taken to nevertheless include it in the model, since several previous studies have shown effects of this variable on TSM participation and factors influencing TSM participation. Furthermore, the variable income had already been excluded, and it was deemed relevant to retain one variable relating to socioeconomic background in the analysis. For the other variable in question (academic achievements of students), the decision was taken to exclude it from the analysis. Before finally excluding the four variables income, gender, migration/international background, and academic achievements, this decision was substantiated by checking whether any of the four variables would have been added to the model as a significant predictor in Block 1 (if a stepwise method was used); and whether the addition of these variables in the first block (using the method ENTER) would have changed the final results (after completion of the BLR procedure in Block 2). Neither was the case. Since furthermore none of these four

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<sup>55</sup> The relevant levels tested for educational background of parents were: at least one parent having minimum upper secondary education and/or vocational training, at least one parent having higher vocational training (post-secondary), at least one parent having a higher education degree, and both parents having at least upper secondary education). The relevant levels tested for previous international experiences were having at least 1-3 months, at least 3-6 months, at least 12 months, or more than 12 months previous international experiences.

<sup>56</sup> In fact, statistical tests remained insignificant as regards differences between the four status groups for these three variables (whereas significant effects were shown for all others), and none of the three variables performed a significant influence at any of the three singular thresholds (each two groups of a threshold tested separately). The three variables were therefore not entered in the model.

<sup>57</sup> Although for both variables significant differences across the four status groups of students were observable, the variables showed only little absolute variation across the four status groups, differences becoming significant only at one threshold each.

variables had been identified as predictors with clear and strong influences on TSM participation (see literature review Chapter 2.5.2), their exclusion seemed clearly defensible.

An analysis of outliers and overly influential cases resulted in the exclusion of a minor amount of cases (5, 4 and 4 cases at the thresholds interest, plans and implementation respectively). The model, as described above (using 8 variables in Block 1 and 8 in Block 2), produced results satisfying with respect to relevant statistical quality criteria (goodness of fit using the Hosmer-Lemeshow test<sup>58</sup>, explained variance using Naglekerke's Pseudo  $R^2$ ), plausibility of results and their manifestness of interpretation, as well as model efficiency and sample sizes. Its results are therefore reported in the results chapters.

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<sup>58</sup> Since results of the Hosmer-Lemeshow test can become unreliable in case of many low or empty cell frequencies, the expected cell frequencies were analyzed following Schendera's (2014) recommendations. Results indicated that the Hosmer-Lemeshow test provided good power for the analysis at hand, thus, its results were reliable at all three thresholds.

## **4. Results Investigation Strand 1: Internationalization in Teacher Education in a Multilevel and Contextualized Comparative Perspective**

In reference to the first research question, this chapter provides the results of a macro-, meso- and microlevel investigation to outline the rationales, expected benefits, and (major) elements of internationalization (internationalization models) in teacher education, and to reveal—through a multilevel and contextualized comparative approach—its distinct features, drivers or difficulties. In the first parts (Chapter 4.1), the results of a policy-document analysis—the HE and TE internationalization models—are presented. Following a stepwise and contextualizing comparative approach, the models are described, juxtaposed and compared to each other. The chapter then turns to a multilevel comparison, including the analysis of internationalization models at the meso- (institutional) and micro- (student) level (at these levels results are primarily based on survey data; Chapter 4.2 and 4.3). The multilevel comparison is furthermore enriched by the evaluation of a set of distinct assumptions about possible diffusion barriers as relevant to the field. In the final part of this chapter, results are summarized from a multilevel and contextualized perspective along the assumptions made in Investigation Strand 1 (Chapter 4.4).

### **4.1 Macrolevel: Higher Education and Teacher Education Models of Internationalization in the European Context**

#### **4.1.1 The Context of the Policy-Level Teacher Education Model of Internationalization**

This chapter describes European-level policies and networks of policy-making relevance (i.e., involved in discourses of policy-making) in teacher education. The TE policy-document set for the structured analysis was drawn from a batch of documents from these entities. The focus of the description is on how (extensively) these policies and network documents refer to international dimensions in teacher education (degree programs). This descriptive review (together with the previously conducted review of literature and research on teacher education in general, see Chapter 2.4) serves to embed the results of the subsequently reported structured policy-document analysis into the broader themes and settings within which internationalization in TE is discussed.

#### 4.1.1.1 European-Level Policies and Their Regard of International Dimensions in Teacher Education Degree Programs

In relation to goals advocated for in ET 2010 (Council of the EU, 2002) and its stated first objective—to improve the education and training for teachers and trainers, a so-called High-Level Thematic Working Group was instigated, involving ministerial representatives from over 30 European countries. The group’s work (European Commission/DG EAC, 2005; European Commission/DG EAC, 2003, 2004) bears frequent references to (needed) international dimensions in teacher education. Its policy recommendations demand that the European dimension be “at the heart of the initial and continuing education of teachers and trainers” (European Commission/DG EAC, 2004, p. 1). The European dimension is in the context of this working group defined as follows<sup>59</sup>:

The European dimension of education should mean that students and teachers are conscious of their common cultural base and the rich national and regional diversity they share. (. . .) It should be an inclusive concept, which does not deny or suppress the distinctive characteristics of individual identities or cultures represented throughout Europe, nor exclude a wider international perspective. Teachers, as well as students, need to have their horizons widened to take account of this broader European concept. This is all the more important in the view of the clear threats of divisiveness, inter-cultural tension and xenophobia. (European Commission/DG EAC, 2004, p. 1)

Teacher education degree programs should, according to the conceptualizations in the group’s policy recommendations, ensure that future teachers are educated to become promoters of European citizenship. This concept entails the acquisition of relevant knowledge (e.g., on European integration, on minority communities, etc.) and of intercultural competences, including the attitudes and values which support building cohesive, inclusive, and multicultural societies. First-hand international experiences of (future) teachers are first and foremost placed within this context aiming to promoting the European dimension in education. Mobility is seen as “a powerful means of enabling teachers and trainers to educate their learners for European citizenship and of deepening their own sense of being European citizens” (European Commission/DG EAC, 2004, p. 1).

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<sup>59</sup> Note that the term European dimension is used differently by the author (cf. rationales framework in Chapter 3.3.2): the European-dimension rationale describes more structural aspects. The use of the term in this document would broadly correspond to author’s use of the European/global-citizenship rationale or the intercultural-education rationale.

The second and slightly different context into which (student) mobility is placed in the documents of the Working Group refers to its innovative capacity through enabling the acquisition, exchange and transfer of knowledge. In this conceptualization, the promotion of mobility is positioned in relation to the benefits for both the individual teacher (improved practice as individual teacher through broadened knowledge) and for the school system as a whole (international exchanges leading to innovation in the education system at home).

Mobility, in the context of this document, mainly relates to short-term (student) mobility (while to a lesser extent to degree and professional mobility). In the 2004 progress report of the Working Group (European Commission/DG EAC, 2004), the following concrete recommendations regarding the element of mobility are summarized by ministerial representatives from across Europe:

- Teacher education providers (in initial and continuing education) should aim to integrate and mainstream mobility into their program delivery;
- language teachers should be required to spend an “extended and appropriately structured stay” (European Commission/DG EAC, 2004, p. 1) in countries of their target languages;
- mobility should be fostered and obstacles (such as financing, languages and recognition) removed, for example, by increasing national financing for mobility, promoting language learning in initial teacher education or by using the Bologna process and its instruments to remove obstacles.

The importance of the Bologna process and of establishing an EHEA of teacher education is recognized (see European Commission/DG EAC, 2003, 2004). The Working Group stresses that the Bologna instruments (e.g., easily readable and comparable three-cycle degree structure, descriptors for the learning outcomes, external quality assurance) require adaptation to the field, and first of all consideration in the field. In this context European cooperation between the concerned stakeholders is recognized as highly relevant.

The Working Group’s *Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications* (European Commission/DG EAC, 2005) describe the teaching profession through broad markers as: (1) a well-qualified profession (high level of education), (2) a profession placed within the context of lifelong learning (importance of professional development and innovation capacities), (3) a mobile profession (this relates to short- and

long-term mobility options and experiences in TE degree programs as well as in professional settings), and (4) a profession based on partnership (importance of collaboration with a diverse range of stakeholders). Key teacher competences are summarized as “working with others”, “working with knowledge, technology and information”, and “working with and in society”. This latter competence is operationalized specifically relating to international competences of teachers.

[Teachers] contribute to preparing learners to be globally responsible in their role as EU citizens. Teachers should be able to promote mobility and co-operation in Europe, and encourage intercultural respect and understanding. (European Commission/DG EAC, 2005, p. 12)

Looking to the documents of the ET 2010 Peer Learning Cluster on Teachers and Trainers (European Commission/DG EAC, n.d., 2007), we find an additional aspect emphasized as to why international dimensions should be (more strongly) included in teacher education degree programs: the increasing (cultural) diversity in classrooms across Europe. In this context, building competences to teach in diverse and multicultural settings is seen as an educational outcome of core relevance to all future teachers. International experiences are seen as an important means towards building such competences. An interesting aspect introduced in the documents is the need to regard diversity also in the HR policies of teacher education institutions when aiming to build diversity-related skills among teacher education students. Accordingly, policy recommendations relating to international dimensions in TE degree programs are summarized as follows:

The curriculum of teacher education should address diversity and the European dimension in an explicit way. Core knowledge with respect to teaching in diverse classrooms and intercultural skills are regarded as a minimum standard for all future teachers. Alongside that, student teachers should be offered the chance of a teaching practicum in a multicultural setting during their initial teacher education. Teachers and student teachers must have the opportunity to take part in mobility programs. Diversity should also be an issue in policies for the recruitment of staff at teacher education institutions. (European Commission/DG EAC, 2007, p. 11)

Informed by the policy-making discourses and policy-level exchanges referred to above, in 2007 Council conclusions (Council of the EU, 2007a) entitled *Improving the*

*Quality of Teacher Education* were issued. Challenges and needs regarding teacher education acknowledged by the European Ministers in this document are (amongst others): to establish coherent and integrated systems of initial and continuous teacher education; to secure high-level qualifications of teachers within the three-cycle system of the Bologna process; to provide and improve possibilities for mobility and international exchanges in teacher education; ensuring that teachers possess relevant competences. These competences are working in multicultural settings and teaching effectively in socially and culturally diverse classrooms; performing their work as reflective practitioners able to introduce innovations in their day-to-day teaching practices and the school system; acting as educators, role models and multipliers of transversal competences (such as they were implied, e.g., by the European citizenship concept outlined above).

In the Council conclusions we thus find a high importance of several issues that bear implications for the inclusion of international dimensions in the definition of learning outcomes, and for the design and implementation of curricula of TE degree programs. The international element of (short-term) mobility experiences in these documents is clearly framed as contributing to the professional development of pre-service and in-service teachers and seen as a multibenefit instrument to achieve quality improvements in (teacher) education. This is underlined by the call to

support mobility programmes for teachers, student teachers and teacher educators which are designed to have a significant impact on their professional development, as well as to foster better understanding of cultural differences and an awareness of the European dimension of teaching (Council of the EU, 2007a, pp. 8–9).

Two further Council conclusions relating to teacher education and the teaching profession deserve mention when it comes to the European-level policy context for internationalization in teacher education: These are the 2008 Council conclusions *Preparing Young People for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century: An Agenda for European Cooperation in Schools* (Council of the EU, 2008), and the 2009 Council conclusions *Professional Development of Teachers and School Leaders* (Council of the EU, 2009b). In both documents the promotion and increase of mobility and international collaboration in (teacher) education are broadly advocated for. These international elements are strongly framed within a professional development perspective whereby effects are envisaged at the individual level (competence development of education professionals) as well as at the systemic level (quality

improvements through increased knowledge, knowledge transfer and innovative capacity of individual persons in the system). Mobility and international networking are generally seen as pathways to support achieving the goal that education systems and institutions should be “more open, more outward-looking, more accessible and more efficient” (Council of the EU, 2009b, p. 8) in the future.

#### 4.1.1.2 The International Dimension in European-Level Networks of Policy-Making Relevance

When it comes to describing the policy-level discourse related to international dimensions in TE in Europe, apart from explicit European-level policies, the networks or organizations in which policy-influential discourses are led are relevant to be briefly characterized, as is done in the following.

The Tuning project is an influential university-driven project and network which was established in relation to the Bologna process. The project developed common reference points for curricula in different subject areas by outlining common learning outcomes and competence-based level descriptors for degrees within the three-cycle system. Teacher education is a field covered in the Tuning project. Learning outcomes and level descriptors for TE degree programs have been developed by a team of academics from the field in consultation with the broader community, TE stakeholders, and in view of current European and national policies. Owing to the approach to specify learning outcomes and competence descriptions at the Bachelor’s, Master’s, and PhD level, the discourse, as visible in the Tuning documents (Tuning Project, 2009), remains rather implicit about any concrete elements of internationalization in TE curricula. At the same time, the cycle-specific descriptions include competence areas that clearly imply the inclusion of international dimensions in TE curricula. These are in particular the specified learning outcomes “appreciation of diversity and multiculturalism” and the competence to “work with society—at local, regional, national, European and broader global levels including the development of appropriate professional values and the ability to reflect on practices and contexts” (Tuning Project, 2009, p. 45).

In two comparatively well institutionalized and influential organizations, ATEE and ETUCE (the Association for Teacher Education in Europe and the European Trades Union Committee for Education respectively; both are, for example, represented in the current highest-level Working Groups on education of the European Commission), the internationalization of teacher education cannot be identified as a pervasive theme or a

specific theme strongly advocated for (notwithstanding mentions of support for specific elements such as mobility, or notes of societal developments such as increasingly multicultural classrooms, e.g., European Trade Union Committee for Education, 2009). The situation is different regarding TNTEE, the Thematic Network on Teacher Education in Europe. TNTEE was a relatively large academic network, funded in Erasmus out of which further initiatives grew directly or indirectly (e.g., the TEPE network, see below). TNTEE had a subnetwork on intercultural education in teacher education and published the *Green Paper on Teacher Education in Europe* (Buchberger et al., 2000), a paper which is highly explicit about the need to strengthen international dimensions in TE, and which is considered influential in the field (Hudson, Zgaga, & Astrand, 2008).

The Green Paper notes that (by the year 2000) broad changes of society (such as globalization, individual mobility, changes in career patterns, migration, multicultural societies) and resulting challenges such as European integration, citizenship education, or multiculturalism, had not received adequate policy attention and reflection in terms of their impact and implications for teacher education (while, as it is said, other topics such as language learning, ICT, or education-industry links had received broader attention; European Commission, 2009). It is highly concrete in proposing the internationalization of TE degree programs and calls for more coherent and substantial efforts to strengthen international dimensions—in particular also mobility—in teacher education. It notes the positive (though limited) impact that EU programs had at the institutional level in terms of reforming, modernizing and also internationalizing TE degree programs. It therefore suggests the expansion of such programs (also specifically for the field of TE). Furthermore, the paper calls for the establishment of cross-European knowledge resource centers for (knowledge on) teacher education and the establishment of cross-European Master's and PhD Programs. These measures are seen as pathways to modernizing and improving the quality of teacher education.

ENTEPE, the European Network on Teacher Education Policies, is a network which has been closely linked to policy-making since its launch by the Council of the EU in 2000. ENTEPE sees itself as “an independent high-level discussion group of ministers' representatives [...] directly linked to national teacher education policy-making” (p. 11), and aims to serve as a sounding board for new policy issues at the European level (Gassner et al., 2010, pp. 7–12). Envisaged outcomes of the network are broadly linked to the internationalization of teacher education: The network generally aims to increase

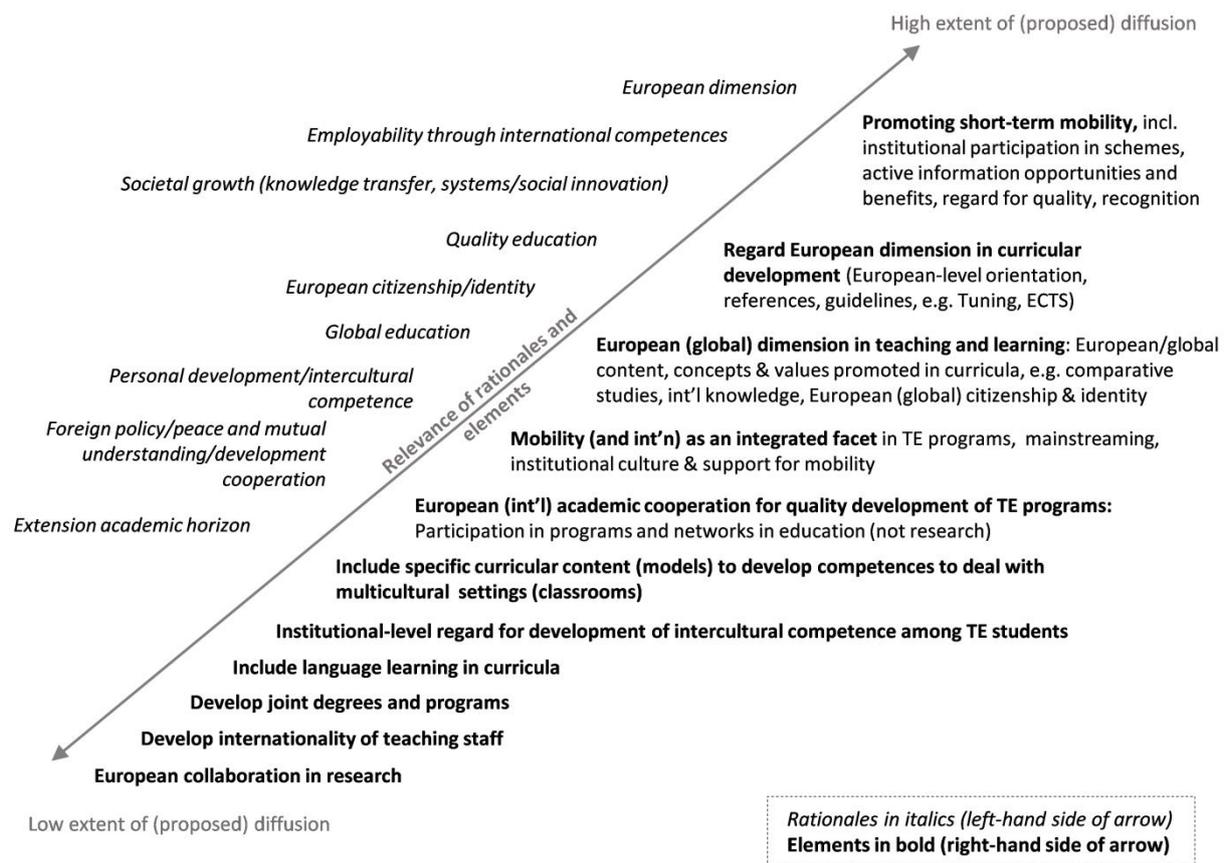
opportunities for exchange and knowledge transfer between the EU Member States on teacher education. It aims to support developing “a European dimension of education, and other elements which could be common in teacher education programmes” (p. 8); and to (3) to “promote teacher mobility in the European Union” (ibid.; here mainly related to improving the professional mobility of teachers).

The most important ENTEP document in relation to the international dimension in teacher education outlines the concept of “the European teacher” (Schratz, 2010). This paper examines “what constitutes a teacher within an understanding of European professionalism” (p. 97) based on the assumption that European dimensions will be of particular significance in the future. Dimensions of the outlined profile of the European teacher are (a) teachers’ European identity (in addition to a national identity), (b) European knowledge of education systems but also of European history and integration, etc., (c) European multiculturalism, that is, engaging with the multicultural aspects of the European society, (d) speaking European languages (being able to speak and teach in more than one European language), (e) European professionalism, that is, a professional having the opportunities and competences to teach in the whole of Europe, (f) European citizenship, and (g) European quality measures which are not defined at the individual level but refer to common qualification frameworks and comparability of European teacher education (see Schratz, 2010). Very clearly, international cooperation in education, having first-hand international experiences, and study-related as well as professional mobility play a key role in the profile of the European teacher, not least with respect to developing the desired qualities in teachers (see Schratz, 2010, pp. 100–101).

TEPE, Teacher Education Policy in Europe, is an academic network that was established in 2007 and can be seen as the academic strand of the ENTEP network. Although TEPE is focused on research perspectives regarding teacher education in Europe, it nevertheless aims to contribute to increasing mobility and extending the European Dimension in teacher education. TEPE (Zgaga, 2008) has published an (academic) paper on (student) mobility and the European dimension in TE degree programs in which the internationalization of teacher education at large is clearly advocated for.

#### 4.1.2 The Internationalization Model of the Teacher Education Sector: The Idea and Ideal to Reach Diffusion in European Teacher Education Degree Programs

The previous chapter descriptively outlined important threads of policies and policy-making discourses as relating to international dimensions in TE, and briefly characterized the main European-level entities in which policy-making discourses are led. This chapter turns to reporting results of the structured document analysis of European-level policies and policy-making discourses (for methodological details see Chapter 3.3.2). Figure 8 summarizes the policy-level internationalization model found for the teacher education sector. It displays the most frequently used rationales to advocate for internationalization, and the most important measures of internationalization (i.e., groupings of elements of internationalization) as proposed to be diffused under these rationales. The closer the rationales and elements of internationalization are positioned towards the upper right hand corner in Figure 8 the higher is their extent of diffusion at the policy level, in other words, the more frequent is their use.



**Figure 8.** Internationalization model for the teacher education sector. Int'n = internationalization; Int'l = international.

As shown in Figure 8, important rationales in the TE internationalization model include (in this order of relevance): the European-dimension rationale, the employability-

through-international-competences rationale, the societal-growth rationale (relating to knowledge transfer, social, systems innovation), the education-quality rationale, and, further, the three conceptually similar individual-level rationales European-citizenship/identity, global-education, personal-development/intercultural-competences. The most important elements of internationalization proposed under these rationales were subsumed into eleven thematically grouped threads of program and organization strategies, as shown in Figure 8.

In the following, dominant argumentations for the specific proposed elements of internationalization in teacher education are described.

The single most important rationale found in the policy-level TE internationalization model relates to a strengthening of the European dimension in teacher education at large. To some extent, the rationale of the European dimension was found to be framed within the broader societal-growth rationale, and paralleled by the use of the quality-education rationale. Beyond that, internationalization through, by, and because of strengthening the European dimension represented a dominant figure in itself, revealing tautological qualities of the rationale and its use: Elements of internationalization in TE degree programs at higher education institutions are introduced under a rationale that constitutes or necessarily involves processes of internationalization itself.

It is worth recalling that the European dimension-rationale was used in the analysis to encode argumentations where the text passage did not suggest using the European-citizenship/identity-rationale (or related rationales such as global-education, personal-development/intercultural-competences). The European-citizenship/identity rationale denotes a socio-cultural learning outcome involving European knowledge, skills and values. By contrast, the European-dimension rationale is not geared towards individual-level outcomes. Rather, it refers to a broader, more encompassing and foundational international (European) framing and relates to structural and organizational aspects which would foster internationalization.

The rationale of strengthening the European dimension in the context of teacher education policies can be described as a rationale for the internationalization or Europeanization of the field. This is evidenced by the strong relation this rationale was found to have to elements of increasing international cooperation in teacher education, to promoting international networks for collaboration in education (to a minor extent in research), or to

increasing participation in European (mobility) programs and schemes. In addition, this can also be seen in the strong link to elements of internationalization in TE curricula that would increasingly align these to the EHEA (and the ERA to a very minor extent) such as the use of international and European frameworks and references (ECTS, Diploma Supplement, EQF<sup>60</sup>, etc.). The strength of the European-dimension rationale and its links to these elements illustrate an effort or need discussed at the European-level for teacher education to *become* international in the first place. The European-dimension rationale is not only introduced on the basis of a relevance-based view but also carries a strong deficit-based stance. The overwhelming use of the European-dimension rationale can be seen as an antipode to the missing use of the individual/social/community-development rationale which depicts internationalization as a “matter-of-course” in higher education, something that happens in higher education as a relatively effortless response to current societal developments. This rationale was found to be virtually inexistent in the set of TE policy documents.

As indicated above, the European-dimension rationale was also found to be linked to the use of the education-quality rationale, and as repeatedly framed within the macrolevel rationale of societal growth and development. Both of these rationales are also among the five most important rationales used in the TE policy document set (see Figure 8). This joining of rationales conceptualizes measures of internationalization as a pathway to improving the quality of TE degree programs and as contributing to social and systems innovation. Furthermore, when advocating internationalization in TE degree programs, the European-dimension rationale was also often found to be used in combination with the European-citizenship/identity rationale. These rationales’ high frequency of use generally exemplifies the need seen to (more) clearly position teacher education within a European (instead of national) space, and to equip teacher education students with a European and international orientation.

The figure of a globalized multicultural society and the implications of multiculturalism for the school sector were found to constitute an important anchor of the European-citizenship/identity rationale. The European-citizenship/identity rationale is conceptually similar to other individual-level rationales: the global-education rationale and

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<sup>60</sup> European Qualifications Frameworks

the personal-development/intercultural-competence rationale. Despite having different foci<sup>61</sup>, all three carry in themselves the advocacy for building international competences (including intercultural competences), as a response to increasingly globalized and multicultural societies. Therefore, unsurprisingly, the three rationales were also found to be closely related to each other (used in combination and related to similar elements of internationalization proposed under these rationales).

In addition, these three rationales were also found to be strongly linked to the second most important rationale for internationalization in the TE policy-document set: the individual-level employability-through-international-competences rationale. This rationale denotes a concern for building international competences (relevant knowledge, skills and also attitudes) at large among future teachers. Importantly—and by contrast to the other individual-level rationales—in the case of the employability rationale the building of international competences is presented as a professional competence. In the TE sector this means that international competences are presented as a professional competence of teachers needed when teaching in 21<sup>st</sup> century classrooms.

In summary, the four individual-level rationales were all found to be of high frequency in the TE policy-document set, making the individual-level rationales a very strong component in the teacher education internationalization model. All of the individual-level rationales showed a very strong relation to the element of TSM and also to content-related curricular elements (the inclusion of adequate content in TE curricula to support building international competences is proposed) of internationalization in TE degree programs.

The strength of the individual-level rationales is related to the fact that, as was revealed in the document analysis, the systemic anchor of the TE internationalization model can be seen to lie in societal developments at large (cf. importance of societal-growth rationale), and the needs of the school education system particularly, where (as the literature and research review has shown) international dimensions became increasingly important. Reverting to conceptual distinctions derived in the course of the literature and research

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<sup>61</sup> The European-citizenship/identity rationale differs from the global-education rationale mainly through carrying a regional (as opposed to a global) dimension. As opposed to the personal-development/intercultural-competence rationale, the European-citizenship/identity rationale and global-education rationale carry a stronger societal framing (developing the whole society through educating individuals). The personal-development/intercultural-competence rationale denotes a stronger concern for advocating international competences and specifically intercultural competences per se, as relevant competences of individuals in our current societies.

review, we can also note that international dimensions in TE degree programs are not only seen as important in order to build internationally coined professional competences in a more narrow sense, such as the competence to teach in culturally diverse classrooms. Teachers are seen as role models and multipliers so that individual-level rationales promoting the acquisition of international competences do, in teacher education, not only appear as part of a desirable *personal* profile, but also as part of a *professional* profile in a wider sense. This framing as a professional competence provides a major reason for the strength of individual-level rationales in the TE policy documents.

The strong anchoring of argumentations of why to include international dimensions in teacher education in the demands of the teacher job comes with a strong framing of the delivery of academic degree programs under the perspective of professional development. In the European-level policy documents analyzed, HEIs are called upon to more strongly incorporate and diffuse elements of internationalization into their TE degree programs, in order for graduates to have acquired relevant professional skills upon leaving the institutions. Within these calls, a perspective of professional development is also applied to teacher educators at HEIs (the academic staff in teacher education): When elements of internationalization (e.g., mobility purposes of teaching or research) are proposed, it is often done outlining benefits in terms of relevant professional development for the individual person concerned—here, academic staff in teacher education.

Finally, the analysis will turn to a last important rationale in the policy-level TE internationalization model—the increase of the quality of education in TE degree programs by means of stronger inclusion of elements of internationalization. Next to (1) the professional framing, (2) the resulting strength of individual-level rationales, (3) the somewhat tautological proposition of elements of internationalization under a rationale of Europeanization at large so as to install a virtuous circle of internationalization and Europeanization, the (4) quality figure was found to be among the most important lines of thinking in current teacher education policies and policy-making discourses related to internationalization in TE degree programs.

The use of the rationale to improve the quality of education through internationalization was found to be closely intertwined with the European-dimension rationale in teacher education: The logic behind the joint use of the rationales is mostly that through pursuing the European dimension in teacher education, the implementation of

international elements is thought to be enabled, eased and strengthened, thus increasing the quality of education in TE degree programs.

The expected positive impact of international collaboration (via knowledge transfer and exchange within the teacher education system) was found to constitute a particularly strong facet underpinning the argumentations of the education-quality rationale. This is also the case where the quality rationale and the societal-growth rationale (knowledge transfer, systems innovation, social innovation) were found to form a common pattern: Elements of internationalization—as leading to knowledge transfer and exchange—are conceptualized to improve educational quality in TE degree programs, thereby more broadly contributing to systems and social innovation, not only within TE degree programs in the HE systems but eventually also within schools—through better educated and internationally competent and experienced teachers.

Mobility was found to be a particularly relevant element proposed in this respect. Because internationally experienced TE graduates with knowledge about other systems, practices, cultures and pedagogies are expected to have a “system-external” effect, that is, an effect on innovation and on the development of education as happening on a day-to-day basis in schools. Part of the drive to internationalize *teacher education* therefore comes from the aim to improve educational quality in *schools*.

Elements of internationalization which were found to be introduced under the quality rationale are the (temporary) mobility of both students and staff, the participation in cross-border programs and schemes, cross-border cooperation in curriculum development or innovation projects, European/international content built into curricula, and cross-border cooperation in research to mention the most important.

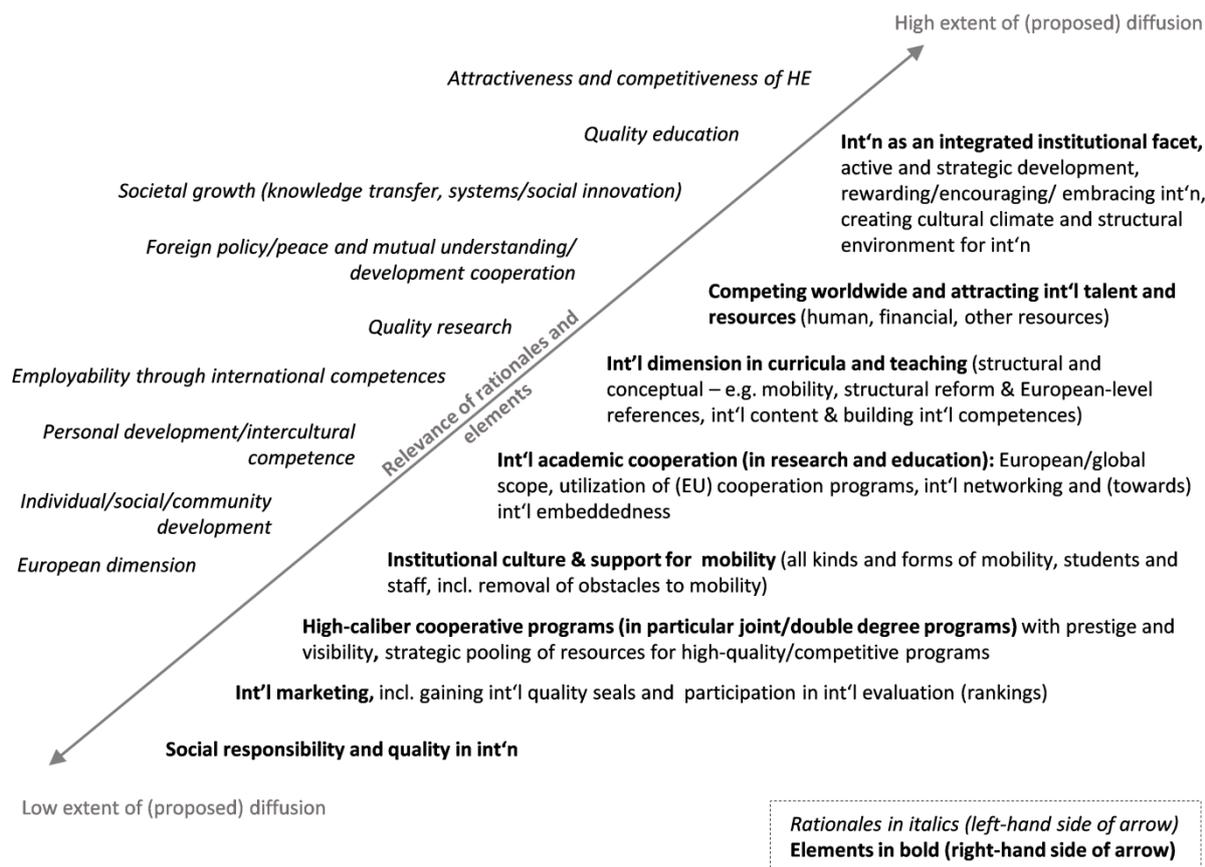
In comparison to the education-quality rationale, it is most interesting to see how the research-quality rationale and the elements of international research collaboration were found to be used: In general, the research-quality rationale is almost inexistent in the policy-level TE internationalization model; the element of international collaboration in research is mostly introduced under the rationale of contributing to the quality of educational programs, through international research *on* teacher education. That is, as opposed to the improvement of research *in* TE through international collaboration, as it would be proposed under a research-quality rationale. This non-emergence of the research-quality rationale is surprising, given the

strong regard to modernize and improve the quality of teacher education in general (see Chapter 2.4.1 and 4.1.1). It signifies a conceptualization of internationalization in TE that is mainly based on the education function of HEIs and much less in the research function.

### **4.1.3 The Internationalization Model Revealed for the Higher Education Sector**

Figure 9 lists the nine most important rationales and the eight thematic groupings of elements of internationalization referred to under these rationales, as revealed in the policy-document analysis for the HE sector (further rationales found—but of minor importance and therefore not listed in the model—were the foreign-relations—political-and-economic-ties rationale and the labor-market-demands rationale).

The three most defining rationales that were found to be used in HE policies at the European level are the attractiveness-and-competitiveness rationale, the quality-education rationale and the societal-growth rationale. The most important elements of internationalization found as proposed under these rationales were subsumed under the headers (1) internationalization as a frequent, systematically implemented and integrated institutional facet, whereby a strong support for all kinds and forms of mobility is visible, (2) international competition for talent (HR resources) and (other) resources, and extensive international cooperation in education and research for this purpose, and (3) the comprehensive implementation of international and European dimensions in curricula (including the set-up of high-caliber cooperative joint/double degree programs and English-language teaching).



**Figure 9.** Internationalization model for the higher education sector. Int'n = internationalization; Int'l = international.

The rationale to increase the attractiveness and competitiveness of the higher education sector through measures of internationalization at the institutional level was found to be by far the most frequently used rationale in HE policies. It runs through all areas of HE internationalization introduced in the documents analyzed. The lineup of elements associated with the rationale is specifically well exemplified by program and organization strategies such as the international recruitment of “talent”, that is, students and staff; international marketing and branding activities including the increase of visibility through international quality seals, strategic networking, and resource pooling in research and education; a revision and update of degree programs and the development of internationally oriented programs (in particular joint/double degree programs usually in English); as well as the improvement of international services (e.g., welcome centers).

The HE-attractiveness-and-competitiveness rationale was found to be related to but not dominantly framed within the macrolevel economic-growth rationale: The economic-growth rationale was found in European HE policies, but the contribution of higher education internationalization to economic growth mostly was implied only indirectly—as an eventual

outcome of an attractive and competitive higher education sector to which elements of internationalization directly contribute. Furthermore, the broader societal-growth rationale was found to be much stronger (than the economic-growth rationale) which emphasizes the desired eventual contribution of HE internationalization not only to economic growth but to “societal growth” and development at large.

Under the economic-growth rationale, and to a lesser extent under the societal-growth rationale, the internationalization of HEIs appears within an instrumentalized view on the functions, outcomes and contributions of higher education. Another view is taken in the individual/social/community-development rationale which was also found with considerable frequency (although less frequent than the societal-growth rationale) in the HE policy-document set: It acknowledges the role of HEIs as contributors to individual, social and community development in which international dimensions, orientation and international openness are evolutionary developed, inherent and almost “natural” features characterizing higher education and research environments (this could be subsumed under the header *internationalism*). Internationalization measures are proposed under this rationale in order to further strengthen the already inherent internationalism in higher education and research environments. The frequent use of this rationale in current HE models of internationalization can be seen to represent a shift in HE policies over the past years and decades towards HE internationalization being treated as something already inherent and naturally happening in various forms and to a varying extent, yet at the same time as a dimension of higher education in Europe that is worth further (strategic) strengthening (see Chapter 2.2.4). This high prevalence *and* relevance assigned to internationalism and internationalization can also be seen as a factor leading to internationalization being pursued “on its own right”. The duality of a natural evolution *and* strategic strengthening visible under the individual/social/community-development rationale is also well exemplified by the most important grouping of elements found in the HE internationalization model—the fostering of internationalization as an integrated institutional facet.

In the HE internationalization model found we can also witness a high importance of quality-based rationales (improving both the quality of education *and* research, see Figure 9) under which the diffusion of elements of internationalization is proposed. The *Council Conclusions on the Internationalization of Higher Education*, (Council of the EU, 2010b), for example, state that

international cooperation in higher education is an important and rewarding area which deserves support at both national and EU level. Such cooperation contributes to improving the quality and innovation of teaching, learning and research, and is beneficial to the production of knowledge. (p. 3)

The same line of argumentation could be found for student and staff mobility measures. To a certain extent, quality-based rationales were also found to be linked with the HE-attractiveness-and-competitiveness rationale: As exemplified by the statement above, the implementation of elements of internationalization is expected to increase the quality of research and education at HEIs in Europe. Increases in the quality of European research and education, in turn, are seen as a pathway to increasing the attractiveness and competitiveness of the European HE sector.

Global research cooperation and networks, international mobility and exchange programs, high-caliber joint international programs including Master's degrees and doctoral programs, as well as the international recruitment of students and scholars are key elements that were found to be related to the use of the research-quality rationale.

The education-quality rationale was revealed as slightly more frequent than the research-quality rationale in European HE policies and policy-making discourses. Here, international educational cooperation in general, curricular renewal using international best practices, (outward) mobility programs for students, and the set-up of international joint/double degree programs were important elements of internationalization found to be proposed using the education-quality rationale.

Macrolevel foreign-policy rationales were found to be less important in the HE policy-document set than the previously introduced rationales, but still to play a certain role. The most frequent foreign-policy rationale found was the peace-and-mutual-understanding/development-cooperation rationale. Related to the use of this rationale is an introduction of ethical issues such as brain drain, global social responsibility, or capacity building in less developed world regions. This can be seen as counterbalancing the frequent use of brain- and resource-gain strategies for the benefit of European HEIs in the HE internationalization model.

Thus far, the five most important rationales found for proposing the diffusion of elements of internationalization at the institutional level in the HE-general model of

internationalization were introduced. All of these rationales are macrolevel or mesolevel rationales. Rationales proposing measures of internationalization for their expected benefits and outcomes at the individual level (microlevel rationales) were also found to be repeatedly used in the HE policy-document set—although not with a frequency as high as the meso- and macrolevel rationales. The individual-level rationales revealed as the two most important by the structured analysis were the employability-through-international-competences rationale and the personal-development/intercultural-competence rationale.

The use of individual-level rationales for internationalization in the HE internationalization model was found to be almost exclusively related to the proposition to diffuse the element of individual outward mobility, while showing only very weak connections to propositions of international cooperation in general, and to propositions to diffuse (content-related) curricular elements of internationalization and elements of internationalization at home. In the policy-level HE internationalization model, outward student mobility is thus the overwhelmingly dominant element of internationalization proposed in order to realize desired individual-level goals such as intercultural competences or professionally-relevant international competences.

Links between the element of (outward student) mobility and curriculum-based elements of internationalization were found to be mainly established in an indirect way—under the use of the European-dimension rationale and the education-quality rationale. Under these rationales (outward student) mobility, next to a range of other curriculum-related elements of internationalization with a focus on structural components of curricular internationalization, are introduced.

The features and characteristics outlined above represent the zeitgeist model of internationalization, showing distinct conceptualizations, aims and foci guiding (policies on) the internationalization of HEIs in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The zeitgeist model can be characterized along a few key features: Student mobility is one of the central elements in this model. Short-term student mobility is a central element in policies, whereby expected individual-level benefits and outcomes such as intercultural competences or international competences at large are often proposed to be realized almost exclusively using the element of short-term mobility. Full degree mobility is another important form of mobility aimed to be fostered in policies. The establishment of international joint or double degree programs, and the related focus on teaching in English are important elements in the packages of internationalization measures

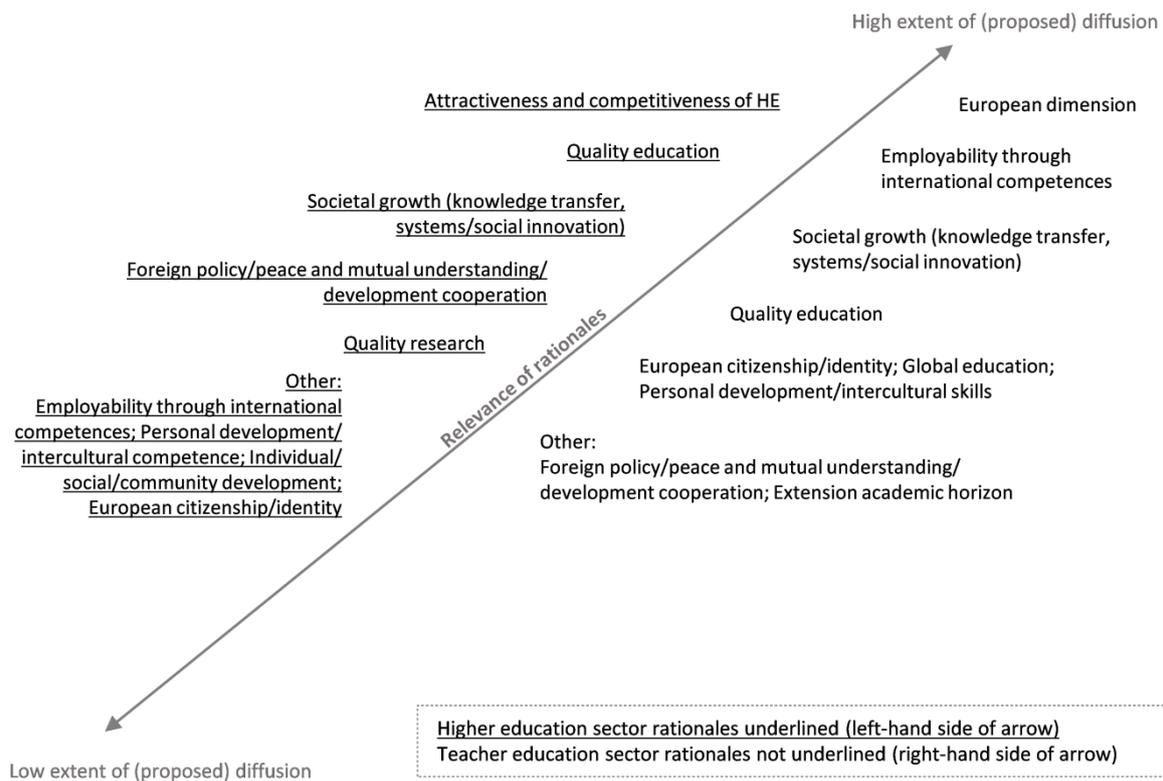
proposed. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century HE internationalization model, the curricular and structural integration of mobility, the mainstreaming of mobility, and the strategic development of internationalization are key issues. Regarding the internationalization of education, structural facets and abroad-components of internationalization have a stronger prevalence than content-related facets and at-home components of internationalization. Internationalization is dominantly framed within a paradigm of improving the quality and international attractiveness and competitiveness of European higher education and research, and as (directly or indirectly) contributing to societal and/or economic growth. The HE internationalization model displays a dominant framing within desired mesolevel and macrolevel developments and outcomes. In this context, measures relating primarily to the internationalization of research play an important role including international resource pooling, strategic networking, marketing, and international recruitment of human and other resources.

#### **4.1.4 Comparison of Higher Education and Teacher Education Internationalization Models**

Through the separate description of the HE and TE internationalization models the rationales, expected benefits, and (major) elements of internationalization were revealed. This chapter turns to a direct juxtaposition of the two models of internationalization, allowing a comparison and the identification of similarities and differences between the TE internationalization model and the general HE-internationalization model. The comparison is a contextualization of the TE model in its broader 21<sup>st</sup> century context of higher education policies, allowing to reveal any distinct features of the TE internationalization model.

##### **4.1.4.1 Juxtaposition and Comparison of Rationales to Reveal Commonalities and Differences**

As can be seen in Figure 10 two rationales for internationalization share a high prevalence in both policy-level models: (1) The societal-growth rationale under which specific measures of internationalization are proposed for their benefits of contributing to desired societal developments and social innovation, and (2) the education-quality rationale under which specific measures of internationalization are proposed for their benefits of contributing to desired quality improvements in higher education degree programs. Thus, they are underlying purposes of internationalization which are seen as compatible and profitable in both fields.



**Figure 10.** Juxtaposition of guiding rationales for internationalization found for higher education and teacher education sector.

Furthermore, the European-dimension rationale (representing European-level orientation of higher education, in particular in the structural sense) and individual-level rationales—here specifically the employability-through-international-competences rationale—are shared to a certain extent in both models. At the same time, reflecting the role of different rationales as described in detail in the previous chapters, differences also become apparent and are described in the following.

Individual-level rationales are generally much stronger in the TE model than in the HE model; as is the professional framing (employability-through-international-competences rationale) of desired individual-level outcomes. Partially, this can be seen as due to the fact that teacher education policies and policy-making discourses are indeed geared towards a distinct profession, whereas HE policies and policy-making discourses refer to all professions, and are therefore probably less likely to be phrased in terms of (distinct) professional competences. Nevertheless, the framing of internationalization as a contributor to building professionally relevant competences among graduates remains eye-catching in the TE model.

This concern for building professionally relevant competences is also one of the reasons why micro- and mesolevel rationales are more important in the TE model, whereas

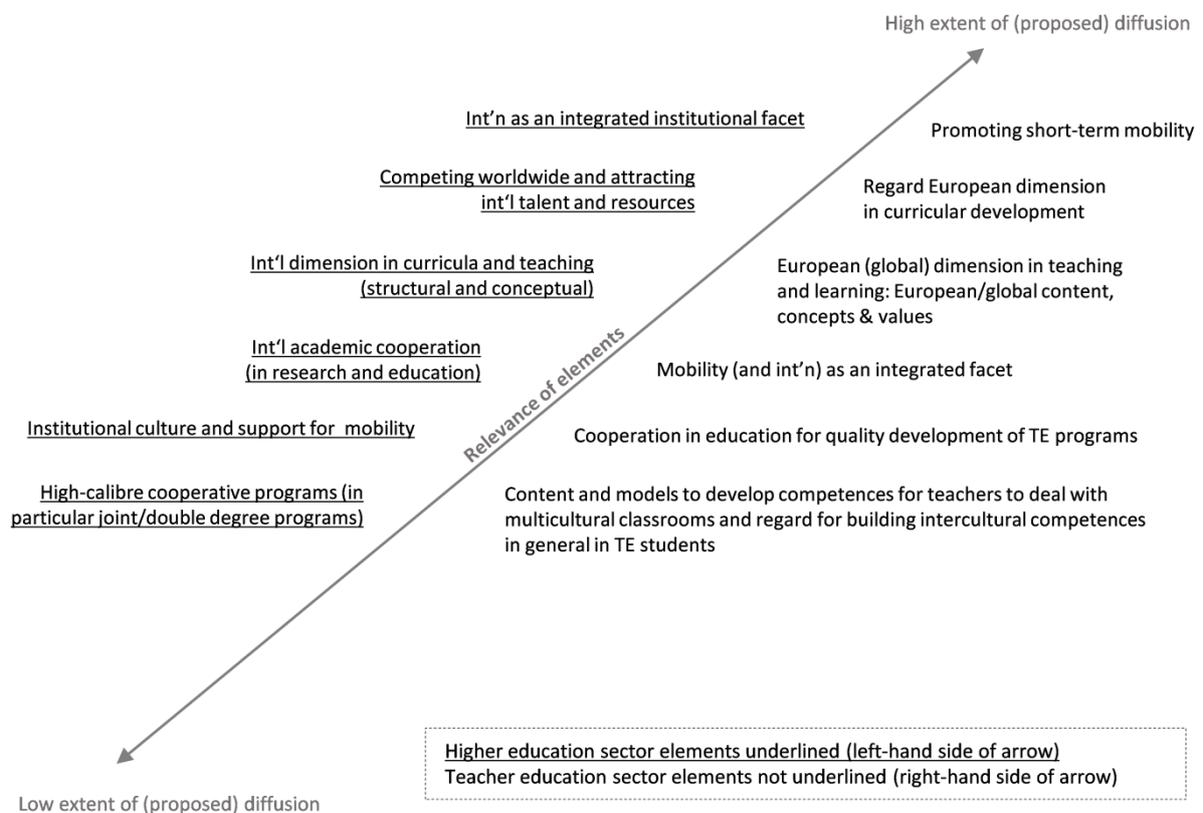
macro- and mesolevel rationales represent dominant purposes in the HE model. These different foci mirror different guiding figures and systemic anchors: In the HE policy-document set, calls to internationalize higher education are anchored in the figure of the *globalized knowledge society*, and the knowledge-producing role of HEIs (cf. research function) is centrally addressed. In the TE policy-document set we find the figure of the increasingly *multicultural society* as a normative systemic anchor. From this anchor necessary graduate competences and international dimensions in TE degree programs are derived.

The strength of individual-level rationales and their framing within the multicultural society in TE policies was shown above to be linked to a firm and almost exclusive positioning of internationalization within the teaching-and-learning function of HEIs. The research-quality rationale is virtually inexistent in the TE model. This is in contrast to the important role the research-quality rationale plays in the HE model where it was shown to be linked to the aim and rationale to increase the attractiveness and competitiveness of the HE sector. The almost exclusive conceptualization of internationalization in relation to the teaching-and-learning function and the missing research-quality rationale denotes an unbalanced focus in the TE internationalization model regarding the core functions of HEIs.

The guiding lines of thought visible behind the two policy-level models are different as well: In the HE model, far-reaching measures of internationalization are proposed in order to increase the quality of research *and* of educational programs delivered by European HEIs which will help to increase the attractiveness and competitiveness of European HEIs and vice versa. By contrast, in the TE policy-document set, the guiding *leitmotifs* visible are to strengthen the European dimension in teacher education through internationalization, thereby also enabling (more) internationalization so as to improve the quality and relevance of education in teacher education degree programs. While internationalization in the HE model is about *being international* and being internationally attractive, internationalization in the TE internationalization model is about *becoming international* in the first place. This difference in the guiding lines of thought visible in the two models is exemplified by the lack of the individual/social/community development in the TE internationalization model. Internationalism as a dimension in higher education (as something naturally evolving and inherent in HE but also something worth active strengthening) is an understanding conveyed in the HE policy-document set but not in the TE policy-document set.

A direct comparison of rationales thus shows that rationales driving policy-level propositions of internationalization differ in the HE and the TE sector, despite partially common rationales. This also shows that the “driving” rationales for internationalization are distinct to the sector. Most apparent differences relate to a focus on micro- and mesolevel rationales in the TE internationalization model as opposed to a focus on meso- and macrolevel rationales in HE; and to a focus on the teaching-and-learning function in the TE model combined with a vast omission of conceptualizing internationalization in relation to the research function of HEIs.

#### 4.1.4.2 Juxtaposition and Comparison of Elements of Internationalization to Reveal Commonalities and Differences



**Figure 11.** Juxtaposition of major groupings of elements found in higher education and teacher education sector. Int'n = internationalization; Int'l = international.

A direct juxtaposition of the elements of internationalization proposed in the HE and TE model of internationalization allows the comparative identification of a range of commonalities. Since the implementation of elements of internationalization in TE programs is framed by the larger environment created by TE *and* HE policies, these overlapping areas in the two models can also be viewed as areas where governance regimes (regulations, financing

parameters, program support, etc.) created by the HE-general model represent a reinforcing factor for the TE field. The following areas of this kind can be identified:

- Promoting (temporary study-related) mobility and removing obstacles to mobility;
- mainstreaming mobility (and to a lesser extent: internationalization) in institutions and degree programs;
- setting up joint international programs and international cooperation, networking, and exchange for the purpose of developing educational programs at HEIs;
- and regard for the development of international competences at large (in particular languages, intercultural competences, global education) in curricula, in particular through mobility programs and to a lesser extent also through content-related curricular measures and measures of internationalization at home.

While commonalities exist, a comparison of the HE and TE internationalization reveals that the two models do not only differ in terms of underlying purposes and rationales but also in terms of the elements of internationalization—the specific program and organization strategies proposed. Differences revealed in a direct juxtaposition are the following:

- Whereas HE policies focus more broadly on the *internationalization* of higher education and various kinds and forms of mobility (student, staff, short-term, degree mobility), the TE policy-level model tends to focus on *one* element, that of temporary (student) mobility.
- Although joint programs form an overlapping area of profitability and compatibility in the HE and the TE model, the HE model here clearly prioritizes international joint programs leading to a full degree (double/joint degree programs), while in the TE model mostly shorter joint programs (such as common modules or courses) are referred to.
- Although international cooperation and networking form another commonality in the HE and TE model, the difference here is that the TE model focuses its strategies almost exclusively on international cooperation in relation to purposes of education, whereas the HE model envisages international cooperation to occur extensively in both education and research.

- The (content-related) curricular dimension of internationalization is strong and pervasive in the TE model. In particular, the inclusion of curricular content to foster building (professionally relevant) international competences is a highly pervasive element of internationalization in the TE policy-level model. In the HE model, by contrast, curricular strategies are less important. In particular content-related elements of internationalization play a much weaker role.

Coming back to differences in the prioritized program and organization strategies of internationalization in the two models, we find that some of elements that are key to the HE internationalization model are “terminated” (cf. termination stage of diffusion, Wende, 1999), see Chapter 1.4.1) or very weakly focused upon in the TE internationalization model: Competing worldwide and attracting international talent and resources, international academic cooperation in research, setting up high-caliber cooperative programs (in particular joint or double degree programs), international marketing and branding, participation in rankings, or the acquisition of quality seals are strategies that do not appear in the TE internationalization model. Apparently, these strategies are seen as unprofitable and/or incompatible in the field of teacher education.

#### **4.1.5 Distinct Features of the Teacher Education Internationalization Model From a Comparative Perspective**

The structured comparative analysis at the level of policies and policy-making discourses revealed not only the zeitgeist model guiding internationalization in HE in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, but also a distinct idea and ideal of internationalization as proposed in European-level policies and policy-making discourses for the field of teacher education. Although overlaps between the two models exist, the comparison also showed that internationalization in teacher education is guided by different rationales, and implies different means and ends than in HE in general. The analysis of common patterns of rationales and their links to the proposition of specific elements of internationalization showed that form follows function, that is, specific rationales for internationalization are linked to the prioritization of distinct program and organization strategies. Therefore, the two models of internationalization imply different trajectories of internationalization in TE and HE.

Table 21 summarizes conceptual differences and different trajectories of internationalization as they become visible through juxtaposition and comparison of the models to each other, and through their interpretation within the described TE and HE policy

environments. The polarizations used in the table are not meant as antidotes; nor do they imply that a characterizing criterion in the HE or in the TE model is inexistent or irrelevant in the other field.

**Table 21:** Polarized Juxtaposition of Higher Education and Teacher Education Internationalization Models

Dimension	HE internationalization model	TE internationalization model
External systemic anchor (impact)	Economy	Education (schools)
Normative systemic anchor	Globalized knowledge society (economy)	Multicultural society (culture)
Function addressed (int'n of)	Research	Education (teaching and learning)
Scope	Internationalization	Mobility
Arena of internationalization	Global	European
Purpose: international cooperation for	Competitiveness of HE sector	Quality of education delivered by HEIs
Purpose: developmental aim of sector	International competitiveness (being international)	International orientation (becoming international)
Purpose: to be developed through international elements	Knowledge and competences	Competences, ideas, attitudes and values
Curricular focus	Structures and orientation	Content and orientation
(Structural) curricular scope	Joint/double degree programs	Joint modules
Visibility	Prestige and abroad components	Evolution and at-home components
Resource perspective	International (human) resource recruitment and resource pooling	Human resource development through international experiences
Status of int'n in policy conceptualizations (leaps in int'n, Teichler, 2007)	2 <sup>nd</sup> and 3 <sup>rd</sup> leap in int'n accomplished	Accomplishment of 2 <sup>nd</sup> and 3 <sup>rd</sup> leap proposed
Diffusion status of internationalization (Rogers, 2003)	Towards high extent of diffusion (high rate of adoption)	Low rate of adoption and stronger diffusion proposed (of specific rationales and elements of int'n)

*Note.* HE = higher education; TE = teacher education; HEI = higher education institution; Int'n = internationalization.

Different trajectories are, for example, implied by different functions of HEIs being targeted: While the TE model focuses almost exclusively on the education function, it is the research function of HE institutions that is centrally addressed in HE policies. The external systemic anchor of internationalization is the economy in the HE model and the education and school system in the TE model. At the normative level, different guiding figures are used to introduce internationalization strategies as an instrument to respond to contextual developments: In the HE model, discourses start from the globalized knowledge-based

society/economy, while in the TE model, they start from the figure of an increasingly multicultural society.

Specific trajectories are in particular also created through the links between the guiding rationales and the concrete elements of internationalization proposed. The importance of the attractiveness/competitiveness paradigm in the HE internationalization model, for example, relates to a prioritization of elements such as increasing the international recruitment of talent and resources, fostering (incoming) degree mobility, establishing high-quality and prestigious joint/double degree programs taught (mostly) in English and primarily at the Master's or PhD level, international marketing and branding, and strategic international networking to deliver research and education in highest quality. By contrast, short-term mobility experiences under a professional development perspective of students and staff, and the inclusion of content-related curricular internationalization (including internationally developed modules or courses) are elements prioritized in the TE model in which the rationales of broadly strengthening a European dimension and quality improvements in TE degree programs are of key importance. If contrasted, prestigious, easily visible and structural components of internationalization in HE can be opposed to less visible, deeper-lying and content- and value-based components in the TE model.

Contrary to what becomes visible in HE policies and discourses, the arena of action with regard to measures of internationalization is, in teacher education, not a global one; rather, “the European” denotes the relevant arena of action. Differences in the two models with regard to the scope of action can also be observed: TE policies and policy-making discourses tend to place a very dominant focus on short-term (student) mobility while the HE model prioritizes various forms of mobility as common in the HE sector. Similarly, the scope of measures can be polarized as referring to “internationalization (and mobility)” in the HE model versus as referring to “short-term mobility (and internationalization)” in the TE model.

In general, internationalization at higher education institutions as conceptualized in 21<sup>st</sup> century HE policies suggests that the second and third leap in internationalization (Teichler, 2007, see Chapter 2.1.2) are being accomplished by HEIs. This is conveyed through the conceptualization that internationalization is a frequent, systematic activity at institutions integrated into the core functions of HEIs. The revealed element grouping in the HE model “internationalization as an integrated facet” and its rank as the most important grouping of program and organization strategies in the HE model speaks to this conceptualization. The

conclusion drawn in the research and literature review—that the accomplishment of the three leaps is a demand placed upon higher education institutions in recent higher education policies—is thus confirmed in the systematic analysis. In terms of the diffusion of the innovation internationalization (Rogers, 2003; Wende, 1999; see Chapter 1.4.1), the analysis and comparison has thus revealed that HEIs are conceptualized as institutions where the innovation internationalization (in the form proposed in the HE model) has already reached a considerable and high extent of diffusion. By contrast, in the TE model internationalization is conceptualized as institutionalized at a considerably lower stage (cf. “becoming international in the first place”), at a stage where a considerable extent of diffusion of the innovation internationalization (as distinctly promoted in the TE model) is yet to be accomplished. In the TE model, the conceptualization conveyed is not that the proposed elements of internationalization have already been broadly adopted. Rather, the proposition is to work towards accomplishing the second and third leap of internationalization, that is, to establish the core elements of the TE model as frequent, systemic activities in TE degree programs which are eventually to become integrated components of the teaching/learning (and to a lesser extent of the) research process.

#### **4.2 Mesolevel: The Ideal Model of Internationalization in Teacher Education Versus an Assessment of Diffusion at the Level of Teacher Education Institutions**

After having revealed the policy-level internationalization model in TE and its distinct features from a comparative perspective towards the general HE zeitgeist model of internationalization in HE, this chapter now turns to reporting and analyzing internationalization models at the level of implementation and factual practices in teacher education: In the following the rationales, expected benefits and major elements of internationalization as found at institutions offering TE degree programs are reported. The analysis and interpretation of the institutional-level internationalization model includes a comparative perspective vis-à-vis the “ideal” policy-level internationalization model found for the teacher education sector. It is furthermore enriched through an embedding of the internationalization models found in institutional and systemic contexts in teacher education.

## 4.2.1 Institutional-Level Internationalization Models in Teacher Education

Institutional-level internationalization models in teacher education are reported in the following. As it was done at the policy-level, the analysis reverts to the components of (a) guiding rationales for internationalization and (b) major elements of internationalization supported. At the institutional (and subsequently also at the student) level reasons to support temporary mobility are given additional weight due to the dominance of this element found at the policy-level.

### 4.2.1.1 Staff Convictions to Support Internationalization in Teacher Education: Rationales for Internationalization Compared to the Policy-Level Model

Staff in teacher education evaluated statements modelled upon the five most important argumentations *for* internationalization (rationales), as revealed in the teacher education policy-level internationalization model. Table 22 compares the importance of different rationales at the macro- (policy) level and the meso- (institutional) level.

Results show (see Table 22) that the dominant rationale in European-level policies and policy-making discourses—the need-for-stronger-European-orientation-and-international-dimension argument—is evaluated as a rather weakly supported argument at the institutional level ( $M = 2.94$ ), and considered as being among the least shared argumentations for internationalization among staff at TE institutions<sup>62</sup>. Vice-versa, academic staff sees (a) the relatively global argumentation—multiplier-for/role-model-with-international-experiences—which is ranked only fifth at the policy level, and (b) the professional-competence argument (teaching-in-and-dealing-with-culturally-diverse-and-heterogeneous-settings) as rationales more strongly shared at the institutional level.

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<sup>62</sup> Results of a paired-samples *t*-test show that (despite a relatively small sample size,  $n = 33$ ) means for the European-dimension rationale are significantly lower than for the multiplier/role-model argument (for statistical results see Table H1).

**Table 22:** Comparison of Five Rationales Guiding Internationalization in Teacher Education at Different Levels

Argument for internationalization in teacher education <sup>a</sup>	Importance of argument at different levels	
	Macro (policy) level	Meso (institutional) level <sup>b</sup>
(1) A need for Europeanization of systems and structures (such as in the Bologna process) in teacher education and for <b>fostering the European dimension and internationalism in the field at large</b> is identified. Elements of internationalization are (therefore) seen as a pathway to such aims.	Ranked 1 <sup>st</sup> (overwhelmingly dominant)	Ranked 5 <sup>th</sup> 2.94 (1.28)
(2) Societies are increasingly diverse and multicultural. It is therefore essential that teacher education graduates acquire international experiences and competences to <b>deal with and teach in culturally diverse and heterogeneous settings</b> .	Ranked 2 <sup>nd</sup>	Ranked 2 <sup>nd</sup> 3.70 (1.05)
(3) Across Europe we can see efforts <b>towards modernization, innovation and quality improvement in schools and education systems</b> . It is therefore essential that teacher education graduates acquire international experiences and gain comparative knowledge in order to be able to better contribute to such efforts.	Ranked 3 <sup>rd</sup>	Ranked 3 <sup>rd</sup> 3.21 (1.32)
(4) Elements of internationalization - for their positive effects such as knowledge exchange or resource pooling - are seen as a relevant strategy to <b>improve the quality of teacher education</b> and to further develop and modernize teacher education degree programs.	Ranked 4 <sup>th</sup>	Ranked 4 <sup>th</sup> 3.15 (1.30)
(5) Living and working environments are increasingly globalized and multicultural. It is therefore essential for all students, and teacher education graduates in particular, who act as <b>role models and multipliers to develop an international outlook and possess international competences</b> .	Ranked 5 <sup>th</sup>	Ranked 1 <sup>st</sup> 3.72 (1.08)

<sup>a</sup>Arguments in the left-hand column refer to the rationales: (1) European-dimension, (2) employability-through-international-competences, (3) societal-growth and (4) enhancement-quality-education respectively; as well as to the argument common in the three rationales (5) European-citizenship/identity, global-education, personal-development/intercultural-competence. <sup>b</sup>Staff in teacher education ( $n = 33$ ) indicated whether they considered each of the different arguments for internationalization “to constitute relevant rationales and shared convictions among staff at their institution” (Item references: Appendix E, I6). Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*not at all/very weak extent*) to 5 (*very high/very strong extent*). Means are displayed with standard deviations in parentheses. Ranks indicated do not indicate that significant differences exist between each two ranks; significant differences between all pairings of rationales are indicated in Table H1 and referred to in the text.

As regards the strength of support for internationalization in TE in general, the mean ratings indicate that staff convictions are not *particularly* strong. With means ranging from 2.9 to 3.7 (see Table 22), none of the five argumentations is rated as strongly shared among staff at TE institutions. Staff was also queried whether the “the notion of internationalization of teaching and learning, including the value of fostering mobility among students in TE is largely shared and supported among staff at our institution” (not shown in Table 22)<sup>63</sup>. A mean

<sup>63</sup> Item reference: I9\_8 (see Appendix E);  $n = 32$ .

rating of 3.31 ( $SD = 1.18$ ) indicates that the existence of such a shared notion is given only cautious approval. This further supports the interpretation that convictions supporting internationalization are not particularly strong among academic staff in TE.

#### 4.2.1.2 Convictions About the Benefits of TSM

Temporary study-related mobility forms a focus of investigation in this study. Staff was therefore also asked to state whether they considered five possible effects of TSM “to constitute shared convictions for a support of student mobility among staff in teacher education at their institution”. Table 23 lists the results.

**Table 23:** Shared Convictions Among Staff in Teacher Education to Support TSM

	<i>M (SD)</i>
Language learning	4.52 (0.71)
Personal development	4.42 (0.66)
Building up intercultural competences	4.15 (0.76)
Academic learning and academic benefit	3.73 (0.91)
Building up relevant professional competences	3.58 (0.97)

*Note.*  $n = 33$ . Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*not at all/very weak extent*) to 5 (*very high/very strong extent*). Items where mean differences are not significant are joined with brackets (see Table H2 for  $t$ -test results). Item references: Appendix E (Variables I7).

In comparison to support for internationalization at large, the support for fostering the concrete element of TSM seems anchored at a higher level: Means for shared rationales to support internationalization ranged from 2.9 to 3.7 (see Table 22) while means for shared convictions to support TSM ranged from 3.6 to 4.5.

To validate results with regard to support for student mobility, staff surveyed was further asked whether they experienced academic staff in TE to be often “critical about the value and quality of mobility programs and of the academic learning undertaken abroad” (not shown in Table 22)<sup>64</sup>. With a mean below the scale midpoint ( $M = 2.65$ ,  $SD = 1.1$ ) this issue was not evaluated as being of strong relevance. This indicates that staff generally supports TSM among students.

Taking a look at the distinct benefits seen among staff in relation to TSM (see Table 23), we find that language learning and personal development are seen as quite strongly shared convictions about the benefits of student mobility on which staff in teacher education

<sup>64</sup> Item reference: I9\_10 (see Appendix E);  $n = 34$ .

base their support for student mobility. TSM is also seen as purposeful to build intercultural competences. It is, however, less strongly conceptualized as a contributor to academic learning and to building professionally relevant skills among future teachers (means are above the scale midpoint but not strongly positive, see Table 23). Although, as reported, it is apparently not the case that academic staff in TE is often critical about the quality of mobility programs and the academic learning undertaken abroad. Vice-versa, neither does academic learning appear as one of the benefit convictions driving staff support for student mobility. Temporary study-related mobility thus appears to be only tentatively conceptualized as an element contributing to the academic education towards a professional degree at higher education institutions.

How do institutional-level convictions about TSM and internationalization compare to conceptualizations found in European-level policies and policy-making discourses?

Regarding the academic development of students, we can note that at both the macro- (policy) and the meso- (institutional) level, the academic-learning purpose was not found to be particularly relevant as an argument for proposing and advocating internationalization and student mobility.

This is different for professional development purposes: The need of building professionally relevant international competences among future teachers was shown to be among the most important rationales for internationalization in teacher education. In the policy-level TE model, both abroad and at-home elements of internationalization (TSM, content-related curricular elements, etc.) were found to be proposed for diffusion under the professional-competences argument; at the institutional level, staff convictions also showed support (even if not particularly strong) for argumentations to strengthen international dimensions in TE degree programs so as to enable future teachers to take on their function as role models, and as professionals working in increasingly multicultural and multilingual classroom settings. Staff convictions about why to foster the element of TSM, however, seem to be disconnected from these lines of thinking. Aiming for explanations, it could be assumed that among staff in TE it is deemed more purposeful to first and foremost try to build professionally relevant international and intercultural competences by using at-home elements of internationalization which are built into the curriculum and accessible to all students. However, this apparently is neither the case: The survey asked whether “academic staff is more convinced about the benefit of curricular/content-related strategies than activities

involving mobility in order to build up relevant international competences in TE students”<sup>65</sup>. A mean rating of 3.15 ( $SD = 0.94$ ) on this item indicates that such views may in some, but only few, cases constitute reasons for a weak staff support for TSM as a relevant component in building internationally coined professional competences of future teachers.

#### 4.2.1.3 Prioritized Elements of Internationalization at Teacher Education Institutions in View of Policy-Level Conceptualizations

Staff in teacher education was asked to evaluate which program and organization strategies of internationalization they expected to form priorities in teacher education at their institution in the future. Table 24 lists the results for 14 program and organization strategies which were developed based on the theory and literature review, and on prioritizations visible in recent policies.

As in the TE policy-level internationalization model, fostering mobility, in particular TSM among students in teacher education, is core to institutional-level strategies: As shown in Table 24, three out of the six program and organization strategies ranked as the most important developmental fields relate to mobility (#1, #5, #6); two out of the five most important developmental fields relate to fostering TSM among students (#1, #5); and “increasing short-term mobility and reducing various barriers to mobility” is the strategy ranked first (#1).

As also shown in Table 24, increasing faculty involvement and commitment (#2) as well as improving the institutional environment to support a mainstreaming of internationalization by the use of adequate organization strategies (#3) are also ranked as expected priority areas in further developing internationalization. Furthermore, increasing the participation in international networks and programs at large (#4) is among the five strategies expected to be prioritized. These strategies can be seen to support the major goal of increasing TSM and to support internationalization in TE degree programs at large.

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<sup>65</sup> Item reference: I9\_9 (see Appendix E);  $n = 33$ .

**Table 24: Priority Areas in Internationalization of Teacher Education**

	<i>Rank</i>
Increasing short-term mobility and reducing various barriers to mobility	#1
Increasing faculty commitment and faculty involvement in int'n	#2
Increasing institutional support environment for int'n (strategy, resource devotion, rewards, etc.) to support a mainstreaming of the international dimension	#3
Increasing participation in international networks, associations, project and programs	#4
Fostering support for students (information, counselling, workshops, courses, etc.) to consider and include an international dimension (in particular mobility options) into their studies	#5
Increasing academic staff mobility (incoming and outgoing) to support int'n	#6
Increasing curricular and structural integration of mobility programs (reducing curricular barriers, reducing problems with accreditation, introducing mobility windows)	#7
Internationalization of research	#8
Review existing international programs and partnerships to align them with student demand (e.g., demand for more integrated internship programs) and institutional priorities in TE	#9
Increasing the international orientation of degree programs at large (including international content, international and intercultural competences, etc.)	#10
Increase teaching in English	#11
Increasing the conceptual quality of mobility programs to maximize student learning and program effectiveness (e.g., preparatory programs, accompanying learning programs, conceptual integration with curriculum)	#12
Setting up integrated joint programs (joint modules, joint/double degrees with international partners)	#13
Increasing the recruitment of international talent (student and staff)	#14

*Note.* Int'n = internationalization. Staff ( $n = 33$ ) indicated to which extent they “considered the developmental fields listed to form priorities for the further internationalization in teacher education at their institution in the upcoming years” on a scale from 1 (*not at all/very weak extent*) to 5 (*very high/very strong extent*). Item references: Appendix E (Variables I5). The table displays strategies (developmental fields) ordered by means; means ranged from  $M = 3.89$  ( $SD = 0.93$ ) for the priority area ranked #1 to  $M = 2.81$  ( $SD = 1.23$ ) for the priority area ranked #14.

Comparisons of the policy-level internationalization models revealed that some of the program and organization strategies core to the HE model were rather weakly diffused or at termination stages of diffusion in the TE policy-level model. The same result can be observed at the institutional level in teacher education: several of the core strategies in the HE model—setting up joint programs, recruiting international students and staff, increasing teaching in English—are not rated as priority developmental fields at teacher education institutions (strategies are ranked #13, #14 and #11 respectively, see Table 24).

The most apparent difference between the policy-level and the institutional-level internationalization models in TE regarding the prioritized elements of internationalization is the lack of the extensive focus on increasing the international orientation in teacher education degree programs, specifically through content-related curricular elements of internationalization at home. At the institutional level the strategy is ranked only #10. At the institutional level, however, the mobility-related measures clearly dominate the course-/content-/curriculum-based measures. Even the mobility-related strategies that refer to the curriculum (conceptual and structural integration of mobility into home degree curricula) do not rank among the most important areas of development (ranked #7 and #12 respectively, see Table 24).

The developmental field “internationalization of research” appears in the middle ranks (ranked #8, see Table 24). As in the TE policy-level internationalization model, it is thus not seen a core strategy in the internationalization of teacher education (contrary to the HE-general model of internationalization where the research function and the internationalization of research were found to be central).

#### **4.2.2 Embedding the Mesolevel Internationalization Model into Institutional and Systemic Contexts in Teacher Education: Diffusion Barriers Evaluated By Staff**

In order to understand (the implications of) the internationalization models in teacher education in view of broader institutional and systemic contexts, key dimensions influencing the diffusion of internationalization in teacher education and their role as potential barriers were assessed in the staff survey. The items—grouped into six areas—and results are shown in Table 25. The first three areas relate to systemic potential barriers while the latter three relate to institutional-level potential diffusion barriers.

**Table 25: Evaluation of Possible Barriers in the Internationalization of Teacher Education**

	<i>M (SD)</i>
<b>Dilemma of profitability and compatibility due to non-international culture</b>	
Paradox in TE that it would particularly benefit from internationalization while characteristics in field limit factual implementation and drive *	4.00 (0.95)
To best realize benefits comprehensive (at home, abroad) strategies needed but implementation of such models limited by low current institutionalization of int'l in TE	3.44 (1.11)
Incompatibility of int'n due to tradition of national framing and resulting non-international culture	3.15 (1.06)
Weak side-effect of int'n of research on the int'n of teaching and learning due to dominance of education over research TE and low int'n of research in the field	3.22 (1.21)
<b>Structural barriers limiting factual profitability and compatibility of elements</b>	
Dense regulation in TE is a hindering characteristic for int'n in TE (e.g., limitations in modules taken abroad, high thresholds in implementation) *	4.06 (1.03)
Regulative context a weak driver due to weak or missing regard of int'l in governmental regulations *	3.59 (1.18)
Diversity in TE models across Europe a hindering characteristic (structural incompatibilities, difficulties to find suitable partners)	3.44 (1.31)
<b>Reform competition at the expense of internationalization</b>	
Lower importance in comparison to other pressing issues in reform and modernization of TE (remains nice-to-have) *	3.91 (1.16)
<b>Weak “readiness” of academic staff for internationalization</b>	
Teaching in English as challenge to many academic staff members in TE *	3.76 (1.18)
Int'n as mainstream and imperative so that sometimes more supported by rhetoric than true conviction at institutional and disciplinary level in TE *	3.61 (1.12)
Academic staff regularly involved in international activities and their contacts/working relations thus act as positive reinforcement for int'l of teaching and learning in TE <sup>a</sup> *	3.42 (1.00)
<b>Staff readiness/internationalization circle stages not accomplished: Lack of awareness and commitment (stage 1-2 in internationalization circle)</b>	
Notion of int'n of teaching and learning, including the value of fostering mobility among students in TE is largely shared and supported among staff at our institution <sup>a</sup> *	3.31 (1.18)
Further items (rationales for internationalization and TSM convictions reported above)	
<b>Internationalization circle stages unaccomplished: Lack of relevant organization strategies to produce integration effect (all stages internationalization circle)<sup>a</sup></b>	
Int'n strategy known by the majority of academic staff *	2.94 (1.43)
Having defined priorities and established criteria acting as guidelines in everyday work for the development of international activities *	2.58 (1.17)
Adequate resource devotion to work towards established aims *	2.52 (1.18)
Supportive climate and organizational environment for foster int'n (e.g., management support, support of academic staff, strategies and mission, organizational structures) *	2.88 (1.11)
Rewarding international orientation of academic staff or their active involvement in int'n (financial rewards, time resources, reputation, awards, recruitment criteria, HR policies) *	2.48 (1.25)
At-home and abroad-components of int'l form interacting part and well attuned to each other *	2.48 (0.97)
Academic staff is highly involved in programming, design and implementation of int'l activities *	2.63 (1.02)

*Note.* Int'n = internationalization; TE = teacher education.  $n = 33$ . Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*not at all/very weak extent*) to 5 (*very high/very strong extent*). Items interpreted as barriers are marked \* (items have been interpreted as barriers with means substantially above the scale midpoint, i.e.,  $M > 3.5$ ). Item references: Appendix E (Variables I8, I9). <sup>a</sup>Items are positively phrased and interpreted in reverse.

To evaluate staff readiness for internationalization the survey included several items (see Table 25). It first asked whether teaching in English would be a challenge for many academic staff members. Respondents indeed evaluate this issue as a relevant barrier. Respondents were also asked whether internationalization would sometimes be “more supported by rhetoric than true conviction” among staff at institutions. As shown in Table 25, this issue is also assessed to be a certain limiting factor. Similarly, the survey reveals that the notion of internationalization of teaching and learning (including mobility) is not seen as something that is “largely shared and supported among staff” (evaluated with a mean of 3.31 only, see Table 25). This supports the conclusion drawn above—that positive staff convictions supporting internationalization in TE degree programs exist, but that they are also not particularly strong. Staff readiness was also measured in terms of existing international contacts and networks of academic staff in TE: The survey asked whether academic staff was regularly involved in international activities themselves “so that their contacts and working relations can act as a positive reinforcement factor”. Ratings indicate (see Table 25) that the existing level of international activities among academic staff members does not act as a strong factor of reinforcement. Here, the previously revealed non-extensive English language competences, and the lack of decisively supportive convictions regarding internationalization among staff in TE can be seen as aggravating factors in building up relevant contacts and networks in the first place.

Purposeful organization strategies support the diffusion of specific elements of internationalization at the institutional level. As shown in Table 25, all seven items are consistently evaluated as negative, that is, below scale midpoint. For example, staff surveyed states that they would not expect internationalization strategies (existing at all the participating institutions when the survey took place) to be known by the majority of academic staff; likewise, they indicate a lack of defined priorities and established criteria acting as guidelines in everyday “internationalization work”. This indicates a lack of purposeful organization strategies in place.

Such an assessment can be further substantiated in reverting to further data collected at institutions: Managing internationalization does not only entail the definition of goals and priorities, and the design of activities contributing to these. It also includes revisiting goals established and the initiatives put in place to reach those. The review of “existing international programs and partnerships to align them with students’ demand and institutional priorities in TE” was revealed above as a rather unimportant institutional priority (see Table 24,

developmental institutional field ranked #9 out of 14). Furthermore, data collected through the core data sheets shows that there are no review mechanisms in place: The majority of institutions (four out of six) stated that they had not implemented systematic evaluations or reviews of the quality, effectiveness or appropriateness of their existing international programs for students<sup>66</sup>.

Aside from institutional-level barriers to the diffusion of internationalization, systemic issues were evaluated in the institutional survey. As shown in Table 25, the assumption that the field of TE encounters a dilemma related to the fact that it would particularly “benefit from internationalization but at the same time characteristics of the field (high determination, structural complexity, low current level of internationalization, national orientation/culture, etc.) limit the factual implementation and drive for international activities” is broadly confirmed. Issues not seen as (strong) barriers are a general incompatibility of internationalization due to a national framing and a non-international culture per se; a weak side-effect of internationalization of research due to a weak internationalization of research; and the diversity of TE models across Europe (see Table 25). However, results show that regulative contexts in teacher education (scope of policy agency) constitute a barrier rather than an element in support of establishing a virtuous circle (see Table 25): In particular the dense regulation of TE degrees is identified as a barrier to the diffusion of internationalization; and staff also experiences the regulative context acting as a weak driver due to a weak or missing regard of international dimensions in governmental regulations concerning teacher education (see Table 25).

### **4.3 Microlevel: Student Perspectives and Experiences in View of Institutional Environments and Policy-Level Ideals**

After analyzing policy-level internationalization models, Investigation Strand 1 has turned to putting policy ideas and ideals into perspective with the level of implementation and practices. While having analyzed the mesolevel internationalization models and certain theoretically derived barriers to the diffusion of internationalization in the previous chapter, this chapter turns to the third constituent entity when it comes to the diffusion of internationalization and mobility in higher education—the students. For students, as co-actors in the diffusion of internationalization and uptake of TSM, the primary context is the

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<sup>66</sup> Item reference: Appendix C (Variable CII\_17).

institutional level. Therefore, students were also asked to evaluate their study environment with respect to certain international dimensions.

### 4.3.1 Student Internationalization Models in Teacher Education

Paralleling the approach at the mesolevel, student-level internationalization models are revealed outlining rationales for internationalization supported among students, the concrete benefits expected from mobility, and the concrete elements seen as profitable and compatible by students.

#### 4.3.1.1 Student Convictions to Support Internationalization in Teacher Education Degree Programs

Students in teacher education are important co-actors in the field's internationalization; their own convictions about internationalization exert influence on their actions. At the student level, the order of rationales<sup>67</sup> as found at the institutional level is reproduced: Figure 12 shows that the argument<sup>68</sup> most convincing to students for gaining international experiences and developing international competences is based within their function as multipliers and role models in education. This is closely followed by the argument relating to the internationally-coined professional competence dealing-with-and-teaching-in-culturally-diverse-and-heterogeneous-settings. While these two rationales can be described as reasonably supported by students (average means are above 4.0), we find that students' convictions about the role of international experiences (and the knowledge gained therein) as contributing to quality improvements and innovation in schools are considerably weaker<sup>69</sup>, and with a mean of 3.6 indeed not very strongly developed. The argument receiving weakest and only cautious support ( $M = 3.37$ )<sup>70</sup> is—and this is paralleling the observation already made at the institutional level—the advocacy of a general need for a stronger Europeanization

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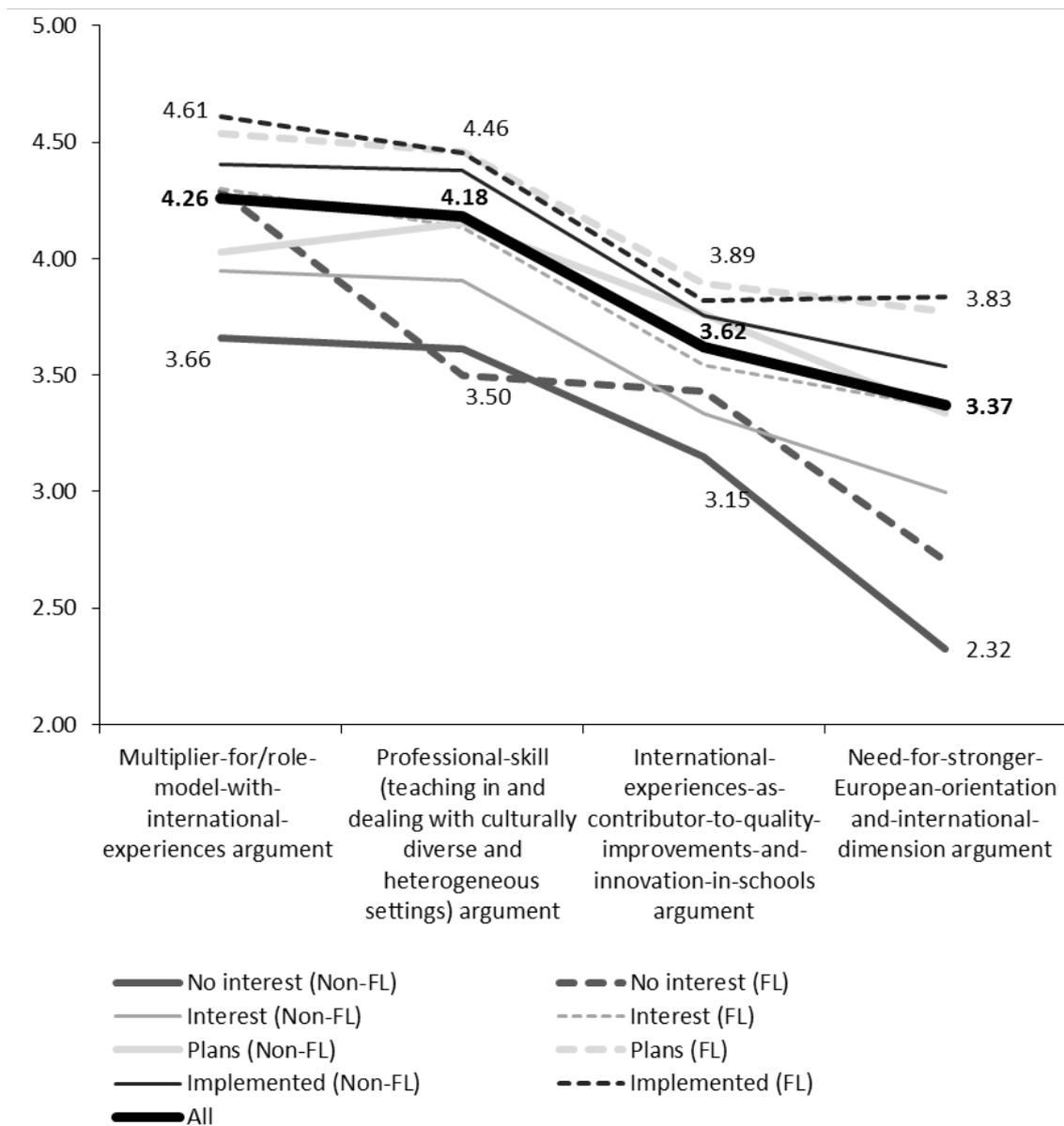
<sup>67</sup> The argument based on the enhancement-quality-education rationale (referring to internationalization as a pathway to improving the quality of teacher education degree programs at HEIs) was included in the student survey due to its assumed distance from students' reasoning.

<sup>68</sup> Results of a paired-samples *t*-test show that the mean ratings for the argument ranked first ( $M = 4.26$ ,  $SD = 0.90$ ) and second ( $M = 4.17$ ,  $SD = 0.90$ ) differ;  $t(1040) = 3.36$ ,  $p = .001$ . Note, however, that the absolute differences are fairly small.

<sup>69</sup> Results of a paired-samples *t*-test show that the mean ratings for the argument ranked second ( $M = 4.17$ ,  $SD = 0.90$ ) and third ( $M = 3.62$ ,  $SD = 0.94$ ) differ;  $t(1040) = 18.85$ ,  $p < .001$ .

<sup>70</sup> Results of a paired-samples *t*-test show that the mean ratings for the argument ranked third ( $M = 3.62$ ,  $SD = 0.94$ ) and fourth ( $M = 3.36$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ) differ;  $t(845) = 7.36$ ,  $p < .001$ .

and internationalization of TE degree programs, systems and structures at large (European-dimension rationale).



**Figure 12.** Student mean ratings of four different rationales for internationalization in teacher education. Ratings are displayed for all students surveyed ( $n = 1085$ ) and for 8 subgroups: the no-interest, interest, plans and implementation group, each differentiated into those who study a foreign language (FL) or not (non-FL). Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*not at all/very weak extent*) to 5 (*very high/very strong extent*). Note that the vertical axis does not display the full scale range. Means are displayed for all students; in addition, means are given for each the lowest and highest subgroup rating; for full statistical references for all subgroups see Table H3. To assess the European-dimension rationale, a 4-item scale (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .808$ ; using variables E1\_11 to E1\_14, was employed using 4 concrete items that operationalize the rationale. Item references: Appendix G (B2\_3, B2\_5, B2\_7 and E1\_11 to E1\_14).

Hence, arguments for internationalization which are based in teachers' professional role and internationally coined competences are important in student internationalization models. This represents a similarity to the macrolevel and mesolevel internationalization models. However, students do not seem to extend these beliefs towards the need for a stronger

European/international orientation of TE degree programs in general. This result represents a similarity to the institutional-level model but a fundamental difference to the policy-level model.

Comparing absolute values of student and staff support, it seems that student support is, on average, anchored at a slightly higher level: Student means ranged from 3.4 for the least supported European-dimension rationale to 4.3 for the most important multiplier/role-model argument, while the means among staff ranged from 2.9 to 3.7 only<sup>71</sup>. Such direct comparisons between student and staff ratings have to be made with caution<sup>72</sup>. Figure 12 therefore also displays means for different subgroups and the bandwidth of lowest and highest subgroup rating for each rationale. Taking the bandwidth among students into account, it becomes visible that among certain student groups (most apparently among FL students who plan or have already implemented experiences abroad as part of their degree program) support for all rationales is (a) considerable and (b) appears to be anchored at a higher level than among staff at TE institutions. Staff convictions seem anchored at a level corresponding to those student groups that display rather low supporting convictions in the whole student body (globally speaking, FL and non-FL students in the no-interest group and also non-FL students in the interest group).

#### 4.3.1.2 Benefits Expected From Temporary Study-Related Mobility

Study-related temporary mobility of students was identified as *the* central element of internationalization models at the policy level in teacher education, based on the benefits expected from the implementation of this element. As shown above, institutional strategies are built around the core element of (student) mobility as well. While support, preparedness and involvement of staff for internationalizing teacher education appeared as critically weak, it was also found that support for the singular element of TSM is more substantial. Table 26 allows to put these staff convictions in perspective with the convictions students hold about the benefits of study-related experiences abroad (again, direct comparisons between staff and student ratings should be made only with caution). Table 26 displays student convictions (next to staff convictions) about the benefits of TSM—among those who have not (yet)

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<sup>71</sup> Due to a lack of direct comparability means have not been tested for significant differences.

<sup>72</sup> Staff rated whether certain rationales constitute shared convictions among their colleagues in TE at the institution while students gave their individual rating. The student sample is also probably more influenced by a “positive-international” selection effect. Furthermore, the wording of rationales was adapted to fit student understandings.

implemented study-related experiences abroad (expected benefits as motives driving interest and plans), and those who have (realized benefits as areas where students observe impact), and differentiated according to whether students study to become teachers of foreign languages or not.

**Table 26:** Relevance of Different Benefits of Student Mobility Among Different Levels and Groups of Students

Institutional level	Student level						
	Benefits seen among staff in TE <sup>a</sup>	Motives for TSM (benefits expected) <sup>b</sup>				Benefits realized <sup>c</sup>	
		All		All		All	
		FL students	Non-FL students		FL students	Non-FL students	
Language M = 4.52 Personal M = 4.42 IC M = 4.15 Academic M = 3.73 Prof M = 3.58	Personal M = 4.51	Language	Personal	Personal M = 4.60	Personal	Personal	
	Language M = 4.37	Personal	Language	IC M = 4.41	IC	IC	
	IC M = 4.09	IC	IC	Language M = 4.26	Language	Prof	
	Prof M = 3.80	Prof	Prof	Prof M = 3.93	Prof	Language	
	Academic M = 3.23	Academic	Academic	Academic M = 3.36	Academic	Academic	

Note. TE = teacher education; TSM = temporary study-related mobility; FL = foreign languages; IC = intercultural. Prof = professional. Items are joined by brackets if mean differences are not significant. Item references and statistical results for all groups: see Table H2, Table H4, and Table H5.

<sup>a</sup>For details see previous chapters. <sup>b</sup>As rated by student groups interest and plans ( $n = 512$ ) on a scale from 1 (very low motivation) to 5 (very strong motivation). <sup>c</sup>As rated by implementation group ( $n = 248$ ) on a scale from 1 (very low impact) to 5 (very high impact).

Looking to the student level (see Table 26), we observe that by and large the staff framing of study-related mobility as an endeavor for the benefit of personal development and foreign language learning, and less for its professional and academic value, is reproduced among students. The expectation of academic benefits and building professionally relevant competences in international settings are the two motivations ranking lowest among students. Students rate academic learning as their weakest motivation (with the mean being only slightly above the scale midpoint). This framing is not only found among those who study subjects other than foreign languages; future foreign language teachers as well do not plan to embark on study-abroad experiences with the clear and *guiding* notion that it is for their

academic and professional development. For them, the language-learning and personal-development notions are the stronger ones as well<sup>73</sup>.

Students having already been abroad as part of their studies partially confirm this pattern (see Table 26)<sup>74</sup>: They see personal development as the benefit most extensively realized, and rate their academic learning and progress as the area upon which their stay abroad impacted least. Having improved foreign language skills is also rated as one of the more important positive effects. However, this facet is not as dominant as it appeared among staff and pre-international-experience students. Vice-versa, the benefit of having gained intercultural competences is clearly visible to the implementation group and “moves up” to become the second most important area of impact seen among those who have gained study-related experiences abroad. Among non-FL students, professional preparedness when it comes to working with international dimensions in schools also moves up to become the third most important area of impact (together with language learning). This is an indication that for this group of students the first-hand international experience probably serves as an eye-opener with regard to the relevance of international competences in their future profession; as an eye-opener to those benefits which are—as it has been shown above—not the ones most strongly conveyed by the institutional discourse to and among students.

#### 4.3.1.3 Elements of Internationalization: Profitable and Compatible Ways of Gaining International Experiences for Students

While rationales and motives refer to the underlying purposes and aims of internationalization, elements of internationalization refer to the preferred ways and strategies “to get there”. Policy- and institutional-level models have revealed short-term mobility (in particular student mobility) to be *the* core element of internationalization in teacher education (whereas not degree-seeking mobility which is a core strategy in the general HE model but not in the TE models). A major difference found between policy-level and institutional-level internationalization models in TE was the centrality of both (a) mobility as an abroad strategy *and* (b) content-related curricular elements of internationalization as an at-home strategy in the policy-level model. This double-focus did not re-appear to a comparable extent in the

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<sup>73</sup> Although FL students do at the same time provide a quite positive absolute rating ( $M = 4.2$ ) for their expectation to improve professional competences as they will be relevant to their later professional life and career. For statistical results for this group see Table H4.

<sup>74</sup> Students’ evaluations of benefits expected and benefits realized (impact areas) were based on broadly comparable items, however, not on the exact same wording of items (see also item references).

institutional-level model where (student) mobility was found to be the clearly dominating element prioritized. Looking at the relevance of different elements of internationalization for students (Table 27), we see that content-related curricular (at-home) elements of internationalization are among the elements most favored among students in teacher education. This concerns elements such as taking courses with a thematic international dimension, courses to build up intercultural competences and skills to deal with cultural diversity, or the learning of foreign languages (beyond the study of foreign languages among those who train to become FL teachers). In addition, students also indicate that abroad-programs—and here in particular practice-based, profession-oriented, and shorter programs (maximum duration of three months)—are among those possibilities to gain international experiences they find themselves most inclined to pursue.

**Table 27:** Study-Related Elements of Internationalization Ordered by Relevance to Students

Element	Rejection rate (%)
Courses at home with a thematic international dimension	24.4
Courses at home to build up intercultural competences and skills to work with cultural and linguistic diversity and heterogeneity	24.7
Learning foreign languages (at home institution) <sup>a</sup>	27.5
Practically oriented study visits/excursions/project work abroad (< 3 months)	36.6
Internships/practical experience abroad - Teaching and school practice abroad	40
Other programs abroad (language courses and any other programs)	46.9
Extra-curricular activities (at home), such as participating in events with an international dimension	48.1
Extra-curricular activities (at home), such as acting as a "buddy" to international students, community service in international environments	52.2
Courses in study program (at home) held in English or other foreign languages, and course work in international groups	53.4
Shorter study abroad programs (e.g., international summer schools; < 3 months)	53.8
Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad (trimester, semester or year abroad, incl. research/thesis work)	60.3
Combined programs offering both study abroad and internship/practical experience	65
Internship/practical experience abroad - General study-related practical experiences	71.3

*Note.* Elements of internationalization at home are shaded grey. To avoid including any effects of the factual institutional offer only students who had not yet implemented any of the 13 elements as part of their studies were included ( $n = 320$ ). Elements ordered according to relevance, i.e., according to rejection rate in ascending order; rejection rate: percentage of students stating to have *no interest, plans or intentions* to implement this element. Item references: Appendix G (Variables C9 and D1).

<sup>a</sup>Prospective language teachers were advised to rate this item only for foreign languages which they were not already studying to teach.

Notable is the fact that the exchange trimester/semester/year—as the most classical form of TSM in Europe—does not “perform” particularly well in the student ranking; this is

the case for a strong trend in European higher education degree programs as well: teaching regular courses (up to full degree programs) in English or other foreign languages.

Furthermore (not shown in Table 27), international joint/double degree programs were found to be a core element in the 21<sup>st</sup> century HE zeitgeist model of internationalization. Students in teacher education, however, cannot be seen as very strong advocates of joint/double degree programs in their field: The item whether “there should be many more international joint and double degree programs (involving mandatory periods abroad) which enable prospective teachers to acquire a teaching license in more than one country” is rated with a mean of 3.68 ( $SD = 1.32$ )<sup>75</sup>. Although this is a supportive rating one would have probably expected more support among students for programs that would widen their future access to different labor markets. These divergences in student-level internationalization models from dominant zeitgeist conceptualizations in HE parallel the divergences that were found in the macro- and mesolevel TE internationalization models from the HE-general internationalization model.

#### **4.3.2 Students in Their Institutional Context: The Study Environment**

To foster professionally relevant international competences and international experiences among future teachers, not least through student mobility, was identified above as a central concern, not only in European policies and policy-making discourses but also—with a focus on student mobility—at the institutional level. When international orientations, competences, and experiences are defined as desirable profiles of TE graduates, our attention is drawn to the developmental task implied: TE degree programs, accordingly, need to provide adequate environments in order for students to develop “towards” the desired profile of globally minded, intercultural competent and internationally experienced young graduates taking on their role as teachers in the education system. The study environment at an institution, and in particular the day-to-day learning environment in courses as the backbone, assume a core role in building international orientations and competences, and students’ interest in first-hand international experiences.

The next sections therefore turn to an assessment of the study environments as encountered by TE students. Students enrolled in programs with a distinct international

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<sup>75</sup> Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*);  $n = 867$ . Item reference: Appendix G (E1\_14).

orientation including mandatory experiences abroad were excluded from the analysis. This was done because students enrolling in such programs already had an international orientation upon entering the institution. Since the focus here is on the role of study environments in building such international orientations among those who did *not* start studying with a clear-cut international orientation and the decision to gain international experiences, these students were excluded.

Students rated to which extent different constituencies had drawn their attention to international dimensions in their studies and to gaining experiences abroad. As Table 28 shows, neither the institutional environment at large nor the “backbone constituency” of study environments—lecturers and the courses, are rated as driving constituencies by students; this is true for FL students, where means are around the scale midpoint, as well as for non-FL students.

Non-FL students clearly disagree (means are clearly below the scale midpoint, see Table 28) that the institutional environment has drawn their attention to international dimensions in their studies and to gaining experiences abroad. The role of the constituency lecturers-and-courses is rated as even weaker in this undertaking. In fact, non-FL students even rate their lecturers and courses as the single most weakly driving constituency out of five different constituencies assessed (not shown in Table 28)—these were (1) lecturers and courses, (2) the institutional environment at large, (3) fellow students and friends, (4) practical experiences, and (5) the external environment (results not shown in Table 28, see Table H6).

**Table 28:** Role of two Constituencies as Drawing Attention to International Dimensions and Gaining Experiences Abroad

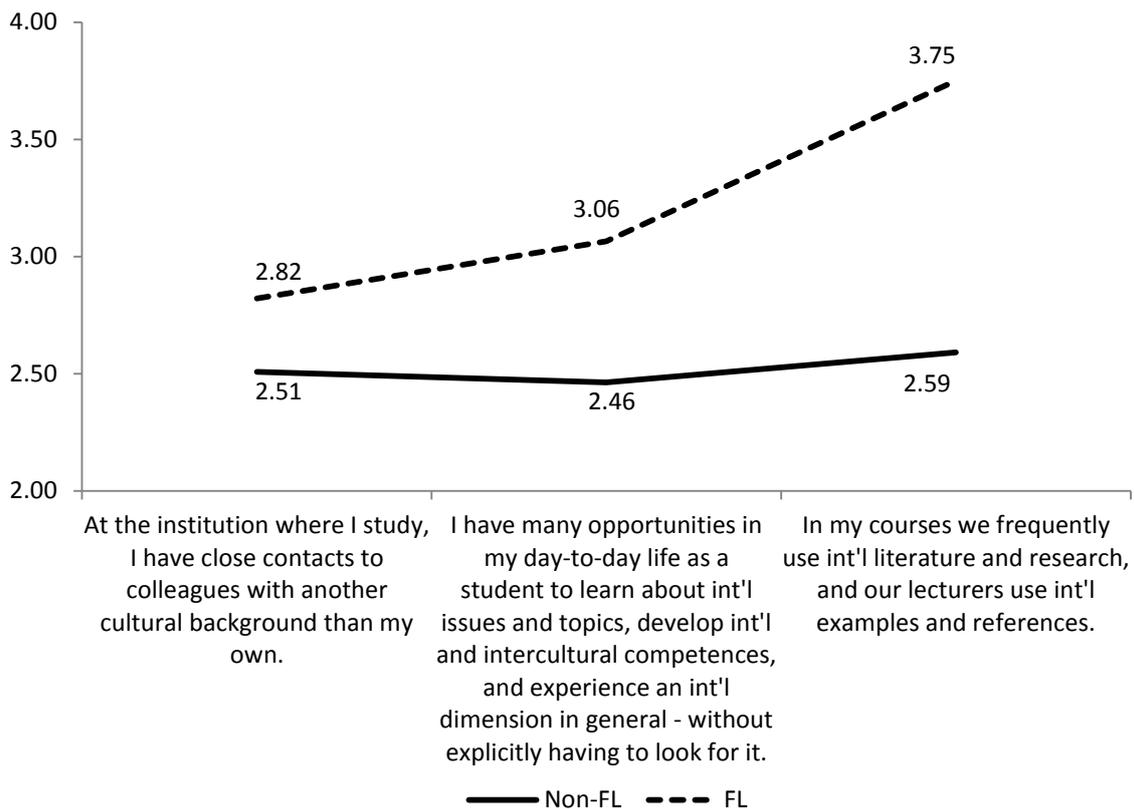
	<i>M (SD)</i>	
	FL students	Non-FL students
Lecturers and courses	3.13 (1.20)	2.07 (1.09)
Institutional environment at large (flyers, events, speeches, general culture, etc.)	2.98 (1.13)	2.40 (1.16)

*Note.* FL = foreign languages. Students rated to which extent each constituency had “drawn their attention to international dimensions in their studies and to gaining experiences abroad” on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*); FL students:  $n = 300$ ; non-FL students:  $n = 420$ . For the group FL students a dependent samples  $t$ -test showed that no significant differences existed between the means of the two constituencies ( $\alpha \leq .05$ ). For the group non-FL students a dependent samples  $t$ -test revealed significant differences:  $t(429) = 5.361, p = .000$ . Item references: Appendix G (Variables E1\_2, E1\_4).

Day-to-day experiences on the study program that carry international dimensions can be seen as providing a basis to building international orientations, competences and an “appetite” for international experiences among students. Figure 13 shows that teacher education students do not rate their everyday study environment to provide opportunities for international learning “at ease”: Contact to colleagues with another cultural background is limited (first item in Figure 13) and the day-to-day opportunities for learning about international issues and topics, for developing intercultural competences, and for experiencing international dimensions “without having to look for it” (second item) are also rated as very weak (in the case of FL students) to rather not existing (in the case of non-FL students). International dimensions as created by lecturers in courses (third item) are not rated in a fundamentally different way: For the item “In my courses we frequently use international literature and research, and our lecturers use international examples and references” FL students give a positive—but by no means overwhelmingly strong positive—rating; non-FL students state that they do not frequently encounter such international dimensions in their courses<sup>76</sup>.

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<sup>76</sup> Readers may want to note that TE students usually study two (or more) subjects. This means that FL students (in this study students are designated as FL students if at least one of their subjects studied is a foreign language) may not only have evaluated their study environment as encountered in the FL area, but their general study environment as encountered in both (or more subjects) studied.



**Figure 13.** International dimensions in study environments. Three items as assessed by FL ( $n = 309$ ) and non-FL ( $n = 423$ ) students: Mean ratings per group are displayed for each item (for full statistical results see Table H7); scale ratings ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Note that the vertical axis does not display the full scale range. Int'l = international. Item references: Appendix G (Variables B1\_4, E1\_1, E1\_4).

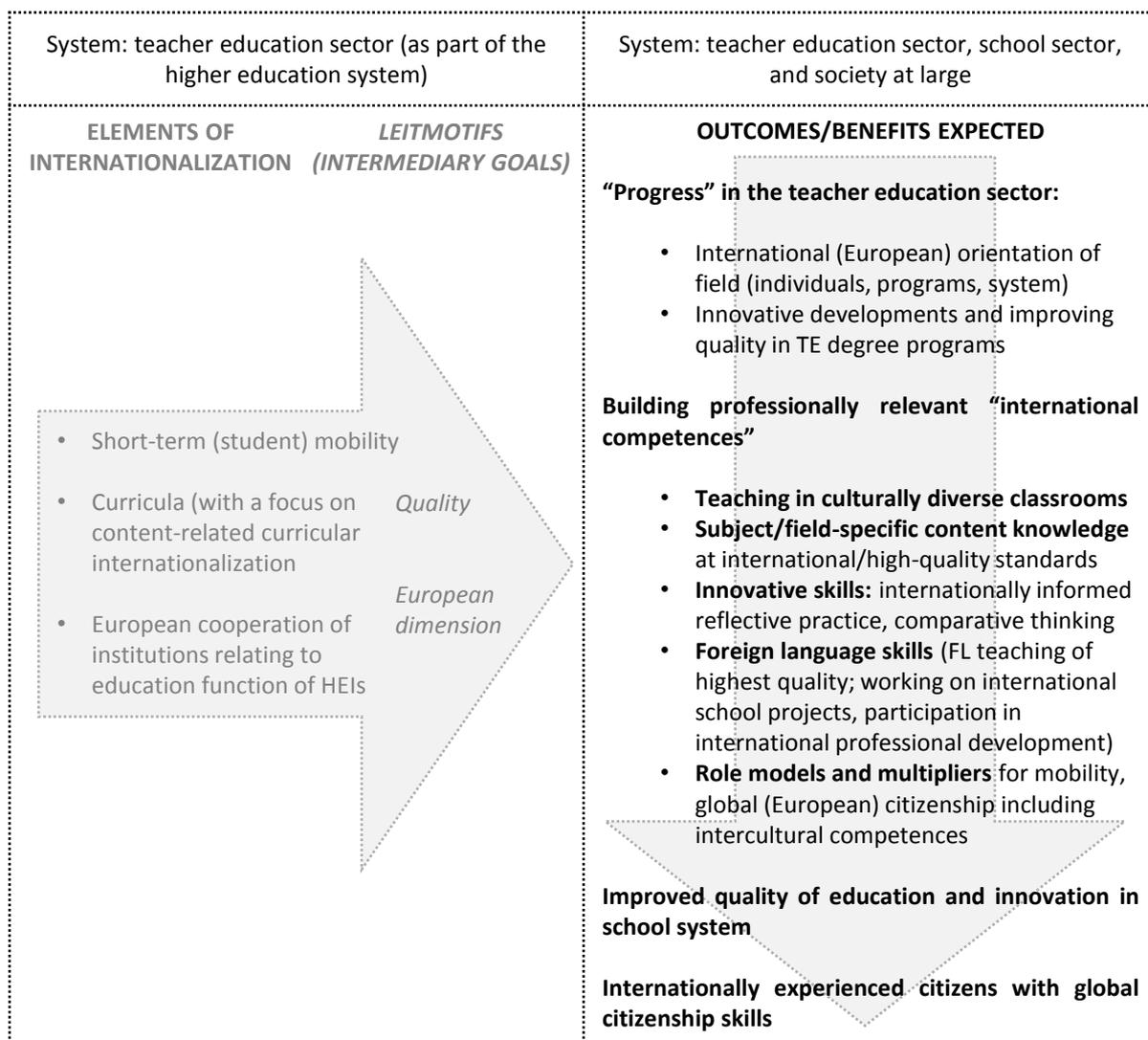
On the basis of these results, we can thus note a non-existence of study and learning environments which could eligitly be characterized as bearing frequent international dimensions and as drawing students' attention to international dimensions in their studies and to gaining experiences abroad. This is particularly true for the arrangements that non-FL students encounter in TE degree programs.

#### 4.4 Summary Results Investigation Strand 1

Following the principle of dynamic contextualization, the previous results sections already presented results from the different levels in a continuously linking manner. In view of the research question guiding Investigation Strand 1—the rationales, expected benefits and major elements of internationalization in teacher education and distinct features, drivers or difficulties becoming visible in a multilevel and contextualized comparative perspective of such internationalization models—results of Investigation Strand 1 are aggregated below along the assumptions (lines of inquiry regarding potential diffusion barriers, see overview in Table 6) that have guided the research in order to provide a summary answer to the research

question at hand. The theoretical enrichment and the linking to results of Investigation Strand 2 will take place in the final chapter Discussion and Conclusions (Chapter 6).

Results of the teacher education policy-document analysis can be synthesized into a model summarizing the “functionality” of internationalization in teacher education, as shown in Figure 14. In the policy-level model, internationalization in teacher education was found to be mainly represented by the proposed measures of (1) short-term student (and to a lesser extent also staff) mobility which is the central and dominant element and placed under a firm professional development perspective in the TE policy-level model; (2) European cooperation of institutions in the realms relating to the teaching/learning function of HEIs; and (3) the inclusion of international dimensions in curricula in order to build what has earlier been referred to as global citizenship competences (relevant to teachers’ function as role models and multipliers), and professional competences in a narrower sense (such as skills to teach in multicultural settings, innovation capacity, etc.) whereby a strong role is given to content-related curricular strategies. This package of measures is thus deemed most compatible and profitable in TE policies and policy-making discourses. Their diffusion is seen as a pathway towards expected eventual benefits and outcomes. These are first of all the two guiding leitmotifs (as intermediary goals): to improve the quality of teacher education degree programs at HEIs and to strengthen European (international) orientation in the field at large. Thus, there is a strong “developmental drive” visible in policy-level discourses which can be paraphrased as a desired re-socialization of the field towards European (international) frames of reference. Eventually, a range of benefits and outcomes is expected from a broad adoption of these measures. These benefits and outcomes pertain not only to the teacher education (as part of the HE sector) but also to “external” societal subsystems, that is, school and education, and society at large.



**Figure 14.** Functionality of internationalization in teacher education. Desired benefits and outcomes of internationalization in TE, as evident in policy documents and policy-making discourses, are summarized on the right-hand side. The most dominant elements and strategies of internationalization which are proposed to be implemented in order to reach the desired benefits and outcomes, that is, measures that are seen as functional (profitable and compatible), are listed on the left-hand side of the model.

The HE and the TE internationalization models were found to be characterized by different major rationales and concrete measures of internationalization proposed. They imply different trajectories of internationalization. The distinctiveness of the TE model was revealed by juxtaposition and comparison to the general HE model of internationalization. This confirmed the assumption to find different internationalization models in the two sectors and, based on the specific setting, goals and affordances as relevant to the field, a *specific* model of internationalization in TE.

The different trajectories of the two models can be best grasped through a range of juxtapositions which, importantly, are to be understood as dominant perspectives shining

through these models while not being exclusive foci: The models, for example, were found to have different systemic anchors and use different (normative) figures as references—the economy (HE) versus education in schools (TE); the globalized knowledge economy/society (HE) versus the multicultural society (TE). They were also found to have different dominant foci as regards the functions of HEIs addressed: the research function versus the teaching-and-learning function. Furthermore, they relate to different purposes and developmental aims: the international competitiveness of the HE sector and *being* international versus the quality of TE degree programs and *becoming* international. In terms of individual-level goals and purposes the development of *knowledge* and competences in the HE model can be juxtaposed to the development of competences, *ideas, attitudes and values* in the TE model. Further polarizations that can be made are: a curricular focus on international *structures* and orientation in the HE model versus a curricular focus on international *content* and orientation in TE; and joint/double *degree programs* versus joint *modules*. Also, scope, arena and visibility of international activities were found to vary between HE and TE models: internationalization versus mobility, global versus European, prestige versus evolution through internationalization, and abroad versus at-home components of internationalization. We could also observe different resource perspectives and thus juxtapose resource pooling and international human resource *recruitment* perspectives in the HE model against human resources *development* perspectives in the TE model. And while in the HE model institutions were found to be conceptualized as having already relatively widely adopted the innovation internationalization, and as being about to accomplish the second and third leap in internationalization (internationalization as a frequent and systematic activity integrated into the core functions of HEIs), in the TE model internationalization was found to be depicted as less widely adopted by institutions: The accomplishment of the second (and eventually the third leap) of internationalization themselves appear as rationales and intermediary goals (cf. leitmotifs).

These results provide vivid evidence for the situatedness of internationalization not only in relation to time but also to different contexts and subject fields. This is visible, for example, in the found termination of elements in the TE model which are important to the HE-general model such as joint/double degree programs, international student recruitment, or international branding, etc.

As presented in the model above, three elements of internationalization were found to play a core role in the TE model: the element of students' (and staff's) short-term mobility,

content-related curricular internationalization, and increased European collaboration and partnerships between institutions.

In terms of the drivers and difficulties of internationalization in teacher education that became visible in a contextualized comparative perspective, we can note that fostering temporary study-related mobility is the singular element for which most overlaps between the two models were found. A reinforcing character of the HE model was found for the diffusion of the element of temporary mobility of students (and staff): In the HE model this element also plays an important role (although the role of (student) mobility in the HE model is anchored in different rationales and more multifaceted, e.g., equally promoting degree mobility and short-term mobility).

A reinforcing character of the HE-general model was also found for the measure to generally increase European collaboration among institutions in the field of teacher education (for purposes related to the teaching/learning function of HEIs and thus to education). Here, the HE-general policy-level model of internationalization was found to be broadly reinforcing through its own focus on global cooperation for purposes of both research *and* education.

For the facet of content-related curricular internationalization which was revealed as the third core element in the TE model, less concrete support was found in HE-general policies: Curricular internationalization is generally supported by the HE model of internationalization, but at the same time its explicit focus was found to be more geared towards a general international orientation of curricular and structural components (e.g., joint/double degree programs), and less on the diffusion of content-related curricular internationalization.

Furthermore, sectoral governance in teacher education was revealed as an adverse condition: the results of the institutional survey showed that a certain paradox exists in teacher education, in the sense that it “would particularly benefit from internationalization while characteristics in the field limit factual implementation”. As concerns these characteristics, issues that were not revealed as major problems seen (and these are thus deliberations which have not received confirmation through staff ratings) are a *general* incompatibility due to a strong national framing, a lacking drive for internationalization due to a weak research function and/or a weak internationalization of research, and incompatibilities stemming from a diversity of TE models. However, what is seen as problematic, as was assumed and as

results showed, are structural barriers such as the density of regulations of TE degree programs, and a missing regard of international dimensions in governmental regulations. A lack of regard of international dimensions in governmental regulations pertaining to the delivery of TE curricula—their structure, contents or goals—creates an *accountability gap* on the side of institutions. Results also confirmed that under conditions of reform competition, internationalization is assigned lower importance and remains a nice-to-have in the teacher education sector. The lack of prioritization of international dimensions in the sectoral governance of teacher education also points to an underlying problem: a gap of fundamental awareness, commitment, and supporting convictions at the level of national or regional governance.

Such a *gap of convictions* was indeed also revealed at the institutional level. Results showed that most of the core policy-level rationales for the internationalization of teacher education (stronger European dimension, relevance to building professional competences of teachers, expected impact on both the quality of teacher education and education in schools, and relevance to teachers' function as role models and multipliers) receive moderate support among staff in teacher education. However, no pervasive profile of supporting convictions was found to exist among staff. This indicates that the potential diffusion barrier of unaccomplished initial stages of the internationalization circle (see Chapter 2.1.2)—awareness and commitment—is of factual relevance in teacher education (at the institutions surveyed). Indeed, the most important policy-level rationale—strengthening the European dimension in TE degree programs—was found to receive least support among staff and is not seen as important in absolute terms. The argumentations revealed as supported most among staff in teacher education at the surveyed institutions relate to (a) teachers' function as role models and multipliers and (b) to the professional relevance of TE degree programs bearing international dimensions in times when teachers increasingly encounter culturally diverse and heterogeneous classrooms. This profile (higher support for professional-competences and multiplier argument; lower support for strengthening the European dimension) was also found among students. The multilevel comparison thus reveals a *policy-practice gap* with respect to increasing the European dimension (a rationale that can be paraphrased as the Europeanization of systems and structures at large), and a non-diffusion status of this aspect of the policy-level model in practice. Survey results suggested that supporting convictions among students, particularly among those who plan or have implemented stays abroad, are anchored at a somewhat higher level than among staff. At the same time, the existence of a

relatively large student body with generally weak convictions on the relevance of internationalization in teacher education was implied by the results.

Results also revealed that among both staff and students surveyed, the benefits of mobility are seen more clearly than for internationalization at large, possibly owing to the concreteness as a distinct element of internationalization. Staff and students at the teacher education institutions surveyed expressed their views on the benefits of TSM in a quite coherent manner: It is largely seen as a personal endeavor with high relevance for foreign-language students, but weakly framed as contributing to the academic and professional development of future teachers. Thus, results do not indicate that a lack of supporting convictions regarding TSM and its benefits is a diffusion barrier per se; however, convictions about TSM were revealed as a barrier in terms of an *add-on perspective* on student mobility: Results implied that student mobility is seen as an addition to (as opposed to: a benefit for) the academic, professionally oriented study program, and pursued or supported mainly for the benefit of personal development and improved foreign language skills.

Interesting differences were found comparing motives (expected benefits) and impact (realized benefits): Personal development remained the most important benefit in impact assessments, while having built intercultural competences became the second most important benefit seen among those who had already implemented TSM. Indications were also found that the actual international experience functions as an eye-opener for non-FL students in terms of the professional relevance of international experiences and competences—they ranked this benefit as the third most important benefit realized (more important than students at pre-implementation stages, and equally important as having improved foreign language skills).

Looking to the elements featuring prominently in internationalization models at the three levels studied in TE (policy, institutional level and students), distinct overlaps and mismatches between the models were observed. As outlined above, a distinct feature of the TE policy-level model found is that it places a dominant focus on student (and staff) mobility, and an additional focus on content-related curricular internationalization. Fostering TSM and reducing barriers to TSM was also revealed as a core strategy at the institutional level (in fact ranked most important), while content-related curricular strategies of internationalization were only weakly focused upon. By contrast, student results showed a mirror image of the double focus found at the policy level: Both at-home and abroad elements were found to be

important in student-level models of internationalization. Indeed, students ranked three content-related curricular strategies as elements of internationalization most important to them. Abroad strategies were also found to be important, in particular practice-oriented shorter programs abroad, teaching and school practice abroad, as well as other shorter programs such as language courses abroad. Surprisingly, however, the element of study abroad—most readily in mind when discussing student mobility—was ranked only 11<sup>th</sup> (out of the 13 different elements of internationalization) by students. Institutions' priority on the singular element of TSM and their non-prioritization of content-related curricular strategies of internationalization marks out a *gap of institutional strategies*, when compared to policy-level and student-level models.

Based on the importance of academic staff when it comes to including international dimensions in higher education degree programs, the role of academic staff was defined as an area of inquiry. Results showed that staff readiness for internationalization is at least not *particularly* pronounced. This was judged in terms of staff convictions (as already summarized above) as well as in terms of their own work, contacts, and resources: Results indicated that the notion of internationalization of teaching and learning is not seen as extensively shared and supported among staff in teacher education (i.e., at the institutions surveyed). Survey results also indicated a certain staff involvement in international activities, projects, etc., while an international embedding of academic work was by far not revealed as a defining characteristic of the academic profile at the TE institutions researched. Such a non-pervasive international work profile could be (partially) due to lacking foreign language skills. With English being the lingua franca in higher education, the competence to teach in English can be seen as a broad indicator of the foreign language competences among academic staff in the field. Indeed, the fact that teaching in English would be a challenge for many academic staff members was evaluated as a barrier at TE institutions. This indicates limitations in the foreign languages skills—and thus in relevant resources—of academic staff. Relatively weak staff readiness for internationalization is, on the basis of these results, therefore assessed as a barrier to the diffusion of internationalization in TE degree programs.

Students' study environments were not revealed as bearing pervasive international dimensions, and as not geared towards students developing international orientations and interest in first-hand international experiences. As results showed, neither the constituency lecturers-and-courses nor the constituency institutional-environment-at-large were experienced as drivers by the students surveyed (not among FL students and in particular not

among non-FL students). Students also evaluated items measuring to which extent institutions provided them with opportunities for international learning “at ease”. Results showed that this is clearly not the case for all those not studying foreign languages: The item whether they frequently used international literature and research, and whether their lecturers used international references and examples, for example, was evaluated negatively by them. International dimensions in day-to-day study environments were also found to be surprisingly weak among those who do study foreign languages, considering the inherent international framing of such studies. Day-to-day study environments are thus not geared towards providing engagement opportunities supportive of the development of international orientations and competences, or interest in gaining experiences abroad, indicating a high factual relevance of this diffusion barrier.

Organization strategies of institutions were defined as an area of inquiry and a potential obstacle to a stronger diffusion of internationalization when not designed and implemented adequately. Items relating to various stages of the internationalization circle (context analysis—awareness—commitment—planning—operationalize—implementation—review; see Chapter 2.1.2) were evaluated in the institutional survey. Indeed, results confirmed this area as a substantial barrier to a stronger diffusion of internationalization in TE degree programs (at the institutions surveyed): All organization strategies were evaluated below the scale midpoint (and thus “negatively”). Organization strategies evaluated were, for example, issues such as whether internationalization strategies were known by the majority of academic staff. Results indicated a lack of incentives and rewards for academic staff to engage in internationalization—and thus a *gap of strategic support to academic staff as a core institutional entity* in developing internationalization. The negative evaluation of all organization strategies indicates a *gap of strategic management*.

## **5. Results Investigation Strand 2: Obstacles to Temporary Study-Related Mobility Among Students in Teacher Education Degree Programs**

This chapter presents the results of Investigation Strand 2 in which inquiries were guided by Research Question #2 on relevant obstacles for (different groups of students) in teacher education degree programs for gaining study-related experiences abroad. The analysis is based on the differentiation of four different status groups of students (see in detail Chapter 3.3.3.1): a no-interest group, an interest group, a plans group and an implementation group. Three thematic areas (as derived in Chapter 2.5.5) frame the investigation into obstacles to TSM among students in teacher education: The first are student demand profiles and the role of unmet student demand profiles as an obstacle to the broader diffusion of TSM (Chapter 5.1). In the second line of inquiry, obstacles are directly revealed—on the basis of students' ratings of different issues in terms of their role as (potential) obstacles (Chapter 5.2). The third thematic area aims to complete the picture on relevant obstacles to students by researching the role of sociodemographic and study-related background, study environments, professional relevance of and student knowledge on TSM (Chapter 5.3). In Chapter 5.4, the results of Investigation Strand 2 are summarized.

### **5.1 Unmet Student Demand Profiles as an Obstacle to the Diffusion of Temporary Study-Related Mobility**

This chapter is guided by the detailed Research Question #2\_1: Which obstacles can be revealed on the basis of a comparison of student demand profiles (in the four status groups of students) and program offer at institutions, using a differentiated set of program forms of TSM? Three concrete hypotheses were formulated with respect to the assumption of finding unmet student demand profiles—broadly speaking, the high relevance of practice-oriented TSM forms, the high relevance of shorter (under three months) TSM forms, and discrepancies between student demand and implementation/institutional offer (see Chapter 2.5.5).

To evaluate in detail the role of unmet student demand profiles as an obstacle to the broader diffusion of TSM experiences, the analysis draws upon students' relevance ratings of seven different TSM program forms they assessed. Further implementation-related data and institutional data complement the analysis.

Before turning to presenting the results of this line of inquiry, a spotlight shall be put on the size of the different status groups in the student body of the institutions surveyed.

In the survey sample 10% of all students belong to the no-interest group. Because of an unavoidable volunteer bias (see Chapter 3.2.5) in the survey sample (skew towards students having a certain interest in the topic of internationalization and mobility), it was of interest to estimate the factual size of the no-interest group at the institutions surveyed. Although estimations have to be interpreted with caution, student mobility data made available by all institutions surveyed allowed arriving at such estimations<sup>77</sup>. The share of non-interested students in the student population was estimated to amount to up to 40-50+ percentage points. The average number (across surveyed institutions) of graduates having gained study-related experiences abroad was estimated to amount to roughly 15-20 percentage points. On this basis, the group of students who are basically interested in gaining study-related experiences abroad but who likely will not have done so upon graduation was estimated to amount to very roughly 35-40% in the surveyed student population.

### **5.1.1 The Role of Practice-Oriented Experiences Abroad**

This chapter analyzes data to evaluate the hypothesis to find a high(er) relevance of practice-oriented program forms (as opposed to academic TSM forms) among TE degree program students.

Results (see Table 29) reveal a non-preference of students for academic programs—or vice-versa a high relevance of practice-oriented programs—among students in teacher education. While this is true for all three status groups, students in the interest group show strongest non-preferences for academic programs.

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<sup>77</sup> Estimations were made on the basis of detailed yearly mobility data files of institutions. Further data was collected through the surveys and the institutional core data sheet (validated through interviews). Data available allowed estimating the role and extent of different program forms at institutions. On this basis mobility rates (corrected for the extent of multiple mobilities among students and taking into account different average duration of degree program completion) in TE degree programs upon graduation were estimated (on average these amounted to approx. 15-20%, taking into account all seven different program forms). Estimated mobility rates upon graduation were used to arrive at correction factors for the sample's bias (i.e., the overrepresentation of those with an interest in the topic internationalization). The correction factor estimated for students in the implementation group was approximately 3-4. Taking into account correction factors for the size of the interest group and the plans group, calculations lead to the estimated factual size of the no-interest group at the institutions surveyed of approximately 40-50+%.

**Table 29: Student Preferences for Academic and Shorter Programs**

Dependent variables <sup>a</sup>	Group (Factor)	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	ANOVA results
Prefer academic programs over practice-oriented (C11_3)	Interest	315	2.09 (1.04)	$F(2, 889) = 11.193,$ $p = .000$
	Plans	215	2.41 (1.14)	
	Implementation	362	2.46 (1.05)	
	<i>All students</i>	892	2.32 (1.08)	
Prefer shorter (< 3 months) to longer programs (C11_4)	Interest	316	3.30 (1.40)	$F(2, 893) = 31.151,$ $p = .000$
	Plans	218	2.70 (1.34)	
	Implementation	362	2.49 (1.34)	
	<i>All students</i>	896	2.82 (1.41)	

*Note.* Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). ANOVA and post-hoc test results: Partial  $\eta^2 = .025$  (for C11\_3) and  $.065$  (for C11\_4); group differences between the plans group and the implementation group yield non-significant results in ANOVA post-hoc tests (multiple comparisons;  $\alpha \leq .05$ ) for both C11\_3 and C11\_4 (indicated by brackets).

<sup>a</sup>Item references (see Appendix G) in parentheses.

To further assess the role of practice-oriented programs, students' demand profiles (the relevance assigned to each of the seven program forms by students, as measured by having rated it with a scale value of 2, 3 or 4, i.e., as being (quite) interested, having plans or having implemented this program form) were analyzed.

Figure 15 shows the demand profiles of the surveyed TE students. As it shows, across all three status groups of students, the two program forms with the highest degrees of relevance are the two practice-oriented program forms that also have a clear professional framing: (VI) *Practically-oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)* such as thematic study visits or faculty-led excursions and (II) *Internships – Teaching and school practice abroad*. By contrast, practice-oriented stays abroad without such a professional framing, that is, the program form (III) *Internships – General practical experiences abroad*, consistently generate least interest in all three student groups. Practice-oriented stays with a relatively short duration appear as the most accessible program form: Among all those students who show certain intentions of gaining study-related experiences abroad but have not yet moved to planning or implementation stages (interest group), shorter practice-oriented stays (program form (VI) *Practically-oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)*) are the single most important program form.

Program form	Degree of relevance of different program forms <sup>a</sup>		
	Group interest	Group plans	Group implementation
(VI) Practically-oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)	75.4%	86.2%	83.9%
(II) Internships - Teaching and school practice abroad	67.2%	79.4%	81.5%
(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses, other)	65.9%	74.3%	73.5%
(V) Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)	58.0%	65.6%	68.7%
(I) Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad	38.2%	63.3%	61.7%
(IV) Combined programs - study abroad and internship	35.3%	61.9%	55.4%
(III) Internships - General practical experiences abroad	33.1%	52.3%	54.3%

**Figure 15.** Relevance of seven different program forms among students in teacher education, differentiated according to the three status groups interest, plans, implementation. Consecutively ranked program forms between which degrees of relevance (frequencies) do not differ significantly (McNemar-test for dependent samples,  $\alpha \leq .05$ ) are joined by brackets. Frequencies and item references: Table II.

<sup>a</sup>Degree of relevance: Percentage in each status group who indicated at least being interested (i.e., marked at least scale value 2 on the scale ranging from 1 (*not really interested, no intentions/plans*), 2 (*quite interested*), 3 (*definite plans*), to 4 (*currently taking/have taken option*) for this specific program form.

### 5.1.2 The Role of Shorter Program Forms

To assess the second hypothesis of a high(er) relevance of shorter program forms (defined as lasting for less than three months) in comparison to longer program forms, three data bases were used: (1) Students' stated preference for shorter over longer programs, (2) students' relevance ratings, and (3) factual implementation data.

Students in the interest group show a slight preference for shorter durations (see results in Table 29 in previous chapter). This group's mean rating ( $M = 3.30$ ) differs significantly from the mean ratings of the plans group and the implementation group who do not indicate to have a general preference for shorter programs.

Assessing students' demand profiles (see Figure 15 in previous chapter) allows further insights into the role of shorter and longer program forms in terms of students' preferences. Among the seven TSM program forms, two shorter program forms were explicitly differentiated: (V) *Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)* such as summer schools and (VI) *Practically oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)* such as thematic study visits. In

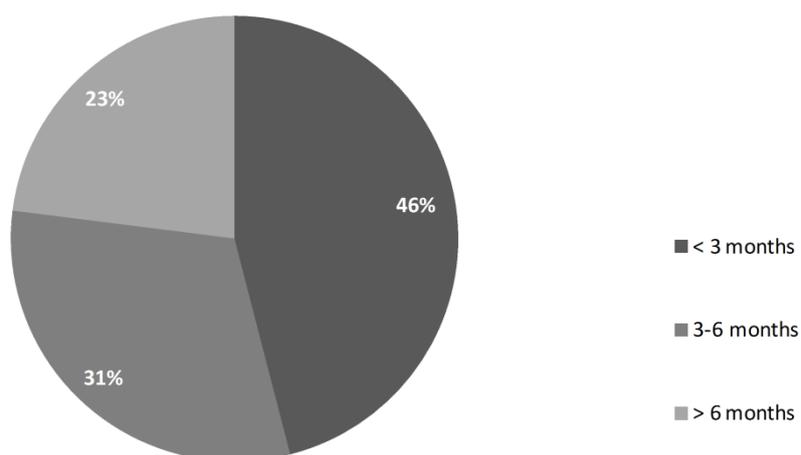
addition, the category (VII) *Other programs abroad (language courses, other)* was differentiated, also (tentatively) suggesting shorter programs<sup>78</sup>.

The analysis of student demand profiles confirmed the emergence of a differentiated picture for the group interest versus the two other groups regarding their preferences for shorter over longer stays (as implied by the results above). For students who show interest in gaining TSM experiences but who have not yet moved to acting upon their interest, a higher relevance of shorter program forms was revealed: As visible in Figure 15, all three shorter program forms—(V) *Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)*, (VI) *Practically oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)*, (VII) *Other programs abroad (language courses, other)*—feature among the four most relevant forms of gaining experiences abroad for this group. By contrast, all traditionally longer program forms (except (II) *Internships – Teaching and school practice abroad*) have significantly lower relevance ratings: (I) *Study abroad – Temporary enrollment abroad*, (IV) *Combined programs – Study abroad and internship*, and (III) *Internships - General practical experiences abroad* together rank at the bottom of the interest group’s demand profile. As before, the higher relevance of shorter program forms can be observed for the interest group while not in the relevance profiles of the plans group and the implementation group (Figure 15): Both longer and shorter TSM program forms appear among the most relevant program forms for these two status groups.

Finally, the factual duration of implemented stays abroad was analyzed. Results (see Figure 16) revealed a high *factual* relevance of shorter program forms among “implementers”: As shown in Figure 16, almost half of all TSM experiences implemented by teacher education students in the sample were shorter than three months. In other words, almost 50% of all TSM experiences fell outside the traditional duration of European TSM experiences of 3-12 months.

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<sup>78</sup> While other longer programs were theoretically subsumed here as well, an analysis of implementation data showed that this category subsumes primarily shorter programs, most often of a stated duration of 0.5 to 1.5 months.



**Figure 16.** Duration of TSM experiences abroad in sample of teacher education students. Students in the implementation group were asked to state the duration of their study-related stay abroad (resulting data basis: 650 stated TSM experiences abroad). Item references: Appendix G (Variable C9\_x\_1).

This result is accounted for by two factors (data not shown in Figure 16). First, of course, the result is accounted for by the implementation of program forms that are by definition shorter, such as short academic or practice-oriented stays abroad (program forms *(V)* and *(VI)*). These, however, made up only approximately 12% of all implemented TSM experiences. Second, the result is accounted for by the fact that the duration of other TSM program forms was also found to be below the three-months threshold in many instances: For the program forms *(II) Internships – Teaching and school practice abroad* and *(III) Internships – General practical experiences abroad* percentages of stays below three months amounted to 55% and 48% respectively; for the program form *(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses, other)* the percentage found was even 73%. Considering the recent reduction of the minimum duration of academic stays and internships abroad within Erasmus to two months, it is noteworthy that in particular internships implemented often also fell below a 2-months threshold (roughly two thirds of all internships below the 3-months threshold also fell below the 2-months threshold). Vice-versa, data showed that only within the program forms *(I) Study abroad – Temporary enrollment abroad* and *(IV) Combined programs – Study abroad and internship* the vast majority (99% and 74% respectively) of stays implemented by teacher education students were above the 3-months threshold. Within the category *(I) Study abroad – Temporary enrollment abroad* approximately one third (36%) of all stays lasted for longer than six months, while two thirds (63%) of study-abroad experiences lasted between three and six months.

### 5.1.3 Student Demand for Program Forms Versus Implementation and Institutional Offer

Data analysis now turns to assessing the third hypothesis—to find discrepancies between student demand profiles on the one side and factual implementation (implementation profiles) and institutional offer on the other side.

When comparing students’ demand profiles (which indicate the basic relevance of different program forms) to their implementation profiles (which indicate what is factually implemented), several discrepancies can be observed (see Figure 17).

Examining implementation profiles, we see that study abroad and professionally oriented internships (program forms (I) and (II)) together account for 65% of all implemented stays abroad, thus representing by far the most commonly implemented forms of TSM among teacher education students. Compared to demand profiles (across all groups) where these two program forms were not that dominant, this marks out a discrepancy.

Program form	Degree of relevance of different program forms			Realized TSM experiences
	Group interest	Group plans	Group implementation	Group implementation
(VI) Practically-oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)	75.4%	86.2%	83.9%	228
(II) Internships - Teaching and school practice abroad	67.2%	79.4%	81.5%	172
(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses, other)	65.9%	74.3%	73.5%	53
(V) Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)	58.0%	65.6%	68.7%	46
(I) Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad	38.2%	63.3%	61.7%	46
(IV) Combined programs - study abroad and internship	35.3%	61.9%	55.4%	44
(III) Internships - General practical experiences abroad	33.1%	52.3%	54.3%	25

Figure 17. Comparison of student demand profiles to factual implementation profiles. Consecutively ranked program forms between which percentages (frequencies) do not differ significantly (McNemar-test for dependent samples,  $\alpha \leq .05$ ) are joined by brackets. For calculations of degrees of relevance, see explanations Figure 15. Item references: Table II.

As has been pointed out earlier, both shorter and longer practice-oriented forms of gaining study-related experiences abroad which have a professional framing consistently ranked high in the demand profiles of all three groups of students. This indicates that students in TE degree programs find program forms purposeful which provide them with practice-oriented learning opportunities relevant to their professionally-oriented study program and to their future profession. However, while the program form *(II) Internships – Teaching and school practice abroad* retains its high importance also in implementation profiles, the downward arrow in Figure 17 indicates a discrepancy between demand and implementation regarding the program form *(VI) Practically oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)* such as study visits or faculty-led excursions. The relevance these programs are shown to have in the sample is not mirrored in implementation: Only 7.5% of all implemented study-related stays abroad fall into this category.

Particularly pronounced is also the discrepancy between demand and implementation profiles for the program form *(I) Study abroad – Temporary enrollment abroad* (marked by the upward arrow in Figure 17). Remarkable is the low rank of relevance that this most classical European form of gaining study-related experiences abroad received among students in the interest group: Only 38% stated that they are interested in this specific program form, making study abroad the least attractive program form for students in this group (together with the program forms *(IV) Combined programs – Study abroad and internships* and *(III) Internships – General practical experiences abroad*; see Figure 17). Comparing study-abroad ratings of the interest group to the ratings of the plans and the implementation group in Figure 17, we find this percentage increasing to 74% and 82% respectively. As regards factual implementation, Figure 17 also shows that study abroad is the program form most often implemented among teacher education students in the sample, representing 37% of all TSM experiences abroad.

Figure 17 also visualizes that shorter academic programs abroad such as summer schools (program form *(V) Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)*) have good relevance ratings among the students in the sample (approximately 60% in all three status groups), but that this program form is rarely implemented, representing only 4% of all implemented stays abroad.

It is also notable in Figure 17 that profession-based internships (program form *(II)*) consistently—that is, in the interest, plans and implementation group, and as regards factual

implementation—rank among the two most important program forms. Profession-based internships are thus not only seen as highly relevant among students in teacher education but also have good implementation rates. At the same time, while we do not find such consistently high relevance ratings among students for the program form *(I) Study abroad – Temporary enrollment abroad*, study abroad is eventually more often implemented than profession-based internships, as Figure 17 shows.

These discrepancies between demand (relevance) profiles and implementation profiles indicate that the various program forms have a different likelihood of implementation. It is also notable that the discrepancy is particularly large for students in the interest group. An explanatory factor for this discrepancy is the institutional offer and program support available. Whether students will eventually start planning or implementing study-related experiences abroad will depend on whether their preferences are matched by institutional offer. In this respect, mismatches between demand and implementation profiles (concerning all status groups of students) point to gaps in the institutional offer. Institutional offer and program support is therefore analyzed in the following, reverting to two data bases: Student survey data concerning institutional support, and data collected at six participating institutions (through core data sheets) on institutional offer.

As becomes evident in Table 30, study abroad (program form *(I) Study abroad – Temporary enrollment abroad*) is by far the most institutionalized program form. At all institutions, offers of this program form are coordinated by a responsible central or departmental unit charged with managing internationalization and student mobility. Study abroad is thus revealed as the single most important program form at all institutions. Accordingly, its self-organization rate is low (7%). Program support is high for study abroad (only 9% state that they haven't received any program support). In about 70% of all cases such support comes from the Erasmus program.

Profession-based internships (program form *(II) Internships – Teaching and school practice abroad*) also reach a good degree of institutionalization, as visible in Table 30: Most institutions offer this program form in a (centrally) coordinated manner to students. These offers are important in terms of their role within the portfolio of institutional offers. The data in Table 30, however, also reveals that a considerable portion (31%) of stays abroad in this category is implemented by students without program support (such as from Erasmus).

Furthermore, the high self-organization rate of 56% indicates that the extent of institutional offers is far from being enough to cover student demand.

Furthermore, institutional data points to existence of regulative barriers as regards factual implementation (not shown in Table 30): The collection of core institutional data, and the clarification and validation of interpretation in interviews revealed that it can be generally difficult for students in TE degree programs to include longer periods abroad into their study program (due to, e.g., modularization into large modules and “limiting” accreditation practices). In addition, compulsory practice periods in TE degree programs are not infrequently defined by the constraint to take them in schools of the respective “home” country. Furthermore, compulsory practice periods that *can* be taken abroad by students are often of a relatively short duration (e.g., one or two months). This can be seen as a disadvantage for implementation since support programs traditionally require a three- or two-months minimum threshold.

**Table 30:** Institutional and Program Support for Different Program Forms of TSM

Program form	Self-orga. <sup>a</sup>	No prog. <sup>a</sup>	Eras-mus <sup>a</sup>	Comment on institutional offer <sup>b</sup>
(I) Study abroad – Temporary enrollment abroad	7%	9%	68%	Consistently offered at institutions and of high importance; modularization into large modules and accreditation practices as a possible limitation to length
(II) Internships – Teaching and school practice abroad	56%	31%	20%	Institutional offer often available, high importance; obligatory practice-periods often shorter than three months, not infrequently must be taken in schools of “home country”
(III) Internships – General practical experiences abroad	76%	17%	9%	Internships offered by institutions focus on program form II
(IV) Combined programs – study abroad and internship	14%	27%	39%	Institutional offers often available, but number of programs limited
(V) Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)	68%	28%	16%	Existing but limited importance, very few institutional offers
(VI) Practically-oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)	22%	57%	7%	Institutional offers available (but disconnected from IO) and of certain prevalence
(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses, other)	66%	11%	4%	Not offered by institutions

*Note.* Self-orga. = self-organized stays (not via institution); No prog. = not supported by a program; IO = International Office (term used to denote central or departmental unit with responsibility for internationalization and student mobility).

<sup>a</sup>Data based on student survey. Item references: Appendix G (Variables: C9\_x\_3).

<sup>b</sup>Data based on core data sheets of institutions (see Appendix B). Item references: Appendix C (Variables: CII\_18 and CII\_19).

As Table 30 shows, combined programs (program form *(IV) Combined programs – Study abroad and internship*) offering both study abroad and practical experiences in an integrated manner are an established model of institutional offers (not least because partner institutions' teacher education programs may also include practice-oriented components accessible to students on temporary stays at the partner institutions). However, their role and importance within the portfolio of institutional offers is limited. A considerable portion of these stays is taking place within Erasmus (39%), but a considerable portion is also taking place without program support (27%). Overall, these programs are neither of core importance as regards student preferences, nor as regards factual implementation, nor as regards institutionalization at teacher education institutions.

General internships (program form *(III) Internships – General practical experiences abroad*) were found to be of limited importance as regards student demand. At the institutional side, it is understandable that institutions do not place a majority of their efforts into offering *general* internships within *professionally oriented* teacher education degree programs (see Table 30). Self-organization rates for internships are thus generally high.

For shorter academic programs abroad such as summer courses, shorter practice-oriented stays abroad such as study visits or faculty-led excursions, and other (tentatively) shorter programs such as language courses abroad, the analysis reveals that the institutional offer does not correspond to the relevance that students assign to these forms of gaining experiences abroad. As Table 30 shows, none of the program forms (*(V) Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)*, *(VI) Practically-oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)* and *(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses, other)*) resumes an important position across the institutions surveyed.

While shorter practice-oriented programs (in particular faculty-led excursions) do have certain prevalence at all institutions (in particular at certain departments with a tradition of organizing such programs), these offers are usually not systematically linked to central or departmental units responsible for internationalization and mobility (International Office), and not part of the systematically designed and communicated institutional offer. Shorter academic programs abroad are seldom offered at institutions or accessible through the coordinated offers of central/departmental internationalization units. In most cases International Offices offer some information about options but do not systematically collect related information and promote or develop such offers. Finally, other program forms such as

language courses that rank high in particular among students in the interest group, have almost no relevance in terms of being offered and coordinated to a minimum extent at institutions.

Several discrepancies between student demand profiles on the one side and factual implementation (implementation profiles) and institutional offer on the other were thus revealed in this line of inquiry.

## **5.2 Obstacles to Temporary Study-Related Mobility Directly Assessed by Students**

This chapter presents results of the second line of inquiry to identify obstacles to temporary study-related mobility among students in teacher education degree programs, using students' direct assessment of a 23-item battery on obstacles as the data basis. The chapter relates to the two detailed Research Questions #2\_2 and #2\_3:

The chapter will first present results in relation to detailed Research Question #2\_2: Which obstacles (items, domains) are relevant for the four different status groups of students? Here, the hypothesis was to find *different* configurations of obstacles among the four groups. The issues (items) that students evaluated in terms of their relevance as obstacles were grouped into five empirically and theoretically derived obstacle domains (see Chapter 2.5.5.2 for details). Analysis and presentation of results will move from the more aggregate analysis of obstacles at the level of domains to the more specific analysis of obstacles at the level of singular items. Subsequently, the chapter will turn to results in relation to the detailed Research Question #2\_3: Which obstacles (items) have a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher group of students in a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds no-interest—interest, interest—plans and plans—implementation? The results of binary logistic regressions at the three thresholds (interest, plans and implementation threshold; for details see Chapter 3.3.3.5) will be presented.

### **5.2.1 Relevant Domains of Obstacles at Different Stages of the TSM Process**

Means were calculated for each status group separately at the level of obstacle domains (results are displayed in Table 31). This allows observing the importance of each domain in each status group and the *domain configurations* (relative importance of domains) in each status group. Furthermore, comparing the four status groups allows observing any *different* domain configurations across the status groups, that is, determining the relevance of

different obstacle domains at different stages of a TSM process. To add precision and substantiate interpretation with respect to domain configurations within each status and to differences in domain configurations between the four status groups, further analyses were conducted: Mean differences between ordered domains within each status groups were tested for significance (non-significant mean differences are joined by brackets within each status group in Table 31). Further, a MANOVA (5 domains x 4 status groups) was conducted to support conclusions about the different (absolute) relevance of each of the five domains in the four status groups (results shown in Table 32).

As was assumed, a lack of value associated with gaining experiences abroad is one of the most important obstacle domains in the profile of the no-interest group (see Table 31). In line with expectations, the importance of the obstacle domain lack-of-value follows a clear downward trend from the no-interest group (via the groups interest and plans) to the implementation group (see absolute means in first row of Table 32); lack-of-value is the least important domain each for the interest, the plans and the implementation group (see Table 31).

The domain apprehensions was expected to become dominant in the obstacles domain profile of the interest group (while being of less importance among students in the no-interest group and “overcome” at the planning stages). Results show a slightly more differentiated picture: As visible in Table 31 student apprehensions—their doubts and insecurities—are among the more relevant obstacle domains in the profiles of both the no-interest and the interest group. And, although other obstacle domains (mismatch-programs, negative-consequences) are already clearly more relevant in the obstacle domain profile at the planning stage (see Table 31), in absolute terms the domain is equally relevant to the three groups no-interest, interest and plans (see Table 32).

Table 31 also shows that for the no-interest group, the domain negative-consequences is the single most important obstacle domain in absolute terms. The domain covers issues such as separation from family and/or friends, possible prolongation of studies, or negative financial consequences.

Among students who state to have a definite interest in gaining TSM but who have not yet moved to the more concrete planning stages (interest group) the domain negative-consequences continues to play an important role both in absolute terms as compared to the

no-interest group and in terms of its position as the most important domain in the profile. Further, the domain mismatch-programs, the domain apprehensions and the domain guidance are of concern to students in this group (see interest group obstacle domain profile in Table 31). This is broadly in line with deliberations that were made on likely domain configurations. An interesting observation, however, is the relatively high importance of the obstacle domain mismatch-programs already at this stage (the domain mismatch-programs was expected to become really prevalent only in the obstacle domain profile of the plans group). Results, however, show that it is already among the characterizing domains among students in the interest group (as important as the domain apprehensions, see obstacle domain profile in Table 31), and that in absolute terms the domain is as important to the interest group as it is to the plans group (see Table 32).

**Table 31:** Role of Five Obstacles Domains Within Each Status Group of Students (Configurations per Status Group)

Domain $M(SD)$			
No interest $n = 60$	Interest $n = 232$	Plans $n = 144$	Implementation $n = 229$
Negative consequences 3.15 (.93)	Negative consequences 3.19 (.86)	Mismatch programs 2.89 (.91)	Mismatch programs 2.52 (.88)
Lack of value 2.85 (1.15)	Mismatch programs 2.77 (.94)	Negative consequences 2.87 (.83)	Negative consequences 2.50 (.83)
Apprehensions 2.74 (.97)	Apprehensions 2.67 (.84)	Guidance 2.73 (.95)	Guidance 2.45 (1.02)
Mismatch programs 2.21 (.98)	Guidance 2.67 (1.07)	Apprehensions 2.57 (.75)	Apprehensions 2.12 (.78)
Guidance 2.11 (1.04)	Lack of value 2.40 (1.02)	Lack of value 2.04 (0.93)	Lack of value 1.71 (.71)

*Note.* Within each status group, domains where means do not differ significantly are joined by brackets (for  $t$ -tests results see Table I2). Obstacle domains (reaching values between 1 = minimum and 5 = maximum) represent five scales constructed on the basis of 23 different obstacles rated by students on a scale from 1 (*very weak relevance*) to 5 (*very high relevance*); for item references and Cronbach's  $\alpha$  per domain: see Table 19 in Method, Chapter 3.3.3.3.

**Table 32:** Importance of Each Obstacle Domain to Different Status Groups of Students (Status Groups Ordered by Descending Relevance)

Domain (per status group of students)	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>n</i>	ANOVA results per dependent variable (domain)
Lack of (anticipated) positive consequences/lack of benefits seen (Short name: <i>Lack of value</i> )			$F(3, 681) = 38.844, p = .000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .146$
No interest	2.85 (1.15)	80	
Interest	2.40 (1.02)	232	
Plans	2.04 (.93)	144	
Implementation	1.71 (.71)	229	
(Anticipated) negative consequences (Short name: <i>Negative consequence</i> )			$F(3, 681) = 27.831, p = .000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .109$
Interest	3.19 (.86)	232	
No interest	3.15 (.93)	80	
Plans	2.87 (.83)	144	
Implementation	2.50 (.83)	229	
Apprehensions (about own abilities, personal resources, and coping skills) (Short name: <i>Apprehensions</i> )			$F(3, 681) = 21.972, p = .000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .088$
No interest	2.74 (.97)	80	
Interest	2.67 (.84)	232	
Plans	2.57 (.75)	144	
Implementation	2.12 (.78)	229	
Problems with information, guidance and support from institution (Short name: <i>Guidance</i> )			$F(3, 681) = 8.238, p = .000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .035$
Plans	2.73 (.95)	144	
Interest	2.67 (1.07)	232	
Implementation	2.45 (1.01)	229	
No interest	2.11 (1.04)	80	
Limitations in suitable program offer and program integration with regular studies (Short name: <i>Mismatch programs</i> )			$F(3, 681) = 12.146, p = .000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .051$
Plans	2.89 (.91)	144	
Interest	2.77 (.93)	232	
Implementation	2.52 (.88)	229	
No interest	2.21 (.98)	80	

*Note.* A MANOVA (dependent variables: 5 domains, factor: 4 status groups of students) yielded a significant multivariate effect for status groups ( $F(15, 1869.30) = 14.931, p = .000$ ; Wilk's  $\lambda = .732, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .099$ ); univariate results are shown in last column of the table. Within each domain (dependent variable) status groups where mean differences were not significant are joined by brackets ( $\alpha \leq .05$ ; for results of post-hoc tests see Table I3). Obstacle domains (reaching values between 1 = minimum and 5 = maximum) represent five scales constructed on the basis of 23 different obstacles rated by students on a scale from 1 (*very weak relevance*) to 5 (*very high relevance*); for item references and Cronbach's  $\alpha$  per domain: see Table 19 in Chapter 3.3.3.3.

The importance of the domain mismatch-programs itself is underlined as we observe the configuration in the plans group: Issues relating to the domain mismatch-programs are (as was expected) highly important concerns to students who plan experiences abroad, together with the expectation of adverse negative consequences (see obstacle domain profile in Table 31). While the domain negative-consequences is of continued high relative importance in the profile of this group, we find (as shown in Table 32) that in absolute terms it is significantly less important than among the status groups no-interest and interest. The domain guidance is a further domain of importance for the plans group (see Table 31). The importance of this domain was expected since students at this stage seek information and support for planning stays abroad.

Overall, the domain configurations found for the implementation group and the plans group are highly similar (see Table 31): The three domains of most (and equal) importance are mismatch-programs, negative-consequences, and guidance. These are thus the issues that students, with hindsight, state to have provided them with difficulties. At the same time, as could be expected from “successful” TSM implementers, obstacle domains are in absolute terms assessed as less severe than among students in the plans group (see Table 32); the only domain where this is not true is for the domain guidance. It is of the same absolute relevance to both the plans and the implementation group.

### **5.2.2 From Domains of Obstacles to the Distinct Issues that Act as Obstacles to Students**

While the previous chapter analyzed obstacles at the level of five domains, this chapter turns to an analysis of obstacles at the item level within each status group. We do not only want to know which obstacle domains are relevant at different stages of the TSM process but also which of the distinct issues are important as obstacles to students. The purpose of this exercise is to understand the nature of the *concrete* obstacles in detail (rather than whether a concrete obstacle is significantly more important than another). The analysis at the item level therefore reverts to presenting the 12 most important obstacles (out of 23 issues that were assessed as obstacles by students; ranked according to mean ratings) for each status group. To facilitate accessibility to interpretation, means are presented together with the corresponding percentage of students who rated an issue as an *important* or *very important* obstacle.

Table 33 shows that the twelve most important obstacles for the no-interest group relate to the domains negative-consequences, lack-of-value and apprehensions. As evident

from Table 33, many students in this group are obviously held back by the prospects of being separated from friends and partner and/or from family and children: About two thirds of students in the no-interest group rate these issues as important or very important obstacles to them. In addition, attitudes of approximately 50% of students in this group can be characterized by a clear lack of prepossession and curiosity as regards gaining international experiences: They are simply not interested and do not see enough value in gaining experiences abroad, and seem to refrain from gaining experiences abroad as long as it is not a program requirement. Together with doubts on the sufficiency of one's foreign language skills (which is a major obstacle to 40% of students in this group), the feeling of already being burdened with accomplishing the regular course load, and the negative social prospects (absence from family and friends), a very low genuine prepossession and motivation to gain experiences abroad can be summarized to act as the most important obstacles to this group of students.

**Table 33:** Twelve Most Relevant Obstacles to Students in the No-Interest Group

Obstacle	<i>M (SD)</i>	% ratings scale value 4 or 5
[Negative consequences] Separation from friends and partner	3.93 (1.47)	69.3%
[Negative consequences] Separation from family and children	3.80 (1.55)	65.5%
[Lack of value] It is not a requirement in my study program, so that is why I will not do it	3.21 (1.58)	51.7%
[Lack of value] Simply no interest in going abroad in the course of my studies/ Do not see enough value in it	3.02 (1.47)	45.5%
[Apprehensions] Level of foreign language skills/ insufficiency of specific foreign language skills	3.01 (1.41)	40.1%
[Apprehensions] My course load is already so demanding that I do not find enough time to add experiences abroad	2.93 (1.58)	40.2%
[Negative consequences] Lack of grants available to students to cover expected costs	2.84 (1.58)	38.4%
[Negative consequences] Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.)	2.68 (1.53)	35.2%
[Apprehensions] I would not like to live/study/work in a foreign environment	2.67 (1.49)	31.8%
[Apprehensions] I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to do this and just go into a foreign environment	2.63 (1.46)	29.6%
[Lack of value] Expected low contribution to my professional development, profile and career prospects	2.53 (1.37)	26.1%
[Lack of value] Presumed low benefit for my studies at home / low academic benefit	2.49 (1.40)	27.6%

*Note.* Students rated an item battery with 23 different obstacles, each on a scale from 1 (*very weak relevance*) to 5 (*very high relevance*);  $n = 81$ . Item references: see Table 19 in Chapter 3.3.3.

In the interest group the most important singular obstacles (see Table 34) belong mainly to the domains negative-consequences, mismatch-programs and apprehensions. In addition, among the 12 most important obstacles, issues from the domain guidance appear.

**Table 34:** Twelve Most Relevant Obstacles to Students in the Interest Group

Obstacle	<i>M (SD)</i>	% ratings scale value 4 or 5
[Negative consequences] Lack of grants available to students to cover expected costs	3.57 (1.35)	55.9%
[Negative consequences] Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.)	3.49 (1.43)	55.4%
[Negative consequences] Separation from friends and partner	3.28 (1.45)	50.7%
[Mismatch programs] Difficulties in combining stays abroad with structure, regulations and standards in program at home / available programs are not well integrated with the study program at home	3.22 (1.31)	42.4%
[Mismatch programs] Limited offer and access to interesting programs and places to gain experience abroad	2.99 (1.27)	38.0%
[Apprehensions] I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to do this and just go into a foreign environment	2.94 (1.38)	41.1%
[Apprehensions] My course load is already so demanding that I do not find enough time to add experiences abroad	2.90 (1.42)	37.7%
[Negative consequences] Separation from family and children	2.90 (1.56)	41.2%
[Apprehensions] Level of foreign language skills/ insufficiency of specific foreign language skills	2.88 (1.40)	37.9%
[Apprehensions] Expectation that the organization is too burdensome/ Do not have enough drive to organize all this	2.81 (1.31)	32.2%
[Guidance] Not enough support for students in teacher education programs who experience specific barriers due to dense/national regulations of their programs	2.78 (1.32)	27.3%
[Guidance] Not enough individual counseling or workshops at the beginning of studies for students who are interested in going abroad to help them deal with specific barriers they might encounter (finding appropriate programs, how to finance stays, etc.)	2.77 (1.36)	37.7%

*Note.* Students rated an item battery with 23 different obstacles, each on a scale from 1 (*very weak relevance*) to 5 (*very high relevance*);  $n = 251$ . Item references: see Table 19 in Chapter 3.3.3.

As students in the no-interest group, the students with stated high interest in gaining study-related experiences abroad are concerned about the possible negative consequences of embarking on a temporary stay in a foreign country. However, while students at the no-interest stage are mainly concerned about the implied absence from friends/partner as well as from family/children, students in the interest group are concerned with a different set of potential negative consequences: “a lack of grants available to cover expected costs”, an “expected delay in progress of my studies/ due to recognition, re-integration, etc.)”, and the implied “separation from friends and partner”. These issues are experienced as obstacles by

around half of all students in this group. Students at the interest stage also encounter limitations in program offer as obstacles (issues are of high or very high importance to approximately 40% of all students): This concerns both (a) offer and access to interesting programs, and (b) offer of programs well integrated into and easily to combine with the regular degree program studied.

Particularly evident from Table 34 is that students at the interest stage are troubled with a range of doubts and insecurities: Four out of five items from the domain apprehensions appear among the 12 most important issues. Students have doubts about whether they would be able to cope abroad, including communicating and studying in a foreign language (both issues are of high/very high importance to approximately 40% in this group); and about whether they would, in the first place, find enough time and energy to organize a stay abroad in addition to their regular course load. As visible in Table 34, students in this group feel that more support should be given to “students in teacher education programs who experience specific barriers due to dense/national regulations of their programs” and that more “individual counseling or workshops [should be available] at the beginning of studies for students who are interested in going abroad to help them deal with specific barriers they might encounter (finding appropriate programs, how to finance stays, etc.)”.

In the plans group, as can be seen in Table 35, items from the domains negative-consequences and mismatch-programs continue to be of core importance. The negative consequences feared and concerns relating to program offer and integration issues are the same as for the interest group: expected graduation delays, difficulties in combining stays abroad with the study program at home, a lack of grants, limited suitable program offer and the separation from friends and partner are seen as obstacles by students (see Table 35). Of *core* concern to students in the plans group is the expected graduation delay and the difficulties of combining stays abroad with the structure, regulations and standards in the program at home. As can be seen in Table 35, these issues are important or very important obstacles for around 45-50% in the plans group.

**Table 35: Twelve Most Relevant Obstacles to Students in the Plans Group**

Obstacle	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	% ratings scale value 4 or 5
[Negative consequences] Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.)	3.33 (1.28)	49.8%
[Mismatch programs] Difficulties in combining stays abroad with structure, regulations and standards in program at home / available programs are not well integrated with the study program at home	3.26 (1.26)	46.8%
[Negative consequences] Lack of grants available to students to cover expected costs	3.14 (1.28)	41.3%
[Mismatch programs] Limited offer and access to interesting programs and places to gain experience abroad	3.11 (1.28)	43.6%
[Negative consequences] Separation from friends and partner	2.93 (1.46)	41.4%
[Apprehensions] Level of foreign language skills/ insufficiency of specific foreign language skills	2.85 (1.29)	37.1%
[Apprehensions] I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to do this and just go into a foreign environment	2.84 (1.37)	37.9%
[Guidance] Never got information on which options are available in my study program/ Got such information too late	2.77 (1.34)	32.8%
[Guidance] Difficulties to determine who is the responsible person to advise students/ too much complexity or lack of transparency on options available	2.72 (1.26)	29.7%
[Guidance] Lack of guidance and support at home institution and difficulties in getting information	2.72 (1.19)	25.3%
[Guidance] Not enough support for students in teacher education programs who experience specific barriers due to dense/national regulations of their programs	2.71 (1.24)	27.4%
[Guidance] Not enough individual counseling or workshops at the beginning of studies for students who are interested in going abroad to help them deal with specific barriers they might encounter (finding appropriate programs, how to finance stays, etc.)	2.71 (1.19)	27.6%

*Note.* Students rated an item battery with 23 different obstacles, each on a scale from 1 (*very weak relevance*) to 5 (*very high relevance*);  $n = 179$ . Item references: see Table 19 in Chapter 3.3.3.

Results also show that students who plan to go abroad experience communication-, information-, and guidance-related issues as obstacles (as visible in Table 35, all five items from the domain guidance are among the 12 most important obstacles): Approximately one fourth to one third of students in the plans group rate these issues as obstacles of high/very high relevance. Many students, for example, state that they hadn't received relevant information, or that relevant information on options available in their study program was received too late. Students also state that they miss transparency and that they, for example, have difficulties to identify responsible persons for advising them with regard to different aspects or options of TSM.

Despite the fact that in the plans group only two (out of five) obstacles from the domain apprehensions remain among the 12 most important obstacles (see Table 35), it is noteworthy that still about 40% of students in this group state that they feel insecure and challenged by the prospect to “just go into a foreign environment”; similarly, almost 40% have reservations about their resources to cope abroad in terms of foreign language skills.

For the implementation group, as mentioned previously, the interpretation of relevant obstacles has to be made with some caution, since these students stated with hindsight which obstacles were most relevant to them. A comparison of the results for the plans and the implementation group, however, supports the validity of the results for the implementation group, since the obstacles profile is highly similar for both groups with generally lower ratings of issues as obstacles among implementers, which would be a plausible assumption to make.

As Table 36 shows, a lack of grants to cover costs is considered as an obstacle by approximately 40% of all students. For about one third of all implementers the limited offer of appropriate programs, the difficulty of finding programs well integrated or easily combinable with the study program at home, and (resulting) delays in study progress constitute obstacles and problems in the implementation of TSM experiences. Students also state to have had “concerns about the quality of the education and training options available abroad” (one fifth of students rate it as an important/very important obstacle). This is the one item appearing among the 12 most important obstacles in the implementation group that is different from the plans group.

Due to the high relevance of lacking program integration and (resulting) study delays as obstacles to students, a look to results about the extent of study delays expected among those who have implemented TSM is relevant (not shown in Table 36)<sup>79</sup>: 59% of all students expect that their studies will be delayed due to the implementation of TSM. Curiously, the percentages are almost identical for students who are actually enrolled in programs in which experiences abroad are compulsory and for those who are not (60.3% and 58.5% respectively). As revealed in Chapter 5.1.2, the percentage of stays implemented lasting up to six months was 77%. The percentage of students expecting a delay of up to six months is similarly high and stands at 73.5%.

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<sup>79</sup> Item reference: C14\_4, see Appendix G;  $n = 239$  of which 63 were enrolled in programs with compulsory experiences abroad.

**Table 36: Twelve Most Relevant Obstacles to Students in the Group Implementation**

Obstacle	<i>M (SD)</i>	% ratings scale value 4 or 5
[Negative consequences] Lack of grants available to students to cover expected costs	3.03 (1.40)	39.9%
[Mismatch programs] Difficulties in combining stays abroad with structure, regulations and standards in program at home / available programs are not well integrated with the study program at home	2.89 (1.34)	36.0%
[Mismatch programs] Limited offer and access to interesting programs and places to gain experience abroad	2.82 (1.35)	33.0%
[Negative consequences] Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.)	2.80 (1.37)	33.7%
[Guidance] Never got information on which options are available in my study program/ Got such information too late	2.55 (1.35)	25.4%
[Negative consequences] Separation from friends and partner	2.51 (1.44)	19.2%
[Apprehensions] Level of foreign language skills/ insufficiency of specific foreign language skills	2.50 (1.33)	26.5%
[Guidance] Lack of guidance and support at home institution and difficulties in getting information	2.43 (1.28)	23.7%
[Guidance] Not enough individual counseling or workshops at the beginning of studies for students who are interested in going abroad to help them deal with specific barriers they might encounter (finding appropriate programs, how to finance stays, etc.)	2.39 (1.26)	21.5%
[Guidance] Difficulties to determine who is the responsible person to advise students/ too much complexity or lack of transparency on options available	2.39 (1.24)	20.9%
[Guidance] Not enough support for students in teacher education programs who experience specific barriers due to dense/national regulations of their programs	2.37 (1.31)	21.3%
[Mismatch programs] Concerns about the quality of the education and training options available abroad	2.36 (1.22)	20.3%

*Note.* Students rated an item battery with 23 different obstacles, each on a scale from 1 (*very weak relevance*) to 5 (*very high relevance*);  $n = 308$ . Item references: see Table 19 in Chapter 3.3.3.

### 5.2.3 Obstacles Impacting at the Three Thresholds Interest, Plans and Implementation in a Multivariate Perspective

This chapter presents the results regarding the detailed Research Question #2\_3: In a multivariate analysis at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation, which issues (variables) have a significant influence on the likelihood of belonging to the higher status group of students at each threshold? Binary logistic regressions were conducted at the three thresholds (all relevant details concerning method, preceding analyses and model specifications, and full variable references were presented in Chapter 3, see specifically Chapter 3.3.3). Briefly repeated, at each threshold two control variables (institutional affiliation in comparison to affiliation to an institution with average TSM levels; and whether

students studied foreign languages) were entered as predictors in Block 1; further 23 variables assessed by students in terms of their role as obstacles to them were entered in Block 2. Table 37 displays the final BLR results for each threshold, listing level of significance, the sign of *beta coefficients* ( $B$ , indicating the direction of influence<sup>80</sup>), and *odds ratios* ( $\text{Exp}(B)$ , indicating the impact of the influence<sup>81</sup>). For each threshold, Table 37 also displays the results of the Hosmer-Lemeshow test (indicating goodness of fit) and Naglekerke's Pseudo  $R^2$  (indicating explained variance<sup>82</sup>). Overall, models are well fitted at each threshold and explain an acceptable to good amount of variance. Assumptions on the direction of influences, if revealed as significant predictors, were summarized in Chapter 2.5.5.2 and will be referred to below when reporting results. Results for the control variables institution and FL—non-FL will be referred to in detail in this section only as far as insightful links with the variables of primary interest (obstacles) were observed<sup>83</sup>. Regarding the multivariate role of the variables institution and FL—non-FL, results in the subsequent chapter are more relevant (since in the models reported there, they were entered together with other study-related and sociodemographic variables).

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<sup>80</sup> Beta coefficients (through their positive or negative sign) allow assessing whether the effect of a variable is positive or negative (raising or lowering the odds of being in the category of interest, i.e., the higher status group).

<sup>81</sup> Odds ratios allow determining the size of effects: They are interpreted as the „predicted change in odds when there is an increase of one unit in the independent variable“ (Acton et al. (2009, p. 267)), whereby odds ratios smaller than 1 represent a decrease while odds ratios above 1 represent an increase of the odds to be in the higher status group.

<sup>82</sup> Following Backhaus et al. (2011) values  $> .2$  are seen as acceptable,  $> .5$  as very good.

<sup>83</sup> Note that case numbers for institutions at certain thresholds are relatively low (this concerns in particular: Institution 2 and 6 at the threshold interest; Institution 6 at the threshold plans; and Institution 4, 5, and 6 at the threshold implementation; see in detail Table I4 to Table I12). Low case numbers and potentially unrobust results are taken into account in the interpretations.

**Table 37: Results of Binary Logistic Regressions at Three Thresholds (Obstacles Item Battery)**

Predictors	Threshold interest <sup>b</sup>		Threshold plans <sup>b</sup>		Threshold impl. <sup>b</sup>	
	<i>B<sup>a</sup></i>	Exp( <i>B</i> )	<i>B<sup>a</sup></i>	Exp( <i>B</i> )	<i>B<sup>a</sup></i>	Exp( <i>B</i> )
<b><i>Sociodemographic variables and study-related data (block 1/enter)</i></b>						
Institution (ref. cat.: Institution 1 = average European TSM level)						
Institution 2 (> EU average)	+	6.70E+08	+	<b>2.60*</b>	+	1.71
Institution 3 (> EU average)	+	<b>2.35*</b>	-	.88	+	1.55
Institution 4 (slightly > EU average)	+	1.91	+	1.13	-	.76
Institution 5 (< EU average)	+	1.06	+	1.04	-	.59
Institution 6 (< EU average)	+	<b>4.52**</b>	-	.50	-	.69
Not studying FL (ref. cat.: Studying FL)	-	.56	-	<b>.49**</b>	-	.65
<b><i>Obstacles Item Battery (block 2/stepwise forward)<sup>c</sup></i></b>						
Simply no interest in going abroad/ Don't see enough value in it	-	<b>.56**</b>			-	<b>.67**</b>
Separation from family and children	-	<b>.74**</b>				
Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.)	+	<b>1.55**</b>				
Never got information on which options are available in my study program/Got such information too late	+	<b>1.37*</b>				
It's not a requirement in my program so that's why I won't do it			-	<b>.69**</b>		
Lack of grants available to students to cover expected costs			-	<b>.78**</b>		
Level of foreign language skills/insufficiency of specific foreign language skills			+	<b>1.25*</b>		
I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to just go into a foreign environment					-	<b>.72**</b>
English is my major foreign language but the offer in English-speaking countries is too limited			+	<b>1.30**</b>	-	<b>.78**</b>
<i>n</i>		311		376		373
Pseudo <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup> (Naglekerke)		.365		.211		.204
Hosmer-Lemeshow $\chi^2$ (8), p (goodness of fit)		4.56, .803		8.39, .397		7.69, .464

Note. Ref. cat. = reference category. For full statistical results see Table I4 to Table I12. Item references: see Table 19 in Chapter 3.3.3.

<sup>a</sup>Only direction of influence is indicated (for *B*-coefficients see Table I6, Table I9, and Table I12. <sup>b</sup>Dependent variables encoding: threshold interest: no-interest group = 0, interest group = 1; threshold plans: interest group = 0, plans group = 1; threshold implementation: plans group = 0, implementation group = 1. <sup>c</sup>Out of 23 obstacles, only those which performed a significant influence in any of the models at the three thresholds are listed in the table.

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

Looking to the results in Table 37, we see that 4 out of 23 variables—issues that students assessed in terms of their role as obstacles to TSM for them—pertain a significant,

independent influence at the interest threshold. The effects of these four variables are visible in addition to any influences of the variables institution (institutional affiliation in comparison to affiliation with an institution of the sample having average TSM levels) and FL—non-FL which were included as control variables in the model. These four issues are thus revealed as differentiating variables from a multivariate perspective. Higher ratings as relevant obstacles to students of these issues were shown to either decrease or increase the likelihood (odds) that students were in the interest group (the higher status group at this threshold). The relevance of these specific obstacles can thus be seen as indicative of the no-interest (in case of a negative influence) or the interest group (in case of a positive influence) in a multivariate perspective.

Table 37 shows that two significant variables are (both as expected) negatively associated with TSM interest (they decrease the odds of being a member of the status group interest). First, this is whether students attribute value to gaining study-related experiences abroad. The more they state a lack of benefits seen to be a reason for not wanting to go abroad, the less likely they are to be in the interest group. Second, this is whether students see separation from family and children as a problem. The more students rate this negative consequence as an obstacle, the lower are their odds of being interested in gaining TSM.

The other two significant variables (out of the 23 issues that students assessed in terms of their role as obstacles) are positively associated with TSM interest (see Table 37). First, this is the extent to which students experience an expected delay in the progress of their studies as an obstacle. Higher ratings on this item increase the odds that students belong to the interest group. This is contrary to the hypothesis that all items from the domain negative-consequences would have a negative influence at all thresholds. That a higher concern is positively associated with TSM interest is, however, also plausible: While delays in study progress are also a relevant obstacle to many students in the no-interest group, other factors seem to be more important as obstacles at this stage (such as value-related issues). By comparison, for students interested in gaining TSM, expected study delays might be more of a directly conflicting issue and thus an obstacle indicating that students have passed the interest threshold. This explanation is supported by results of the previous chapter. The second predictor increasing the odds of being in the interest group is the extent to which students experience not having received information on possible options (or having received such information too late) as an obstacle. The positive influence of this variable is in line with expectations—information- and guidance-related obstacles were expected to perform a positive influence at this stage (since actually experiencing information- and guidance-related

issues as an obstacle was hypothesized to be indicative of having passed the interest threshold).

In final multivariate model results (after entering 23 variables in Block 2), as visible in Table 37, the control variable FL—non-FL is not revealed as a significant predictor (see footnote<sup>84</sup> for results concerning institutional affiliation). The variable FL—non-FL was significant (not studying FL decreased the odds of having crossed the first TSM threshold) when entered in Block 1 together with the variable institution (not shown in Table 37). However, once the item from the domain lack-of-value (students stating it as a relevant obstacle for them that they “simply” have no interest and do not see enough value in gaining experiences abroad) was added to the model in Block 2, the effect of the variable FL—non-FL disappeared. This means that not studying to become a teacher in foreign languages indeed correlates with having no interest and intentions to gain study-related experiences abroad<sup>85</sup>; but, what better explains why (both FL and non-FL) students often do not cross the first threshold in the TSM process (interest and intentions) is the lack of being drawn towards it due to a lack of value and benefits seen.

As can be seen in Table 37, at the plans threshold<sup>86</sup> 4 out of 23 issues that were assessed by students in terms of their role as obstacles are revealed as significantly influencing the odds of planning TSM (as opposed to “merely” showing intentions, that is, being a member of the interest group).

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<sup>84</sup> Regarding institutional affiliation we see that being enrolled at Institution 3 and Institution 6 (as compared to the reference category Institution 1 with an estimated TSM level corresponding to European averages) increases the odds of belonging to the student group interest (see Table 37). For Institution 3 the TSM level was estimated to be above European averages (Institution 2, which has an even higher TSM level than Institution 3, does not become significant; this could be due to the very low number of cases in the no-interest group at this institution, which also explains the high  $\text{Exp}(B)$  value; at the plans threshold, studying at Institution 2 significantly increases the likelihood to be in the plans group in comparison to the reference category). A positive effect of institutions with above-average TSM levels would generally be plausible. Institution 6, however, has a TSM level below European averages so that the positive effect of being enrolled at this institution is somewhat surprising. Due to very low case numbers in the smaller group at this threshold, however, the result is most probably not very reliable and therefore not interpreted further.

<sup>85</sup> The contingency coefficient between the two nominal variables FL—non-FL and group no-interest—interest is .146 ( $n = 392, p = .003$ )

<sup>86</sup> Examining results for the control variables, we see that studying at Institution 2, which has a TSM level above European averages, increases the odds of planning TSM (as compared to the reference category: Institution 1 which has an average TSM level). In addition, the variable FL—non-FL pertains a significant influence: Not studying FL significantly decreases the odds of being in the plans group. Both the institutional affiliation and the FL—non-FL predictor became significant when they were entered in the first block (not shown in Table 37) and remained significant in the final model (as shown in Table 37).

Two variables differentiating at the plans threshold (in both cases as expected) are negatively associated with already having (definite) TSM plans (see Table 37). First, this is a value-related item: The more students agree with the item “It’s not a requirement in my program so that’s why I won’t do it” the less likely they are to have crossed the plans threshold (in statistical terms: the lower are their odds to be in the plans group). Another significant issue decreasing the odds of having crossed the plans threshold is when an expected lack of grants to cover costs is seen as an obstacle by students.

Two further variables perform a positive influence, when rated higher as an obstacle and are thus indicative of having crossed the plans threshold: Looking to the variables with positive beta coefficients in Table 37, we see that both are language-related concerns. First, relating to the domain apprehensions, these are concerns about the sufficiency of foreign language skills; and second, relating to the domain mismatch-programs, these are concerns about limited program offer in English-speaking countries when English is the major foreign language of students. While the concern with concrete program options (here: English-language programs) was expected to perform a positive influence at this threshold, the concern with foreign language skills itself (an issue from the obstacle domain apprehensions) was expected to be negatively associated with planning TSM (higher concerns with foreign language skills were expected to rather prevent students from moving to the planning stages; the obstacle was expected to be “overcome” among students in the plans group). However, results showed that foreign-language related concerns are of approximately the same absolute relevance in the interest and the plans group (around 40% of students rated it as an important or very important obstacle, as reported in the previous chapter). In a multivariate perspective, the concern with the sufficiency of one’s foreign language skills is indeed indicative of having crossed the plans threshold.

At the implementation threshold<sup>87</sup>, 3 out of 23 issues that students assessed in terms of their role as obstacles to them became significant in the final multivariate model. These three variables relate to the domains lack-of-value, apprehensions, and mismatch-programs. As shown in Table 37, all of them exert a negative influence (i.e., higher ratings decrease the odds of having implemented TSM). The direction of influence (negative beta coefficients) is as expected (any higher ratings of issues as obstacles were expected to be of negative impact

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<sup>87</sup> Reading the results pertaining to the implementation threshold it should be borne in mind that students in the implementation group assessed obstacles with hindsight.

at the implementation threshold). Students are less likely to have implemented study-related experiences abroad the more they agree to the potential obstacle “I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to do this and just go into a foreign environment”. As reported in the previous chapter, approximately 40% of students in the plans group rated this item as an important or very important obstacle. For the value-related item “simply no interest/don’t see enough value” the following can be observed: Although in absolute terms (see previous chapter) both the plans group and the implementation group are convinced of the positive value of gaining experiences abroad, the multivariate analysis reveals a differentiating influence of the strength of convictions at the implementation threshold (see Table 37). The third significant variable (also decreasing the odds to be in the implementation group, as visible in Table 37) is when students rated it as an obstacle that English is their major foreign language while the offer in English-speaking countries is limited.

Effects of the two control variables<sup>88</sup> became insignificant once the first two obstacles were entered—students fearing the challenge to “just go into a foreign environment” and students not seeing enough value in gaining experiences abroad. As at the first threshold, this means that these value- and apprehensions-related variables are relevant *underlying* dimensions determining the likelihood that students have crossed the implementation threshold.

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<sup>88</sup> As Table 37 shows, none of the control variables (institutional affiliation, FL—non-FL) is significant in the final model at the implementation threshold. The effect (not shown in Table 37) of studying at Institution 2 (an institution with a TSM level above European averages) in comparison to studying at Institution 1 which has a TSM level corresponding to European averages was significant in Block 1 (positive beta coefficient); as was not studying a foreign language (with a negative beta coefficient).

### **5.3 The Role of Student’s Background, Study Environments, Professional Relevance and Student Knowledge on Temporary Study-Related Mobility at Three Thresholds**

A second approach to answering detailed Research Question #2\_3 relies on a set of dimensions identified as relevant in Chapter 2.4.6: The dimensions (a) role of students’ study environment, (b) professional value associated to gaining international experiences, (c) knowledge and awareness, and (d) sociodemographic characteristics and study-related data are combined to characterize the different status groups. Before presenting the results of the binary logistic regressions conducted at each of the three thresholds to determine which variables significantly differentiated between two status groups at each threshold in a multivariate perspective, Table 38 presents the descriptive results for this line of inquiry listing means and percentages, differentiated according to the four status groups. Trends across and differences observable between the four status groups are outlined below (whereby, if relevant—for example, when differences tend to be small—it is indicated whether differences are significant<sup>89</sup>).

Table 38 shows that the percentage of students who do not study a foreign language is high in the group no-interest (85%) and becomes lower in each “subsequent” status group of students. In the implementation group the percentage of non-FL students is approximately 40%.

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<sup>89</sup> Complete results of significance testing, which was also part of the preliminary analyses (see Chapter 3.3), are in derogation from the general proceeding in this study not reported since they are not the main focus in this part of the chapter.

**Table 38: Descriptive Results for Variables in Third Line of Inquiry**

Variable <sup>a</sup>	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> ) (metric variables) or % (categorical var.)			
	No-interest	Interest	Plans	Impl.
<b>Sociodemographic variables and study-related data</b>				
(Not) studying foreign languages (% <i>Not studying FL</i> )	86.9%	72.4%	54.4%	38.5%
Study year in teacher education program	2.65 (1.54)	2.56 (1.46)	2.11 (1.13)	3.85 (1.66)
Age	27.22 (7.41)	25.72 (6.20)	23.55 (3.62)	25.84 (4.26)
Academic achievements (1-3) <sup>b</sup>	2.26 (.60)	2.25 (.53)	2.23 (.52)	2.41 (.54)
Educational background parents (1-7) <sup>c</sup>	4.19 (1.91)	4.24 (1.87)	4.69 (1.79)	4.67 (1.88)
Income status family (1-5) <sup>d</sup>	3.22 (.90)	3.08 (.89)	3.28 (.80)	3.14 (.89)
Children (% <i>Yes</i> )	19.2%	11.4%	2.8%	5.2%
Gender (% <i>Female</i> )	78.8%	80.8%	79.4%	79.3%
Int'l (migration) background family) (% <i>Int'l background</i> ) <sup>e</sup>	8.1%	8.5%	8.3%	6.6%
Languages spoken at proficient level (1-4) <sup>f</sup>	2.11 (0.64)	2.42 (0.73)	2.48 (0.77)	2.70 (0.75)
Previous international experience (1-5) <sup>g</sup>	2.82 (1.30)	2.97 (1.32)	3.39 (1.25)	4.29 (0.96)
<b>Study environment</b>				
Institutional environment at large driver in “attention to int'l dimensions in my studies and to gaining experiences abroad” (scale range: 1-5) <sup>h</sup>	2.12 (1.10)	2.45 (1.18)	2.77 (1.12)	2.97 (1.15)
Fellow students and friends driver ... (1-5) <sup>h</sup>	2.27 (1.24)	2.82 (1.28)	3.16 (1.22)	3.36 (1.18)
Lecturers and courses driver ... (1-5) <sup>h</sup>	2.16 (1.11)	2.26 (1.20)	2.52 (1.27)	2.92 (1.23)
Int'l literature, examples or references in courses (1-5) <sup>h</sup>	2.79 (1.35)	2.74 (1.27)	3.17 (1.38)	3.56 (1.19)
Int'l dimensions and learning in study program “at ease” (1-5) <sup>h</sup>	2.39 (1.18)	2.48 (1.03)	2.71 (1.00)	3.13 (1.17)
<b>Recognition of professional relevance</b>				
Int'l experience and competence important for future professional life (1-5) <sup>h</sup>	3.01 (1.10)	3.58 (1.10)	3.96 (1.00)	4.31 (0.88)
<b>Knowledge and awareness on options for gaining experiences abroad</b>				
Received information on options from institution (% <i>Yes</i> )	59.8%	64.8%	73.9%	80.9%
Know where to get information at home institution (% <i>Yes</i> )	74.7%	84.2%	87.8%	95.2%
Know several supporting programs, agencies, etc. (% <i>Yes</i> )	30.6%	47.3%	62.2%	75.8%

*Note.* Impl = implementation; Var = variables; Int'l = international; FL = foreign languages. *n* = 897. For full variable references see Table 20 in Chapter 3.3.3.4.

<sup>a</sup>Indicated in brackets: Scale range (for metric variables) and category for which percentages are reported (for categorical variables). <sup>b</sup>Scale range from 1 (*lower third of my year*) to 3 (*upper third of my year*). <sup>c</sup>Scale range from 1 (*lowest educational background*, i.e., both parents maximum compulsory/lower secondary education and no vocational training) to 7 (*highest educational level*, i.e., both parents have higher education degree). <sup>d</sup>Scale range from 1 (*considerably below country average*) to 5 (*considerably above country average*). <sup>e</sup>Student or at least one parent born abroad (excluding individual migration after high school completion). <sup>f</sup>Number of languages (including native language) spoken at proficient level (i.e., at least marked as *confident in everyday writing and conversation*); students gave proficiency levels for max. four languages. <sup>g</sup>Months spent abroad since age 15; scale ranged from 1 (*very low international experience*, i.e., spent less than a month) to 5 (*very high international experience*, i.e., spent more than 12 months abroad). <sup>h</sup>Scale range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Regarding length of enrollment in the TE degree program (study year) and students' age, the data in Table 38 shows the following pattern: Students in the no-interest group have a relatively high study year and age. Standard deviations are relatively high, indicating a certain diversity in this group. Study year and age decrease in the groups interest (differences between the no-interest group and the interest group are not significant) and plans. Results imply that in the no-interest group we find those students who enter the institution with very weak or no intentions to gain experiences abroad and who have, during the time of their enrollment and as they grow older, not changed their orientation in this respect (thus, we see relatively high standard deviations). In the last status group (implementation) study year and age increase again. The increase in age and study year at the implementation threshold is plausible since the implementation of a study-related stay abroad requires a certain time.

Table 38 shows that students in the no-interest, interest, and plans group do not substantially differ in terms of (self-rated) academic achievements. Table 38 also shows that there is also relatively little variation across the different status groups as regards educational background of parents (differences are significant only between the interest and the plans group). Overall, results indicate that students in TE degree programs often come from families with medium-range educational background. In the total sample, approximately 6.7% of students come from the lowest educational background and thus from families where both parents have completed only compulsory/lower secondary education and no vocational training; 23.1% come from families with the highest educational background and thus from families where both parents have completed a higher education degree (data not shown in Table 38). A look to the financial background of students in Table 38 reveals no upward or downward trend across the four status groups (differences between any of the groups are not significant). Most students state to come from families with an income very close to country averages.

Across the total sample, 8.8% of all students have children (not shown in Table 38). As we can see in in Table 38, the percentage of students with children is highest in the no-interest group (around 20%), decreases in the interest group, and is lowest in the plans group and the implementation group (around 3-5%). Around 80% of all students in the sample are female. This percentage remains stable across all four status groups (see in Table 38). Furthermore, around 8% of all students in the sample have a migration/international background (student born abroad or at least one parent born abroad; data not shown in Table

38). As can be seen in Table 38, this percentage is approximately the same across all four status groups of students (differences between the groups are not significant).

Regarding languages spoken and previous international experiences, a steady upward trend can be observed across the status groups.

As data in Table 38 shows, students in the interest group and the plans group speak more languages at a proficient level than students in the no-interest group. Students in the implementation group have the highest proficiency in languages. Across the groups who have not (yet) been abroad (data not shown in Table 38), around 5% of all students speak no foreign languages at a proficient level (which was defined as being at least “confident in everyday writing and conversation”). Further 41% speak only one foreign language at a proficient level. Previous international experiences as defined in this study included not only academic or work-related experiences (e.g., pupil exchanges) but also travel since age 15. As shown in Table 38, those who have already implemented a study-related stay abroad during their higher education studies yield the highest values on this measure, followed by the plans group. Students in the no-interest group and the interest group have less previous international experiences (between these two groups differences are not significant). Across all three groups who have not yet implemented a study-related stay abroad during their higher education studies (percentages not shown in Table 38), around 10% have less than one month previous international experience since age 15 (lowest category), and around 20% already have more than 12 months previous international experiences since age 15 (highest category).

Examining results for variables relating to teacher education students’ study environment in Table 38, two things can be observed: First, and this has already been observed in Investigation Strand 1, most means are below the scale midpoint, indicating a study environment for students that is relatively weakly framed through international dimensions and that different constituencies (the institution at large, lecturers and courses, and fellow students and friends) are not experienced as strong drivers. Second, nevertheless, a slight upward trend across the four status groups of students with significant increases at certain (though not all) thresholds for these five variables can be observed.

Regarding the professional relevance that students associate to “gaining international competences and first-hand international experience”, data in Table 38 shows that students in the no-interest group do not see a clear professional value while students in the interest, the

plans and the implementation group do associate a certain professional relevance with international competences and experiences. A steady upward trend can be observed for the professional relevance seen across the different status groups.

A final dimension of interest was students' knowledge and awareness of different options, opportunities and support to gain experiences abroad at their institution. For all three items included, we can observe an upward trend across the four status groups in Table 38, that is, increasing knowledge and awareness (with significant increases in all three variables, though not at every single threshold). It is noteworthy that between 20 and 40% of all students in the sample (depending on the status group, as visible in Table 38) state that they have not received any information from their department, school, or institution on the options available to them. This is despite the fact that institutions indicated to distribute information at the beginning of studies to all students. Students in the no-interest group, unsurprisingly perhaps, have the lowest level of knowledge on where to get information on options to gain experiences abroad at their institution while students in the implementation group have the highest knowledge level. It is noteworthy that around 15% of students who show interest or even state to plan gaining experiences abroad also state that they do not even know where to get information at their institution. Of the three items included in the dimension knowledge and awareness, the largest percentage increases across the four status groups can be observed for students' knowledge of "concrete programs, schemes or agencies that offer opportunities and/or funds to gain experiences abroad": While only 30% in the no-interest group know several options, this value increases to 75% in the implementation group. More than 50% of all students in the interest group and around 40% in the plans group have only little knowledge on concrete programs, schemes or agencies that could support their interest to gain study-related experiences abroad.

In a second and final step in this third line of inquiry in Investigation Strand 1, data was subjected to binary logistic regression at each of the three thresholds. All relevant details concerning method, preceding analyses, model specifications, and full variable references were presented in Chapter 3 (see specifically Chapter 3.3.3). Briefly repeated, in Block 1 study-related data and sociodemographic variables were added and remained in the model throughout the analysis<sup>90</sup>; in Block 2, variables relating to the dimensions students' study

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<sup>90</sup> At the implementation threshold, only six study-related and sociodemographic variables were entered into the model (previous international experiences and language background were excluded due to the direct influences of having been abroad on these two variables).

environment, recognition of professional value of gaining international competences and experiences, and to knowledge and awareness were entered in order to determine the variables with an additional significant impact on the likelihood of students belonging to the higher status group at each threshold.

Table 39 displays the final BLR results for each threshold<sup>91</sup>. Results indicate a good fit of the model at each threshold. The amount of variance explained is acceptable to very good at the different thresholds. At each threshold, adding Block 2 variables did not change the interim model results of Block 1: None of the significant variables of Block 1 became insignificant, nor did Block 1 variables become significant only after adding Block 2 variables (all detailed results are reported in Appendix I). With only few exceptions, the direction of influences is in line with previously formulated expectations (cf. Chapter 2.5.5.3). Cases where the direction of influence of significant predictors is contrary to expectations will be noted below.

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<sup>91</sup> Note that case numbers for institutions at certain thresholds are relatively low (this concerns in particular: Institution 2, 5, and 6 at the threshold interest; Institution 6 at the threshold plans; and Institution 4, 5, and 6 at the threshold implementation; see in detail Table I4 to Table I12). Low case numbers and potentially unrobust results are taken into account in the interpretations.

**Table 39:** Results of Binary Logistic Regressions at Three Thresholds (Sociodemographic and Study-Related Data, Study Environment, Professional Value, Knowledge and Awareness)

Predictors	$B^a$	Exp( $B$ )	$B^a$	Exp( $B$ )	$B^a$	Exp( $B$ )
	Threshold interest <sup>b</sup>		Threshold plans <sup>b</sup>		Threshold impl. <sup>b</sup>	
<b><i>Sociodemographic variables and study-related data (block 1/enter)</i></b>						
Institution (ref. cat.: Institution 1 = average European TSM level)						
Institution 2 (> EU average)	+	4.79E+08	+	<b>3.97**</b>	-	.76
Institution 3 (> EU average)	+	1.74	-	.65	+	1.65
Institution 4 (slightly > EU average)	+	1.12	-	.71	+	1.07
Institution 5 (< EU average)	-	.67	+	1.03	-	.83
Institution 6 (< EU average)	+	1.40	-	.97	-	.70
Not studying FL (ref. cat.: Studying FL)	-	.87	-	.75	-	<b>.40**</b>
Study year in teacher education program	-	.81	-	<b>.76*</b>	+	<b>2.62**</b>
Age	-	.97	-	<b>.86**</b>	+	<b>1.21**</b>
Educational background parents	+	1.01	+	1.05	+	1.06
Having children (ref. cat.: <i>Not having children</i> )	-	.74	-	.24	-	.97
Languages spoken at proficient level	+	<b>2.41**</b>	-	.78	Not included	
Previous international experience	+	1.11	+	<b>1.47**</b>	Not included	
<b><i>Study environment, recognition of professional relevance, knowledge and awareness on options for gaining experiences abroad (block 2/stepwise forward)<sup>c</sup></i></b>						
Institutional environment at large driver						
Fellow students and friends driver	+	<b>1.41*</b>				
Lecturers and courses driver						
Int'l literature, examples or references in courses						
Int'l learning in study program "at ease"						
Int'l experience and competence important for future professional life	+	<b>1.37*</b>			+	<b>1.42*</b>
Received information on options from institution (ref. cat.: <i>No</i> )						
Know where to get information at home institution (ref. cat.: <i>No</i> )					+	<b>4.89*</b>
Know several supporting programs, agencies, etc. (ref. cat.: <i>No</i> )	+	<b>2.30*</b>	+	<b>2.25**</b>		
<i>n</i>	309		384		341	
Pseudo $R^2$ (Naglekerke)	.256		.290		.513	
Hosmer-Lemeshow $\chi^2$ (8), p (goodness of fit)	5.83, .666		9.15, .330		5.35, .720	

Note. Int'l = international; Ref. cat. = reference category. For full statistical results see Table I13 to Table I21. Item references: see Table 20 in Chapter 3.3.3.

<sup>a</sup>Only direction of influence is indicated (for  $B$ -coefficients see Table I15, Table I18, and Table I21. <sup>b</sup>Dependent variables encoding: threshold interest: no-interest group = 0, interest group = 1; threshold plans: interest group = 0, plans group = 1; threshold implementation: plans group = 0, implementation group = 1. <sup>c</sup>Only variables which performed a significant influence in any of the models at the three thresholds are listed in the table.

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

As shown in Table 39, at the interest threshold, out of the eight study-related and sociodemographic variables entered into the model in Block 1, the variable relating to languages spoken at proficient level became significant: The more languages students speak at a proficient level, the more likely they are to have stated a high interest in gaining experiences abroad. The positive direction of influence is as expected. This effect of proficiency in foreign languages is observed in addition to and independently of the (non-significant) influence of whether students study a foreign language or not. From the variables entered in Block 2, three were added to the final model (all of them being positively associated with TSM interest, as expected): In the multivariate model, the variables that significantly increased the likelihood to have stated high interest in TSM (as opposed to having stated no interest and intentions to gain study-related experiences abroad) are (1) the extent to which students experience fellow students and friends as drivers, (2) the extent to which they associate professional relevance to gaining international competences and first-hand international experiences, and (3) whether they know several programs, schemes, or agencies that support gaining study-related experiences abroad.

As shown in Table 39, four out of the eight study-related and sociodemographic variables became significant at the plans threshold: Compared to Institution 1 (which has a TSM level corresponding to European averages), studying at Institution 2 significantly increases the odds of being in the plans group. This can be seen as plausible since Institution 2 also has an estimated above-average eventual TSM level. Furthermore, having more previous international experiences significantly increases the odds of already having (concrete) plans for TSM (as opposed to “still” being a member of the interest group). This “driving” (positive) influence is as expected. Higher age and study year are negatively associated to being in the plans group. This negative influence is contrary to expectations: a positive influence was expected on the basis of the assumption that with increasing age and study year student interest would—supported through institutional services and offers—be molded into plans and eventually into implementation. Results, however, show that such a development cannot be observed. Of the variables entered in Block 2 (study environment, professional relevance, knowledge and awareness) only one further variable was added to the model: As shown in Table 39, student knowledge of “several programs, schemes or agencies that support gaining study-related experiences abroad” significantly increases the odds of already having (concrete) plans for implementing TSM.

The FL—non-FL variable did not emerge as a significant predictor at the interest and plans threshold but does so at the implementation threshold: Table 39 indicates that not studying foreign languages significantly decreases the odds of having implemented TSM. This is in line with the expectation that not studying languages, if revealed as a significant predictor at any threshold, would perform a negative influence. Furthermore, higher study year and higher age increase the odds of having implemented TSM. The positive impact of these variables is also as expected at this threshold. As shown in Table 39, two further variables entered in Block 2 significantly and positively influence the odds of having implemented TSM: The extent to which students associate professional relevance to gaining international competences and first-hand international experiences, and student knowledge on where to get information on options to gain experiences abroad at their institution. For both variables the direction of influence is as expected—professional relevance seen and having knowledge where to receive information at one’s home institution were expected to be positively associated to TSM implementation.

Taking a global look at the results presented in Table 39, it can be noted that variables from the dimension study environment do not play an important role in multivariate models. Given the theoretical importance of this dimension for building student interest in gaining temporary study-related experiences and for sustaining student motivation to eventually implement TSM, this can be seen as surprising. However, previously reported results showed that international dimensions in students’ study environment are generally weak, as is the extent to which students experience the role of institutional environments at large and of lecturers and courses as drivers. Although differences were observed (increases from status group no-interest to implementation) on these variables across the four status group, the general non-existence of internationally coined study environments in teacher education might be a reason why these variables also play a limited role in multivariate models.

Two sociodemographic variables were also revealed as not performing a significant independent effect at any threshold: Whether students have children, and their parents’ educational background. As for educational background, descriptive results already showed that variations across the groups in this sample of teacher education students were relatively little. The result does not contradict previous research in which educational background of parents was shown to influence TSM plans or implementation: First, even if not significant, the found positive beta coefficients are in line with the results of previous research (see Chapter 2.5.2.3). Second, it could be the case that students in teacher education are a

relatively homogeneous group so that socio-economic background no longer performs a significant influence. Furthermore, educational background of parents is, as institutionalized cultural capital, known to mediate experiences (such as previous international experiences; foreign language skills; see Chapter 2.5.2.3) which themselves influence TSM participation. The inclusion of such variables in multivariate models could therefore also be a reason why the variable educational background itself remains insignificant. Having children, although beta coefficients are negative at all thresholds (and thus in line with negative influence of having children shown in previous research, see Chapter 2.5.2.3), also does not perform an independent significant effect at any threshold. Other variables included in the model were more important determinants of whether students showed TSM interest, had plans or had already implemented TSM.

## **5.4 Summary Results Investigation Strand 2**

In this chapter, results from the three lines of inquiry of Investigation Strand 2 are condensed into key results before in the final chapter (Chapter 6) results of the three lines of inquiry will be integrated, theoretically reflected, and contextualized and interpreted within the results gained in Investigation Strand 1.

The size of the student group with no stated interest in gaining any forms of temporary study-related mobility was estimated to amount to up to 40-50%. Given this size, it is the single largest group among the four differentiated in this study (no-interest, interest, plans, implementation). They are students with an evidently low inclination to (ever) embark on study-related experiences abroad: Not only did these students state to have no interest and intentions to embark on classical study-abroad programs. They also stated to have no interest in any lower-threshold program forms such as study visits, faculty-led excursions, summer schools, or language courses abroad. The estimated average (across surveyed institutions) of graduates having gained study-related experiences abroad was 15-20% (this TSM level broadly corresponds to estimated average TSM levels in teacher education across Europe; see Chapter 2.5.1.2). The size of the student group who show interest in TSM (but who are also likely to not have gained international experiences upon graduation) was estimated to amount to roughly 35-40%, thus constituting a relatively large group. These estimations indicate two things: (1) a relatively large group of TE students exists who display a very low or no inclination to gaining international experiences during their time as students at higher education institutions; and (2) in addition, a relatively large potential *mobility reserve* (Orr,

2012) exists, comprised of students who are basically open and interested in gaining TSM but met with a range of obstacles. The results generally underline the relevance and urgency to investigate obstacles to TSM in teacher education degree programs.

Three lines of inquiry helped to identify relevant obstacles to gaining temporary study-related experiences abroad (cf. Research Question #2). The first area of potential obstacles investigated was an assumed mismatch between the TSM program forms students find most interesting (a particular relevance of practice-oriented and of shorter program forms was expected) and the program forms offered at institutions.

The hypothesis of a high(er) relevance of practice-oriented forms of TSM among students in teacher education degree programs was confirmed by the results but can also be concretized: Practically-oriented forms of TSM which are related to students' professionally oriented degree program and to their future professional field (such as school practice abroad, thematic study visits) are ways to gain experiences abroad that appear as most relevant and purposeful to students in TE degree programs (while general practical experiences without such a professional framing have a low relevance). In all status groups of students such profession-based practice-oriented TSM forms have a higher relevance than "pure" academic programs.

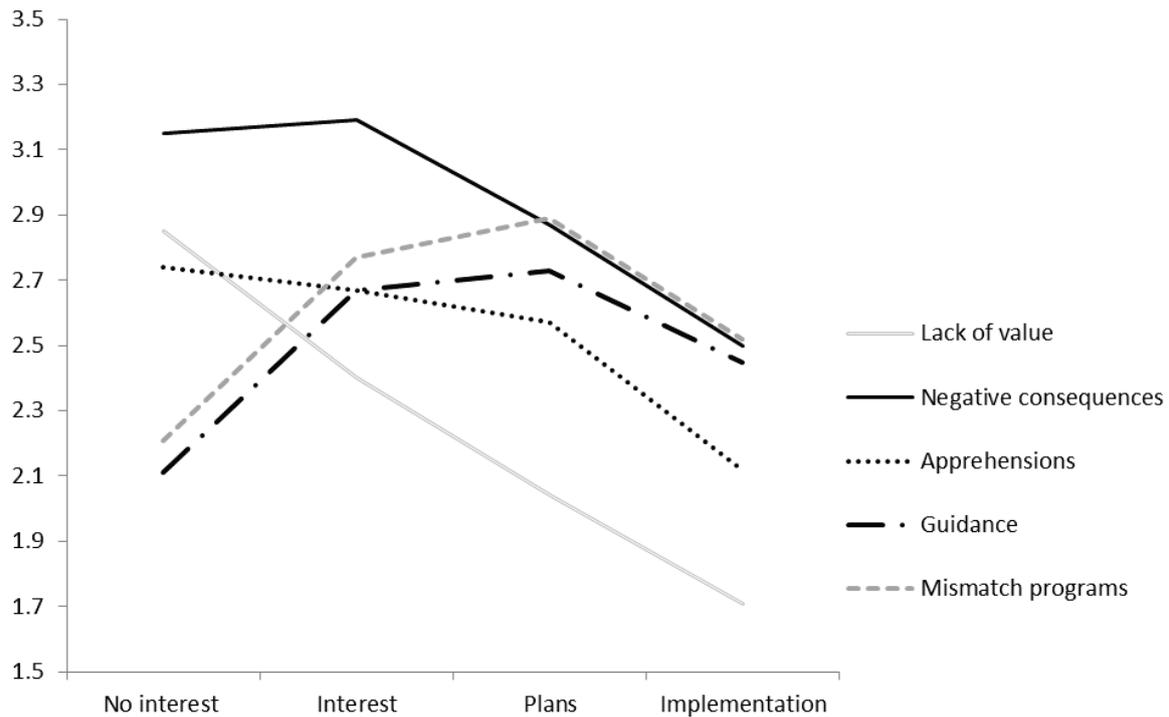
Concerning the second hypothesis—a high(er) relevance of shorter program forms (less than three months) as opposed to longer program forms (more than three months)—results confirmed a high relevance of shorter study-related experiences abroad, both in terms of students' general preferences and in terms of factual implementation. Implementation data, for example, showed that around 50% of implemented stays abroad among TE students in the sample fell outside the classical European 3 to 12-months period which has traditionally seen largest program support (e.g., in Erasmus where the minimum funding period has only recently been reduced to two months); substantial amounts also fell below the 2-months threshold. A higher relevance of shorter program forms is confirmed only for students in the interest group.

The third hypothesis was to find discrepancies between student demand profiles on the one side and factual implementation (implementation profiles) and institutional offer on the other side. Results confirm this hypothesis. Particularly pronounced discrepancies were revealed for study abroad (not the most important in demand profiles but by far most often

implemented) and for shorter practice-oriented stays abroad (important in demand profiles but not very frequently implemented). Profession-based internships (teaching and school practice abroad) were found to resume an important place both in the demand profiles of all three status groups and as regards implementation. However, despite the uniform high relevance of profession-based internships, these were found to be implemented less frequently than study abroad. Institutional offers—which were found to be in non-correspondence with student demands—can explain shifts that were revealed between demand and implementation profiles among students. As was hypothesized, institutional offer was found to be first and foremost coined by classical study abroad. Practice-oriented forms of gaining experiences abroad were found to be offered at institutions at an insufficient extent, and/or in a manner not facilitating student implementation of these program forms. This is evidenced, for example, by a high self-organization rate of 56% which was found for profession-based internships; and by the fact that in 31% of all cases profession-based internships were implemented without program support (such as Erasmus or other programs). The gap in institutional coordinated support and offer makes profession-based internships a program form that is burdened with additional organizational and/or financial efforts when compared to the implementation of study abroad. Institutional offers were also found to be in particular mismatch with the demand profiles of the interest group. Most of the program forms students in this group apparently find most relevant and accessible—these are in particular shorter forms of TSM such as summer schools, thematic study visits, faculty-led excursions, or language courses—were found to be of minor or no importance in the portfolio of institutional offers. The *demand-offer gap* found in the first line of inquiry in Investigation Strand 2 can be seen as a severe obstacle to more broadly diffusing TSM among students in TE degree programs.

Aiming to reveal further obstacles to TSM, a second line of inquiry used a set of 23 issues that students directly evaluated in terms of their role as obstacles to TSM for them. Issues in the item battery related to five different domains of obstacles. Data was analyzed at the domain and the item level in order to answer the detailed Research Question #2\_2: Which obstacles (items, domains) are relevant for the four different status groups of students.

Figure 18 summarizes the role of the different obstacle domains in the four status groups of students and thus along the TSM process.



**Figure 18.** Comparison of different relevance of five domains of obstacles in four status groups of students. Note that the vertical axis does not display the full scale range (1-5).

The domain lack-of-value was revealed as characterizing for the no-interest group while revealed as the least important domain of obstacles in the profiles of all other groups. The obstacle domain apprehensions was revealed as a relevant domain for the first three groups (although at the planning stage, it would on the basis of the results no longer be described as a *characterizing* domain) and appears to be really overcome only at the implementation stage (see also Figure 18). Results thus revealed the role which students' apprehensions about their abilities and resources (such as whether they have sufficient foreign language skills or whether they will be able to cope in a foreign environment) play throughout most stages of the TSM process. Results confirmed a particularly high relevance of the domain negative-consequences in the no-interest group, and also pointed to a high (and as regards the extent found unexpectedly high) and continued relevance of concerns about specific negative consequences throughout the TSM process (see also Figure 18). It was also shown that the domain guidance begins to emerge as a relevant domain of obstacles at the interest stage which is plausible since students who show interest in gaining TSM were assumed to start seeking more detailed information (whereas at the lowest stage—in the no-interest group—guidance would still be largely irrelevant). As also shown in Figure 18, the domain continues to be among the characterizing domains in the plans and the implementation group. The domain mismatch-programs was revealed to be characterizing at

the planning stage, and also to be an important obstacle domain to implementers (although at a significantly lower level). In addition, results revealed its importance as a characterizing obstacle domain already at the interest stage. This implies that program offers mismatching with student demand may exert a negative, dissuading influence at relatively early stages of the TSM process.

The hypotheses to find *different* issues, that is, different configurations of singular important obstacles and characterizing obstacle domains in the four status groups, was confirmed by the results (whereby the plans group and the implementation group were found to be highly similar as regards the domains and issues encountered as potential obstacles). These differences concern not only the broad obstacle domains most relevant at different stages of the TSM process (and to which strategies to promote TSM among the different target group would thus have to attend) but also singular obstacles (e.g., the kind of negative consequences expected among the no-interest group is different from the other groups, as summarized for each group below). Some of the singular obstacles as relevant to the different status groups in absolute terms will therefore be summarized below.

Results at the item level showed that students in the no-interest group are very often specifically concerned about the prospects of being separated from friends and partner and/or from family and children. Besides, a simple lack of interest and value seen, and the lack of motivation to gain international experiences as long as there is no pressure to do so (“it is not a program requirement”) were among the most important obstacles (reasons) stated.

In the group interest a different configuration of relevant issues students experience as obstacles was found. In terms of feared negative consequences, a profile different from the no-interest group was revealed. Although the separation from friends and partner still appeared among the most important obstacles, other factors were revealed as also/more important: An (expected) lack of grants and feared graduation delays. Having a certain interest, these students are also relatively often concerned about finding interesting TSM program offer and they experience a lack of TSM programs well integrated and easily to be combined with their degree program as an obstacle (which is not the case for the interest group). Additionally, they are troubled with a range of apprehensions such as their skills to communicate, work or study in a foreign language. And while certain apprehensions (language-related concerns, the organizational work implied, and time concerns) were also shown to exist in the no-interest group, the hesitation expressed by stating to be interested but

also finding it a bit of a challenge “to just go into a foreign environment” is typical for this group. It fits into this picture that students in the interest group, for example, also wish for “more individual counseling and workshops at the beginning of studies to help overcome specific barriers” such as finding appropriate programs or how to finance stays.

In the plans group expected graduation delays, difficulties in combining stays abroad with the degree program at home, lack of program integration, lack of grants, and limited suitable TSM program offer were revealed as the four most important obstacles. While the issues itself are broadly similar to the interest group, the extent of experiencing them as an obstacle tended to be lower in the plans group. Also, to find concrete, interesting options to integrate into their study program without much study delay can be described as a characteristic complex of concerns for the plans group. In the sense that students in the plans group can be expected to be extensively seeking information, it is relevant to mention that information- and guidance-related issues were not only revealed as *important* for this group but that information, guidance and support is also experienced as *problematic* by them (all five items of the domain guidance were among the more important obstacles in this group).

Obstacles in the implementation group were revealed to be very similar to the plans group, although overall at a lower level. 60% of all students in the sample who had already implemented study-related stays abroad expected a delay of their studies as a consequence. Notable is the fact that students who were enrolled in degree programs with compulsory experiences abroad did not expect graduation delays at a substantially lower extent (58%). The expected delay broadly amounts to the total length of the stay abroad.

Thus far, results were summarized pertaining to which obstacles are most relevant to students in absolute terms (thus pointing to areas where major problems exist, and to which institutions would have to attend; an issue treated in the final chapter of this thesis) and how the relative importance of these obstacles varies “along the TSM process”. A further aim in this line of inquiry using a set of 23 concrete issues that students assessed in terms of their role as obstacles was to determine the issues which pertained significant influences (on the likelihood to be in the higher status group at each threshold) from a multivariate perspective. Binary logistic regressions were conducted at the three thresholds interest, plans and implementation (each comprised of two status groups) for this purpose. This allowed a perspective on concerns indicative for each two status groups compared and on issues

(obstacles) that apparently need to be overcome in order to “pass” certain thresholds. Figure 19 summarizes results of the BLRs at each threshold.

Threshold interest		Threshold plans		Threshold implementation	
No-Interest	Interest	Interest	Plans	Plans	Impl.
				Simply no interest /Don't see enough value ( <b>Lack of value</b> ) ←	
				Interested but also find it challenging to “just go abroad” ( <b>Apprehensions</b> ) ←	
				English major foreign language but offer too limited ( <b>Mismatch programs</b> ) ←	
		Insufficiency of foreign language skills ( <b>Apprehensions</b> ) →			
		English major foreign language but offer too limited ( <b>Mismatch programs</b> ) →			
		Not a requirement so I won't do it ( <b>Lack of value</b> ) ←			
		Lack of grants to cover expected costs ( <b>Negative consequences</b> ) ←			
Expected delay in progress of my studies ( <b>Negative consequences</b> ) →					
Never got information on options available/ got information too late ( <b>Guidance</b> ) →					
Simply no interest /Don't see enough value ( <b>Lack of value</b> ) ←					
Separation from family and children ( <b>Negative consequences</b> ) ←					

**Figure 19.** Student concerns regarding TSM significantly increasing or decreasing the likelihood to belong to the higher status group of students (in multivariate analyses) at three thresholds. Arrows indicate increasing or decreasing effect of variables.

As shown in Figure 19, missing benefits seen as well as fearing absence from family and children were shown to act as differentiating factors at the interest threshold, and to be negatively associated with TSM interest (i.e., higher ratings on these items, signifying a higher relevance as an obstacle, significantly decreased the likelihood that students were

members of the interest group, as opposed to the lower status group at this threshold—the no-interest group). As can also be seen in Figure 19, rating study delays and a lack of information (or receiving information too late) as obstacles was found to be positively associated with the status group interest.

Based on the thought that FL students are probably more apt to pursue study-related experiences abroad (since their studies lend themselves more easily to seeing the relevance of international experiences), one could have assumed to also find the variable FL—non-FL to differentiate at the interest threshold. This, however, is not the case. While results (not shown in Figure 19) indicated a positive correlation between studying FL and being interested in TSM (as opposed to not being interested), they also implied that another underlying dimension can explain differences between the no-interest and interest group better (including a different representation of FL and non-FL students in these two groups): A lack of motivation due to missing supportive convictions about the value and possible benefits of TSM.

At the planning threshold, two items were found to decrease the likelihood to be in the plans group (as opposed to the interest group). As Figure 19 shows, the first relates to students' intrinsic motivation (if the fact that TSM is not a program requirement was stated as a relevant reason for not pursuing it, the odds to be in the plans group decreased)—this motivation seems to be a factor necessary for crossing the planning threshold. The second are higher financial concerns which are an obstacle revealed as indicative of the interest group at this threshold. This implies the interpretation that financial concerns need to be soothed to some extent in order for students to move to the planning stages.

Remarkable is the role language-related concerns play as discriminatory obstacles (see Figure 19): Compared to the interest group, language-related concerns were revealed as indicative of the plans group (ratings as obstacles increasing the likelihood to be in the plans group). These are student concerns about the sufficiency of needed foreign language skills, and concerns that English is their major foreign language while offers in English-speaking countries are limited. The (unexpected) positive influence of concerns about foreign language skills implies the interpretation that apprehensions in the form of language-related concerns do not necessarily prevent students from moving to the planning stages in the TSM process. The important role of language-related concerns at the planning stages, in particular as regards limitations in English-language programs when English is students' major foreign

language, was substantiated by the results found at the implementation threshold (see Figure 19). This implies that an English-language related problem complex exists at the planning stage and that related potential obstacles need to be overcome at this stage in order to move to the implementation stage. The specific role of this problem complex was not observable using descriptive and univariate methods of analysis (e.g., the obstacle related to offer in English-speaking countries was not among the 12 most important obstacles in any of the four status groups, but was revealed as a significant determinant of TSM plans and implementation in multivariate models). This underlines the relevance of (also) conducting multivariate analyses in TSM research.

Two further items were shown to be negatively associated with TSM implementation: Higher remaining doubts about the value of gaining international experiences and higher remaining apprehensions about the challenges implied by endeavoring out into foreign environments. The negative association implies that these potential obstacles could eventually withhold students from implementing TSM. This also has implications—as do previously reported results on the obstacles relevant along the TSM process—for necessary institutional support and strategies, which will be an important aspect attended to in the final chapter of this thesis.

Noteworthy is the revealed significant influence of value-related obstacles as differentiating issues *throughout* the TSM process (i.e., at each threshold). These results could be read in a way that high positive convictions about the value and benefits of gaining study-related experiences abroad seem to create the momentum necessary to sustain drive towards eventually implementing TSM—against certain obstacles, including remaining apprehensions and doubts. Results from the third line of inquiry (summarized in Figure 20) point into the same direction: Convictions of the professional relevance of international competences and experiences were revealed as significant independent “drivers” in multivariate models at two of the three thresholds.

The third line of inquiry in Investigation Strand 2 continued to pursue the approach to identify differentiating variables from a multivariate perspective (using BLRs at three thresholds), but used a different set of variables than before: (a) sociodemographic and study-related data (including the two variables institution and FL—non-FL), (b) data on international dimensions in students’ study environments, (c) students’ convictions on the

professional relevance of gaining international experiences, and (d) their knowledge and awareness about gaining experiences abroad. Final results<sup>92</sup> are summarized in Figure 20.

Threshold interest		Threshold plans		Threshold implementation	
No-Interest	Interest	Interest	Plans	Plans	Impl.
				Study year in teacher education program →	Age →
				International experience and competence important for future professional life →	Know where to get information at home institution →
				Not studying foreign languages ←	
		Institution 2 (above European average) →			
		Previous international experience →			
		Know several supporting programs, agencies, etc. →			
		Study year in teacher education program ←			
		Age ←			
Languages spoken at proficient level →					
Fellow students and friends driver →					
International experience and competence important for future professional life →					
Know several supporting programs, agencies, etc. →					

**Figure 20.** Variables significantly increasing or decreasing the likelihood to belong to the higher status group of students (in multivariate analyses) at three thresholds of the TSM process. Arrows indicate increasing or decreasing effect of variables.

<sup>92</sup> All sociodemographic and study-related variables were entered in Block 1 using the method ENTER so that they remained in the models throughout all steps; effects of other variables—(a) to (c) were entered in Block 2 using the method stepwise forward algorithm so that only variables performing an additional significant influence were added to the final model.

At the interest threshold (as shown in Figure 20) four characteristics were found to differentiate the interest group from the no-interest group in a multivariate perspective (they increased the likelihood that students were in the interest group): Higher convictions about the professional relevance of international experiences and competences; more strongly experiencing fellow students and friends as drivers (which points to an important role of peer groups as sources of inspiration); higher knowledge of programs, agencies, etc. which provide support for gaining TSM (this value increases from 30% in the no-interest to 50% in the interest group); and proficiency in more foreign languages.

Knowledge and awareness was revealed as a decisive dimension in multivariate analyses. Items from this dimension were revealed as significant predictors at each threshold (higher knowledge increasing the likelihood to be in the higher status group in each case), as shown in Figure 20. At the implementation threshold the simple issue of knowing where to get information at the home institution on options of gaining study-related experiences abroad was revealed as a differentiating variable (increasing the odds that students had already implemented a study-related stay abroad). The effect of this item at the final threshold underlines the importance of information-related obstacles and the importance for institutions to attend to issues seemingly as simple as making sure that students interested in TSM have clarity of where they can find information and support.

As shown in Figure 20, at the plans threshold study year and age were both revealed to exert a negative influence (which was contrary to expectations). Results implied the interpretation that many students actually remain in the interest group and do not act upon their interest as they progress in their studies (students in the interest group were indeed found to be of the same age as students in the implementation group who were aged 25.8 on average). This also implies that teacher education institutions are not highly successful in “moving” their students who state to have interest towards the planning and implementation stages. The result that studying at the institution with the highest eventual TSM level (considerably above European averages) had a positive influence at the plans threshold (see Figure 20) fits into this interpretation.

Students’ previous international experience was also revealed to significantly increase the likelihood of having crossed the plans threshold. This result could be due to the fact that those who have more previous international experiences probably also have fewer apprehensions, and more quickly move to the planning stages as they enter their teacher

education degree program. In light of the younger age and lower average study year of the plans group (as compared to the interest group), this interpretation appears plausible.

As mentioned the variable FL—non-FL plays a less important role than lay persons would probably assume. In the multivariate models in which other sociodemographic and study-related variables were also included the variable is only revealed as performing an independent significant effect at the implementation threshold (see Figure 20).



## **6. Discussion and Conclusions**

In Investigation Strand 1 a multifaceted inquiry into internationalization in teacher education was conducted so as to answer the first research question on the distinct features, drivers, or difficulties of internationalization in teacher education from a multilevel and contextualized comparative perspective. In Investigation Strand 2 eventual TSM participation was conceptualized as process. Analyses focused upon the element of temporary study-related mobility and the revelation of distinct obstacles to TSM, as encountered by (different status groups of) students in teacher education degree programs. Results of Investigation Strand 1 and 2 were summarized in Chapter 4.4 and 5.4 respectively. This chapter provides an integrated discussion of both investigations strands' results, linking them to previous research and theory. It is geared towards answering the third, forward-looking research question posed to the results, deriving conclusions and eventually recommendations on ways to foster TSM in teacher education degree programs, in particular as relevant to the institutional scope of action.

The chapter is structured into four parts: The first (Chapter 6.1) identifies factors currently hindering the broader diffusion of internationalization in TE degree programs. This is followed by the discussion of concrete obstacles to a more extensive take-up of the element of TSM among students (Chapter 6.2). The chapter continues with reflections on the study's contributions and limitations, and on future research (Chapter 6.3). It closes with recommendations on ways to foster internationalization and TSM in teacher education degree programs (Chapter 6.4).

### **6.1 Barriers to the Diffusion of Internationalization From an Integrated Perspective**

The methodological approach of a contextualized, multilevel comparative inquiry (as advocated for, e.g., by Bray & Thomas, 1995), using multifaceted data and methods to study internationalization and obstacles to student mobility, proved purposeful: Findings from this approach, using in particular the principle of dynamic contextualization (Allemann-Ghionda, 2010), allow to position existing “ideals” of teacher education graduates—internationally experienced young professionals—vis-à-vis internationalization models and the convictions, strategies or purposes of the different constituencies involved in internationalization. This enables the identification of gaps and missing or underutilized levers to support the diffusion

of international dimensions in TE degree programs. Such gaps to diffusion can be described as gaps relating to the profitability and compatibility of the proposed innovation internationalization, according to innovation diffusion theory (e.g., Rogers, 2003; see Chapter 1.4.1). The diffusion of (specific models or elements of) internationalization was, in line with innovation diffusion theory, conceptualized as a process of change in this study. In this sense, the gaps to diffusion can be defined as currently existing barriers to changing the status quo—low levels of internationalization and TSM. Reference points in defining internationalization in this study were the elements and strategies of internationalization at the level of higher education institutions (see Chapter 1.3). Management models of internationalization provide a framework to managing the diffusion and change processes of internationalization, in a manner minimizing diffusion barriers. The management model referred to as the internationalization circle (Wit, 2002) is used in this chapter to reflect upon diffusion barriers identified, linking them to theory and locating them within procedural and management perspectives. The internationalization circle, as described in Chapter 2.1.2, outlines eight interrelated steps: (1) context analysis, (2) raising awareness about purposes and benefits, and securing (3) commitment of all relevant constituencies; further, (4) the planning of aims and priorities, (5) their operationalization into concrete activities, program and organization strategies, and (6) the implementation of these; final steps are (7) a review of quality, impact and progress, and the design of (8) reinforcement mechanisms as needed. A process taking into account these steps has been conceptualized as leading to integration effects of internationalization (Wit, 2002) upon the core functions of HEIs (teaching/learning and research), and thus to accomplishing what Teichler (2007) has referred to as the third leap in internationalization. Given the focus of this study on TE degree programs, references to the third leap in this analysis relate to the dimension of teaching and learning. The third leap in internationalization refers to a status in which international activities are not only pursued systematically and with a certain frequency, but in which international dimensions have become *inherent* and embedded into the core function of teaching and learning.

Looking to the factual scope and extent of internationalization in teacher education degree programs as revealed in this study<sup>93</sup>, it can be concluded that the third leap of internationalization has by no means encompassingly occurred in the field: Study environments are weakly coined by international dimensions, learning opportunities to build

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<sup>93</sup> Limitations as regards the generalizability of results to the complete TE sector are acknowledged in a subsequent chapter (6.3).

international and intercultural competences are not found by students with ease. Lecturers and teacher education institutions are not experienced as drivers for developing international perspectives. The result—that the single largest group of students (out of four differentiated) was indeed estimated to be the one showing no interest or intentions to gain any form of study-related experiences abroad—fits into this picture. The size of this group was estimated to amount to 40-50+%. Given the ideal of internationally experienced and interculturally competent teacher education graduates as proposed by “innovators”<sup>94</sup> in the teacher education sector, the field is obviously met with a range of diffusion barriers.

In the internationalization circle the first step is the analysis of the external and internal context of internationalization. A first focus of the discussion of diffusion barriers shall therefore be on this dimension.

A fundamental contextual condition which will have to be regarded in any efforts to promote internationalization in teacher education is shaped by the distinct models of internationalization relevant to the field: A comparative analysis of the 21<sup>st</sup> century zeitgeist model of internationalization in HE in general and of the TE model of internationalization has revealed that fundamental compositional differences exist between the two policy-level models, with different trajectories of internationalization implied. Policy-level internationalization models outline an innovation, that is, ideas and practices that are proposed to be (more broadly) diffused in a system. In theoretical terms, the internationalization models of the TE subsector and the one of its broader context, the HE sector, can therefore be referred to as two *different* innovations.

Comparing the policy-level HE and the TE internationalization models, we can note that certain strategies which are prioritized in the HE model are indeed not appearing (thus at termination stages of diffusion, Wende, 1999) in the TE policy-level model: In particular prestigious and high-caliber joint curricula, degree mobility, and international staff and student recruitments. These strategies are apparently seen as incompatible and/or unprofitable in teacher education. Results of this study imply that they are not necessarily seen as incompatible in general terms, but as unprofitable, given the parameters of existing teacher education systems in Europe. These systems (see Chapter 2.4), coined by dense regulation as revealed in this study render joint or double degree programs highly difficult if not impossible

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<sup>94</sup> The term innovators is used in reference to user categories differentiated in innovation diffusion theory (see Chapter 1.4.1) and should thus not be understood as aiming to convey a normative dimension.

to implement; or they do in fact make degree mobility highly unprofitable for students since completing a degree abroad would not easily give them access to labor markets in their home country, thus rather impeding their career. Differences between the HE and the TE model are not bound to policy-level models. Indeed, a multilevel non-alignment of the TE model was observed. For example, while the increase of teaching regular courses in English is prioritized in the HE-general model (and in practice, e.g., European University Association, 2013), this element is hardly prioritized at teacher education institutions: The strategy is ranked only 11<sup>th</sup> out of 14 developmental fields. The same is true for the instigation of joint programs (from joint modules up to joint degrees). Even among students, non-alignments with major current orientations of internationalization in the HE sector in general were observed. In teacher education we thus find a consistent (multilevel) divergence from some of the most dominating elements of internationalization in today's European higher education landscape.

From a research perspective, the different internationalization models found provide empirical confirmation that different sectors or subject areas are indeed guided by different approaches, rationales and strategies, as has been noted (mostly on conceptual terms) by scholars in the field (e.g., Kerr, 1990; Knight, 2004; Leask, 2013b). In this respect, the importance to include comparative perspectives in internationalization research was advocated for (e.g. Wit, 2002). The results of this comparative study underline the relevance of this. In practical terms, results have several implications: (1) Teichler (2007) had raised the question whether existing strategies and programs actually “gave all subject areas the same opportunities or rather marginalized those subject areas which operate on special terms” (p. 330). Teacher education in this study was deliberated to be such a field on the basis of research and literature reviews (see Chapter 1.4.1, Chapter 2.4.6). The current study indeed allows the conclusion that the 21<sup>st</sup> century zeitgeist model of HE internationalization is not neutral to the field of teacher education as it exists in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: For example, through its prioritization of joint/double degrees which could be realized in the teacher education sector only under resource investments unparalleled in most other fields (e.g., due to the necessity to conform to accreditation requirements of TE degree programs in two or more countries). (2) Since supporting programs and funding in HE, of which the teacher education sector forms part, will be shaped by policy-level models of internationalization the support environment to promote internationalization is less strong in teacher education than in other fields, in which internationalization models would be more in line with the zeitgeist model (this could, for example, be assumed for the field of business studies). An example of this less

strong support environment could be seen in minimum funding periods for Erasmus student internships: They will be difficult to meet for TE students if the duration of internships (when allowed to be taken abroad) is less than the minimum funding threshold. (3) The differences between the HE and the TE model also underline the importance of the first stage in the internationalization circle—the regard of context. When defining areas of development in internationalization, leadership and responsible international officers will need to reflect both the HE and the TE context for internationalization. Simply pursuing the 21<sup>st</sup> century zeitgeist model will not be a strategy with high chances for diffusion in the teacher education sector due to specific compatibilities and profitabilities in the field. Internationalization in teacher education needs to find routes of development that are viable and purposeful to the field *and* in view of the larger context (the HE support environment in general). The explicit regard of specific viable routes to internationalization in teacher education is likely to be of particular importance at larger institutions where teacher education is only one of several areas or faculties, such as at comprehensive universities. This conclusion is in line with de Wit's (Wit, 2002) theoretical deliberation that “it is important to ensure that the specific circumstances of the disciplines and departments get enough attention and are not forced into a general structure” (p. 137).

Despite of the stated non-neutrality of the zeitgeist model, the results of this study also require to note that the TE model of internationalization is not embedded into a context (i.e., into a HE model) that *per se* puts limits on the unfolding of its specific trajectory, even if the HE model does not fully reinforce the facets which are most important and characteristic of the TE model. Characteristic of the TE model were its double-focus on (1) temporary student mobility and (2) content-related curricular strategies of internationalization in order to build professionally and societally relevant international competences among TE graduates. While the reinforcement character was indeed found to be pervasive for the element of TSM, the second focus—content-related curricular dimensions—was not found to be specifically reinforced through being of similar importance in the HE-general model. This also confirms the existence of a comparatively weaker (less concrete) support environment for content-related curricular internationalization than for the abroad-component of student mobility which was on the basis of the literature review for this study concluded to have characterized HE support environments over the past decades. Indeed, the term internationalization at home was first used and made a certain priority in policy documents only in 2013. The conclusion that the HE-general model does not specifically prioritize content-related curricular

internationalization can be paraphrased as a *lacking contextual lever for content-based curricular internationalization* in teacher education. To ensure content-based curricular internationalization is thus a responsibility shifted to the teacher education sector. The drive for the diffusion of this facet, which is important in the “ideal” model revealed through an analysis of European-level policies and discourses, needs to come from *within* the teacher education sector. Our attention is thus directed to within the field. Within the teacher education sector, different constituencies determine the diffusion of internationalization and student mobility: most importantly, the leadership at institutions; academic staff; and students themselves. Furthermore, in addition to HE policies, sectoral governance provides a framework and conditions for the diffusion of international dimensions in TE degree programs.

A diffusion barrier was indeed found to rest within the governance systems regulating teacher education degree programs. It is not regulation itself that is interpreted as a problem here: Teacher education is a regulated field, catering mainly to national employment markets (cf. Chapter 2.4.3). This is often per se taken as a characteristic making the field void to internationalization, or as an explanation for low internationalization (e.g., Huisman & File, 2006, Kerr, 1990). This view can, however, be challenged: As Leask (2013b) has elaborated upon, fields governed by local accreditation to access chosen professions may only seemingly require “an exclusive focus on local legislation and policy” (p. 100) while, in reality, the work performed at the local level is of course shaped and connected to international and global contexts. Increasingly multicultural classrooms, which teachers encounter in their day-to-day work, are indeed a good example of such interconnectedness.

In addition, in a regulated field such as teacher education, regulations and frameworks pertaining to curricula could actually be utilized as a lever to promote internationalization, more so than in other fields. This is because program directors, deans, or institutions are held accountable vis-à-vis the regulations setting the framework for the programs they deliver. The results of this study, however, show that exactly this *underutilized governance lever* to support the inclusion of international dimensions in TE degree programs can be seen as a diffusion barrier: It creates an accountability gap on the side of institutions due to a lack of regard of internationalization in regulations relevant to teacher education degree programs. Even worse, the density and kind of governing regulations were indeed revealed as aggravating rather than reinforcing or neutral conditions to the diffusion of elements of internationalization in TE degree programs. This is, for example, the case when regulations

factually limit possibilities of gaining international experiences for students by putting caps on the amount of credits or parts of the teacher education degree programs that students are allowed to take abroad. Practice periods in teacher education degree programs are not infrequently regulated in a manner so that they can only be taken in schools of the “home country”. At the same time, the study has revealed that practice-based internships are one of the most relevant forms of TSM for students. Linking these results from the different strands of investigation, it becomes clear that in this case regulations governing TE degree programs hinder the broader diffusion and take-up of an element of internationalization which has high initial relevance for students. In a systemic perspective, the underutilized governance lever represents a *shift of responsibility* for promoting internationalization from the sectoral governance level to the level of higher education institutions and staff in teacher education.

Institutions cannot change regulations within the short or medium term. In a managerial perspective, this means that any aversive conditions created through sectoral governance would need to be taken into account when developing internationalization. This will be particularly relevant at the fourth, the planning stage, when concrete program and organization strategies of internationalization (e.g., programs abroad or international activities at home) are designed in view of external and internal context, and in view of the goals of an institution (or school, department, etc.)<sup>95</sup>. More institutional support and funding for longer-term internships will, for example, not very likely be a measure suitable to increase mobility levels among students in teacher education, as long as governing regulations not allowing students to get internships taken abroad fully accredited are left unchanged. Results about the rather aversive nature of local, regional, or national<sup>96</sup> governance actually also signify that a gap exists between what is proposed in European-level policies and discourses and how this has been adopted at the level of local policy making. In theoretical terms, those engaging in European-level policy making and discourse can therefore be described as the innovators and early adopters (on adopter categories in diffusion theory see Chapter 1.4.1; adopter categories differentiated are innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, laggards) of an

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<sup>95</sup> This depends on whether an institution as a whole caters to teacher education students or has schools or departments for teacher education. In the following only the term institution will be used and taken to indicate the relevant level of organization that applies at different institutions.

<sup>96</sup> The responsible level of policy-making can differ according to different countries. In the following the term local will be taken to refer to the level at which regulations are specified in teacher education (i.e. local, regional or national), as opposed to the European or international level.

innovation: the broad idea that teacher education degree programs should be more encompassingly internationalized.

Among those drafting or participating in European-level policies and discourses, the five most important arguments (rationales) on which the advocacy of a stronger internationalization was found to be based are: (1) a stronger European dimension and Europeanization in teacher education degree programs at large, (2) the relevance of internationalization to building professionally relevant international competences among future teachers, (3) its expected impact on both quality in teacher education and (4) education in schools, and (5) on teacher's capability to take on their role as multipliers and role models in society. A survey among a number of staff in teacher education indicated that academic staff support the internationalization of teacher education to some extent (under the rationales as quoted above), but that no pervasive or even strong profile of supporting convictions exists (a gap of convictions). This implies that internationalization in teacher education is indeed still an innovation to the field. Or, in the theoretical framework of diffusion theory (Rogers, 2003): It is an idea or practice which is not yet broadly known, accepted, or adopted by academic staff in teacher education. An interesting insight from a multilevel comparison of rationales is a policy-practice gap regarding the European-dimension rationale (a rationale which relates to the advocacy of a stronger European frame of reference in teacher education and to internationalization as a route to achieve this). While a leitmotif at the policy-level, this rationale was found to receive comparatively weak support among both staff and students. This implies that in particular the Europeanization (as opposed to the inclusion of international dimensions in degree programs) of TE degree programs, such as fostered through the Bologna process (see Chapter 2.2.2.2), might even be a contested goal.

As Knight (2004) has also recognized, internationalization is shaped at the policy level, but factually coming into existence at the level of higher education institutions, and through the involvement and engagement of academic staff. In terms of securing commitment for internationalization at an institution (cf. stage 3 of the internationalization circle), what is implied by the above mentioned policy-practice gap is the importance to attend to existing different views and to find common denominators. More generally, however, relatively weak staff convictions about the role and relevance of internationalization imply that the management stages of raising awareness and securing commitment for internationalization have not been accomplished in teacher education. The non-accomplishment of these stages constitutes a diffusion barrier since a persuaded and committed academic base can be seen to

provide a necessary fundament for purposefully and sustainably integrating international dimensions in HE curricula (see, e.g., Beelen & Jones, 2015; Leask, 2013b; Stohl, 2007). On the basis of diffusion theory (due to the relevance of peer networks in the diffusion of an innovation, see Chapter 1.4.1), it can be seen as a purposeful strategy to strategically place the innovators and in particular the early adopters of innovative ideas and practices (who were in previous research shown to be opinion leaders and are considered by others as “the individual to check with”, Rogers, 2003, p. 283) into positions that allow them to communicate and potentially convince others (whereby it will differ from institution to institution how the concrete innovative idea of internationalization will look like).

In order to secure staff awareness and commitment, previous research (diffusion theory as well as internationalization research) implies the importance to consider how engaging in internationalization can be made compatible and profitable for academic staff. Stohl (2007) has been particularly explicit on the need to make engagement in internationalization profitable for academic staff, through linking it to benefits relevant to academic staff; or in Stohl’s words: “by considering the risk and reward structures within our institutions and faculty cultures” (p. 359). If staff engagement in internationalization puts them at a disadvantage in reaching their other goals, effects like rhetorical support, or internationalization remaining a nice-to-have but nothing pursued under conditions of competing goals, are likely to become observable. Such effects were also found in this study and indeed results did also imply that staff engagement in internationalization is not adequately incentivized, rewarded, and reinforced in teacher education. A gap of strategic support to academic staff as a core institutional entity was revealed. This lack of accomplishment of Stage 8 of the internationalization circle (the creation of reinforcement mechanisms) in relation to academic staff can be seen as a barrier to broader commitment.

A lack of support for academic staff can also be seen as one of the potential factors contributing to a non-pervasive internationality in the work profiles of academic staff in teacher education, as also found in this study. This, in turn, can be seen as an explanatory factor why students’ study environments also appeared as not bearing pervasive international dimensions, and why students did not state to experience their lecturers and courses as constituencies drawing their attention to international dimensions in their field, and to gaining international experiences: If staff readiness for internationalization—conceptualized through staff convictions and internationality of their work profiles and resources—is weak, it cannot be expected that international dimensions in students’ learning environments will be strong. In

addition, the fact that professional profiles are rather weakly framed by international dimensions shows that the professional structures and cultures in teacher education at HEIs do currently not demand this. Were hiring or promotion policies (HR policies) inclusive and demanding about this aspect, one would expect to find academic work profiles more strongly coined by international dimensions. This brings into play the key role of having purposeful organization strategies for internationalization in place.

Organization strategies (Knight, 2004) support the diffusion and take-up of program strategies—the distinct elements of internationalization such as TSM. And while there is an understanding (e.g., Dewey & Duff, 2009; Hudzik, 2011; Leask, 2013b) that, in plain words, internationalizing the university requires internationalizing the faculty (Stohl, 2007, p. 367), it is equally important to point out that it is a leadership responsibility to design and implement purposeful organization strategies to achieve this. Looking to the management circle of internationalization, we are now discussing the stages of planning, operationalizing and implementing program and organization strategies (Stages 4, 5 and 6). It is at these stages that another diffusion barrier and underutilized lever to promote internationalization in teacher education was revealed by this study: a deficient implementation of purposeful organization strategies at teacher education institutions. For example, while all institutions of this study have official strategies in place to support internationalization, the assumption that these were actually *known* by the majority of staff in teacher education was not shown to be an eligible one. Also, institutions seem to have been unsuccessful in establishing distinct priorities and criteria acting as guidelines in the *everyday* work for the development of international activities. Resource devotion was seen as inadequate in view of aims; rewards for engagement in terms of financial or time resources, reputation, awards, or recruitment criteria were evaluated as insufficient by staff. It is self-evident that strategies unknown to the members of an institution, and a lack of defined operational priorities for advancing internationalization, sustained through resource devotion, not only render strategic development impossible, but also hamper progress along potentially viable routes of development.

Hudzik (2011) writes that (comprehensive) internationalization is “a commitment, confirmed through action” (p. 10) and needs to become “an institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility” (ibid.). It is clear that, under circumstances of lacking organization strategies, the confirmation through action in teacher education will be missing, leaving internationalization a desirable *possibility*. In view of the results gained in this study, it is here concluded that internationalization is a commitment at least partially unconfirmed through

*adequate* action (supportive organization strategies). One might even hypothesize whether, even at the leadership level, internationalization—which is today mainstream and imperative—is possibly supported more by rhetoric rather than true commitment. In any case, results leave it beyond doubt that internationalization is not *strategically* managed to a sufficient extent at the institutional level (gap of strategic management of internationalization). In the conceptualization of this study, this represents a leadership task unaccomplished, and a shift of responsibility for promoting the diffusion of international dimensions in teacher education degree programs from the leadership level to the level of academic staff in teacher education. To conclude with respect to the implementation of organization strategies, institutional leaders have substantial room to better use the lever of designing and implementing supportive organization strategies to promote internationalization in teacher education degree programs. In this context Stage 7 and 8 in the internationalization circle become important—the review of existing initiatives and strategies (Stage 7) and the instigation of reinforcement mechanisms (Stage 8) so that they are in line with external and internal contexts, and with the goals of an institution.

The relevance of a review and subsequent redesign of existing strategies or priorities becomes even clearer when we take into account another diffusion barrier revealed: The multilevel comparison allows for highly interesting insights as regards mismatches between demands on the one side and institutional offer and practices on the other: In the field of teacher education, the element of temporary study-related mobility was found to be of core importance at all levels investigated, that is, at the level of European policies and discourses, at the level of institutions, and at the level of students. Thus there is a reinforcing multilevel drive for the diffusion of this element in teacher education degree programs. The situation is different for the facet of content-related curricular internationalization: This facet was, next to the element of TSM, found to be definitional to the policy-level TE model of internationalization as well as in the student-level model. Institutional strategies, however, were found to very clearly prioritize TSM while placing only a weak focus on content-related curricular internationalization (gap of institutional strategies). In view of demands—as which policy-level and student-level models of internationalization can be viewed—the one-sided prioritization of TSM at institutions constitutes a mismatch between demands and the current institutional practices.

In order to show the implications of the revealed gap of institutional strategies, it is a worthwhile endeavor to look in some more detail to student demands. Students actually place

curricular strategies first in their relevance ratings (higher than abroad-strategies): They stated to be most interested in “courses at home with a thematic international dimension”, “courses at home to build intercultural competences and skills to work with cultural and linguistic diversity and heterogeneity”, and “learning foreign languages (at home institution)”<sup>97</sup>. In terms of diffusion theory, these are the elements most readily adoptable by TE students since they are seen as highly profitable and compatible. Program strategies at teacher education institutions would need to be in line with these foci in order to foster the take-up of “internationalization” among students. Results, however, showed that they are not—neither in terms of the learning environments as encountered by students in teacher education, nor in terms of a prioritization for the future development of internationalization as foreseen at institutions. Some of the elements seen as most purposeful in the field are thus insufficiently matched by institutional offer and prioritization, thereby also giving away potential benefits of international activities to the field. Reflected along the management circle of internationalization, the mismatch between offer/prioritization and demand reveals disturbances in the planning process (cf. Stage 4 in the model): The planning has apparently not taken the internal context and needs of target groups (i.e., Stages 1-3 in the model) into account to a sufficient extent. Further, it underlines the purposefulness for institutions to review existing goals and strategies (cf. Stage 7 in the model). Results do not allow to precisely identify reasons for the one-sided institutional focus, but two possible contributory factors can be marked out: (1) a lack of distinct reinforcement for content-related curricular internationalization in the HE-general policy context alongside a clear prioritization of student mobility, making the resulting drive for the mobility facet possibly override other facets; and (2) a missing bottom-up lever for fostering content-related curricular internationalization at the institutional level, resulting from the non-pervasive internationality of the professional profiles of academic staff in teacher education themselves.

Furthermore, the one-sided prioritization points to a potentially underutilized lever for promoting TSM among students. Although the results of this study do not provide empirical support for international dimensions in study environment being significant *causal* factors to student interest, plans or implementation of TSM in multivariate models (this could, however, also be due to the fact that international dimension were revealed as generally weak at the TE institutions studied), the assumption that international dimensions in students’ study

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<sup>97</sup> This item was phrased non-applicable for the foreign language actually studied on the teacher education degree program by FL-students.

environments can act as a promotor of students' general international orientation and their intentions to gain experiences abroad can nevertheless be maintained (indeed, they are also correlated in the study). This view is also supported from a theoretical standpoint: Reverting to the Rubikon model of action phases (published by Heckhausen and Gollwitzer in the late 1980s; see Chapter 2.5.3), TSM participation can be viewed as the (possible) result of a process of gaining awareness, of developing supportive convictions and interest, and of planning TSM. It is in this sense that study environments not directing students' attention to international dimensions in their field could also be seen to constitute a missing lever to fostering the element of TSM. In this line of thinking it appears as though institutions focused on the "eventual top-up", the first-hand international experiences, while neglecting the routes that could lead students towards developing international orientations and interest in gaining international experiences in the first place.

As regards the element of TSM itself, the diffusion climate is, as outlined, generally positive (multilevel and multisectoral support). Staff support for promoting the element of student mobility also appeared to be anchored at a higher level than support for internationalization in general. At the same time, it was found that TSM is, both among staff and students, largely seen as a personal endeavor with high relevance for foreign language learning and thus for foreign language students, but displays a weak framing as contributing to the academic and professional development within the teacher education degree program. This add-on perspective to student mobility represents a contrast to the generally strong professional framing that internationalization models (and thus the advocacy of international competences) in teacher education were found to have. Reasons for such disconnectedness cannot be provided on the basis of this study. To a certain extent, the focus on personal and language-related benefits seems to validly reflect students' actual experiences: In particular having grown personally is frequently ranked as one of the largest benefits in studies (see Chapter 2.4.2); among those TE students surveyed who had already realized study-related experiences abroad, the personal-development aspect also emerged as the single largest benefit realized. However, while the personal development resulting from going abroad can certainly also be seen as important for future teachers who take on a core role in society, the add-on perspective to student mobility—the lack of (conceived) embedding into the academic, professionally coined study program—is viewed here with a critical eye. This is for three reasons: (1) The benefits *expected* by students do actually not fully correspond to the benefits *realized*. Survey results imply the interpretation that the actual international

experience can to some extent serve as an eye-opener for relevant benefits other than personal growth and foreign language learning, such as the benefit of having built intercultural competences and of having undergone relevant professional development (the latter aspect regarding professional relevance was observed specifically among non-FL students). Discourses which mainly frame TSM as relevant for personal development and foreign language learning therefore might give students an incomplete picture. (2) An add-on perspective to student mobility sketches gaining TSM almost as a private endeavor (in particular for non FL-students), and does not direct attention to integrating TSM into TE degree programs as delivered by HEIs. This leaves a major obstacle for students—study delays—unaddressed. (3) Fostering TE students’ personal development or improvement of foreign language competences through institutional support for student mobility is not per se to be criticized. However, HEIs are first of all tasked with delivering study programs that build students’ competence base to be successful in their future profession and role. How TSM can contribute to desired competence development (e.g., to the building of professionally relevant international competences) should therefore also provide the framing for institutional support for student mobility. Framing TSM within the profession-based, academic TE degree program, from conceptualizations through to the design and delivery of adequate programs, is not only likely to deliver the experiences that maximize the benefits most purposeful to students’ future profession (and in this sense it is also more cost-effective); it is also likely (as a consequence, since students demand professionally framed and academically embedded programs, see in more detail later) to attract more students and thus help raise mobility levels in teacher education. This implies that moving TSM out of its add-on setting would have to start with a reflection on its (potential) role in TE degree programs and on how to conceptualize it in order to maximize benefits relevant to future teachers. Here, by linking results of the different lines of inquiry of the study, we do, however, find another problem: Teacher education institutions do not seem to be destined to move into this direction: To increase the conceptual quality of mobility programs in order to maximize student learning and program effectiveness is a developmental area of weak relevance at teacher education institutions (number 12 out of 14 strategies). Once again, the need for reviewing current institutional practices becomes evident.

## **6.2 Obstacles to Temporary Study-Related Mobility From an Integrated Perspective**

Fostering temporary study-related mobility was found to be the most prioritized developmental field within internationalization endeavors at the TE institutions surveyed. This study also focused upon revealing distinct obstacles to TSM, primarily on the basis of a student survey (Investigation Strand 2, Chapter 5). Overcoming limitations (a lack of theory-driven research) in previous mobility research, the study was guided by the Rubikon model of action phases. This model proved purposeful for conceptualizing (eventual) TSM participation as a process and to conceptualize relevant obstacle domains for the inquiry. The TSM process was modelled using the four different status groups no-interest, interest, plans and implementation so that three thresholds were identified (the interest, plans and implementation threshold) and analyzed in three lines of inquiry, using different data and methods (including binary logistic regressions). The results provide detailed information on current limitations to a broader take-up of TSM among students in teacher education.

The Rubikon model of action phases implies that student considerations and their needs for information and support vary, depending on whether students are in the pre-decision, pre-action, action (TSM implementation), or post-action phase. Indeed, results confirmed that obstacles are distinct at different stages in the TSM process. Before turning to collating results from the three quantitative lines of inquiry in Investigation Strand 2 into “mobility profiles” for each of the four status groups, the TSM process shall first be summarized in terms of the broad domains of obstacles relevant at different stages in the process.

The five obstacle domains differentiated were (1) a lack of (anticipated) positive consequences/lack of value seen, (2) (anticipated) negative consequences, (3) student apprehensions about own abilities, personal resources and coping skills, (4) problems with information, guidance and support from institutions, and (5) limitations in suitable program offer and program integration with regular studies. Results showed that students with no stated interest and intentions to pursue study-related experiences abroad (the no-interest group) anticipate many negative consequences. These expectations are not at all balanced by the value they associate to gaining study-related experiences abroad. The domains guidance and mismatch-programs play only an ancillary role at this stage. Other issues apparently seem to already prevent students from seeking (more) information and even considering different

options. At the stage where students state to have a certain inclination to gain TSM experiences, it is different: The potential benefits of gaining international experiences are seen, students now begin to encounter lack of information, guidance and support from institutions as problems and also tend to become concerned with limitations in suitable program offer. In addition, student apprehensions are characteristic at this stage, and the many negative consequences anticipated remain a dominant domain of obstacles at this stage. At the planning stage (students with a high inclination to pursue TSM), the anticipation of negative consequences is, although still relevant in absolute terms, no longer as dominant. Mismatches in program offer and student demand are particularly characterizing concerns of students at this stage. Guidance-related issues also play a role at this stage and some apprehensions still remain. At the implementation stages, the domain configuration of obstacles is very similar to the planning group, although obstacles are generally anchored at a lower level. A theoretical and process-based perspective on promoting TSM among students therefore also allows the conclusion that promoting mobility is a task conceptually much broader than simply enlarging program offers: It would involve to take different status and thus different needs of students into account (e.g., whether students need to be convinced or whether they need better program offer) both in communication and concrete TSM program offer.

Turning to describing mobility profiles, students in the no-interest group will first be looked upon. Students in the no-interest group, in fact the single largest group at institutions, are the ones not (yet) having crossed the Rubikon, that is, who have developed no interest and intentions to gain any form of study-related experiences abroad. For reasons summarized in Table 40, they have—in theoretical terms—evaluated the desirability and realizability of gaining study-related experiences abroad as generally negative. According to the Rubikon model of action phases (Chapter 2.5.3), the evaluation of these two dimensions results in a “net value” which determines (a) whether students develop so-called goal intentions and (b) their strength of motivation to act upon their goal intentions.

These students are, as results show, also relatively unlikely to (still) develop goal intentions (to cross the so-called Rubikon). Any professional and/or personal value of gaining TSM is not or only weakly seen, and the fact that “TSM is not a program requirement” is reason for them to not pursue it. Intrinsic motivation is thus lacking. Combined in particular with the expected negative consequence “absence from known social environments”, these students have a low inclination to gain study-related experiences abroad. In addition, students

in this group can also be described as having apprehensions about their personal resources and coping skills abroad.

**Table 40:** Summary Mobility Profile No-Interest Group

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**Mobility profile no-interest group**

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*“No pervasive convictions about value of TSM but many negative consequences seen, students also have apprehensions about their own resources and ability—overall negative net value”*

- **Two thirds fear negative social prospects** (inhibitory factor on progression, differentiates negatively from interest group)
  - For majority this means absence from known social environments (friends, partner, family)
  - For a minority only, the **having-own-children barrier** applies: 20% have own family and children
- **Clear lack of prepossession and curiosity:** students don't see enough value and “simply” have no interest (inhibitory factor, differentiates negatively from interest group); international experiences and competences not considered important for future professional life
- **Unlikely to still cross the Rubikon and develop goal intentions:** 60% have received information on options but 50% say they couldn't be “moved” unless TSM was program requirement; average age 27 (oldest group) and average study year on 4-year program is 2.7 so that students are unlikely to still development inclinations to gain international experiences
- **Doubts about personal resources and coping:**
  - They have doubts about sufficiency of **foreign language skills** (while previous international experience is similar to interest group—usually more than 1 months but less than 12 months—they speak only 1 foreign language at proficient (everyday use) level on average which is less than interest group)
  - **Already feeling burdened** to achieve in regular study program

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*Note.* Results of all three lines of inquiry to reveal obstacles to TSM and identify strategies to foster TSM are integrated into a mobility profile. Differentiating characteristics of this group from a multivariate perspective are indicated in the text as positively or negatively differentiating variables to lower or higher status groups.

Although it is relevant to mention that the majority of students in this group are non-FL students, and that foreign language skills among this group are not extensive (on average one foreign language is spoken at proficient level, which was defined as feeling competent in everyday usage), it is also important to keep in mind that the fundamental *underlying* problem, as multivariate results have shown, is actually a clear lack of prepossession regarding the value and purposefulness of TSM among these students. A fundamental problem thus rests within the convictions of students, rendering the desirability of TSM insufficient in order for them to develop goal intentions. The lack of value seen is also what differentiates this student group (more than sociodemographic characteristics or subjects studied) most significantly from students in the status group interest.

Results also implied that it might be the case that for a smaller portion of students in this group, the realizability of gaining experiences appears to be negative due to the fact that they have children (approximately 20% of students in this status group have children, as opposed to 12%, 3% and 5% in the status groups interest, plans and implementation). At the same time, it is worth remembering that having children was not revealed as a significant predictor at any threshold in multivariate analyses. This indicates that other factors such as age or, as already discussed, lack of value are seen as more important reasons why students have no intentions to gain study-related experiences abroad.

Some interesting conclusions can be drawn when the data indicating whether students had children is put into perspective with two distinct obstacles that students evaluated: the feared absence from *friends and partner*, and the feared absence from *family and children*. Two thirds of students in the no-interest group rated each of the two obstacles as important or very important. This made these two negative consequences the two single most important obstacles for this group. As stated, however, only 20% of students actually have their own children and family. This implies that the largest portion of students is actually not held back by family commitments but by their fears of leaving known social environments. This result also implies that student mobility research (on this issue) should differentiate between obstacles relating to the dimension realizability (having children or other family commitments) versus obstacles relating to the dimension desirability (the feared negative consequence to be absent from known social environments). When using joint items (as, e.g., done in Lanzendorf & Teichler, 2002; Souto-Otero et al., 2013), as it would be the case for the item “absence from family, friends or partner”, for example, these two factors cannot be differentiated. This can be problematic since the implications will be different, for example, as concerns how to foster mobility.

By contrast to those who show no interest and intentions to gain study-related experiences abroad, the status group interest is made up by students who have evaluated desirability and realizability as generally positive. Having stated a certain inclination to (eventually) gain study-related experiences abroad in the survey, these students have “completed” the pre-decision stage by crossing the Rubikon. Here, it is important to keep in mind that goal *intentions* do not necessarily, immediately, or readily lead to *actions* that eventually result in goal *implementation* (e.g., Achtziger & Gollwitzer, 2010). Rather, the drive to act (the strength of fiat tendencies) is determined by (a) the underlying volitional strength (motivation based on desirability and realizability) and (b) the availability of suitable

opportunities to realize intended goals. Furthermore, the initiation of actions is competing with the realization of other important goals—such as, for example, the completion of studies in due time. This theoretical perspective on the factors influencing whether goal *intentions*, as developed by the status group interest, will lead to actions focusing on possible goal *realizations* describes a space in which further obstacles can unfold their impact: The most relevant obstacles for the status group interest are summarized in Table 41.

**Table 41:** Summary Mobility Profile Interest Group

<b>Mobility profile interest group</b>
<i>“Value of TSM but also negative consequences seen, program offer is concern to students and they have apprehensions—in need of guidance, reassurance and final push”</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Preference for practice-oriented and shorter program forms:</b> practice-oriented shorter stays abroad, teaching and school practice abroad and different shorter program abroad (e.g., language courses) most demanded by students, possibly also shorter study-abroad options (e.g., summer schools) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ <b>Demands strongly mismatched</b> by (1) <b>institutional offer</b> and in particular by (2) <b>institutional support</b> (centralized offer, coordination, advising, accreditation, etc.) so that limitation in program offer and integration encountered as important obstacle by 40%</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>TSM value seen among students</b> (professional relevance positively differentiates from group no-interest) but value and motivation <b>endangered</b> to be overridden by obstacles: motivation probably not sufficient and might lead to eventual “no”-decision since not a program requirement (negatively differentiating criterion to plans group)</li> <li>• <b>Troubled with doubts and insecurities – in need of reassurance:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Good FL skills (average 1.4 FL spoken at proficient level, positively differentiating criterion to no-interest group) while also <b>concerned about sufficiency</b> to communicate and study/work abroad (72% are non-FL students)</li> <li>○ <b>Interested and excited but also hesitant:</b> &gt; 40% worry about challenge to cope abroad, to find time and energy to organize everything, and managing additional work load; &gt;50% expect lack of grants (differentiates negatively from plans group), graduation delay (concern differentiates positively from no-interest group) and separation from friends and/or partner; aged average 26 and between 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> study year (both negatively differentiating criteria to plans group) – progress to planning stage often not achieved</li> </ul> </li> <li>• <b>Guidance</b> needed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Know where to get information (85%), many (50%) already know several programs, agencies, schemes that support TSM (positively differentiating criterion to no-interest group) and encounter peer groups at university as drivers (positively differentiating criterion to no-interest group); but: <b>more support, more and earlier information and early individual counseling</b> (at beginning of studies) needed to overcome obstacles encountered</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

*Note.* Results of all three lines of inquiry to reveal obstacles to TSM and identify strategies to foster TSM are integrated into a mobility profile. Differentiating characteristics of this group from a multivariate perspective are indicated in the text as positively or negatively differentiating variables to lower or higher status groups.

Results confirmed that students in the interest group do associate certain value to gaining TSM; they also see a certain professional relevance. At the same time students’ motivation (their volitional strength) and their drive to act upon their goal intentions can be

seen as still endangered to be “overridden” by the obstacles encountered, more so than would be the case for students in the plans group who are at the same stage in the Rubikon model—the pre-action phase, but whose motivation is anchored at a higher level. This different extent of drive is underlined by the fact that viewing “TSM not being a program requirement” as a reason for potentially not pursuing it was (although not of high relevance to students in absolute terms) in the multivariate analysis revealed as an inhibitory factor at the plans threshold (variable negatively associated with the likelihood to be in the plans group, as opposed to the interest group).

Results revealed two core areas of obstacles for the status group interest (see Table 41): student demands for program forms which are strongly mismatched by institutional offers, and high personal doubts and insecurities.

Generally problematic about the institutional offer is that it is first and foremost coined by classical academic study abroad at partner institutions while in student profiles this program form is by no means the most important one: Across all status groups of students, it is ranked 11<sup>th</sup> out of 13 international offers, and 5<sup>th</sup> among the 7 TSM program forms. Other program forms which receive higher relevance ratings from students, in particular practice-oriented program forms, are substantially less supported through institutional offer: First of all, this concerns the offer in quantitative terms; second, less effective support structures (such as central coordination of organization, access, funding or accreditation) exist for these program forms. This makes the implementation of these program forms with high initial relevance for students factually less attractive since the associated negative consequences become higher: For example, through a higher workload due to necessary self-organization which stands at 7% for academic study abroad but at 56% (!) for teaching and school practices abroad. A similar mismatch exists between (coordinated) institutional offer and student demand for shorter programs. While shorter practice-oriented stays abroad such as study visits or faculty-led excursions are of certain prevalence at institutions (self-organization rates at 22%, however 57% occur without financial support), other shorter TSM forms such as summer schools, language courses, or project-based (academic) work abroad are of limited to no importance in the (coordinated) offer at institutions. Also, for shorter academic programs such as summer schools, for example, the self-organization rate is 68%.

The lack of (centrally) coordinated offer and support through responsible international units creates high thresholds for program forms students would most readily want to access.

The largest mismatches between program demand and offer were found for the status group interest: Students in this status group clearly prioritize practice-oriented and (independently of this) shorter program forms. Study abroad is in fact one of the program forms rated as least relevant by this group of students. The stated distinct preference for shorter program forms is typical for this group (while programs of less than the classical three-months minimum period are generally important in TE). Shorter programs are apparently seen as more realizable by this group of students. In theoretical terms this means that the group with the weakest motivation (volitional strength) to act upon their goal intentions at the same time finds least opportunities for action in order to realize their TSM goals in ways feasible for them (e.g., while students interested in study abroad can revert to relatively extensive offer and support in qualitative and quantitative terms, students interested for example in summer schools would mostly have to do their own research on opportunities, funding, etc.). Responsible international units thus do not serve these students in a manner that would correspond to their needs: Relevant obstacles for students are indeed their worries about finding the time and energy to organize everything, about managing the additional work load, about lack of grants, and graduation delays. Theory (the Rubikon model of action phases) predicts that under such conditions, actions leading to concrete plans and eventual implementation of TSM will easily come to a halt or not be initiated at all. And indeed, results imply the interpretation that many students in the interest group, who are on average aged 26 and between 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> study year, remain at this stage and do not progress to the planning stages.

The second major realm of relevant obstacles for the status group interest relates to apprehensions: Students in this group are, as summarized in Table 41, interested and excited about opportunities to gain international experiences, but their excitement also carries notions of hesitation and insecurities about coping abroad, including concerns about their foreign language skills. Results imply the conclusion that these students are not only, or not primarily, in need of *information and knowledge* but in need of *guidance and reassurance*. In order to better “mobilize” this interested student group instead of “loosing them on the way”, as now is unfortunately the case for many students in this group, guidance and reassurance would need to coin service offer and communication at institutions, next to the offer of program forms that take account of the needs and apprehensions of this group. This conclusion is underlined by the fact that students in the status group explicitly desire (1) more support to deal with specific barriers they encounter due to dense regulations in teacher education degree programs, and (2) more individual counselling and workshops at the beginning of studies for

those who are interested in order to help them overcome barriers such as finding appropriate programs or how to finance stays abroad.

Two status groups of this study form part of the pre-action phase in the Rubikon model: the interest group and the plans group (who, as results confirmed, differ according to their volitional strength). These groups have, to the knowledge of the author, never been differentiated, analyzed and compared before. The study's results are therefore of high relevance to research on obstacles to student mobility in general as well as to fostering TSM in teacher education specifically. When it comes to fostering mobility, the status groups of the pre-action stage can be identified as particularly important target groups: All of them have demonstrated interest in TSM and are thus potential candidates for mobility.

Students in the status group plans are probably *the* target group when it comes to increasing TSM levels upon graduation beyond the estimated 15-20% which we now see in teacher education. They already have substantial previous international experience (a positively differentiating criterion to the status group interest), good foreign language skills (like the interest group), and relatively strong convictions on the benefits and professional relevance of gaining TSM (higher than the interest group). In terms of adopter categories (see Chapter 1.4.1), they can be described to comprise the innovators, early adopters and parts of the early majority. These are groups that can be mobilized with least efforts and resources. According to the results of this study, a major problem which would need to be addressed in order to increase mobility levels among students in teacher education relates to finding adequate program offer: Program offer that is in match with the demand profiles of students, in match with their foreign language skills, and well integrated into their degree program (see Table 42).

**Table 42: Summary Mobility Profile Group Plans**

**Mobility profile plans group**

*“High motivation but bothered by TSM program offer and integration, unsatisfied with support offers and remaining uncertainties about funding and going into foreign linguistic, cultural and social environments”*

- Generally **strong convictions** (benefits, professional relevance) **while difficulties can still offset motivation** leading to eventual non-participation (lesser strength of value seen differentiates negatively from implementation group)
- **Program mismatches and integration a major problem** to students:
  - Almost **50% fear delay in study progress** (Number 1 obstacle) due to difficulties in combining TSM with structure, regulations and standards in TE programs
  - **Program demand not fully matched by offer**, not enough offer in English-speaking countries, not enough offer of most desired program form “teaching and school practice abroad” (leading to 55% self-organization rate, >30% outside supporting programs), not enough shorter and longer practice-oriented TSM forms in general
- **Language-related concerns a key issue:** good FL skills, on average 1.5 FL spoken at proficient level but **concerns about sufficiency** of (specific) FL skills important (positively differentiating criterion to interest group) and
  - **Program offer in English important:** English often major proficient FL but offer too limited (differentiates positively from interest group and negatively from implementation group), English-language program offer limitations probably in particular relevant for non-FL student (50% in this group)
- **Lack of guidance in information and support offers complicates implementation:** Students have mostly done their “research”: 90% know where to get information, >60% know several supporting programs or agencies (differentiates positively from interest group) but information flow, transparency in offer, advising and support criticized
- Mostly substantial previous international experience (differentiates positively from group interest) but also still remaining doubts about the challenges implied by the endeavor to go abroad (differentiates negatively from group implementation) and leaving friends and partner
- In particular **non-FL students might decide for non-participation in case of difficulties** (not studying foreign languages negatively differentiates from group implementation)

*Note.* Results of all three lines of inquiry to reveal obstacles to TSM and identify strategies to foster TSM are integrated into a mobility profile. Differentiating characteristics of this group from a multivariate perspective are indicated in the text as positively or negatively differentiating variables to lower or higher status groups.

Students’ number one obstacle in absolute terms at the planning stage is an expected delay in the progress of their studies. Knowing that students want to avoid study delays, it is unsurprising that they also rate the insufficient integration of TSM with the structures, regulations and standards of the study program at home as a major problem.

As regards mismatches between program offer and demand, the study in particular revealed that the offer and support for the most desired program form—teaching and school practice abroad—is too limited. This is evidenced by high self-organization rates (55%) and low program support rates (over 30% outside supporting programs) for the program form

teaching and school practice abroad. The lack of centrally coordinated and supported offer for the most demanded program form in the field of teacher education (across all status groups) is to be seen as a severe barrier to a broader diffusion and take-up of TSM among students in the field. The lack of offer is also a plausible factor to explain why implementation rates for this program form were found to be substantially lower than interest and planning rates.

Multivariate results revealed another problem area apparently distinctly relevant to students in the plans group: language-related concerns, in particular as regards the offer of English-language programs. While language *skills* of the interest group and the plans group were shown to be similar, the concern with language as an obstacle was found to be indicative of the plans group (in a multivariate model). In addition, the obstacle “limited offers in English-speaking countries” was found to be highly characteristic (in a multivariate model) of the plans group (having a positive impact at the plans threshold but a negative at the implementation threshold).

The emergence of language as a highly prevalent and characteristic area of obstacles as well as the high importance of well-integrated and adequate program offer is plausible within the framework of the Rubikon model of action phases, and the TSM process modelled upon it: Students in the status group plans have, based on their high motivation, moved towards acting upon their goal intentions. They are working towards a plan on how to concretely implement their mobility intentions. Relevant and well-integrated program offer therefore becomes an important dimension which must match with the foreign language skills students possess.

Students in the status group plans on average speak 1.5 foreign languages at a proficient level. Given the dominance of English as the first foreign language taught in Europe, this implies that for a high portion of students English will be the first foreign language. Results also imply that in particular for non-FL students English will be the sole foreign language spoken at a level that would give them the confidence to work or live abroad. This means that students’ potential program choice is restricted to English-language programs. Combined with a (limited) English-language program offer (or probably: as effectively communicated to students), a severe barrier emerges for molding intentions into implementation. Consequentially, results imply a need for institutions to secure adequate quantitative availability of English-language programs (and/or programs in English-speaking

countries)<sup>98</sup>. Furthermore, a specifically high demand for English-language programs (and/or programs in English-speaking countries) can be expected to exist in the field of teacher education. This is because two large groups of students demand such programs: (1) non-FL students whose only proficient foreign language is English, and (2) FL students who study to become teachers of English in schools who, given the prominence of English as an almost canonical subject in compulsory education, will be a relatively large group among students in teacher education.

Students in the status group implementation (see Table 43) generally display a largely similar profile to students in the plans group in terms of their sociodemographic profile and as regards relevant obstacles. More insightful than looking to the similarities is, however, looking to those factors and characteristics that (in multivariate analysis) distinguish the two groups, and which can therefore be seen as promoting or aggravating the progression from the planning stage to the implementation stage in the TSM process. At first sight it is perhaps surprising to have found that underlying value-related dimensions continue to perform a significant influence at the implementation threshold. The results can be understood with reference to the Rubikon model of action phases: Convictions about the value of TSM relate to the desirability dimension which is a factor determining the overall motivation of students to act upon their goal intentions (volitional strength), thus increasing the likelihood to eventually implement TSM. Multivariate results thus allow for the interpretation that the strength of convictions on the value, benefits and professional relevance of gaining international experiences acts as a buffer “against” obstacles encountered, maintaining students’ drive towards implementation. These results clearly mark out the power that strategies focusing on building students’ convictions about the value and relevance of gaining international experiences for their future profession could have.

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<sup>98</sup> Regarding the interpretations in this paragraph, a limitation has to be kept in mind by the reader. Strictly conceived, the study only provides confirmation for the importance of the obstacle of limited offer in English-speaking countries (as opposed to English-language offer). However, this obstacle can probably be taken to mean too limited English-language offer.

**Table 43: Summary Mobility Profile Group Implementation**

**Mobility profile group implementation**

*“High information level, strong motivation and convictions of professional relevance sustain students through overcoming obstacles and accepting trade-offs”*

- **Well-informed students:** Almost universally students have knowledge where to get information on TSM at their home institution (differentiates positively from plans group) and three quarters know several programs and agencies that support TSM
  - Determination helped to **overcome lack of guidance** at institutions
- **Mismatches program offer seen but limitations overcome (or accepted)**
  - Even if probably not first priority students, decide for most-offered program: study abroad most frequently implemented (37% of all implemented stays) although internships abroad are initially as relevant (28% of all implemented stays)
  - Implementation facilitated through higher initial relevance of study abroad (contrary to other groups “study abroad” and “teaching and school practice abroad” rank ex aequo in first place)
- **Strong underlying convictions sustain motivation and drive to overcome barriers:** Professional relevance of international experiences and competences seen as highly important for future life (differentiates positively from plans group)
- **Many stays outside classical durations, outside support schemes and beyond the classical study-abroad program form**
  - **Almost 50% of all implemented stays shorter than classical 3-12 months period**, only around 20% longer than 6 months; >50% of teaching and school practice shorter than 3 months
  - Over **20% of all stays are implemented without program support** and lack of grants is obstacle no. 1
  - High relevance of practice-oriented TSM forms

*Note.* Results of all three lines of inquiry to reveal obstacles to TSM and identify strategies to foster TSM are integrated into a mobility profile. Differentiating characteristics of this group from a multivariate perspective are indicated in the text as positively or negatively differentiating variables to lower or higher status groups.

Similarly to the value-related domain, results revealed a continued influence that student apprehensions can play (students’ expressed hesitation about living, studying and working in a foreign environment emerged as a negatively differentiating variable at the implementation threshold). Student apprehensions relate to the underlying dimension of realizability in the Rubikon model, thus providing (when absent) a component to sustain drive towards implementation but (when existing) a hindering factor to eventually implementing TSM. Results speak to the importance of regarding student apprehensions not only when researching TSM but also a potential strategy to fostering TSM participation. This may not only include building student confidence or resources (such as their foreign language skills), but also the design of program forms that take into account student apprehensions from the beginning (e.g., shorter, faculty-led, or group programs may appear less “fearsome” to students than endeavoring alone on a study-abroad term in China, for example).

Factual implementation data gained from surveying the implementation group showed that 20% of all stays abroad implemented occurred without program support. Whether this number is higher than in other fields cannot be determined due to a lack of comparable data. It nevertheless underlines that financial concerns of students at earlier stages, a variable that has been revealed as an obstacle potentially inhibiting progress to the planning stage, are not merely attributable to wrong expectations but are a factual problem.

Implementation-related data obtained from this status group also confirms that study delays are not only a consequence feared (e.g., by students in the plans group), but indeed a factual problem: 60% of all students in the status group implementation stated that their studies will be delayed due to the implementation of a stay abroad. Results showed that the extent of the delay caused by going abroad is substantial; broadly speaking, as long as the stay itself. The add-on perspective to student mobility is thus not only a conceptual problem but also materializes itself by causing study delays. The fact that the percentage of students expecting study delays due to having implemented a stay abroad is not smaller among those enrolled in degree programs with compulsory experiences abroad (as was revealed by this study) signifies the extent of the problem: A lack TSM-integration in degree programs where TSM is actually compulsory can be seen as a failure of institutions to deliver teacher education degree programs to students in a manner that allows them to complete the program within the timeframe officially set by the curriculum.

Results also imply that the high motivation of students in the implementation group helped them to overcome problems with information, transparency and guidance at their institutions. Results that revealed this domain of obstacles as having been relevant also to students in the implementation group allow to conclude that information, communication and guidance to students are an area for improvement at institutions.

Finally, important conclusions can be drawn from an integrated comparison of program preferences, offer, and implementation.

The study showed that more than 50% of all stays abroad implemented by teacher education students fell below the classical 3 to 12-months period (indeed a substantial portion also below a 2-months threshold, in particular if the program form teaching and school practice abroad was implemented). Since results showed that students in the plans group and the implementation group do not generally prefer shorter program forms, reasons for the high

pertinence of shorter stays among TE students can be hypothesized to lie within pragmatic realms: When stays abroad have a tendency to be difficult to combine with the TE degree program and to prolong studies, students may opt for shorter, more feasible stays abroad. However, such decisions may also have financial implications since program support in Europe has traditionally been available for periods of at least three months (while the threshold has recently been reduced to two months, see Chapter 2.2.1.1).

The study also showed that in diversion from the stated preferences in the implementation group—an *ex aequo* preference was found for the program forms study abroad and for teaching and school practices abroad, the program form implemented by far most often is study abroad. Results imply that quantitative availability and qualitative support influence student choices, making study abroad the program form most often implemented although not seen as the most *relevant* program form among students. These mismatches represent a suboptimal realization of the potential benefits of TSM (i.e., of implementing practice-based, profession-oriented TSM programs). Results also underline the generally high demand for teaching and school practices abroad, but at the same time that its implementation is aggravated by insufficient offer and support for such programs.

On a more general note, the prevalence of mismatches between program offer at institutions and program demand by students observed throughout the TSM process can be described as extensive. In view of maximizing or increasing participation, these mismatches constitute a severe barrier to a broader uptake of TSM among students in teacher education. One of the reasons for these mismatches can certainly be seen to lie within European traditions which coin institutional practices: Study abroad for a trimester, semester or year is the classical form of gaining TSM in Europe, as was shown in the research and literature review (see Chapter 2.2.4). However, more important than explanations are probably some conclusions: First, the mismatches signify a lack of program development that relies upon data on students' preferences, needs and demands as can be collected through practice-oriented institutional research programs. Without such knowledge, most of the stages of the internationalization circle will likely be accomplished in an unsatisfactory manner; as will be the case for the stated goal of TE institutions—to increase the mobility of students. Second, results reveal a need for institutions to better integrate Stage 7 of the internationalization circle into their managing practices: the review and assessment of existing activities in view of the internal and external context and of the goals of the institution. This need was underlined by results showing that the review of activities to assess and enhance the quality

and impact of initiatives is hardly a priority at TE institutions: The vast majority of institutions surveyed stated that they did not have any systematic evaluations or reviews of the quality, effectiveness, or appropriateness of their international programs in place. Furthermore, the aim to “review existing international programs and partnerships to align them with students demand and institutional priorities in TE” was also not found to be a developmental area of expected future priority. Regarding this dimension, a strong need for change of institutional practices is therefore concluded on the basis of the results.

Graduates having international experiences and competences represent a desirable attainment profile spelled out in higher education policies and discourses—for all students and particularly so for teacher education students. The inquiry has revealed several gaps towards creating a coherent trajectory for goal attainment within the community of students, staff, and leadership at teacher education institutions and at the policy level. The study has traced a cascade of responsibility shifts that leave students with major responsibility to build international engagement opportunities and take charge of their international competence development. While diffusion of the element of study-related mobility is promoted through concrete multisectoral support, other elements seen by innovators as core purposeful components of internationalization in teacher education—content-based curricular internationalization—receive less concrete support. The responsibility for this important facet is thus shifted to the teacher education sector. Dense regulation and an accountability gap at the local regulative level in teacher education, however, shift responsibility further to the institutional level. In addition, strategies at the institutional level clearly prioritize mobility-related measures over curriculum-based, content-related strategies; and mobility is weakly conceptualized within the professional curriculum studied. At the institutional level the diffusion of international dimensions in teacher education degree programs is aggravated by a vast lack of supportive organization strategies. Substantial responsibility is thereby shifted from the leadership level to staff in teacher education. Staff, however, displays no particularly strong supporting convictions for internationalization and a somewhat low readiness for internationalization. As a result, students in teacher education encounter study environments which do not provide them with opportunities for international contacts and internationally coined learning “at ease”. Institutions, lecturers and courses not acting as drivers also shift responsibility for developing intentions to gain study-related experiences abroad to students themselves. Pursuing such interest, students are met with severe obstacles, such as a mismatch between the programs they see as most purposeful like profession-based practice-oriented

stays abroad, and those most extensively offered and supported at TE institutions. To develop towards the profile of internationally experienced and interculturally competent young teachers is thus a responsibility left to students in (too) many respects. While it is criticized here that the ideal of internationally experienced and competent teacher education graduates lacks strategic support from the constituencies responsible to shape teacher education degree programs, it remains to be doubted whether results would have been fundamentally different if one had looked to another field of study: As opposed to discursive figures found in policies, average HEI's practices regarding internationalization were generally assessed to not yet represent the strategic and comprehensive conceptualizations of internationalization which would imply that the higher education sector has accomplished the third leap in internationalization across the board.

### **6.3 Contributions and Limitations of the Study and Perspectives on Future Research**

Having outlined major results and conclusions of the study some general notes, on its contributions and limitations are necessary. The study provides a first extensive and empirically-based exploration of internationalization in the field of teacher education and in particular on the obstacles to student mobility at work in the field. Being the first inquiry of its kind, it was conceptualized in two investigation strands, providing for both a broad, contextualized and multilevel view on internationalization in teacher education, and a distinct analysis of the concrete obstacles to TSM in the field. The combination of these two investigation strands allowed for an encompassing, yet detailed understanding, on the basis of which concrete conclusions and recommendations on ways to foster TSM among students, in particular as relevant to the institutional scope of action can be derived (for recommendations see next chapter, Chapter 6.4). The study makes a distinct practice-oriented and research-based contribution and outlines ways forward in promoting internationalization and student mobility in the field of teacher education. A certain limitation in this respect, which readers should keep in mind, is that inquiries into the field of teacher education relied on a sample of six different teacher education institutions based in two European countries, which of course cannot stand as representative of the whole of European teacher education. However, the validity of conclusions derived is enhanced by two characteristics (which does at the same time not preclude the desirability if results of this study were replicated or extended through further research on internationalization and student mobility in TE): First, the chosen sample of the six institutions is exemplary of a highly common model of teacher education in Europe

(and the most common for primary and lower secondary teachers who form the majority of the teaching body), that is, of teacher education degree programs integrating both subject-specific and didactic/pedagogic studies as well as both academic and practice periods (concurrent model, see Chapter 2.4.3). Second, previous research and theory have guided the study so that results were established on the fundament of broader theories and models. In particular, research on obstacles to student mobility has reverted to a well-confirmed psychological model, the Rubikon model of action phases, in order to model a TSM process and to identify obstacles at different stages in this process. As a theory-guided piece of research, the study therefore also contributes to the field of research on obstacles to student mobility in general.

A direct comparison of the obstacles relevant to TE students as revealed in this study with the obstacles revealed in previous studies is neither purposeful nor feasible due to the innovative approach employed in this study. The study identified four groups of students, mirroring different stages in a process that may eventually lead to the implementation of TSM. Globally assessed, however, we find broad similarities between obstacles revealed as most important in this and in previous studies. Reviewing obstacles for mobile students, for example, it was summarized in Chapter 2.5.4 that they are mainly concerned with financial, administrative/organizational issues as well as the curricular integration of their stay abroad (including obtaining recognition). Results on the obstacles most relevant to the implementation group in the field of teacher education also revealed these issues as being among the most important ones. Similarly, both in previous research and in this study it was found that among non-implementers these issues are relevant as well, while at the same time other obstacles feature more prominently, such as a lack of interest, doubts about the benefits of TSM, feared absence from family/children and/or known social environments, or apprehensions regarding foreign language skills. The fact that we find such similarities when researching obstacles in the field of teacher education comes at no surprise when TSM participation is viewed through the lenses of theory which describes the motivational and volitional processes behind it. Having modelled TSM as a process, the specific merit of this study is therefore also its capability to provide a deep and detailed understanding of the TSM process, and specifically the issues relevant as obstacles (or drivers) at the different stages of the TSM process.

Based on the extensive review of previous research and theoretical deliberations, this study included—more distinctly than previous research—value-based obstacles, obstacles

related to student apprehensions, and obstacles stemming from mismatches between program offer and program demand. This did not only allow confirming the hypothesized fundamental relevance of these domains as obstacles for eventual TSM participation. The process-based approach also allowed showing the different relative importance of these domains throughout the TSM process. In order to reveal the full breadth of TSM obstacles as relevant to students, future research should therefore more extensively include obstacles relating to these domains. Results of this study also imply the purposefulness to differentiate between different groups of non-participants. While the detailed results of this study as regards “the TSM process” are of course confined to their own context—the field of teacher education as assessed in this study, psychological theory also allows to expect a certain generalizability of the results and to predict that the obstacles domain configurations and the relevance of certain issues at certain stages in the TSM process will be similar when researched at other TE institutions and in other subject areas.

The current study clearly revealed a weak coining of teacher education students’ study environments through international dimensions (in particular for non-FL students). Although generally weak, an upward trend of such an international coining among the different status groups of students was also found. At the same time, international dimensions in study environments were in multivariate analyses not revealed as significant predictors of students’ likelihood to belong to the higher status group at three thresholds researched. This was hypothesized to also be related to the fact that the international coining of courses and the institutional environment were found to be rather non-pervasive across the board in teacher education degree programs. Overall, the exact role and impact of (internationally coined) study environments on students’ intent and motivation to gain study-related experiences abroad remains somewhat unclear on the basis of this study. Further research could turn to investigate the role of institutions’, study environments’ and lecturers’ influences on building interest, motivation and on sustaining drive among students towards gaining TSM.

It could have been assumed (including on the basis of previous research as was summarized in Chapter 2.5.4) to find study-related and sociodemographic variables such as whether students study a foreign language, parental income and educational background, or having children as being of high relevance. However, their role—in terms of (significant) differences between the four status groups and in determining “progress” along the TSM process—was, globally speaking, revealed as less relevant than other factors (such as, for example, the professional relevance associated to international experiences and competences).

Results could be influenced by two factors: First, other variables such as attitudes or foreign language skills were included in the multivariate models; these are known to be mediated through parental education and/or previous international experiences, for example. Another factor might be that TE students are probably an already select group in terms of their sociodemographic background (by comparison to a sample obtained from across the HE sector). Overall, results allow to point out the importance of *subjective* evaluations of students (e.g., their attitudes and convictions, their concerns about having sufficient FL skills or whether they will experience financial burden, etc.; by comparison to rather objective factors such as income, whether students have children, etc.). After all, it is the subjective evaluation which acts as an obstacle rather than the objective fact. This importance of subjective evaluations has also been acknowledged previously by other authors (e.g., Souto-Otero et al., 2013). It might therefore also be relevant to conduct further research on how student apprehensions and their convictions could be effectively addressed by institutions.

Since research on internationalization and student mobility specifically in the field of teacher education is scarce, the aim was to enable a broad understanding of diffusion barriers. This is, considering the scope of a dissertation thesis, a challenging exercise. The theory framework and the methodology chosen provided guidance and foci to accomplish this task. A contextualized, multilevel inquiry was at the core of working towards a broad, yet detailed understanding. The policy level was represented through an analysis of European policies and discourses while national-level policies were not analyzed separately. Instead, national context was included in the evaluations of staff at institutions in the staff survey. A stepwise and theory-guided process provided the possibility to gradually increase the focus of inquiry: Inquiry at the institutional level was performed subsequently to the revelation of HE and TE European-level policy models. Results of this macrolevel comparative analysis fed into the definition of areas of inquiry at the institutional and student level. The multilevel inquiry also resulted in high demands with respect to collecting all necessary data (institutional data, staff opinion, student views). Staff and student participation in the surveys was voluntary, resulting in additional work load for these groups. At the staff level the strategy to survey a limited circle of persons and having them give their personal opinion and provide their evaluation of common opinions among staff at their institution was chosen. This way it was possible to get a somewhat broader overview than could have been achieved on the basis of surveying a relatively small sample of staff at institutions. At the same time, it is clear that interpretations of institutional characteristics that were made on the basis of the staff survey rest upon a

limited sample. Because staff views on internationalization and mobility provided highly interesting results, and because academic staff is commonly acknowledged (e.g., Leask, 2013b) as key to fostering internationalization, it could be purposeful in future studies to delve deeper into the topic of staff perspectives on internationalization and mobility and how to foster staff involvement, doing so on the basis of larger samples and/or using other methods. In addition to the staff survey, institutional data stemmed from a collection of factual data on internationalization and mobility at institutions (through a central contact person at each institution) which was further discussed, clarified and validated in interviews with these persons as needed. This approach provided the researcher with extensive background knowledge and supported analysis, interpretation, and conclusions. At the student level, survey participation was ensured through cooperation with institutions: All students enrolled in TE degree programs received the survey through the institutions' centralized mailing lists. This way different selection effects at different institutions could be avoided, which is of high relevance to the reliability of results and validity of conclusions. At the same time, due to different size and contexts of the different institutions, the student sample was determined to a different extent by the students from the six institutions surveyed. The approach of analyzing different status groups of students (who can, across institutions, be expected to display similar characteristics in relation to dimensions related to in the Rubikon model of action phases) and including institutional affiliation as a control variable in the analysis therefore provided important aspects of securing the quality of results. The analysis and relational interpretation of a high volume of data and results stemming from the macro-, meso- and microlevel, in turn, could not have been accomplished without the guidance of a clear theoretical and methodological framework. Important in the comparison was the use of theoretical concepts (rationales and elements of internationalization) so that the dimensions of the compared internationalization models were the same, even though data was not collected through the same method or items (e.g., document analysis at policy level, survey at institutional and student level). The methodology enabled the use of data from multiple levels and to put these into perspective through a structured comparative inquiry and dynamic contextualization (as was described in Chapter 3.1), thus revealing interdependencies and dynamics between the different entities who co-determine the eventual diffusion of internationalization. Given its distinct methodology, the study also makes a contribution to comparative education and innovative ways in conducting comparative educational research. The combination of the more explorative and interpretative Investigation Strand 1 and the more evaluative and quantitatively framed Investigation Strand 2 on obstacles to student mobility enabled to arrive

at both a deep understanding of the field *and* explanations in terms of internationalization diffusion barriers, concrete obstacles to mobility, and how these are intertwined; thus at what Kelle (2007) has referred to as an understanding explanation. Linking results on student mobility with institutional and policy-level environments, the study allows deriving context-aware and concrete recommendations on possible ways to foster TSM and internationalization in teacher education. The methodology could therefore inspire further comparative research and research on mobility and internationalization to use multilevel perspectives.

#### **6.4 Practical Recommendations on Ways to Foster TSM in Teacher Education**

Findings show that existing “ideals” of TE graduates as internationally experienced young professionals lack strategic support at various levels, and that levers to support the diffusion of international dimensions in TE degree programs are underutilized. In line with the aims of the thesis, this chapter will provide recommendations on ways to foster TSM in teacher education in the form of relevant program and organization strategies. Conclusions are drawn in particular with regard to the institutional-level scope of action while the chapter begins with the outline of a range of policy-level recommendations.

The 21<sup>st</sup> century zeitgeist model of internationalization was described as a non-neutral context to the field of teacher education through its prioritization of prestigious joint or double degree programs which are comparatively difficult develop and deliver in the field of teacher education as one of the reasons. Catering to the whole higher education sector, HE-general policies of course have to remain general. When models of internationalization are, however, shaped in ways (e.g., by prioritizing the research function of HE) in which the capability to connect to these models is different in different subsectors or fields, this is to be viewed with a critical eye: Internationalization policies and programs then do not cater to the whole sector and spectrum of higher education to the same extent, thus running the risk to marginalize certain fields (e.g., institutions of applied sciences, professional colleges) while prioritizing others (e.g., top-notch, research-intensive universities). This does not only apply to the subsector teacher education: That different viable and purposeful models of internationalization exist in different fields has also been concluded from previous research (e.g., Leask, 2013b; Leask, 2013a). De Wit’s conclusion from the year 2002, that such differences are underrepresented in research is, however, still valid today (Wit, 2002). A stronger focus in research on the viability and purposefulness of different internationalization

models in different fields and on the positive and negative implications for different subsectors or subject areas would therefore be desirable. Such reflection in research could probably also enhance consciousness at the policy-making level about the relevance to ensure the inclusiveness of policies and programs for the whole HE sector. For the fields that operate on “special terms” (Teichler, 2007, p. 330) themselves, such as teacher education, a task would be to be outspoken about their specific needs rather than, despite all pressures, following routes of development along dominant models.

The distinct prioritizations of the HE-general model of internationalization were, however, in this study not identified as the *root* to a low diffusion of international dimensions in TE degree programs, the relatively low and underproportionate mobility levels, and the yet unaccomplished third leap in the field. Models currently guiding internationalization in higher education were not found to hinder the unfolding of the teacher education-specific trajectory of internationalization. Rather, a range of diffusion barriers was found to rest in the field itself.

First of all, there is an accountability gap created at the highest level of the teacher education sector itself: Teacher education is a regulated field with program directors, deans and institutions in teacher education being held accountable, *vis-à-vis* the policies and regulations governing TE degree programs. A relatively unique and (potentially) very powerful top-down lever to support the diffusion of international dimensions thus exists in the field. Due to a lack of regard of internationalization, the governance lever to supporting stronger internationalization in teacher education degree programs is, however, underutilized. Almost to the contrary, governing regulations are seen to perform a rather aggravating role (e.g., density of regulations, caps on the amount of credits or on parts of the program allowed to be taken outside of the home institution). Unless this barrier in sectoral governance will be addressed by responsible policy-making bodies at the local level, internationalization in teacher education is set to remain within the more limited realms it operates in now. Therefore, an important recommendation to foster internationalization and TSM in teacher education degree programs is directed towards sectoral policy-making in teacher education: Regulations and frameworks governing teacher education degree programs should become more inclusive of international dimensions, including gaining first-hand international experiences. The precise strategies will need to be defined according to local situations, but could relate to curricular specifications such as the contents or learning outcomes of teacher education degree programs; furthermore, to structural components such as deregulation in

general, untightening limits to amounts or parts of the degree program that can be taken outside the home institution; or to the introduction of regulations ensuring curricula to make stays abroad possible without study delays, in order to be officially accredited.

The rather problematic role of sectoral governance also implies that probably a more general reflection on the goals of teacher education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century is needed. Teachers today are educated to teach in schools of globally networked nation states in which societies are becoming increasingly multicultural and will continue to do so. In Germany, for example, currently a third of children and youth have a migrant background (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2015), a number expected to rise substantially over the next decades. This has impacts on the educational needs of teachers. Today, for example, around 40% of practicing teachers in the European OECD countries express a need for professional development relating to teaching in multicultural or multilingual settings (Eurydice, 2015, p. 58). To foster such reflection, study visits (of persons responsible for specifying regulations but also beyond) to countries which have long-standing experience with immigration and multicultural classrooms such as, for example, the US, Canada, or the United Kingdom could be purposeful.

Results of this study led to the conclusion that internationalization is indeed still an innovation in the field, and that a gap exists between innovative enclaves leading discourses and policy-making at the European level on the one hand, and how ideas and practices are reflected at the level of local policy making and in HEI's practices<sup>99</sup> on the other hand. The diffusion of internationalization in teacher education as an idea and practice thus requires, as by definition, a "change process altering the structure and function of a system" (Rogers, 2003, p. 6). In order to foster such a change process, stakeholders supporting the stronger internationalization of teacher education should join forces. It is therefore recommended that innovators should become networked at the local and international level. Networks do not only foster exchange but also enhance the impact of their members' voices. On the basis of networks, problems and demands could be better positioned vis-à-vis policy-making. Furthermore, existing stable networks at the local and European level would constitute powerful partners in reaching goals; goals as have been established at the European level, such as the recently stated wish of European ministers responsible for education to "promote the mobility of teacher education students in view of the important role they will play in

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<sup>99</sup> It is worth noting here that the European policy-level model of internationalization in teacher education, as revealed in this study, is not to be seen as a prescriptive idea of how to internationalize TE degree programs at local levels. At local levels distinct accentuations exist.

educating future generations of Europeans” (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2015, p. 3). Coordination in the Bologna process had, however, shown that such networks were largely lacking (in particular at the international level; Huisman & File, 2006, p. 40). This means that policy entities actually lack partners to transform wishes as stated above into reality. It is therefore also recommended that European policy makers should consider the direct promotion of the formation of such networks. The formation should be supported with the aim to (a) make them sustainable in the long term and (b) to represent substantial parts of European teacher education since only such networks will be able to make a wide impact. The networks should be established under the leadership, inclusion or linking of already existing (smaller) networks (e.g., TNTEE, ENTEP, ATEE, etc.; see Chapter 4.1.1.2). To achieve the sustainability and impact of networks, the existing project-based funding (such as available under Erasmus+) would, however, constitute insufficient means, not least due to the limited time span that such projects have (maximum three years). To maximize impact, projects should rather constitute initiatives conducted *within* sustainable networks. A recommendation for the (national or European) policy level is therefore to prioritize and adequately support the formation of networks *first* (a process for which a medium-term time span should be allowed for), while providing funding for project-based activities as a *follow-up*. In addition, European support programs such as Erasmus+ or Horizon 2020 could make the internationalization of teacher education (including research on it) a priority issue more visible than it is now.

At the institutional level, one of the most important recommendations is to develop, manage and implement both internationalization and study-related mobility in a much more *strategic* manner involving: context and needs analysis; the design of adequate program *and* organization strategies; the creation of reinforcement mechanisms, in particular for academic staff; the alignment of resource devotion to established aims; the institution-wide communication of goals and priorities; and the systematic review of activities and goal achievement. If the potential of a strategic approach—in which operational activities are aligned to strategy and goals—is not exploited, institutions run the risk to invest resources in ways that do not maximize the potential benefits. As publicly funded institutions, and as public institutions under financial strain, this of course should be avoided.

Those tasked with developing, managing, and implementing internationalization activities can revert to models developed in the field of internationalization research. The model referred to as the internationalization circle (described in Chapter 2.1.2) is specifically

recommendable: Since it is not prescriptive or normative regarding the aims, purposes, or elements of internationalization to be focused upon, it is suited to support implementing internationalization in ways purposeful and feasible to any given setting. Rather, as a management model, it guides a stepwise approach to setting and achieving goals.

In a process of strategically managing internationalization, a particularly important recommendation is the reliance on institutional research and data wherever possible. In other words, this is a call for *evidence-based practices* in internationalization. Through reliance on data, diffusion barriers can be made visible and gaps as they were found in this study (e.g., the substantial mismatches between institutional TSM program offer and student demand) can be avoided better. The study at hand can be seen as a multi-institutional template for such research upon which smaller institutional research projects could be modelled. Clearly, conducting institutional research is associated with an initial investment of resources needed. Such investment is, however, expected to pay off in the longer term since it enables the development of evidence-based practices, which, eventually, can maximize the ratio of resource investment and impact.

Both recommendations—a strategic approach to managing internationalization and the reliance on institutional research to achieve this—are based on the idea to develop internationalization in response to the needs of all different stakeholders. To some extent this will mean to “start anew” for institutions. Moving from an activity approach (Knight, 2004) to a *strategic and quality-assuring management approach* needs to entail asking the questions: What is no longer needed? Which current activities or partnerships and projects “do not deliver” and should therefore be cancelled? Ongoing activities need to be scrutinized through systematic evaluation and review. The review of ongoing activities should, in view of current practices as revealed by this study, be given substantially more weight at institutions.

The need for reviewing existing activities was underlined by the gap revealed to exist between program offer at institutions and student demand. In order to increase TSM levels among teacher education students, it appears imperative to reshape and diversify the institutional offer of TSM program forms. The current path of focusing heavily on the classical study-abroad program should, at least to a certain extent, be diverted from since this program form is not the most relevant one to students. In the following directions of reshaping and diversifying TSM program offer at institutions are outlined, as implied by the results of this study.

- Teaching and school practices abroad were shown to be the program form receiving most demand from students. Recommendations for TE institutions are to (1) substantially increase the offer (thereby also reducing high self-organization rates of above 50%, compared to only 7% for study abroad, and thus high additional workload associated with this program form). Furthermore, to (2) offer teaching and school practices of different length (offered length should be primarily derived from the specifications in the curriculum); and to (3) publish all options for teaching and school practices abroad centrally to students, including the pre-arranged possibilities for funding and accreditation for each of the opportunities.
- Other, shorter profession-based and practice-oriented programs were also shown to be in high demand on the side of teacher education students. Although programs like faculty-led excursions or study visits occur with certain frequency at TE institutions, their offer and related support services are usually not centralized at the responsible international units. A centralized offer, for example, through a list of all opportunities offered over a year and related options for accreditation and funding, would increase visibility and facilitate access and planning for students. As shorter and typically group-based and pre-organized programs, in particular when also financially supported (60% of these stays currently occur without program support), these programs would be particularly attractive to students whose thinking is coined by hesitation, insecurities, financial concerns, and those who have dependent family members. Shorter and group-based programs also have the potential to function as door-openers for students who have reservations to just go into foreign environments all by themselves: The experience abroad could ensure them about their coping skills, causing them to maybe endeavor on a “larger” TSM experience by themselves at a later stage. It is therefore recommended to (1) increase the offer for short profession-based and practice-based programs, to (2) centrally publish offer and support for this program form at responsible international units, and to (3) improve financial support available to students for this program form.
- For the same reasons, the increase and institutionalization of the offer and support for shorter academic stays abroad, such as summer schools, could increase the number of teacher education graduates with first-hand international experiences. Currently, despite of their relevance to a considerable portion of students, this type

of program was shown to be of very limited importance at institutions. As a first step, the collection of information about available summer schools and the centralized publication of such offers to students would be a way forward.

- Language-related issues play an important role in the TSM process. Several aspects can be mentioned in this respect for consideration. First of all, it is recommended to ensure the sufficient availability of English-language programs and/or programs in English-speaking countries. This currently seems to be a limitation for students who otherwise show high motivation, not least because the demand for English-language programs was concluded to be specifically high in the field of teacher education (stemming from non-FL students whose first foreign language will often be English and from FL students who study to become teachers of English). Possibly—institutions would have to determine further if this could be the case at their institution—the availability of English-language programs outside English-speaking countries (today very common at most larger HEIs across Europe) simply needs to be better communicated to students.
- Furthermore, to foster students' foreign language skills (beyond FL students) through courses at the home institution or through courses in immersion countries can be identified as potential strategy to increase eventual mobility levels since a lack of foreign language skills was, in absolute terms, found to be a relatively consistent obstacle for students in the different status groups. Because of its perseverance, it is recommended that institutions give attention to this aspect. Understandably, however, its support through institutional funds could also be seen controversially when foreign language learning is an element unrelated to the curriculum. In any case, institutions could focus their support on generally motivating teacher education students to improve their foreign language skills, and facilitating access to existing offers (e.g., through language learning centres that many larger universities have) at the institution.

With the instigation of these measures, TSM levels in teacher education are likely destined to rise since institutional offer and support would better match with the preferences and needs of students. Beyond the concrete program forms, further measures which could support a higher take-up of study-related mobility among students can be proposed.

A lack of program integration and resulting study delays are an important problem to all students who show at least a basic interest in TSM. The factual relevance of this problem was evidenced by expected study delays which, on average, correspond to the average duration of the stay abroad itself, including among those who actually study in degree programs in which TSM is compulsory. This issue should, after further detailed examination at institutions, be urgently addressed through the revision of curricula and curricular regulations. In addition, *quality control of TSM program offer* should take place: it is strongly suggested to review and re-design program offer in terms of its structural integration into teacher education degree programs, gradually cancelling such programs or partnerships which do not secure that accreditation in the degree program at home can be achieved. Because of the current dominance of study-abroad at institutions, a review of programs and partnerships in this area is particularly implied. Furthermore, the development of TSM programs together with persons or units responsible for accreditation is strongly advisable—both in terms of content (program directors, disciplinary institutes) and in terms of process (administration). Collaboration with administration could be sought as well to build databases of accreditation possibilities on the basis of previous experience. This would substantially facilitate the publication of accreditation possibilities together with program opportunities which is one of the strategies to promote the take-up of TSM that has been proposed above.

Similarly to study delays, financial concerns and an (expected) lack of grants are among the important obstacles to all students who show interest in TSM, plan TSM, or have implemented TSM. High concern with the (potential) lack of grants is indeed an inhibitory factor at the threshold towards planning. As with accreditation, it is therefore recommended to institutions (1) that any program developed is scrutinized regarding financial support available, (2) to publish this information together with program options, and (3) to discard programs (as far as allowed for by demand) for which financial support cannot be ensured.

Shorter program forms (duration of less than 3 months) have a high factual relevance among students in teacher education. Because program support options in Europe are currently more limited for shorter forms of TSM than for longer forms, this implies a need for institutions, funding agencies, and more specifically for policy-making bodies to increase the financial support available for shorter program forms in teacher education. This concerns in particular support for programs with a duration of less than 2 months and/or which cannot be funded within Erasmus+.

Student evaluations suggested that access to information and transparency is problematic at institutions. Results specifically implied that *guidance*—by contrast to information provision—to students should be made a key principle in re-designing information and communication offers for students (website, brochures, events, etc.). International units should be developed as units where all information relating to the possible eventual implementation of TSM is cross-institutionally integrated and made available as a service to students. This does not mean that international units have to be developed into one-stop-shops for all processes (e.g., accreditation); it is more helpful to think of their function as institutional portals to gaining study-related experiences abroad. At institutions where teacher education is a subunit (e.g., faculty, school) or even a field of study established across faculties, responsible deans or program directors should ask the question whether they have successfully established an international unit taking over this portal function. This does not necessarily imply that institutions have to establish new international units. It could simply entail that central international units, for example, have one person specifically responsible for advising and supporting students in teacher education. Such arrangements that pool relevant knowledge seem appropriate in view of the “technical” details to regard when it comes to TSM in teacher education degree programs.

Web-based information offers of internationalization units, because of the accessibility and importance of online communication today, should be carefully planned and critically evaluated by institutions. In planning communication to students, it will be helpful to think of eventual TSM participation as the result of a preceding process (as it has been done in this study), and to differentiate different target groups (e.g., those already planning TSM, those interested, those yet undecided, etc.). These target groups have very different needs (see group profiles in previous Chapter 6.2), and accordingly should be provided the type and level of information relevant for them. In a procedural and target-group specific perspective, the promotion of mobility starts with the question of why it could be relevant for students to gain study-related experiences; it also entails to address student apprehensions, for example, through outlining how institutional offer can support overcoming these; it also entails to motivate interested students to start planning, and to outline how they can do so and how much preparatory time they should allow for; only as one of the last steps it will entail presenting all detailed information about specific programs, such as how and when to apply for places and funding, what to regard prior to departure, during implementation, and upon return. Looking to existing websites we do, however, often find that they present exactly the

latter kind of information to all visitors. This is suboptimal since many students can easily be overwhelmed by the sheer mass of information and shyed away. It is therefore recommended to differentiate information offer according to the different target groups wherever possible (e.g., also through the offer of target group-specific information sessions)

A further offer implied by this study is the introduction of (possibly group-based) counselling early at the beginning of studies in order to help insecure or yet undecided students to overcome obstacles. It is important to understand such counselling as something quite different from information sessions for all students which are very common in introductory weeks for new students. Addressing student apprehensions and possible doubts about the value of TSM will be specifically important dimensions in early counselling. Reverting to diffusion theory (Rogers, 2003), the use of peer groups (including social media) to establish interest and specifically to address apprehensions relating to TSM can also be recommended: Peers have high credibility and influence, in particular if they are not from the group of the “venturesome few” but from the more common circle of students who had doubts and apprehensions themselves.

Institutions might ask themselves which strategies to prioritize. Here, it is recommended that institutions seize knowledge on adoption and diffusion processes of innovations. Different adopter categories—innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority, laggards (Rogers, 2003; see Chapter 1.4.1)—exist in a total student body. Their adoption of TSM can be accomplished at a different pace. At the same time, those having adopted an innovation—TSM in our case—can function as diffusion agents (if satisfied with the adoption) for the other segments. It would therefore be purposeful and resource-efficient to first prioritize the removal of obstacles relevant to implementers and those already having plans in order to maximize participation and satisfaction (see in detail group profiles in Chapter 6.2). Subsequently, the status group interest and their concerns could be targeted. Eventually, student groups with no existing interest could be targeted. At this stage, since institutions would already have addressed a range of the existing obstacles to study-related mobility, the mobilization of the latter two target groups is also likely to already have become easier than previously.

Study-related mobility was shown to currently function as an add-on in teacher education degree programs, both in structural and conceptual terms. Institutions should try to move TSM out of its add-on status. Besides structural integration, this entails to engage in

reflection and dialogue about how TSM is, should or can be conceptually linked to the teacher education degree programs. This would entail a discussion of how TSM can be used, given the institutional conditions, to contribute to building internationally coined competences as relevant to teachers—such as the knowledge of other education systems and practices, global citizenship and intercultural competences, the ability to deal with multicultural classrooms, the capacity to work on international projects with schools abroad, or to participate in international teacher professional development. For students, positive convictions about the professional relevance of international experiences and competences were revealed as strong drivers sustaining motivation to eventually implement TSM. If, in the discourse of an institution, these aspects are left out, institutions also leave an important driver unaddressed—and TSM a conceptual add-on. As an add-on, TSM is not destined to receive the support and ownership it could get among academic staff whose task it is to prepare future teachers for their profession. Therefore, such reflection should in particular be performed involving academic staff in teacher education. Without support and ownership among academic staff, who are in the position to link TSM to learning outcomes of teacher education curricula on an everyday basis, TSM is neither destined to deliver maximized benefits nor destined to diffuse as deep into the system as it could.

Moving TSM out of its add-on position is certainly not a goal that can be accomplished in the short-term. The moment TSM is thought of as a conceptually and structurally embedded element it becomes part of a core process in higher education—teaching and learning, and needs to be related to the learning outcomes of the teacher education program. As an embedded element, TSM will likely neither go unnoticed nor undisputed. Moving TSM out of its add-on perspective can therefore be compared to a process of curricular development and organizational change. Touching the core of higher education, it will need absolute leadership backing as much as institutional commitment in terms of resource devotion and the creation of reinforcement mechanisms relevant to the career structures of academic staff. Despite the fact that relatively high initial investments will be needed, the goal to move TSM out of its add-on position constitutes a way forward to reach integration effects on teaching and learning, and a way forward for teacher education institutions to accomplish the third leap in internationalization: The high general “diffusability” of TSM in the field of teacher education (evidenced in this study through existing multilevel and multisectoral support for the element) could be utilized by innovators. By placing the element of TSM in the lead, the diffusion of TSM and its conceptual and

structural integration could spearhead a broader change process, at the end of which teacher education degree programs would more encompassingly include international dimensions than today. It would be highly desirable if local policy-making entities, as the entities with probably the most powerful lever in their hands, positioned themselves as innovators leading such a development through commitment evidenced by aligned actions, enabling future teachers to act as the internationally experienced role models and professionals in the classrooms of the 21<sup>st</sup> century they are desired to be.

## Appendix A: Policy Documents

Policy documents analyzed in Investigation Strand 1 (macrolevel analysis) are listed below; the concerned policy document set (HE or TE) is indicated in parentheses after each reference.

Association for Teacher Education in Europe. (2006). *Policy Paper: The Quality of Teachers*. Retrieved from [http://www.atee1.org/uploads/kennisbank/quality\\_of\\_teachers\\_atee\\_def.pdf](http://www.atee1.org/uploads/kennisbank/quality_of_teachers_atee_def.pdf) (TE)

Buchberger, F., Campos, B. P., Kallos, D., & Stephenson, J. (Eds.). (2000). *Green paper on teacher education in Europe: High quality teacher education for high quality education and training*. Umeå: TNTEE. (TE)

Council of the EU. (2007a). Conclusions of the Council and of the Representatives of the Governments of the Member States, meeting within the Council of 15 November 2007, on improving the quality of teacher education. *Official Journal of the European Union*, 2007/C 300/07, 6–9. (TE)

Council of the EU. (2007b). *Council resolution of 23 November 2007 on modernising universities for Europe's competitiveness in a global knowledge economy*. Retrieved from [http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms\\_Data/docs/pressdata/en/intm/97237.pdf](http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_Data/docs/pressdata/en/intm/97237.pdf) (HE)

Council of the EU. (2009). Council conclusions of 12 May 2009 on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training ('ET 2020'). *Official Journal of the European Union*, 2009/C 119/02, 2–10. (TE)

Council of the EU. (2010). Council conclusions on the internationalisation of higher education. *Official Journal of the European Union*, 2010/C 135/04, 12–14. (HE)

European Commission. (2005). *Communication from the Commission: Mobilising the brainpower of Europe: enabling universities to make their full contribution to the Lisbon Strategy*. COM(2005) 152 final. Brussels. Retrieved from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1465748917927&uri=CELEX:52005DC0152> (HE)

European Commission. (2006). *Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament: Delivering on the modernisation agenda for universities -*

*Education, research and innovation*. COM(2006) 208 final. Brussels. Retrieved from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1465748563739&uri=CELEX:52006DC0208> (HE)

European Commission. (2010). *The EU Contribution to the European Higher Education Area*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. (HE)

European Commission. (2011). *Communication for the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions: Supporting growth and jobs - an agenda for the modernization of Europe's higher education system*. COM(2011) 567 final. Brussels. Retrieved from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX%3A52011DC0567> (HE)

European Commission/DG EAC. (2005). *Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications*. Brussels. Retrieved from European Commission website: [http://www.atee1.org/uploads/EUpolicies/common\\_eur\\_principles\\_en.pdf](http://www.atee1.org/uploads/EUpolicies/common_eur_principles_en.pdf) (TE)

European Commission/DG EAC. (n.d.). *Education and Training 2010 programme Cluster 'Teachers and Trainers': Main policy conclusions 2005-2007*. Brussels. Retrieved from [http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/clusters/reportpeer3\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/clusters/reportpeer3_en.pdf) (TE)

European Commission/DG EAC. (2003). *Implementation of "Education and Training 2010" work programme. Working Group "Improving the education of teachers and trainers": Progress Report*. Brussels. Retrieved from [http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/doc/working-group-report\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/doc/working-group-report_en.pdf) (TE)

European Commission/DG EAC. (2004). *Implementation of "Education and Training 2010" work programme. Working Group "Improving the education of teachers and trainers": Progress Report*. (WG1.1/10/004). Brussels. Retrieved from <http://ec.europa.eu/education/policies/2010/doc/trainer2004.pdf> (TE)

European Commission/DG EAC. (2007). *Education and Training 2010 programme Cluster 'Teachers and Trainers': Report of the Peer Learning Activity, Oslo, May 2007 'How can Teacher Education and Training policies prepare teachers to teach effectively in culturally*

*diverse settings?*'. Brussels. Retrieved from [http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/clusters/reportpeer3\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/clusters/reportpeer3_en.pdf) (TE)

European Parliament, & Council of the EU. (2006). Decision No 1720/2006/EC of 15 November 2006 establishing an action programme in the field of lifelong learning. *Official Journal of the European Union*, L 327, 45–68. (TE)

European Trade Union Committee for Education. (2009). *Teacher Education in Europe: An ETUCE Policy Paper*. Brussels. Retrieved from <https://www.csee-etu.org/en/documents/publications/438-teacher-education-in-europe-an-etu-ce-policy-paper-2009> (TE)

Gassner, O. (2010). ENTEP and European teacher education: Policy issues since 2000. In O. Gassner, L. Kerger, & M. Schratz (Eds.), *ENTEP. The first ten years after Bologna* (pp. 13–42). București: Editura Universității din București. (TE)

Schratz, M. (2010). What is a “European teacher”? In O. Gassner, L. Kerger, & M. Schratz (Eds.), *ENTEP. The first ten years after Bologna* (pp. 97–102). București: Editura Universității din București. (TE)

Sigma Project. (1995). *Erasmus Subject Evaluations: Summary Reports of the Evaluation Conferences by Subject Area. Volume I*. Retrieved from <http://eafponline.eu/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/EAFP-report-prepared-In-European-Commission.-Erasmus-Subject-Evaluations-1995.pdf> (TE)

Tuning Project. (2009). *Reference Points for the Design and Delivery of Degree Programmes in Education*. Bilbao. Retrieved from [http://www.unideusto.org/tuningeu/images/stories/Publications/Education\\_brochure.pdf](http://www.unideusto.org/tuningeu/images/stories/Publications/Education_brochure.pdf) (TE)



## **Appendix B: Collection of Core Data on Internationalization and TSM at Institutions**

The Core Data Sheet was available in English. A “Microsoft Word” document (to be completed electronically) containing instructions and all data to be collected from institutions was mailed to contact persons and completed by knowledgeable contact persons at the institutions (usually head of central international unit at relevant, i.e., institutional or departmental, level). Based on desktop research of the author, some data in the Core Data Sheet (e.g., on the degrees available at institutions, officially published data on internationalization) was already pre-filled and institutions were asked to check the correctness of data and to submit further data or documents (e.g., internationalization strategies, detailed mobility statistics) to the author to enhance the understanding of internationalization and student mobility at the institution (in the field of education/teacher education). For purposes to ensure and validate a full and correct understanding of internationalization and mobility at institutions, interviews and/or further email exchanges were conducted with the contact persons at each institution. Interviews were recorded and transcribed for reference purposes and can thus be obtained on demand. Interviews took place at the following dates:

Institution 1: 25 May, 2013

Institution 2: no interview conducted

Institution 3: 26 June, 2013

Institution 4: 26 July, 2013

Institution 5: 19 May, 2013

Institution 6: 6 May, 2013



## Appendix C: Core Data Sheet—Instructions, Items, Measurement

Variable Reference	Institutional Core Data Sheet Instructions, Questions and Answer Categories	
	<b>INTRODUCTION AND INSTRUCTIONS</b>	
	<p><b>Internationalization and short-term mobility in the field of teacher education</b>            Contact: [author name], [author email address]</p> <p><i>Kindly follow the instructions throughout the data sheet and fill in the data. Add any comments or specifications, if deemed necessary. Some data is already pre-filled.</i></p>	
	<b>PART I – INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL</b>	
	<p><i>Please complete the data in the right hand side of the tables and/or mark answers by putting a cross ('x') next to relevant answers. This section asks for general data, key facts about degree programs in the subject area 'Education and Teacher Education' (abbreviated as Edu/TE) and on internationalization at your institution as a whole. Teacher Education is abbreviated as TE.</i></p>	
	<b>I.1 General data on institution</b>	
CI 1	Type of institution	Prefilled (if known)
CI 2	Dominant type of degrees offered	Prefilled (if known)
CI 3	Awards Master's degrees or equivalent (long-cycle programs)	Prefilled (if known)
CI 4	Awards PhD titles	Prefilled (if known)
CI_5	Has a public mandate and mission in teaching/learning and research that is linked with (basic/lump sum/formula-based) funding for both missions	Prefilled (if known)
CI 6	Total student enrollment (2010/2011) (heads count)	
CI 7	Total no. or % of international students (incl. enrolled short-term incoming students) (2010/2011)	
CI 8	Total incoming students (short-term mobility) per year (2010/2011)	
CI 9	Total outgoing students (short-term mobility) per year (2010/2011)	
	<b>I.2 Degree programs in the subject area 'education and teacher education' offered at first and second cycle at institution (excl. short-cycle and/or further education programs/certificates)</b>	
CI_10	Teacher education (TE) programs (type of degree awarded is given in brackets – B=Bachelor, M=Master )	Prefilled (if known)
CI_11	Other programs in subject area 'education and teacher education' (type of degree awarded is given in brackets)	Prefilled (if known)
CI_12	Other programs	Prefilled (if known)
	<b>I.3 Details on teacher education degrees (If appropriate, take most typical program in which most students enroll)</b>	
CI 13	Length of degree and type of degree awarded	Prefilled (if known)
CI_14	Degree directly qualifies to continue in PhD program	Prefilled (if known)

CI_15	Program includes compulsory practical components	Yes/No If yes, please specify minimum length, e.g. in weeks:
CI_16	Upon graduation TE students obtain a full teaching qualification	Yes/No If not, pls. specify length and focus (theoretical/practical) of program to obtain a full teaching qualification):
	<b>I.4 Organization model/structural implementation of internationalization at participating entity (within larger institution, if applicable):</b> Which bodies/structures exist at your institution (the whole institution and the levels below)?	
CI_17_1	Management team dedicated function for internationalization, e.g. Rector, Vice-Rector, Dean, Vice-Dean etc.	Yes/No If yes, pls specify:
CI_17_2	Regular working groups and other more informal coordination structures	Yes/No
CI_17_3	International unit responsible for coordinating and integrating the institution's internationalization agendas (e.g. International Office) (central/institution-wide)	Yes/No
CI_17_4	International unit/coordinators at <u>decentral level or disciplinary level (covering exclusively or closely the area of teacher education)</u> , such as international coordinators for teacher education programs or specific departments within the institution	Yes/No
CI_17_5	Academic coordinator(s) in internationalization (central/institution-wide), e.g. Academic Director for International Programs who usually works closely with management and international office and takes over academic issues	Yes/No
CI_17_6	Academic coordinator(s) in internationalization at <u>decentral or disciplinary level (covering exclusively or closely the area of teacher education)</u> , e.g. Academic Coordinator at departmental level or Academic coordinator for internationalization in teacher education	Yes/No
	<b>PART II - DATA FOR PARTICIPATING ENTITY INVOLVED IN TEACHER EDUCATION (SUBJECT AREA 'EDUCATION AND TEACHER EDUCATION')</b>	
	<p><i>At the institutional level teacher education programs are often related to and 'intermingled' with other programs in the broader subject area 'education and teacher education'. This is why the wording 'teacher education (Edu/TE)' is used in the questions. This reflects a <u>primary focus of the questions on teacher education (as the majority of programs in mind when answering questions) but is inclusive of the whole subject area of 'education and teacher education', when applicable for your institution.</u></i></p> <p><i>The following questions should be answered <u>for your participating entity that is involved in the education of teachers and related professions.</u> Depending on your institutional situation the participating entity is either the complete institution or subunits/structures for teacher education (Edu/TE) within your institution. Below, I will consistently use the wording 'institution' to denote the participating entity.</i></p> <p><i>The focused area in this project is the <u>internationalization of teaching and learning (as opposed to for example research).</u> This comprises <u>at home-components of internationalization, such as internationalizing curricular orientation or the general study environment on the one side, and abroad-components on the other, such as mobility programs for studying, research, internships or project work abroad.</u> When answering statements relating internationalization in general, you may</i></p>	

	<i>want to keep in mind that student mobility is usually the strongest component within this.</i>	
	<i>In their wording most questions explicitly ask for the situation at your institution within teacher education (edu/TE) programs. In <u>those cases where no differences or specific situations exist between the different subject areas or subunits of your institution the answers may simply be given in relation to the general institutional situation.</u></i>	
	<b>II.1 General data on participating entity</b>	
	<b>General data for teacher education (Edu/TE) Please complete data on the right hand side of the table</b>	
CII_1	(Estimated) No. academic staff (heads count) in teacher education (Edu/TE)	Prefilled (if known)
CII_2	(Estimated) % of teaching staff holding a PhD in teacher education (Edu/TE)	
CII_3	Total student enrollment 2010/2011 (heads count) in teacher education (Edu/TE) and % of female students	Prefilled (if known)
CII_4	(Estimated) No. or % of international students (incl. short-term incomings) 2010/2011 in teacher education (Edu/TE)	Prefilled (if known)
CII_5	No. of outgoing (short-term mobility) students per year (2010/2011) in teacher education (Edu/TE)	Prefilled (if known)
CII_6	No. of incoming (short-term mobility) students per year (2010/2011) in teacher education (Edu/TE)	
	<b>II.2 Factual implementation of programs, elements and processes of internationalization in teaching and learning (including in particular mobility programs)</b>	
	<i>Please answer the following questions below, mark relevant answer with a cross ('x') and add details.</i>	
CII_7	Do you offer any joint/double degree programs with international partners in the area of teacher education (Edu/TE)?	Yes/No If yes, pls list program name(s): _____
CII_8	Do you offer any joint courses (integrated curricular programs implying a pre-approved course program) with international partners in the area of teacher education (Edu/TE)?	Yes/No If yes, pls list program name(s): _____
CII_9	Do you offer any otherwise genuinely internationally oriented certified programs (at least documentable in Diploma Supplement) in teacher education (Edu/TE) where students can develop an international profile?	Yes/No If yes, pls list program name(s): _____
CII_10	Are students in any of your degree programs in teacher education (Edu/TE) required to go abroad in order to graduate?	Yes/No If yes, pls list program name(s): _____
CII_11	Please mark (by putting a cross 'x' into relevant fields on the left-hand side of the table) all areas of primary responsibility of your international unit (e.g. International Office) that is coordinating internationalization in teacher education (Edu/TE)	Mark all that apply: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Strategic program development</li> <li>- Program initiation</li> <li>- Program development</li> <li>- Program 'accreditation' (approving and signing contracts, etc.)</li> <li>- Program coordination and implementation</li> <li>- Coordination of 'international' course program</li> <li>- Coordinating internationalization at home</li> </ul>

		(curriculum development, international dimensions and topics in teaching and learning at large, extra-curricular activities)
CII_12	No. of partnership agreements covering student mobility in the subject area 'education and teacher education':	___ --- ___
CII_13	Approximately which no. or % of these are made up by ERASMUS partnerships:	---
CII_14	Approximately which no. or % of these (as indicated in II.2.6) are 'active' partnerships under which joint activities are regularly carried out:	---
CII_15	In which international programs/schemes is your institution involved within the subject area 'education and teacher education' and which are the most important ones?  <i>Please mark (by putting a cross 'x' into relevant fields) all programs in which you are involved and indicate the three most important ones:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ERASMUS mobility</li> <li>- ERASMUS intensive programs</li> <li>- ERASMUS academic &amp; structural networks</li> <li>- ERASMUS multilateral projects</li> <li>- COMENIUS projects</li> <li>- COMENIUS teaching practice</li> <li>- TEMPUS</li> <li>- LINGUA</li> <li>- Other (pls specify): _____</li> </ul>
CII_16	Please indicate all international networks, alliances or associations which are in a wide sense related to the internationalization of teaching and learning (in the area of Edu/TE but may also go beyond) in which your institution participates or has a formal membership in?  <i>(Examples would be EAIE (European Association for International Education), thematic networks, policy networks, teacher education associations (e.g. ATEE), regional networks, etc.</i>	
CII_17	Have you implemented systematic evaluations or reviews of your international programs for the area of teacher education (Edu/TE), i.e. of their quality, effectiveness, appropriateness, etc.?	Yes/No
CII_18	Which of the following program forms are offered for teacher education (Edu/TE) students at your institution in an institutionalized form?  <i>Please mark (by putting a cross 'x' into relevant fields) <u>only those program offers which are coordinated, at least to a minimum extent</u>. This means that they are not completely independent or singular offers for example based on the initiative of one person, but that they can eligibly be viewed as part of the institution's concerted internationalization efforts. This will usually imply a designated unit responsibility (often but not necessarily the internationalization unit). Example: if faculty members offer singular courses with an international orientation this should not be listed; if it is the aim of your institution to enlarge the offer of such courses and there is some follow-up on such offers (e.g. a list published with internationally oriented courses) it should be listed</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Short-term study abroad (trimester, semester, year)</li> <li>- Internships abroad (teaching practice or other internship; incl. job shadowing in schools)</li> <li>- Integrated study abroad/internship (teaching practice) programs</li> <li>- Shorter study abroad programs (e.g. summer courses, intensive programs, short programs)</li> <li>- Study visits/excursions (without a full academic course program)</li> <li>- Other options abroad (e.g. language courses)</li> <li>- English-language course program for</li> </ul>

		<p>incoming students and home students (not necessarily with 'international dimension')</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Courses with an international orientation in content (knowledge-oriented), e.g. comparative studies of education systems and practices, European studies, studying the concept of global citizenship, international education policies</li> <li>- Courses with an international competence-orientation (skills-oriented), e.g. intercultural competence, dealing with cultural diversity and heterogeneity</li> <li>- Language courses at home (foreign languages)</li> <li>- Special certificate programs taken in addition to regular curriculum (e.g. Teaching German as a second language)</li> <li>- Extra-curricular activities, e.g. international clubs, buddy network (pairing of international and local students), community service, volunteering to take care of children with a foreign background, evening lecture series, campus events, etc.</li> </ul>
CII_19	Please mark (by putting a cross 'x' into relevant fields) the three most important forms of outgoing mobility in teacher education (Edu/TE) programs according to their factual relevance, i.e. their occurrence at your institution, as mirrored in student participation:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Short-term study abroad (trimester, semester, year)</li> <li>- Internships abroad (teaching practice or other internship; incl. job shadowing in schools)</li> <li>- Integrated study abroad/internship (teaching practice) programs</li> <li>- Shorter study abroad programs (e.g. summer courses, intensive programs, short programs)</li> <li>- Study visits/excursions (without a full academic course program)</li> <li>- Other options abroad (e.g. language courses)</li> </ul>
CII_20	Which of the following strategies to promote mobility among teacher education (Edu/TE) students does your institution/the international unit use (mark by putting a cross 'x' into all relevant fields)?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Information days and events (e.g. study abroad day, info sessions presenting options and introducing procedures, etc.)</li> <li>- Information brochures, leaflets, study guides,</li> </ul>

		<p>mailings or newsletters actively given to all students (e.g. upon start of studies)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Information brochures, leaflets, website information, etc. made available to students</li> <li>- Broader thematic events that can also arouse interest in mobility (e.g. evening lectures, international evenings)</li> <li>- Collecting and presenting arguments to students about the reasons to go abroad (what is there to gain, what can one learn, how is it relevant to students and their later professional life, etc.)</li> <li>- Providing academic staff with information so that they can formally and informally promote mobility</li> <li>- Using students with international experience as ambassadors and multipliers</li> <li>- Workshops for (undecided) students to work in detail on their motives, possible strategies and programs and on how to overcome possible barriers</li> <li>- Individually working with (undecided) students to determine their personal situation, possible strategies and programs and working out plans to overcome barriers (e.g. improving language skills)</li> </ul>
CII_21	Do you offer or require students in teacher education (Edu/TE) who go abroad to take preparatory training (cultural preparation, intercultural training, etc.)?	Yes/No
CII_22	Does your institution offer any accompanying courses (before, during or after the stay abroad) or course materials in order to maximize learning from the student's experiences abroad?	Yes/No
	<i>Such courses may broadly relate to reflected cultural learning, to the academic reflection of thematic issues (e.g. school systems and pedagogies) based on the first-hand experience in another country or as well to the development of a personalized international learning plan for mobility periods.</i>	
<b>II.3. Evaluation of statements in relation to the internationalization of teaching and learning (including in particular mobility programs)</b>		
<i>Please evaluate the following statements/questions from your perspective as a key person in the internationalization of teaching and learning within teacher education (Edu/TE) at your institution and mark the relevant field by putting a cross 'x' into it. If you mark 3 on a scale from 1-5 this means that they have the same relevance (5=at home higher, 1=abroad higher)</i>		

CII_23_1	At home-strategies of internationalization (relating e.g. to curriculum, teaching, course contents, general environment, extra-curricular activities) play a more important role than abroad-strategies (mobility programs) in the area of teacher education (Edu/TE) at our institution.	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )
	The structural embedding of student mobility in teacher education (Edu/TE) programs is an element considered in curriculum development at our institution. So that ...	
CII_23_2_1	... there are existing supportive regulations/ specifications/recommendations in the curriculum	""
CII_23_2_2	... designated ‚mobility windows‘ or other curricular arrangements for mobility exist in the curriculum or in specific modules	""
CII_23_2_3	... mobility programs are developed to fit the structural embedding into the curriculum	""
CII_23_2_4	... we are able to advise students on when to best go abroad and on which courses or parts of their program are best suited to be done abroad	""
CII_23_3	We actively identify institutional (structural) barriers to expand mobility in teacher education (Edu/TE) programs and collaborate with academic units, academic advisers, student service and support units, and campus leadership to reduce barriers. For example, increasing the flexibility to take exams for returning students or follow courses at home while they are abroad.	""
CII_23_4	We extensively cooperate with our (prospective) partner institutions to determine possible course programs (including possible mandatory internships) for our outgoing students so that ideally this could result into a list of pre-approved courses and the possibility to suggest specific partner institutions to specific students in teacher education (Edu/TE) programs.	""
CII_23_5	In the design of our mobility programs we partner with curricular committees and academic staff in order to connect mobility program design and learning objectives of mobility programs to broader curriculum and institutional learning outcomes.	""
CII_23_6	We are teaming with academic units, advisers or support units to prepare students' successful stays abroad in order to maximize desired outcomes and ensure smooth processes (e.g. support in selecting and accrediting course program or internship program, ensuring re-integration into degree program at home, individualizing solutions for students, etc.).	""
CII_23_7	Our international course program (in English or the local language) is equally open and relevant (both groups can obtain credits counting towards regular degree program) to our local students and to our incoming exchange students.	""
CII_23_8	In those courses where international students mostly enroll (e.g. English-language courses) they usually form the vast majority (local students are a minority in those courses).	""
CII_23_9	Our institution actively works to exploit the potential that our incoming students offer for international learning in our teacher education (Edu/TE) programs (e.g. forming international work groups, using the international knowledge available in classrooms, fostering competences of staff to teach international groups, encouraging local students to participate in the English-language course program, Tandem-Language Learning, Buddy Programs, etc.)	""
	In how far do the following possible issues and problems in relation to internationalization of teacher education (Edu/TE) occur at your institution.	

CII_24_1	Outward mobile teacher education (Edu/TE) students have difficulties to re-integrate into their program after they return home.	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )
CII_24_2	Recognition of study abroad remains incomplete for returning teacher education (Edu/TE) students.	""
CII_24_3	Lack of interest of teacher education (Edu/TE) students in temporary study abroad.	""
CII_24_4	Insufficient foreign language proficiency of teacher education (Edu/TE) students to spend a temporary study period abroad.	""
CII_24_5	Insufficient subject-knowledge or professional competence of teacher education (Edu/TE) students to spend a temporary period abroad.	""
CII_24_6	Finding academic staff to advice/support/supervise outgoing students in the field.	""
CII_24_7	Finding academic staff to advice/support/supervise incoming students in the field.	""
CII_24_8	Finding suitable partner institutions for international activities in the area of teacher education (Edu/TE), in particular mobility programs.	""
CII_24_9	Lack of interest among academic staff in teacher education (Edu/TE) in incoming and outgoing mobility (teaching abroad, inviting international lecturers).	""

## **Appendix D: Institutional Questionnaire—Contacting Staff in Teacher Education**

The survey was available in English. A “Microsoft Word” document (to be completed electronically) containing instructions and all survey items was mailed out to staff in teacher education, either by a contact person at the participating institutions or directly by the author.

The following general introduction was sent to all possible respondents:

### ***Internationalization and short-term mobility in the field of teacher education***

*This questionnaire is part of a PhD project on the internationalization of teaching and learning in the field of teacher education and the broader subject area 'education and teacher education'. The study is conducted at seven institutions in Germany and Denmark and analyzing the macro-context (policies, discourses, programs), the level of higher education institutions and the level of the students themselves. You have received this questionnaire as a core person in the internationalization of teaching and learning in the field at your institution.*

*All data will be dealt with confidentially and made anonymous. Please email this questionnaire back to me at [author email address] or send it to the contact person at your institution from whom you have received this questionnaire. In case of any questions or comments do not hesitate to contact me.*

*Thank you for your kind support to my PhD work!*

*[author name]*



## Appendix E: Institutional Questionnaire—Instructions, Items, Measurement

Variable Reference	Survey Instructions, Questions and Answer Categories	
	<b>INSTRUCTIONS</b>	
	<p><i>This questionnaire will introduce several statements in relation to the <b>internationalization of teaching and learning in the field of teacher education</b> and the broader subject area of 'education and teacher education'.</i></p> <p><i>At the institutional level teacher education programs are often related to and 'intermingled' with programs in the broader subject area 'education and teacher education' (Edu/TE). This is why the wording '<b>teacher education (Edu/TE)</b>' is used in the questions. This reflects a primary focus of the questions on teacher education (as the majority of programs in mind when answering questions) but is inclusive of the whole subject area of 'education and teacher education', when applicable for your institution.</i></p> <p><i>The unit/subunit/degree programs referred to at your institution are: [specification for each institution given]</i></p> <p><i>In their wording most questions explicitly ask for the situation at your institution within teacher education (edu/TE) programs. In those cases where no differences or specific situations exist between the different subject areas or subunits of your institution the answers may simply be given in relation to the general institutional situation.</i></p> <p><i>The focused area in this project is the <b>internationalization of teaching and learning</b> (as opposed to for example research). This comprises <b>at home-components of internationalization, such as internationalizing curricular orientation or the general study environment</b> on the one side and <b>abroad-components on the other, such as mobility programs for studying, research, internships or project work abroad</b>. When answering statements relating to internationalization in general you may want to keep in mind that student mobility is usually the strongest component within this.</i></p>	
	<b>QUESTIONS</b>	
I1	Your position	
I2	Your function in relation to the internationalization of teaching and learning in teacher education (Edu/TE):	
I3	Your institution	
	<p><i>Please go through all statements/questions below and indicate your evaluation or assessment for the field of teacher education (Edu/TE) at your institution on a scale from 1 (lowest) – 5 (highest) by putting a cross 'X' into the respective field.</i></p>	
	General Assessment	
I4	In the national context our institution can be considered to be: highly internationalized (upper third) in teaching and learning (mark 1) -- average (mark 3) -- less internationalized (lower third) in teaching and learning than majority of other institutions (mark 5)	Scale from 1 ( <i>Upper third</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Lower third</i> )
	<p><u>In how far do you consider the developmental fields listed below to form priorities for the further internationalization in teacher education (Edu/TE) at your institution in the upcoming years?</u></p>	
I5_1	Increasing faculty commitment and faculty involvement in internationalization	Scale form 1 ( <i>Not at all/very weak extent</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very high/very strong extent</i> )
I5_2	Increasing institutional support environment for internationalization (strategy, resource devotion, rewards, institutional structures, reviews) which can support a mainstreaming of the international dimension	""

I5_3	Review existing international programs and partnerships to align them with student demand (e.g. demand for more integrated internship programs) and institutional priorities (in Edu/TE)	'''
I5_4	Increasing short-term student mobility and reducing various barriers to mobility	'''
I5_5	Increasing the conceptual quality of mobility programs to maximize student learning and program effectiveness (e.g. through preparatory programs, accompanying support and learning programs, conceptual integration with curriculum)	'''
I5_6	Increasing curricular and structural integration of mobility programs (reducing curricular barriers, reducing problems with accreditation, introducing mobility windows)	'''
I5_7	Increasing the international orientation of degree programs at large (including international content, international and intercultural competences, etc.)	'''
I5_8	Fostering support (information, counseling, workshops, courses, etc.) for students to consider and include an international dimension (in particular mobility options) into their studies	'''
I5_9	Increasing academic staff mobility (incoming and outgoing) to support internationalization	'''
I5_10	Setting up integrated joint programs (joint modules, joint/double degrees with international partners)	'''
I5_11	Increase teaching in English	'''
I5_12	Increasing the recruitment of international talent (students and staff)	'''
I5_13	Internationalization of research	'''
I5_14	Increasing participation in international networks, associations, projects and programs	'''
	Please indicate in how far you consider the issues stated below <u>to constitute relevant rationales and globally shared convictions at your institution</u> in relation to the internationalization of teaching and learning in teacher education (Edu/TE):	
I6_1	In teacher education (Edu/TE) there is a need for a stronger Europeanization of systems and structures and for fostering the European dimension and the internationalization of the field at large (developing a European identity, strengthening internationality, etc.).	Scale form 1 ( <i>Not at all/very weak extent</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very high/very strong extent</i> )
I6_2	The internationalization of teacher education (Edu/TE) is a way to improve the quality of teacher education (Edu/TE) and develop and modernize degree programs.	'''
I6_3	The internationalization of teacher education (Edu/TE) is a pathway (through internationally experienced graduates) to renewal, development and innovation in primary and secondary school systems and to improving their quality.	'''
I6_4	Increasingly globalized and multicultural living and working environments are a key feature of today's society. Thus, there is a need to foster a European/global identity and outlook, and 'international competences' such as international knowledge, intercultural skills, citizenship skills, language skills and the like in young people in general and in prospective teachers who are acting as role models and multipliers in particular.	'''
I6_5	Increasingly multicultural societies in Europe lead to the need to develop new competences in teachers, in particular in relation to the broad professional competence of dealing with and teaching in culturally diverse and heterogeneous settings.	'''
	In how far do you consider <u>the following possible effects of mobility to constitute shared convictions for a support of</u>	

	<u>student mobility among staff</u> in teacher education (Edu/TE) at your institution?	
I7_1	Academic learning and academic benefit	Scale form 1 ( <i>Not at all/very weak extent</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very high/very strong extent</i> )
I7_2	Building up intercultural competences	""
I7_3	Building up relevant professional competences	""
I7_4	Personal development	""
I7_5	Language learning	""
	Please indicate your evaluation of the following questions and statements <u>in relation to the factual implementation of internationalization in the field of teacher education (Edu/TE) at your institution:</u>	
I8_1	In the development of institutional priorities and programs - is there any reflection ongoing about the context of teacher education (Edu/TE) and regard taken of the possibly specific aims, forms and contents of internationalization in the area of teacher education (Edu/TE)?	Scale form 1 ( <i>Not at all/very weak extent</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very high/very strong extent</i> )
I8_2	Does your institution have an internationalization strategy or agenda that can be expected to be known by the majority of your academic staff in teacher education (Edu/TE) programs?	""
I8_3	Does your institution have defined priorities and clearly established criteria acting as guidelines in everyday work (such as criteria for the approval of suggested international programs and partnerships) for the further development of international activities in teacher education (Edu/TE)?	""
I8_4	Does your institution devote adequate resources to work towards established aims and implement relevant programs in the internationalization of teaching and learning (including mobility programs) in teacher education (Edu/TE)?	""
I8_5	Has your institution succeeded to create a supportive general climate and organizational environment to foster the internationalization of teaching and learning in teacher education (Edu/TE), as indicated for example by management support, support of academic staff, representation in strategies and mission, organizational structures maintained or resources devoted?	""
I8_6	Does your institution reward international orientation of academic staff in teacher education (Edu/TE) programs or their active involvement in the internationalization of teaching and learning? Rewards may be financial resources, time resources, reputation, awards or criteria in the recruitment and evaluation of personnel (HR policies).	""
I8_7	The at home-components of internationalization (relating e.g. to curriculum, teaching, course contents, general environment, extra-curricular activities) and the abroad-components (such as mobility programs) from an interacting part of our internationalization efforts so that they are conceptualized together and attuned to each other.	""
I8_8	Our academic staff is highly involved in the programming, design and implementation of international activities in teacher education (Edu/TE).	""
	[two further questions were included in survey but not reported here since not further referred to]	
	Please indicate your <u>assessment of the following general statements on internationalization in teacher education (Edu/TE) in view of your institutional situation:</u>	
I9_1	The dense regulation of teacher education (Edu/TE) is a hindering characteristic to the advancement of	Scale form 1 ( <i>Not at all/very weak extent</i> )

	internationalization in the field because it can for example lead to limitations in components that can be taken abroad or high thresholds (due to the need to regard regulations) in the implementation of international activities.	to 5 ( <i>Very high/very strong extent</i> )
I9_2	The diversity of teacher education models across Europe is a hindering characteristic to the advancement of internationalization in the field because it can lead to structural incompatibilities (e.g. when implementing mobility programs) or difficulties to find suitable partner institutions for international activities.	'''
I9_3	Due to a weak or missing regard of internationalization in the governmental regulations for teacher education (Edu/TE) programs the regulative context is only acting as a weak driver in the advancement of internationalization of teaching and learning in the field.	'''
I9_4	Internationalization in teacher education (Edu/TE) is assigned a lower importance in comparison to other pressing issues in the reform and modernization of TE programs so that in comparison to other issues it remains a nice-to-have while other areas are prioritized.	'''
I9_5	In teacher education (Edu/TE) there exists a paradoxical situation that it would (particularly) benefit from internationalization but at the same time the characteristics of the field (high determination, structural complexity, low current level of internationalization, national orientation/culture, etc.) limit the factual implementation and the drive for international activities.	'''
I9_6	In order to best realize the benefits of internationalization in teacher education (Edu/TE) oftentimes comprehensive strategies and well-designed international programs at home and abroad would be needed but the implementation of such a model is limited by a low level of current institutionalization of internationalization in teacher education (Edu/TE).	'''
I9_7	In a general climate where internationalization in the higher education sector has become mainstream and imperative internationalization is sometimes more supported by rhetoric than true conviction at the institutional and disciplinary level in teacher education (Edu/TE).	'''
I9_8	In general, the notion of internationalization of teaching and learning, including the value of fostering mobility among students in teacher education (Edu/TE) is largely shared and supported among staff members at our institution.	'''
I9_9	In general academic staff is more convinced about the benefit of curricular/content-related strategies than activities involving mobility in order to build up relevant international competences in teacher education (Edu/TE).	'''
I9_10	Academic staff is often critical about the value and quality of mobility programs and of the academic learning undertaken in courses abroad.	'''
I9_11	Because of its tradition of national framing a certain incompatibility exists between internationalization and a non-international culture in teacher education (Edu/TE) so that there is weak positive reinforcement and may even lead to avoidance of or reactance to internationalization.	'''
I9_12	Our academic staff is regularly involved in international activities and their international contacts and working relations can thus act as a positive reinforcement factor to the internationalization of teaching and learning in teacher education (Edu/TE).	'''
I9_13	The side-effect of internationalization of research on the internationalization on teaching and learning is	'''

	weak due to the dominance of teaching and learning over research in the field of teacher education (Edu/TE) and a relatively low internationalization of research in this field.	
I9 14	Teaching in English would be a challenge to many academic staff members in teacher education (Edu/TE).	""
	[three further items were included in survey but not reported here since not further referred to]	
	[one further question was included in survey but not reported here since not further referred to]	



## Appendix F: Student Questionnaire—Contacting Students in Teacher Education

The online survey was available in English and German. The online survey was conducted using survey software developed by and hosted at INCHER (International Centre for Higher Education Research) Kassel, University of Kassel, Germany which was made available to the author.

The information about the online survey was mailed out centrally by a contact person at each institution to all students enrolled in teacher education. All contact persons have been asked to use the email introduction as given below:

*Dear student,*

*[name of institution] is participating in a study which is part of a PhD project on international dimensions and student mobility in higher education programs. It particularly looks to the subject area of education and teacher education. As a student in this field at our institution you are kindly asked to fill in a questionnaire. The results of this survey will provide valuable information and help us to develop your study program.*

*Please follow the link below to start the survey. We are asking all students to participate, irrespective of whether you have been abroad, you are planning to go abroad or whether you do not plan to go abroad in the course of your studies. Likewise, it does not matter whether your program is more nationally or internationally oriented in general. Please complete it consecutively; it will take twenty to thirty minutes (realistic results from pretests). Link: [link to English or German survey]*

*Thank you in advance for your support of the research project and the development of our programs. Data protection and anonymity are of course ensured. You will also have the possibility to obtain results of the study if you are interested.*

*Kind regards,*

*[author name]*



## Appendix G: Student Questionnaire—Instructions, Items and Measurement

Variable Reference	Survey Instructions, Questions and Answer Categories	
	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	
	<p><i>Welcome to the survey on international dimensions and student mobility in study programs in education and teacher education. The questionnaire covers your study program and personal background, international activities 'abroad' and 'at home' and your personal evaluations of these.</i></p> <p><i>[In English version only: Since it is used internationally, the questionnaire is in English and uses rather simply terminology.] Don't rush but try to go through it quickly and concentrated and mark your spontaneous answer, when asked for your opinion.</i></p> <p><i>Tak! Danke! Thank you! This study is part of a PhD project. If you would like to contact me please write to [author email address] or call [author telephone number].</i></p> <p><i>Kind regards,</i></p> <p><i>[author name]</i></p>	
	<b>SECTION A: PERSONAL BACKGROUND AND STUDY PROGRAM</b>	
A1	At which institution are you studying?	Select one: [list with institutions]
A2	In which semester are you currently studying? Include all previous programs and semesters you have studied at a higher education institution.	—
A3	When did you start your current study program?	Month/ Year
A4	Which program are you currently enrolled in?	Select one: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Bachelor's degree (or equivalent)</li> <li>- First-cycle long program (e.g. 'Diplomstudium', Candidat, Staatsexamen)</li> <li>- Master's degree (or equivalent)</li> <li>- PhD</li> </ul>
A5	Is the study program you are currently enrolled in a teacher education program?	Yes/No
A6	What is the name of the program in which you are enrolled?	Select one: [list with degree programs at institutions]
	<i>[If A5 = Yes] Most teacher education programs provide for a specialization in some subjects. Please indicate in which subjects you are specializing.</i>	
A6_1_1	Reading, writing and literature	Yes/No
A6_1_2	Modern foreign languages	""
A6_1_3	Mathematics	""
A6_1_4	Science: Includes science, physics, chemistry, biology, other sciences	""
A6_1_5	Technology: information technology, computer studies, construction/surveying, electronics, etc.	""
A6_1_6	Practical and vocational skills: Includes vocational skills (preparation for a specific occupation),	""

	techniques/handicraft, accountancy/business studies, career education, clothing and textiles, home economics	
A6_1_7	Geography/environmental studies, economics, ethnography/anthropology/community & social studies	""
A6_1_8	History, legal and political studies, contemporary studies	""
A6_1_9	Psychology, philosophy	""
A6_1_10	Religion and/or ethics	""
A6_1_11	Arts/Music: Includes arts, music, drama, photography, drawing, creative artwork	""
A6_1_12	Physical education: Includes physical education, gymnastics, dance, health.	""
A6_1_13	Other (please specify):	""
A7	Year of Birth:	19
A8	Gender:	Female/Male
A9	What is your nationality?	
A10	Do you have any children?	Yes/No
A11	Do you have a paid job during term-time (please think of the last 12 months)?	Select one: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No, I don't work during term-time.</li> <li>- Yes, I work during term-time, up to an average of 20 hours per week</li> <li>- Yes I work during term-time, more than an average of 20 hours per week</li> </ul>
A12	Were you born in [Denmark/Germany]?	Yes/No
A13	Did you obtain your high school-diploma (or equivalent) in [Denmark/Germany]?	Yes/No
	Were your parents born in the same country as you?	
A14_1	Yes, my mother	Yes/No
A14_2	Yes, my father	""
A14_3	No, none of them	""
	What is the highest level of education your mother and father have obtained?	
A15_1	Mother:	Select one: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Compulsory education/ lower secondary education</li> <li>- Upper secondary education and/or vocational training (incl. apprenticeships)</li> <li>- Higher vocational/professional education (post-secondary but not leading to higher education degree, e.g. vocational college, professional academies)</li> <li>- Higher education degree (Bachelor's,</li> </ul>

		Master's, Candidat, Doctor/PhD)
A15_2	Father:	""
A16	Please roughly estimate the income status of your family as compared to the average income situation in your home country.	Scale from 1 ( <i>Considerably lower than average</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Considerably higher than average</i> )
	Please rate your grade of proficiency in your native and major foreign languages.	
A17_1	[Danish/German]	Scale from 1 ( <i>Native speaker/very good</i> ) through 3 ( <i>Confident in everyday writing</i> ) to 5 ( <i>No knowledge</i> )
A17_2	English	""
A17_3	Other language	""
A17_4	Other language	""
A18	Approximately, how many months in total have you spent abroad (outside the country/countries where you grew up) since the time you were 15 years old (travel, work, school or study-related, etc.)?	Select one: - Less than 1 month - 1-3 months - 3-6 months - 6-12 months - More than 12 months
A19	How do you rate your academic achievements in your study program (in school, if relevant) so far?	Select one: - Upper third of my year - Middle third - Lower third
<b>SECTION B: GENERAL STATEMENTS ON INTERNATIONAL DIMENSIONS</b>		
	Please mark your spontaneous answer.	
B1_1	My preference for the future would be to work in the region/country where I am now studying.	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )
B1_2	Having international experiences and competences (such as international knowledge, intercultural skills, foreign language skills, global awareness, etc.) is important for working in my future professional area.	""
B1_3	I have close contacts to persons abroad (family, friends, professional contacts).	""
B1_4	At the institution where I study, I have close contacts to colleagues with another cultural background than my own.	""
B1_5	I am not particularly curious about other cultures and ways of living.	""
B1_6	In my leisure time I have close contacts to people with another cultural background than my own.	""
	In discussions about the internationalization of study programs in the broad area of education and teacher education, a range of different arguments "for" and "against" are brought forward. Such arguments are listed below. Please indicate your spontaneous agreement or disagreement.	
B2_1	The work of teachers/educational professions mainly takes place within national frameworks	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )

	and regulations so that international experience and competences are not important for this group.	
B2_2	Thinking of career options and successful careers, it is not important for teachers/educational professions to have international experience and competences.	""
B2_3	Living and working environments are increasingly globalized and multicultural. It is therefore essential for all students, and in particular for teachers/educational professions who act as multipliers, to develop a global outlook and possess "international competences" (such as international knowledge, intercultural skills, language skills, etc.).	""
B2_4	In our current times of globalization, countries and cultures are getting more and more similar to each other so that it is becoming less and less important to have first-hand experience of other countries and to possess international competences.	""
B2_5	All across Europe we live in increasingly diverse and multicultural societies. It is therefore essential that teachers/educational professions acquire international experience and competences in order to be able to deal with culturally diverse settings.	""
B2_6	In comparison to international experiences and competences, there are many other competences which teachers/educational professions need to possess and which are more relevant and central to their work.	""
B2_7	Across Europe we can see efforts towards modernization, innovation and quality improvement in schools and education systems. It is therefore essential that teachers/educational professions acquire international experience in order to be able to better contribute to modernization and innovation.	""
<p><b><i>The next parts will collect information on international dimensions in your studies. These are grouped into two areas:</i></b>  <b><i>(1) Study-related experience abroad: e.g. study abroad semester or practical experiences abroad. Only temporary experience abroad (no full degree programs taken abroad) that is related to/undertaken in the course of your studies (no private journeys, etc.) is evaluated in this questionnaire.</i></b>  <b><i>(2) International dimensions while studying in your program at home</i></b></p>		
<b>SECTION C: INTERNATIONAL DIMENSIONS: EXPERIENCE ABROAD</b>		
C1	Is study-related experience abroad a compulsory component within your current study program?	Yes, I have to gain at least ___ months of experience abroad in order to graduate/No
C2	I know where to get information on options to gain experience abroad at my institution.	Yes/No
C3	I have been to information events at my institution to inform myself about experience abroad (e.g. information session organized by International Office, etc.) and/or I have studied information about experience abroad at my institution (websites, program offers, application rules, etc.).	Yes/No
C4	I have used the personal advice and counseling services of the offices/coordinators (International Office, International Programs Coordinators, etc.) responsible for experience abroad at my institution.	Yes/No
C5	I have received information from my department/school/institution about experience abroad (e.g. at the beginning of my studies, from lecturers, in study guides, newsletters, brochures picked up, etc.).	Yes/No
C6	I have been in contact with friends and colleagues about options to gain experience abroad.	Yes/No

C7	I have used "external" sources to inform myself about experience abroad (e.g. national agencies, foundations offering programs, companies, etc.).	Yes/No
C8	I know several programs, schemes or agencies that offer opportunities and/or funds to gain experience abroad.	Yes/No
	Different program types through which students can gain "experience abroad" in the course of their studies are introduced below. Please indicate for each whether you are: (1) not really interested in this option, have no intention/plans to take this option; (2) quite interested in this option; (3) making (definite) plans to take this option; or (4) you are currently taking/have already taken this option in the course of your higher education studies (incl. any previous study programs)	
C9_1	(I) Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad (trimester, semester or year at a higher education institution abroad where you are taking courses offered by the host institution, includes stays abroad for research/thesis work)	Scale from 1 ( <i>Not really interested, no intentions/plans</i> ), 2 ( <i>Quite interested</i> ), 3 ( <i>Definite plans</i> ), to 4 ( <i>Currently taking/have taken option</i> )
C9_2	(II) Internships/practical experience abroad - Teaching and school practice abroad (e.g. taking obligatory or additional practical periods abroad that involve assisting in teaching as well as participation in other tasks of school life)	
C9_3	(III) Internship/practical experience abroad - Collecting general practical experiences abroad in internships related to your study program (e.g. in companies, NGOs, political administration, etc.)	""
C9_4	(IV) Combined programs offering both study abroad and internship/practical experience abroad in one program (e.g. one followed by the other)	""
C9_5	(V) Shorter study abroad programs (e.g. participation in international summer schools, intensive thematic programs abroad; less than 3 months)	""
C9_6	(VI) Practically oriented study visits/excursions/project work abroad (less than 3 months)	""
C9_7	(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses and any other programs)	""
C9_x_1/ C9_x_2	<i>[If any of items C9_1 to C9_7 rated 4] (Currently taking/have taken option)]</i> Duration in months (total planned, if currently abroad)/ Country	___/ ___
C9_x_3	Please mark all categories that apply to your stay abroad:	Select all that apply: ERASMUS/NORDPLUS/COMENIUS/Other program/No program/Self-organized stay (not via your institution)
C10	Have you ever planned any of the above mentioned types of gaining experience abroad, but for some reason, did not realize your plans?	Yes/No
	Please give your opinion on the following statements:	
C11_1	This list has included a lot of options for experience abroad that I have never heard of before.	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )
C11_2	If the options I am interested in were offered in my program/at my institution, the likelihood that I would really go abroad in the course of my studies would be 100%.	""

C11_3	I would generally prefer academic programs abroad over practice-oriented programs abroad.	""
C11_4	I would generally prefer shorter programs (less than 3 months) to longer programs (3-12 months) abroad.	""
C11_5	I would generally prefer coordinated programs (e.g. places for study abroad offered by your home institution) to self-organized stays abroad.	""
C11_5	I would generally prefer programs in Europe to those on other continents.	""
C11_7	I would prefer to get some experience abroad after I have finished my study program (e.g. internship/teaching practice abroad after graduation/during early career, doing your Master's or PhD abroad, etc.).	""
	<i>[If any of C9 1 through C9 6 rated minimum 2 (Quite interested)]</i> Please indicate how strongly the following motivations influence or influenced your interest to gain experience abroad:	
C12_1	Other colleagues or friends are/were also going abroad	Scale from 1 ( <i>Very weak motivation</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very strong motivation</i> )
C12_2	Desire to travel (e.g. programs offer a good opportunity to stay abroad)	""
C12_3	Desire to improve professional competences as they will be relevant to my later professional life and career prospects	""
C12_4	Desire to gain academic learning experience in another country, culture and institution and experience other teaching and learning environments	""
C12_5	Extending and improving academic knowledge, desire to become acquainted with subjects and courses that are not offered at my home institution	""
C12_6	Desire to get to know another education system (school system, curricula, teaching styles, etc.)	""
C12_7	Desire to get to know other countries and cultures and to enhance my understanding of the particular host country	""
C12_8	Desire to acquire intercultural competences	""
C12_9	Desire to collect specific practical experiences in another country and culture	""
C12_10	Opportunity for personal and self-development (broadening horizons, making new experiences, coping with new situations, etc.)	""
C12_11	Extending and improving foreign language skills	""
C12_12	Other, please specify:	""
	A lot of different factors can affect the decision of whether to go abroad or not. Please rate which role the issues listed below play (as a "limiting" factor) for you personally. (If you have already been abroad in the course of your studies, think back upon which issues were relevant for you.)	
C13_1	Never got information on which options are available in my study program/ Got such information too late	Scale from 1 ( <i>Very weak relevance</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very high relevance</i> )
C13_2	Concerns about the quality of the education and training options available abroad	""
C13_3	Level of foreign language skills/ insufficiency of specific foreign language skills	""
C13_4	English is my major foreign language but the offer in English-speaking countries is too limited	""

C13_5	Separation from family and children	""
C13_6	Separation from friends and partner	""
C13_7	I would not like to live/study/work in a foreign environment	""
C13_8	I would be interested but I also find it a bit of a challenge to do this and just go into a foreign environment	""
C13_9	Loss of opportunities to regularly earn money	""
C13_10	Presumed low benefit for my studies at home / low academic benefit	""
C13_11	Lack of guidance and support at home institution and difficulties in getting information	""
C13_12	Expected delay in progress of my studies (due to recognition, re-integration, etc.)	""
C13_13	Limited offer and access to interesting programs and places to gain experience abroad	""
C13_14	Difficulties in combining stays abroad with structure, regulations and standards in program at home / available programs are not well integrated with the study program at home	""
C13_15	Difficulties to determine who is the responsible person to advise students / too much complexity or lack of transparency on options available	""
C13_16	Expectation that the organisation is too burdensome/ Do not have enough drive to organize all this	""
C13_17	Expected low contribution to my professional development, profile and career prospects	""
C13_18	Simply no interest in going abroad in the course of my studies/ Don't see enough value in it	""
C13_19	It is not a requirement in my study program, so that's why I won't do it	""
C13_20	My course load is already so demanding that I don't find enough time to add experiences abroad	""
C13_21	Lack of grants available to students to cover expected costs	""
C13_22	Not enough individual counseling or workshops at the beginning of studies for students who are interested in going abroad to help them deal with specific barriers they might encounter (finding appropriate programs, how to finance stays, etc.)	""
C13_23	I am already taking a full degree abroad (outside my home country)	""
C13_24	Not enough support for students in teacher education programs who experience specific barriers due to dense/national regulations of their programs	""
C13_25	Other factors (please specify): _____	""
	<p><i>[If any of C9_1 through C9_6 rated 4 (Currently taking/have taken option)]</i>  <i>You indicated that you have already completed (are currently taking) a study-related stay abroad.</i>  <i>If you are still on your study-related stay abroad, please skip this page and continue on the next one.</i>  <i>If you have completed a study-related stay abroad, please answer this additional page. Students who have already been abroad are in the minority, your experiences are very important.</i></p>	
C14_1	Please think of the longest study-related experience abroad you have already acquired in the course of your studies and indicate which program type you will now be evaluating.	Select one: - Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad - Internships/practical experience abroad - Teaching and school practice abroad - Internship/practical experience abroad -

		General practical experiences abroad - Combined programs (study abroad and internship/practical experience abroad) - Shorter study abroad programs - Study visits/excursions/project work abroad
C14_2	Did you complete this stay abroad in the course of your current study program?	Yes/No, in a previous study program.
	How do you rate the following issues in relation to your study-related experience abroad (if any item cannot be answered, leave it empty)?	
C14_3_1	The offer and access to courses which are relevant to your study program pursued at home	Scale from 1 ( <i>Very low</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very high</i> )
C14_3_2	Challenges due to differences in the organization and structure of study programs (level of difficulty of courses, specificity of courses, etc.)	""
C14_3_3	Challenges due to cultural differences between your home country and the country visited	""
C14_3_4	Social integration, contact with locals (students, others) and your integration into the host culture	""
C14_3_5	Involvement in profession-related activities (practice-related project/course work, field trips/excursions, practical training, observations)	""
C14_3_6	The support and guidance offered (administrative, communication/information, cultural and other preparation offered)	""
C14_4	Do you think the total duration of your studies will be longer due to your study-related experience abroad?	Yes, the total duration of the studies will be prolonged by approximately: ___ months/No
	How do you rate the impact of your study-related experience abroad in the following areas?	
C14_4_1	Extended academic knowledge and academic progress	Scale from ( <i>Very low impact</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Very high impact</i> )
C14_4_2	Improved foreign language skills	""
C14_4_3	Development of professional skills, strengthening of professional role and motivation, and improved career prospects	""
C14_4_4	Personal and self-development (e.g. maturity, adaptability, interpersonal skills, etc.)	""
C14_4_5	Higher international knowledge and broader international perspective (e.g. knowledge and understanding of other systems and cultures)	""
C14_4_6	Improved intercultural competence (ability to act and communicate successfully in and with other cultures; openness towards other cultures)	""
C14_4_7	Higher innovation skills, comparative thinking and ability to reflect practices in your home country	""
C14_4_8	Better preparedness to take over professional tasks in relation to international dimensions at work/ in school (e.g. international projects, dealing with cultural diversity, include international perspectives in teaching, etc.)	""
C14_5	Did you participate in any preparatory training offered by your home institution? E.g. cultural preparation, intercultural training (do not include pure language training)	Yes/No
C14_6	Did you participate in any activities or receive any materials which were intended to support your	Yes/No

	cultural learning process before/during/after your stay abroad? E.g. designated cultural learning programs, materials for structured reflection of thematic issues, experience abroad learning plans and portfolios, etc.	
C14_7	Do you think that your personal cultural learning process should have been more strongly fostered through such offers?	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )
	How have your experiences been "utilized"?	
C14_8_1	You have been required to fill in a questionnaire and/or complete a written report about your experiences.	Yes/No
C14_8_2	You have been asked or required to share your experiences orally (e.g. with international office staff, at information meetings with students, international evenings).	""
C14_8_3	You have had the opportunity to share your knowledge and experiences in academic courses.	""
C14_9	In total, do you feel that your knowledge and experiences from staying abroad have been "utilized" enough by your home institution?	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )
<b>SECTION D: INTERNATIONAL DIMENSIONS: AT HOME</b>		
<b><i>This page now deals with international dimensions while studying "at home" in your regular study program.</i></b>		
Several activities with an international dimension while studying in your program at home are listed below. For each activity, please mark the answer category that applies to you.		
D1_1	(I) Taking courses of your regular study program held in English or other foreign languages (by local or international guest lecturers) and doing course work together with foreign students in international groups	Scale from 1 ( <i>Not really interested, no intentions/plans</i> ), 2 ( <i>Quite interested</i> ), 3 ( <i>Definite plans</i> ), to 4 ( <i>Currently taking/have taken option</i> )
D1_2	(II) Learning foreign languages (for prospective language teachers: only of languages you will not teach)	""
D1_3	(III) Taking courses to build up your intercultural competences and skills to work with cultural and linguistic diversity and heterogeneity (e.g. intercultural trainings, trainings for working with multicultural groups, non-native speakers or on international projects, etc.)	""
D1_4	(IV) Taking courses with a thematic international dimension (e.g. comparative studies of education systems and practices, concepts of global education or multilingual education, education in developing countries, European policies and programs in education etc.)	""
D1_5	(V) Extra-curricular activities, such as participating in events with an international dimension (campus events, intercultural days, evening lecture series, etc.)	""
D1_6	(VI) Extra-curricular activities, such as acting as a "buddy" to international students, volunteering in "international campus clubs", community service in international environments (e.g. work in migrant communities or assisting children with a foreign background)	""
D2	Have you ever planned any of the above mentioned types of adding an "international dimension" to your studies at home, but for some reason, did not realize your plans?	Yes/No
Please give your opinion on the following statements:		
D3_1	This list included a lot of options for adding an international dimension to my studies at home	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )

	that I have never heard of before.	
D3_2	In general, this list of options on collecting international experience at home has aroused my interest more than the list with options to collect international experience abroad.	""
D3_3	If the options I am interested in were offered in my program/at my institution, the likelihood that I would add an international dimension to my studies at home would be 100%.	""
D3_4	I do not see enough (personal, academic, professional) benefits of adding an international dimension to my study program at home.	""
D3_5	I never got information about which such international options are available in my study program/ Got such information too late.	""
D3_6	A lack of guidance and contact persons at my institution, and difficulties in finding all information are limiting factors for my participation in activities to add an international dimension to my study program at home.	""
D3_7	The extra effort/ time needed if I add an international dimension to my studies at home is a limiting factor for my participation in such activities.	""
D3_8	I think that the (personal/academic/professional) benefits of participating in international activities in my study program at home are much higher than the benefits of study-related experience abroad.	""
<b>SECTION E: EVALUATION OF INTERNATIONALN DIMENSIONS</b>		
	Please mark your spontaneous answer to the statements below.	
E1_1	In my courses we frequently use international literature and research, and our lecturers use international examples and references.	Scale from 1 ( <i>Strongly Disagree</i> ) to 5 ( <i>Strongly agree</i> )
E1_2	My lecturers and courses have drawn my attention to international dimensions in my studies and to gaining experiences abroad.	""
E1_3	Fellow students and friends have drawn my attention to international dimensions in my studies and to gaining experiences abroad.	""
E1_4	The institutional environment at large (flyers, events, speeches, general culture, etc.) has drawn my attention to international dimensions in my studies and to gaining experiences abroad.	""
E1_5	The external environment (society, politics, education systems and curricula) has drawn my attention to international dimensions in my studies and to gaining experiences abroad.	""
E1_6	My practical experiences (internships, school practice, etc.) provided me with relevant first-hand experience and have thus drawn my attention to international dimensions in my studies and to gaining experiences abroad.	""
E1_7	My study program (curriculum) at large has a distinct international orientation/profile.	""
E1_8	Since I entered higher education, I have always wanted to go abroad and add an international dimension to my studies.	""
E1_9	I have many opportunities in my day-to-day life as a student to learn about international issues and topics, develop international and intercultural competences, and experience an international	""

	dimension in general - without explicitly having to look for it.	
E1_10	As a student in my program I experience a certain pressure to include an international dimension into my individual study program and/or to gain some study-related experience abroad.	""
E1_11	I think my study program should have a stronger international orientation (more opportunities to engage with an international dimension in the broadest sense, at home and abroad).	""
E1_12	I think that curricular standards and regulations should include "international dimensions" in the broadest sense (international content and orientation, mobility periods, etc.) much more specifically and frequently.	""
E1_13	Experience abroad should at minimum be ""strongly recommended" to all students in education and teacher education.	""
E1_14	There should be many more international joint and double degree programs (involving mandatory periods abroad) which enable prospective teachers to acquire a teaching license in more than one country.	""
E2	Do you have any suggestions about what should be done at your department/school/institution in order to strengthen the international dimension in your study program and to support students in acquiring experience abroad?	_____
	<i>[Further optional items were included (not listed)]</i>	
	<b><i>Finish off here:</i></b>	
E4	What is your current formal status as a student?	Select one: Full-time/Part-time/Other
E5	Do you plan to continue studying after finishing your current program?	Select one: Yes/No/I don't know yet
E6	Do you plan to work as a teacher in the future?	Select one: Yes/No/I don't know yet
E7	Approximately, how many kilometers do you live away from your family?	_____
	<b><i>Thank you very much for your kind support! Contact: [author email]</i></b>	
COM	Do you have any further comments?	_____
EM	If you would like to be informed about the results personally, please enter your email address here (response data is treated anonymously, of course):	_____
	<b><i>GO TO THE NEXT PAGE AND THEN CLOSE THE BROWSER, PLEASE!</i></b>	



## Appendix H: Statistical Appendix Investigation Strand 1

**Table H1:** Results of Paired Samples *T*-tests Comparing Mean Ratings of Each Two Rationales

Rationale 1 <sup>a</sup>	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	Rationale 2 <sup>a</sup>	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>t</i> (df), <i>p</i>
European dimension (I6_1)	2.94 (1.28)	Quality TE (I6_2)	3.15 (1.30)	n.s.
European dimension (I6_1)	2.94 (1.28)	Modernization school and education system (I6_3)	3.21 (1.32)	n.s.
European dimension (I6_1)	2.94 (1.28)	Multiplier-and-role-model argument (I6_4)	3.72 (1.08)	<i>t</i> (31) = -2.87, <i>p</i> = .007
European dimension (I6_1)	2.94 (1.28)	Dealing with increasingly diverse settings (I6_5)	3.70 (1.05)	<i>t</i> (32) = -3.35, <i>p</i> = .002
Quality TE (I6_2)	3.15 (1.30)	Modernization school and education system (I6_3)	3.21 (1.32)	n.s.
Quality TE (I6_2)	3.15 (1.30)	Multiplier-and-role-model argument (I6_4)	3.72 (1.08)	n.s.
Quality TE (I6_2)	3.15 (1.30)	Dealing with increasingly diverse settings (I6_5)	3.70 (1.05)	<i>t</i> (31) = -2.10, <i>p</i> = .044
Modernization school and education system (I6_3)	3.21 (1.32)	Multiplier-and-role-model argument (I6_4)	3.72 (1.08)	n.s.
Modernization school and education system (I6_3)	3.21 (1.32)	Dealing with increasingly diverse settings (I6_5)	3.70 (1.05)	n.s.
Multiplier argument (I6_4)	3.72 (1.08)	Dealing with increasingly diverse settings (I6_5)	3.70 (1.05)	n.s.

*Note.* TE = teacher education. Staff in teacher education (*n* = 33) indicated whether they considered each of the different arguments for internationalization “to constitute relevant rationales and shared convictions among staff at their institution”. Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*not at all/very weak extent*) to 5 (*very high/very strong extent*).

<sup>a</sup>Item references (see Appendix E) given in parentheses.

**Table H2:** Shared Convictions Among Staff in Teacher Education About Benefits of TSM

Item	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>t</i> (df), <i>p</i> <sup>a</sup>
Language learning	4.52 (0.71)	n.s.
Personal development	4.42 (0.66)	<i>t</i> (32) = 2.32, <i>p</i> = .027
Building up intercultural competences	4.15 (0.76)	<i>t</i> (32) = 4.71, <i>p</i> = .000
Academic learning and academic benefits	3.73 (0.91)	n.s.
Building up relevant professional competences	3.58 (0.97)	

*Note.* TSM = temporary study-related mobility; n.s. = not significant. Relevance of different benefits of TSM seen by staff in teacher education, rated on a scale from 1 (*not at all/very weak extent*) to 5 (*very high/very strong extent*). Item references: Appendix E (Variables I7).

<sup>a</sup>Results of dependent-samples *t*-tests each between items in two consecutive rows are displayed.

**Table H3: Agreement of Different Student Groups With Rationales for Internationalization in Teacher Education**

	FL students			Non-FL students		
	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	95% <i>CI</i>
			[ <i>LL, UL</i> ]			[ <i>LL, UL</i> ]
<b>Multiplier-for/role-model-with-international-experiences argument</b>						
No-interest group	14	4.29 (0.73)	[3.87, 4.71]	85	3.66 (1.04)	[3.43, 3.88]
Interest group	97	4.30 (0.81)	[4.14, 4.46]	219	3.95 (0.91)	[3.83, 4.07]
Plans group	119	4.54 (0.66)	[4.42, 4.66]	99	4.03 (1.05)	[3.82, 4.24]
Implementation group	258	4.61 (0.74)	[4.52, 4.70]	106	4.41 (0.83)	[4.25, 4.56]
<b>Professional-skill (teaching in and dealing with culturally diverse and heterogeneous settings) argument</b>						
No-interest group	14	3.50 (1.09)	[2.87, 4.13]	85	3.61 (1.00)	[3.40, 3.83]
Interest group	97	4.13 (0.87)	[3.96, 4.31]	218	3.90 (0.92)	[3.78, 4.03]
Plans group	118	4.46 (0.76)	[4.32, 4.60]	98	4.15 (0.87)	[3.98, 4.33]
Implementation group	257	4.46 (0.76)	[4.36, 4.55]	106	4.38 (0.88)	[4.21, 4.55]
<b>International-experiences-as-contributor-to-quality-improvements-and-innovation-in-schools argument</b>						
No-interest group	14	3.43 (0.76)	[2.99, 3.87]	85	3.15 (0.88)	[2.96, 3.34]
Interest group	96	3.54 (0.93)	[3.35, 3.73]	217	3.34 (0.96)	[3.21, 3.47]
Plans group	119	3.89 (0.83)	[3.74, 4.04]	98	3.77 (0.85)	[3.60, 3.94]
Implementation group	258	3.82 (0.91)	[3.71, 3.93]	106	3.75 (0.94)	[3.57, 3.94]
<b>Need-for-stronger-European-orientation-and-international-dimension argument</b>						
No-interest group	11	2.70 (1.03)	[2.01, 3.40]	64	2.32 (0.98)	[2.08, 2.57]
Interest group	85	3.36 (0.96)	[3.15, 3.57]	189	3.00 (1.00)	[2.85, 3.14]
Plans group	99	3.78 (0.82)	[3.61, 3.94]	76	3.34 (0.93)	[3.12, 3.55]
Implementation group	210	3.83 (0.80)	[3.72, 3.94]	75	3.54 (0.88)	[3.33, 3.74]

*Note.* FL = foreign language; *CI* = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit. Item references: Appendix G (B2\_3, B2\_5, B2\_7, E1\_11 to E1\_14).

**Table H4:** Relevance of Different Benefits Expected from TSM (Motivations)

	All		FL students		Non-FL students	
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df), p</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df), p</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df), p</i>
Personal	4.51 (0.84)		4.64 (0.67)		4.41 (0.92)	
Language	4.37 (0.95)	<i>t</i> (517) = 3.31, <i>p</i> = .001	4.74 (0.59)	<i>t</i> (208) = -2.13, <i>p</i> = .034	4.11 (1.06)	<i>t</i> (308) = 5.09, <i>p</i> = .000
IC	4.09 (1.05)	<i>t</i> (521) = 6.26, <i>p</i> = .000	4.43 (0.81)	<i>t</i> (210) = 5.62, <i>p</i> = .000	3.87 (1.13)	<i>t</i> (310) = 3.97, <i>p</i> = .000
Prof	3.80 (1.12)	<i>t</i> (519) = 6.02, <i>p</i> = .000	4.23 (0.90)	<i>t</i> (210) = 2.81, <i>p</i> = .005	3.50 (1.19)	<i>t</i> (308) = 5.42, <i>p</i> = .000
Academic	3.23 (1.22)	<i>t</i> (516) = 10.51, <i>p</i> = .000	3.45 (1.13)	<i>t</i> (209) = 9.51, <i>p</i> = .000	3.09 (1.26)	<i>t</i> (306) = 5.94, <i>p</i> = .000

*Note.* TSM = temporary study-related mobility; FL = foreign languages; IC = intercultural; Prof = professional. Benefits rated by student groups interest and plans (*n* = 512) on a scale from 1 (*very low motivation*) to 5 (*very weak motivation*): Means are displayed with standard deviations in parentheses for each item as well as results of two-sided *t*-tests (dependent samples) each between items in two consecutive rows ( $\alpha \leq .05$ ). Item references: Appendix G (Personal = Variable C12\_10, Language = C12\_11, IC = C12\_8), Prof = C12\_3, Academic = C12\_5).

**Table H5:** Relevance of Different Benefits Realized Through TSM (Impact Areas)

	All		FL students		Non-FL students	
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df), p</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df), p</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df), p</i>
Pers	4.60 (0.71)		4.64 (0.66)		4.49 (0.81)	
IC	4.41 (0.76)	<i>t</i> (251) = 4.05, <i>p</i> = .000	4.49 (0.68)	<i>t</i> (180) = -3.21, <i>p</i> = .002	4.21 (0.90)	<i>t</i> (70) = 2.48, <i>p</i> = .016
Lang	4.26 (1.04)	<i>t</i> (251) = 2.45, <i>p</i> = .013	4.48 (0.77)	n.s.	3.90 (1.08)	<i>t</i> (70) = 2.73, <i>p</i> = .008
Prof	3.93 (0.97)	<i>t</i> (248) = 4.37, <i>p</i> = .000	3.94 (0.93)	<i>t</i> (177) = 6.91, <i>p</i> = .000	3.70 (1.38)	n.s.
Acad	3.36 (1.19)	<i>t</i> (247) = 6.70, <i>p</i> = .000	3.46 (1.14)	<i>t</i> (177) = 4.94, <i>p</i> = .000	3.11 (1.30)	<i>t</i> (69) = 2.70, <i>p</i> = .009

*Note.* TSM = temporary study-related mobility; FL = foreign languages; Pers = personal; IC = intercultural; Lang = Language; Prof = Professional; Acad = Academic; n.s. = not significant. Benefits rated by implementation group (*n* = 248) on a scale from 1 (*very low impact*) to 5 (*very high impact*): Means are displayed with standard deviations in parentheses for each item as well as results of two-sided *t*-tests (dependent samples) each between items in two consecutive rows ( $\alpha \leq .05$ ). Item references: Appendix G (Personal = Variable C14\_4\_4, Language = C14\_4\_2, IC = C14\_4\_6), Prof = C14\_4\_8, Academic = C14\_4\_1.

**Table H6: Constituencies Driving International Orientation Among non-FL Students in Teacher Education**

	Non-FL students	
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t(df), p<sup>a</sup></i>
Fellow students and friends	2.76 (1.28)	<i>t</i> (428) = 10.705, <i>p</i> = .000
External environment	2.69 (1.24)	<i>t</i> (426) = 8.975, <i>p</i> = .000
Practical experiences	2.56 (1.36)	<i>t</i> (423) = 6.641, <i>p</i> = .000
Institutional environment	2.40 (1.16)	<i>t</i> (429) = 5.361, <i>p</i> = .000
Lecturers and Courses	2.07 (1.09)	

*Note.* FL = foreign languages. Students rated to which extent each of five constituencies had “drawn their attention to international dimensions in their studies and to gaining experiences abroad” on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*); *n* = 420. Item references: Appendix G (Variables E1\_2 to E1\_6).

<sup>a</sup>In each row results of dependent samples *t*-tests of the variable lecturers-and-courses with the variable in each row are displayed.

**Table H7: International Dimensions in Study Environments—Descriptive Statistics and MANOVA Results**

Dependent variables <sup>a</sup>	Group	<i>n</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	ANOVA results	Partial $\eta^2$
Close contact to colleagues from other cultural backgrounds (B1_4)	FL	309	2.82 (1.24)	<i>F</i> (1, 730) = 11.96, <i>p</i> = .001	.016
	Non-FL	423	2.51 (1.19)		
Many opportunities for international learning “at ease” (E1_1)	FL	309	3.06 (1.13)	<i>F</i> (1, 730) = 54.82, <i>p</i> = .000	.070
	Non-FL	423	2.46 (1.05)		
International literature, research, examples, references in courses (E1_4)	FL	309	3.75 (1.16)	<i>F</i> (1, 730) = 167.94, <i>p</i> = .000	.187
	Non-FL	423	2.59 (1.22)		

*Note.* Int'l = international; FL = foreign languages. Dependent variables were subjected to a one-way MANOVA (nominal factor: FL vs. non-FL students): *F*(3, 728) = 59.52, *p* = .000; Wilk's  $\lambda$  = 0.803, partial  $\eta^2$  = .20. Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

<sup>a</sup>Item references in parentheses (see Appendix G).

## Appendix I: Statistical Appendix Investigation Strand 2

**Table II:** Ratings of Seven Different TSM Program Forms, Descriptive Results for All Students and For Four Different Groups (No-interest, Interest, Plans, Implementation)

Program form	Scale rating	Frequencies				
		No-interest group	Interest group	Plans group	Impl. group	All students
(I) Study abroad - Temporary enrollment abroad	1	100	196	56	67	419
	2	0	121	59	39	219
	3	0	0	103	29	132
	4	0	0	0	228	228
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>317</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>363</i>	<i>998</i>
(II) Internships - Teaching and school practice abroad	1	100	104	30	58	292
	2	0	213	95	86	394
	3	0	0	93	45	138
	4	0	0	0	172	172
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>317</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>361</i>	<i>996</i>
(III) Internships - General practical experiences abroad	1	100	212	104	160	576
	2	0	105	81	115	301
	3	0	0	33	29	62
	4	0	0	0	46	46
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>317</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>350</i>	<i>985</i>
(IV) Combined programs - study abroad and internship	1	100	205	75	158	538
	2	0	112	114	136	362
	3	0	0	29	16	45
	4	0	0	0	44	44
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>317</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>354</i>	<i>989</i>
(V) Shorter study-abroad programs (< 3 months)	1	100	133	80	133	446
	2	0	184	106	173	463
	3	0	0	32	16	48
	4	0	0	0	25	25
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>317</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>347</i>	<i>982</i>
(VI) Practically-oriented, shorter stays abroad (< 3 months)	1	100	78	45	94	317
	2	0	239	125	184	548
	3	0	0	48	31	79
	4	0	0	0	46	46
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>317</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>355</i>	<i>990</i>
(VII) Other programs abroad (language courses, other)	1	100	108	83	111	402
	2	0	209	90	171	470
	3	0	0	45	20	65
	4	0	0	0	53	53
	<i>Total</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>317</i>	<i>218</i>	<i>355</i>	<i>990</i>

*Note.* Scale ratings ranged from 1 (*not really interested, no intentions/plans*), 2 (*quite interested*), 3 (*definite plans*), to 4 (*currently taking/have taken option*). Item references: Appendix G (Variables C9\_1 to C9\_7).

**Table 12: Role of Five Obstacles Domains in the Four Status Groups of Students (Statistical Results)**

Domain 1		Domain 2		<i>t</i> (df), <i>p</i>
<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )		<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )		
Group No Interest				
Negative cons.	3.15 (.93)	Lack of value	3.19 (.86)	<i>t</i> (82) = 2.340, <i>p</i> = .022
Lack of value	3.19 (.86)	Apprehensions	2.74 (.97)	n.s.
Apprehensions	2.74 (.97)	Mismatch programs	2.21 (.98)	<i>t</i> (84) = 5.562, <i>p</i> = .000
Mismatch programs	2.21 (.98)	Guidance	2.11 (1.04)	<i>t</i> (81) = 2.126, <i>p</i> = .037
Negative cons.	3.15 (.93)	Apprehensions	2.74 (.97)	<i>t</i> (83) = 3.631, <i>p</i> = .000
Lack of value	3.19 (.86)	Mismatch programs	2.21 (.98)	<i>t</i> (83) = 5.096, <i>p</i> = .000
Group Interest				
Negative cons.	3.19 (.86)	Mismatch programs	2.77 (.94)	<i>t</i> (253) = 6.595, <i>p</i> = .000
Mismatch programs	2.77 (.94)	Apprehensions	2.67 (.84)	n.s.
Apprehensions	2.67 (.84)	Guidance	2.67 (1.07)	n.s.
Guidance	2.67 (1.07)	Lack of value	2.40 (1.02)	<i>t</i> (246) = 3.407, <i>p</i> = .001
Mismatch programs	2.77 (.94)	Guidance	2.67 (1.07)	<i>t</i> (247) = 2.109, <i>p</i> = .036
Apprehensions	2.67 (.84)	Lack of value	2.40 (1.02)	<i>t</i> (248) = 5.098, <i>p</i> = .000
Negative cons.	3.19 (.86)	Apprehensions	2.67 (.84)	<i>t</i> (256) = 9.635, <i>p</i> = .000
Group Plans				
Mismatch programs	2.89 (.91)	Negative cons.	2.87 (.83)	n.s.
Negative cons.	2.87 (.83)	Guidance	2.73 (.95)	n.s.
Guidance	2.73 (.95)	Apprehensions	2.57 (.75)	n.s.
Apprehensions	2.57 (.75)	Lack of value	2.04 (.93)	<i>t</i> (158) = 7.684, <i>p</i> = .000
Mismatch programs	2.89 (.91)	Guidance	2.73 (.95)	<i>t</i> (150) = 2.541, <i>p</i> = .012
Negative cons.	2.87 (.83)	Apprehensions	2.57 (.75)	<i>t</i> (156) = 5.196, <i>p</i> = .000
Guidance	2.73 (.95)	Lack of value	2.04 (.93)	<i>t</i> (151) = 7.487, <i>p</i> = .000
Group Implementation				
Mismatch programs	2.52 (.88)	Negative cons.	2.50 (.83)	n.s.
Negative cons.	2.50 (.83)	Guidance	2.45 (1.02)	n.s.
Guidance	2.45 (1.02)	Apprehensions	2.12 (.78)	<i>t</i> (233) = 4.859, <i>p</i> = .000
Apprehensions	2.12 (.78)	Lack of value	1.71 (.71)	<i>t</i> (240) = 9.348, <i>p</i> = .000
Mismatch programs	2.52 (.88)	Guidance	2.45 (1.02)	n.s.
Negative cons.	2.50 (.83)	Apprehensions	2.12 (.78)	<i>t</i> (237) = 8.479, <i>p</i> = .000

*Note.* Negative cons. = negative consequences; n.s. = not significant. Results of *t*-tests (dependent samples) each between two obstacle domains displayed ( $\alpha \leq .05$ ). Item references: Chapter 3.3.3.3, Table 19.

**Table 13:** Post-Hoc Test Results for MANOVA With 5 Dependent Variables (Domains) and Factor Status Groups

Factor groups (status groups)		<i>MD</i> <sup>a</sup>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Domain: Lack of value (Criterion: Games-Howell)						
No interest	Interest	.45*	.15	.012	.07	.83
	Plans	.81*	.15	.000	.42	1.20
	Implementation	1.14*	.14	.000	.79	1.50
Interest	No interest	-.45*	.15	.012	-.83	-.07
	Plans	.36*	.10	.003	.09	.62
	Implementation	.69*	.08	.000	.48	.90
Plans	No interest	-.81*	.15	.000	-1.20	-.42
	Interest	-.36*	.10	.003	-.62	-.09
	Implementation	.34*	.09	.001	.10	.57
Implementation	No interest	-1.14*	.14	.000	-1.50	-.79
	Interest	-.69*	.08	.000	-.90	-.48
	Plans	-.34*	.09	.001	-.57	-.10
Domain: Negative consequences (Criterion: Hochberg's GT2)						
No interest	Interest	-.05	.11	.998	-.34	.24
	Plans	.28	.12	.111	-.04	.59
	Implementation	.64*	.11	.000	.35	.93
Interest	No interest	.05	.11	.998	-.24	.34
	Plans	.33*	.09	.002	.09	.57
	Implementation	.69*	.08	.000	.48	.90
Plans	No interest	-.28	.12	.111	-.59	.04
	Interest	-.33*	.09	.002	-.57	-.09
	Implementation	.36*	.09	.000	.12	.60
Implementation	No interest	-.64*	.11	.000	-.93	-.35
	Interest	-.69*	.08	.000	-.90	-.48
	Plans	-.36*	.09	.000	-.60	-.12
Domain: Apprehensions (Criterion: Games-Howell)						
No interest	Interest	.07	.12	.947	-.25	.38
	Plans	.17	.12	.530	-.16	.49
	Implementation	.62*	.12	.000	.30	.93
Interest	No interest	-.07	.12	.947	-.38	.25
	Plans	.10	.08	.612	-.11	.32
	Implementation	.55*	.08	.000	.35	.74
Plans	No interest	-.17	.12	.530	-.49	.16
	Interest	-.10	.08	.612	-.32	.11
	Implementation	.45*	.08	.000	.24	.66
Implementation	No interest	-.62*	.12	.000	-.93	-.30
	Interest	-.55*	.08	.000	-.74	-.35
	Plans	-.45*	.08	.000	-.66	-.24

**Table I3** continued

Factor groups (status groups)		<i>MD</i> <sup>a</sup>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	
					<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Domain: Guidance (Criterion: Hochberg's GT2)						
No interest	Interest	-.56*	.13	.000	-.91	-.21
	Plans	-.63*	.14	.000	-1.00	-.25
	Implementation	-.35	.13	.055	-.70	.00
Interest	No interest	.56*	.13	.000	.21	.91
	Plans	-.07	.11	.992	-.35	.22
	Implementation	.21	.10	.138	-.04	.47
Plans	No interest	.63*	.14	.000	.25	1.00
	Interest	.07	.11	.992	-.22	.35
	Implementation	.28	.11	.060	-.01	.57
Implementation	No interest	.35	.13	.055	.00	.70
	Interest	-.21	.10	.138	-.47	.04
	Plans	-.28	.11	.060	-.57	.01
Domain: Mismatch Programs (Criterion: Hochberg's GT2)						
No interest	Interest	-.56*	.12	.000	-.87	-.24
	Plans	-.67*	.13	.000	-1.01	-.34
	Implementation	-.31	.12	.060	-.62	.01
Interest	No interest	.56*	.12	.000	.24	.87
	Plans	-.12	.10	.795	-.37	.14
	Implementation	.25*	.09	.020	.03	.48
Plans	No interest	.67*	.13	.000	.34	1.01
	Interest	.12	.10	.795	-.14	.37
	Implementation	.37*	.10	.001	.11	.62
Implementation	No interest	.31	.12	.060	-.01	.62
	Interest	-.25*	.09	.020	-.48	-.03
	Plans	-.37*	.10	.001	-.62	-.11

*Note.* *MD* = mean difference; *SE* = standard error; *CI* = confidence interval; *LL* = lower level; *UL* = upper level. To counterbalance unequal group sizes Hochberg's GT2 is used as a criterion; for the domains where Levene's test indicates unequal variances the Games-Howell criterion is used (according to recommendations by Field (2013), cited by Keller, 2015). Item references: Chapter 3.3.3.3, Table 19.

<sup>a</sup>Status group comparisons where mean difference (*MD*) is significant ( $\alpha \leq .05$ ) are marked with an asterisk.

**Table I4:** Variable Encoding BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery) Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Interest (Group No-Interest and Group Interest)

		Frequency	Parameter coding				
			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Institution	Institution 1	77	0	0	0	0	0
	Institution 2	15	1	0	0	0	0
	Institution 3	101	0	1	0	0	0
	Institution 4	51	0	0	1	0	0
	Institution 5	35	0	0	0	1	0
	Institution 6	32	0	0	0	0	1
Studying FL or not	Studying FL	78	0				
	Not studying FL	233	1				

Note.  $n = 311$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 19 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I5:** Statistical Results BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery)—Threshold Interest (Group No-Interest and Group Interest)

Omnibus-tests of model coefficients			Model summary			Hosmer-Lemeshow test			
$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	-2 LL	Cox & Snell $R^2$	Nagelkerke $R^2$	$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	23.588	6	.001						
Block	23.588	6	.001	328.905	.073	.108	1.801	6	.937
Model	23.588	6	.001						
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	26.499	1	.000						
Block	26.499	1	.000	302.405	.149	.219	9.423	8	.308
Model	50.087	7	.000						
<i>Step 2</i>									
Step	21.363	1	.000						
Block	47.862	2	.000	281.042	.205	.303	5.560	8	.696
Model	71.450	8	.000						
<i>Step 3</i>									
Step	10.637	1	.001						
Block	58.500	3	.000	270.405	.232	.342	4.924	8	.766
Model	82.087	9	.000						
<i>Step 4</i>									
Step	6.429	1	.011						
Block	64.928	4	.000	263.976	.248	.365	4.563	8	.803
Model	88.516	10	.000						

Note.  $n = 311$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Classification results: % correct = 80.4% (cut value = .50).

**Table 16:** Statistical Results (Variables in the Equation) BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery)—Threshold Interest (Group No-Interest and Group Interest)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<b>Block 0: Beginning Block</b>								
<i>Step 0</i>								
Constant	1.077	.130	68.394	1.000	.000	2.937		
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			6.926	5	.226			
Institution(1)	20.459	10239.407	.000	1	.998	7.68E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.840	.357	5.548	1	.019	2.317	1.152	4.664
Institution(3)	.330	.398	.687	1	.407	1.391	.637	3.036
Institution(4)	-.095	.454	.044	1	.834	.909	.374	2.213
Institution(5)	.252	.466	.291	1	.589	1.286	.516	3.206
FL_NonFL(1)	-.927	.370	6.263	1	.012	.396	.191	.818
Constant	1.419	.409	12.059	1	.001	4.133		
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			8.139	5	.149			
Institution(1)	20.645	9810.642	.000	1	.998	9.25E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.919	.376	5.982	1	.014	2.508	1.200	5.239
Institution(3)	.629	.424	2.201	1	.138	1.876	.817	4.308
Institution(4)	-.140	.477	.087	1	.768	.869	.341	2.212
Institution(5)	.431	.498	.749	1	.387	1.539	.580	4.083
FL_NonFL(1)	-.666	.398	2.803	1	.094	.514	.236	1.120
Simply no interest/lack of value (C13_18)	-.512	.103	24.690	1	.000	.600	.490	.734
Constant	2.436	.484	25.370	1	.000	11.425		
<i>Step 2</i>								
Institution			8.136	5	.149			
Institution(1)	20.608	9482.893	.000	1	.998	8.91E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.958	.397	5.840	1	.016	2.607	1.199	5.672
Institution(3)	.503	.446	1.274	1	.259	1.654	.690	3.962
Institution(4)	.251	.499	.253	1	.615	1.285	.483	3.416
Institution(5)	1.125	.533	4.447	1	.035	3.079	1.083	8.757
FL_NonFL(1)	-.565	.415	1.852	1	.174	.568	.252	1.283
Simply no interest/lack of value (C13_18)	-.596	.111	28.938	1	.000	.551	.443	.685
Expected delay in studies (C13_12)	.488	.111	19.384	1	.000	1.629	1.311	2.024
Constant	.970	.575	2.850	1	.091	2.639		

**Table I6** continued

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<i>Step 3</i>								
Institution			9.332	5	.097			
Institution(1)	20.284	9483.029	.000	1	.998	6.44E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.924	.406	5.178	1	.023	2.519	1.137	5.582
Institution(3)	.637	.457	1.942	1	.163	1.890	.772	4.628
Institution(4)	.213	.515	.172	1	.679	1.238	.451	3.398
Institution(5)	1.397	.554	6.358	1	.012	4.044	1.365	11.979
FL_NonFL(1)	-.565	.424	1.780	1	.182	.568	.248	1.304
Simply no interest/lack of value (C13_18)	-.553	.115	22.987	1	.000	.575	.459	.721
Separation family and children (C13_5)	-.326	.103	10.026	1	.002	.722	.590	.883
Expected delay in studies (C13_12)	.499	.114	19.204	1	.000	1.646	1.317	2.058
Constant	1.895	.663	8.161	1	.004	6.652		
<i>Step 4</i>								
Institution			9.902	5	.078			
Institution(1)	20.322	9325.053	.000	1	.998	6.70E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.856	.413	4.305	1	.038	2.355	1.049	5.289
Institution(3)	.648	.463	1.959	1	.162	1.912	.772	4.739
Institution(4)	.060	.531	.013	1	.911	1.061	.375	3.005
Institution(5)	1.508	.569	7.009	1	.008	4.516	1.479	13.785
FL_NonFL(1)	-.581	.429	1.837	1	.175	.559	.241	1.296
Simply no interest/lack of value (C13_18)	-.576	.118	23.934	1	.000	.562	.446	.708
Separation family and children (C13_5)	-.298	.103	8.408	1	.004	.742	.606	.908
Expected delay in studies (C13_12)	.441	.116	14.530	1	.000	1.555	1.239	1.950
Never got information on options (C13_1)	.312	.126	6.096	1	.014	1.367	1.066	1.751
Constant	1.349	.697	3.740	1	.053	3.852		

*Note.* *n* = 311. BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 19 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I7:** Variable Encoding BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery) Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Plans (Group Interest and Group Plans)

		Frequency	Parameter coding				
			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Institution	Institution 1	79	0	0	0	0	0
	Institution 2	41	1	0	0	0	0
	Institution 3	126	0	1	0	0	0
	Institution 4	57	0	0	1	0	0
	Institution 5	43	0	0	0	1	0
	Institution 6	30	0	0	0	0	1
Studying FL or not	Studying FL	136	0				
	Not studying FL	240	1				

Note.  $n = 376$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 19 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I8:** Statistical Results BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery) —Threshold Plans (Group Interest and Group Plans)

Omnibus-tests of model coefficients			Model summary			Hosmer-Lemeshow test			
$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	-2 LL	Cox & Snell $R^2$	Nagelkerke $R^2$	$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	26.460	6	.000						
Block	26.460	6	.000	473.999	.068	.092	7.700	8	.463
Model	26.460	6	.000						
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	16.325	1	.000						
Block	16.325	1	.000	457.673	.108	.146	4.571	8	.802
Model	42.785	7	.000						
<i>Step 2</i>									
Step	7.566	1	.006						
Block	23.891	2	.000	450.108	.125	.170	4.595	8	.800
Model	50.351	8	.000						
<i>Step 3</i>									
Step	5.188	1	.023						
Block	29.079	3	.000	444.920	.137	.187	10.265	8	.247
Model	55.539	9	.000						
<i>Step 4</i>									
Step	7.773	1	.005						
Block	36.852	4	.000	437.146	.155	.211	8.387	8	.397
Model	63.312	10	.000						

Note.  $n = 376$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Classification results: % correct = 71.5% (cut value = .50).

**Table 19:** Statistical Results (Variables in the Equation) BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery)—Threshold Plans (Group Interest and Group Plans)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<b>Block 0: Beginning Block</b>								
<i>Step 0</i>								
Constant	-.477	.106	20.210	1	.000	.621		
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			11.931	5	.036			
Institution(1)	.860	.411	4.393	1	.036	2.364	1.057	5.287
Institution(2)	-.224	.306	.535	1	.464	.799	.439	1.456
Institution(3)	-.167	.369	.205	1	.650	.846	.410	1.744
Institution(4)	.105	.397	.070	1	.791	1.111	.510	2.418
Institution(5)	-.812	.501	2.630	1	.105	.444	.166	1.184
FL_NonFL(1)	-.759	.230	10.917	1	.001	.468	.298	.734
Constant	.041	.294	.020	1	.888	1.042		
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			10.719	5	.057			
Institution(1)	.861	.422	4.161	1	.041	2.365	1.034	5.407
Institution(2)	-.147	.313	.220	1	.639	.863	.468	1.594
Institution(3)	.080	.383	.044	1	.834	1.083	.512	2.294
Institution(4)	.081	.400	.041	1	.840	1.084	.495	2.375
Institution(5)	-.851	.512	2.768	1	.096	.427	.157	1.164
FL_NonFL(1)	-.589	.237	6.165	1	.013	.555	.349	.883
It's not a requirement (. . .) (C13_19)	-.340	.087	15.127	1	.000	.712	.600	.845
Constant	.597	.331	3.247	1	.072	1.817		
<i>Step 2</i>								
Institution			10.718	5	.057			
Institution(1)	.944	.426	4.904	1	.027	2.571	1.115	5.929
Institution(2)	-.152	.316	.231	1	.631	.859	.462	1.597
Institution(3)	.117	.388	.091	1	.763	1.124	.525	2.406
Institution(4)	.170	.405	.177	1	.674	1.186	.536	2.624
Institution(5)	-.690	.527	1.711	1	.191	.502	.178	1.410
FL_NonFL(1)	-.744	.248	9.029	1	.003	.475	.292	.772
It's not a requirement (. . .) (C13_19)	-.383	.091	17.850	1	.000	.682	.571	.815
Level of foreign language skills (C13_3)	.242	.089	7.357	1	.007	1.274	1.070	1.518
Constant	.038	.392	.009	1	.923	1.039		

**Table 19** continued

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<i>Step 3</i>								
Institution			11.056	5	.050			
Institution(1)	1.001	.431	5.396	1	.020	2.722	1.169	6.338
Institution(2)	-.176	.318	.308	1	.579	.838	.449	1.563
Institution(3)	.131	.391	.113	1	.737	1.140	.530	2.452
Institution(4)	.108	.409	.070	1	.791	1.115	.500	2.485
Institution(5)	-.619	.533	1.348	1	.246	.538	.189	1.531
FL_NonFL(1)	-.693	.251	7.639	1	.006	.500	.306	.817
It's not a requirement (. . .) (C13_19)	-.401	.092	19.017	1	.000	.669	.559	.802
Level of foreign language skills (C13_3)	.212	.091	5.407	1	.020	1.236	1.034	1.479
Limited offer English-speaking countries (C13_4)	.207	.092	5.118	1	.024	1.230	1.028	1.472
Constant	-.353	.432	.666	1	.414	.703		
<i>Step 4</i>								
Institution			10.139	5	.071			
Institution(1)	.956	.436	4.807	1	.028	2.601	1.107	6.111
Institution(2)	-.124	.324	.147	1	.702	.883	.468	1.666
Institution(3)	.118	.393	.091	1	.763	1.126	.521	2.433
Institution(4)	.039	.419	.009	1	.926	1.040	.458	2.364
Institution(5)	-.690	.538	1.644	1	.200	.502	.175	1.440
FL_NonFL(1)	-.720	.255	7.991	1	.005	.487	.295	.802
It's not a requirement (. . .) (C13_19)	-.367	.093	15.495	1	.000	.693	.577	.832
Lack of grants (C13_21)	-.255	.092	7.607	1	.006	.775	.647	.929
Level of foreign language skills (C13_3)	.222	.093	5.663	1	.017	1.248	1.040	1.498
Limited offer English-speaking countries (C13_4)	.263	.095	7.626	1	.006	1.301	1.079	1.569
Constant	.278	.492	.319	1	.572	1.320		

*Note.* *n* = 376. BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 19 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I10:** Variable Encoding BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery) Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Implementation (Group Plans and Group Implementation)

		Frequency	Parameter coding				
			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Institution	Institution 1	61	0	0	0	0	0
	Institution 2	99	1	0	0	0	0
	Institution 3	128	0	1	0	0	0
	Institution 4	35	0	0	1	0	0
	Institution 5	36	0	0	0	1	0
	Institution 6	14	0	0	0	0	1
Studying FL or not	Studying FL	212	0				
	Not studying FL	161	1				

Note.  $n = 373$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 19 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I11:** Statistical Results BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery) —Threshold Implementation (Group Plans and Group Implementation)

Omnibus-tests of model coefficients			Model summary			Hosmer-Lemeshow test			
$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	-2 LL	Cox & Snell $R^2$	Nagelkerke $R^2$	$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	23.289	6	.001						
Block	23.289	6	.001	474.258	.061	.082	.380	6	.999
Model	23.289	6	.001						
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	19.212	1	.000						
Block	19.212	1	.000	455.046	.108	.146	12.424	8	.133
Model	42.500	7	.000						
<i>Step 2</i>									
Step	10.618	1	.001						
Block	29.830	2	.000	444.428	.133	.180	7.363	8	.498
Model	53.118	8	.000						
<i>Step 3</i>									
Step	7.758	1	.005				7.690	8	.464
Block	37.588	3	.000	436.670	.151	.204			
Model	60.877	9	.000						

Note.  $n = 373$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Classification results: % correct = 68.9% (cut value = .50).

**Table I12:** Statistical Results (Variables in the Equation) BLR Second Line of Inquiry (Obstacles Item Battery)—Threshold Implementation (Group Plans and Group Implementation)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<b>Block 0: Beginning Block</b>								
<i>Step 0</i>								
Constant	.464	.106	19.026	1	.000	1.590		
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			15.425	5	.009			
Institution(1)	.722	.359	4.056	1	.044	2.059	1.020	4.157
Institution(2)	.514	.321	2.567	1	.109	1.672	.892	3.136
Institution(3)	-.462	.432	1.146	1	.284	.630	.270	1.468
Institution(4)	-.332	.428	.601	1	.438	.718	.310	1.661
Institution(5)	-.319	.605	.279	1	.598	.727	.222	2.380
FL_NonFL(1)	-.494	.231	4.563	1	.033	.610	.388	.960
Constant	.424	.301	1.994	1	.158	1.529		
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			16.025	5	.007			
Institution(1)	.710	.369	3.698	1	.054	2.034	.986	4.193
Institution(2)	.476	.331	2.074	1	.150	1.610	.842	3.076
Institution(3)	-.412	.443	.867	1	.352	.662	.278	1.577
Institution(4)	-.560	.444	1.593	1	.207	.571	.239	1.363
Institution(5)	-.390	.624	.390	1	.532	.677	.199	2.301
FL_NonFL(1)	-.492	.237	4.323	1	.038	.611	.384	.972
Interest but also challenging to "just do it" (C13_8)	-.366	.085	18.370	1	.000	.694	.587	.820
Constant	1.436	.392	13.421	1	.000	4.203		
<i>Step 2</i>								
Institution			12.546	5	.028			
Institution(1)	.684	.376	3.313	1	.069	1.982	.949	4.138
Institution(2)	.452	.335	1.823	1	.177	1.572	.815	3.031
Institution(3)	-.180	.455	.157	1	.692	.835	.342	2.039
Institution(4)	-.551	.453	1.483	1	.223	.576	.237	1.399
Institution(5)	-.360	.639	.317	1	.573	.698	.199	2.442
FL_NonFL(1)	-.393	.242	2.641	1	.104	.675	.420	1.084
Simply no interest/lack of value (C13_18)	-.432	.137	9.955	1	.002	.650	.497	.849
Interest but also challenging to "just do it" (C13_8)	-.337	.087	15.115	1	.000	.714	.602	.846
Constant	1.910	.425	20.155	1	.000	6.753		

**Table I12** continued

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<i>Step 3</i>								
Institution			10.469	5	.063			
Institution(1)	.537	.383	1.966	1	.161	1.711	.808	3.625
Institution(2)	.439	.339	1.675	1	.196	1.551	.798	3.016
Institution(3)	-.276	.460	.360	1	.549	.759	.308	1.869
Institution(4)	-.523	.458	1.304	1	.254	.593	.242	1.454
Institution(5)	-.375	.643	.341	1	.559	.687	.195	2.421
FL_NonFL(1)	-.424	.245	3.001	1	.083	.654	.405	1.057
Simply no interest/lack of value (C13_18)	-.394	.137	8.239	1	.004	.675	.516	.883
Interest but also challenging to "just do it" (C13_8)	-.329	.087	14.148	1	.000	.720	.606	.854
Limited offer English-speaking countries (C13_4)	-.251	.091	7.697	1	.006	.778	.651	.929
Constant	2.468	.479	26.586	1	.000	11.803		

*Note.*  $n = 373$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 19 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I13:** Variable Encoding BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Interest (Group No-Interest and Group Interest)

		Frequency	Parameter coding				
			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Institution	Institution 1	77	0	0	0	0	0
	Institution 2	14	1	0	0	0	0
	Institution 3	99	0	1	0	0	0
	Institution 4	54	0	0	1	0	0
	Institution 5	33	0	0	0	1	0
	Institution 6	32	0	0	0	0	1
Studying FL or not	Studying FL	81	0				
	Not studying FL	228	1				
Have received information on options from my institution	No	107	0				
	Yes	202	1				
Know where to get information at my institution	No	55	0				
	Yes	254	1				
Know several supporting programs, schemes, etc.	No	179	0				
	Yes	130	1				
Having children	Not having children	268	0				
	Having children	41	1				

Note.  $n = 309$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 20 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I14:** Statistical Results BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Interest (Group No-Interest and Group Interest)

Omnibus-tests of model coefficients			Model summary			Hosmer-Lemeshow test			
$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	-2 LL	Cox & Snell $R^2$	Nagelkerke $R^2$	$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	36.270	12	.000						
Block	36.270	12	.000	276.277	.111	.174	7.101	8	.526
Model	36.270	12	.000						
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	8.052	1	.005						
Block	8.052	1	.005	268.225	.134	.210	9.047	8	.338
Model	44.322	13	.000						
<i>Step 2</i>									
Step	6.147	1	.013						
Block	14.199	2	.001	262.078	.151	.237	6.137	8	.632
Model	50.469	14	.000						
<i>Step 3</i>									
Step	4.576	1	.032						
Block	18.775	3	.000	257.502	.163	.256	5.829	8	.666
Model	55.044	15	.000						

Note.  $n = 309$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Classification results: % correct = 79.6% (cut value = .50).

**Table I15:** Statistical Results (Variables in the Equation) BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—  
Threshold Interest (Group No-Interest and Group Interest)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<b>Block 0: Beginning Block</b>								
<i>Step 0</i>								
Constant	1.362	.141	93.067	1	.000	3.905		
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			2.498	5	.777			
Institution(1)	20.052	10378.304	.000	1	.998	5.11E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.579	.404	2.054	1	.152	1.785	.808	3.943
Institution(3)	.166	.444	.140	1	.708	1.181	.495	2.820
Institution(4)	-.079	.560	.020	1	.888	.924	.308	2.772
Institution(5)	.160	.646	.062	1	.804	1.174	.331	4.164
FL_NonFL(1)	-.578	.449	1.658	1	.198	.561	.232	1.353
StudyYear	-.161	.107	2.255	1	.133	.851	.690	1.050
Age	-.023	.037	.371	1	.543	.978	.909	1.051
Educational background parents	.001	.084	.000	1	.991	1.001	.849	1.179
Children(1)	-.254	.692	.134	1	.714	.776	.200	3.014
Languages spoken	.820	.261	9.850	1	.002	2.269	1.360	3.786
Months abroad since 15	.108	.130	.693	1	.405	1.114	.864	1.438
Constant	.485	1.243	.152	1	.696	1.624		
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			3.417	5	.636			
Institution(1)	19.956	10146.052	.000	1	.998	4.64E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.575	.413	1.940	1	.164	1.776	.791	3.988
Institution(3)	.197	.454	.188	1	.665	1.217	.500	2.961
Institution(4)	-.343	.568	.365	1	.546	.710	.233	2.160
Institution(5)	.288	.664	.188	1	.664	1.334	.363	4.903
FL_NonFL(1)	-.392	.459	.730	1	.393	.676	.275	1.660
Study Year	-.177	.110	2.591	1	.107	.838	.676	1.039
Age	-.018	.037	.241	1	.624	.982	.913	1.056
Educational background parents	.015	.085	.032	1	.857	1.015	.859	1.200
Children(1)	-.270	.701	.149	1	.700	.763	.193	3.013
Languages spoken	.853	.269	10.021	1	.002	2.346	1.384	3.979
Months abroad since 15	.129	.133	.951	1	.330	1.138	.877	1.476
Fellow students and friends driver	.360	.131	7.542	1	.006	1.433	1.109	1.853
Constant	-.815	1.336	.372	1	.542	.443		

**Table I15** continued

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<i>Step 2</i>								
Institution			3.882	5	.566			
Institution(1)	20.124	10045.478	.000	1	.998	5.49E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.633	.422	2.252	1	.133	1.883	.824	4.302
Institution(3)	.135	.459	.087	1	.768	1.145	.466	2.813
Institution(4)	-.323	.573	.319	1	.572	.724	.236	2.224
Institution(5)	.405	.690	.345	1	.557	1.500	.388	5.801
FL_NonFL(1)	-.296	.469	.397	1	.529	.744	.297	1.867
Study Year	-.249	.116	4.618	1	.032	.780	.621	.978
Age	-.025	.038	.416	1	.519	.976	.905	1.051
Educational background parents	.010	.087	.012	1	.911	1.010	.851	1.198
Children(1)	-.295	.716	.170	1	.680	.744	.183	3.028
Languages spoken	.845	.272	9.628	1	.002	2.328	1.365	3.971
Months abroad since 15	.096	.136	.500	1	.479	1.101	.843	1.438
Fellow students and friends driver	.356	.132	7.316	1	.007	1.428	1.103	1.849
Know several supporting programs etc.(1)	.853	.355	5.767	1	.016	2.347	1.170	4.711
Constant	-.713	1.357	.276	1	.599	.490		
<i>Step 3</i>								
Institution			3.390	5	.640			
Institution(1)	19.987	9996.783	.000	1	.998	4.79E+08	.000	
Institution(2)	.555	.427	1.695	1	.193	1.743	.755	4.021
Institution(3)	.118	.460	.065	1	.798	1.125	.457	2.771
Institution(4)	-.397	.582	.465	1	.495	.672	.215	2.103
Institution(5)	.335	.689	.236	1	.627	1.397	.362	5.393
FL_NonFL(1)	-.139	.478	.085	1	.771	.870	.341	2.220
Study Year	-.216	.118	3.365	1	.067	.806	.639	1.015
Age	-.026	.038	.473	1	.491	.974	.904	1.049
Educational background parents	.006	.088	.004	1	.950	1.006	.847	1.194
Children(1)	-.299	.719	.173	1	.677	.741	.181	3.034
Languages spoken	.881	.278	10.054	1	.002	2.413	1.400	4.158
Months abroad since 15	.101	.138	.537	1	.464	1.106	.844	1.450
Fellow students and friends driver	.341	.134	6.490	1	.011	1.407	1.082	1.829
Professional relevance international competences	.312	.146	4.548	1	.033	1.366	1.026	1.819
Know several supporting programs etc(1)	.832	.360	5.330	1	.021	2.297	1.134	4.653
Constant	-1.915	1.489	1.655	1	.198	.147		

*Note.* *n* = 309. BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 20 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I16:** Variable Encoding BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Plans (Group Interest and Group Plans)

		Frequency	Parameter coding				
			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Institution	Institution 1	89	0	0	0	0	0
	Institution 2	40	1	0	0	0	0
	Institution 3	127	0	1	0	0	0
	Institution 4	61	0	0	1	0	0
	Institution 5	36	0	0	0	1	0
	Institution 6	31	0	0	0	0	1
Studying FL or not	Studying FL	137	0				
	Not studying FL	247	1				
Have received information on options from my institution	No	114	0				
	Yes	270	1				
Know where to get information at my institution	No	52	0				
	Yes	332	1				
Know several supporting programs, schemes, etc.	No	181	0				
	Yes	203	1				
Having children	Not having children	353	0				
	Having children	31	1				

Note.  $n = 384$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 20 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I17:** Statistical Results BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Plans (Group Interest and Group Plans)

Omnibus-tests of model coefficients			Model summary			Hosmer-Lemeshow test			
$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	$-2 LL$	Cox & Snell $R^2$	Nagelkerke $R^2$	$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.	
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	81.055	12	.000						
Block	81.055	12	.000	420.494	.190	.261	5.167	8	.740
Model	81.055	12	.000						
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	10.323	1	.001						
Block	10.323	1	.001	410.170	.212	.290	9.153	8	.330
Model	91.378	13	.000						

Note.  $n = 384$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Classification results: % correct = 70.8% (cut value = .50).

**Table I18:** Statistical Results (Variables in the Equation) BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—  
Threshold Plans (Group Interest and Group Plans)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<b>Block 0: Beginning Block</b>								
<i>Step 0</i>								
Constant	-.578	.106	29.543	1	.000	.561		
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			15.339	5	.009			
Institution(1)	1.285	.486	7.008	1	.008	3.616	1.396	9.364
Institution(2)	-.439	.317	1.918	1	.166	.645	.346	1.200
Institution(3)	-.394	.387	1.036	1	.309	.675	.316	1.440
Institution(4)	-.177	.488	.132	1	.716	.838	.322	2.179
Institution(5)	-.186	.619	.090	1	.764	.831	.247	2.794
FL_NonFL(1)	-.417	.260	2.560	1	.110	.659	.396	1.098
Study Year	-.225	.118	3.618	1	.057	.798	.633	1.007
Age	-.150	.056	7.109	1	.008	.861	.771	.961
Educational background parents	.047	.067	.489	1	.485	1.048	.919	1.196
Children(1)	-1.498	1.150	1.698	1	.193	.224	.023	2.129
Languages spoken	-.183	.178	1.061	1	.303	.833	.587	1.180
Months abroad since 15	.426	.100	18.203	1	.000	1.531	1.259	1.862
Constant	2.806	1.334	4.424	1	.035	16.539		
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			15.893	5	.007			
Institution(1)	1.379	.496	7.736	1	.005	3.970	1.503	10.489
Institution(2)	-.429	.323	1.761	1	.184	.651	.346	1.227
Institution(3)	-.346	.393	.774	1	.379	.707	.327	1.530
Institution(4)	.029	.498	.003	1	.954	1.029	.388	2.732
Institution(5)	-.026	.616	.002	1	.966	.974	.291	3.258
FL_NonFL(1)	-.291	.267	1.193	1	.275	.747	.443	1.260
Study Year	-.276	.122	5.137	1	.023	.759	.598	.963
Age	-.153	.057	7.233	1	.007	.858	.768	.959
Educational background parents	.046	.068	.465	1	.495	1.047	.917	1.197
Children(1)	-1.414	1.134	1.554	1	.213	.243	.026	2.246
Languages spoken	-.248	.182	1.861	1	.173	.780	.546	1.114
Months abroad since 15	.382	.102	14.102	1	.000	1.466	1.201	1.790
Know several supporting programs etc(1)	.813	.256	10.102	1	.001	2.254	1.366	3.721
Constant	2.723	1.358	4.018	1	.045	15.221		

Note. *n* = 384. BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 20 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I19:** Variable Encoding BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Implementation (Group Plans and Group Implementation)

		Frequency	Parameter coding				
			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Institution	Institution 1	66	0	0	0	0	0
	Institution 2	92	1	0	0	0	0
	Institution 3	116	0	1	0	0	0
	Institution 4	32	0	0	1	0	0
	Institution 5	21	0	0	0	1	0
	Institution 6	14	0	0	0	0	1
Studying FL or not	Studying FL	194	0				
	Not studying FL	147	1				
Have received information on options from my institution	No	69	0				
	Yes	272	1				
Know where to get information at my institution	No	23	0				
	Yes	318	1				
Know several supporting programs, schemes, etc.	No	93	0				
	Yes	248	1				
Having children	Not having children	329	0				
	Having children	12	1				

Note.  $n = 341$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 20 in Chapter Methods.

**Table I20:** Statistical Results BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—Threshold Implementation (Group Plans and Group Implementation)

Omnibus-tests of model coefficients				Model summary			Hosmer-Lemeshow test		
$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.		-2 LL	Cox & Snell $R^2$	Nagelkerke $R^2$	$Chi^2$	$df$	Sig.
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	152.002	10	.000						
Block	152.002	10	.000	309.018	.360	.485	9.041	8	.339
Model	152.002	10	.000						
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>									
<i>Step 1</i>									
Step	6.924	1	.009						
Block	6.924	1	.009	302.094	.373	.503	6.419	8	.600
Model	158.926	11	.000						
<i>Step 2</i>									
Step	4.081	1	.043						
Block	11.006	2	.004	298.012	.380	.513	5.348	8	.720
Model	163.008	12	.000						

Note.  $n = 341$ . BLR = Binary logistic regression. Classification results: % correct = 80.4% (cut value = .50).

**Table I21:** Statistical Results (Variables in the Equation) BLR Third Line of Inquiry Investigation Strand 2—  
Threshold Implementation (Group Plans and Group Implementation)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<b>Block 0: Beginning Block</b>								
<i>Step 0</i>								
Constant	.374	.110	11.505	1	.001	1.453		
<b>Block 1: Method = Enter</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			5.519	5	.356			
Institution(1)	-.372	.459	.655	1	.418	.690	.280	1.696
Institution(2)	.482	.390	1.524	1	.217	1.619	.754	3.477
Institution(3)	-.113	.558	.041	1	.840	.893	.299	2.666
Institution(4)	-.075	.630	.014	1	.905	.928	.270	3.188
Institution(5)	-.350	.771	.207	1	.649	.704	.155	3.192
FL_NonFL(1)	-1.180	.312	14.327	1	.000	.307	.167	.566
Study Year	.965	.138	49.213	1	.000	2.625	2.005	3.437
Age	.186	.064	8.397	1	.004	1.204	1.062	1.366
Educational background parents	.055	.080	.467	1	.494	1.056	.903	1.236
Children(1)	-.587	1.204	.238	1	.626	.556	.053	5.883
Constant	-6.731	1.562	18.576	1	.000	.001		
<b>Block 2: Method = Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)</b>								
<i>Step 1</i>								
Institution			5.391	5	.370			
Institution(1)	-.292	.463	.397	1	.528	.747	.301	1.852
Institution(2)	.545	.397	1.881	1	.170	1.724	.792	3.755
Institution(3)	-.006	.568	.000	1	.991	.994	.326	3.025
Institution(4)	-.047	.629	.006	1	.940	.954	.278	3.270
Institution(5)	-.345	.801	.185	1	.667	.708	.147	3.405
FL_NonFL(1)	-1.120	.317	12.505	1	.000	.326	.175	.607
Study Year	.986	.142	48.190	1	.000	2.680	2.029	3.540
Age	.186	.068	7.562	1	.006	1.205	1.055	1.376
Educational background parents	.059	.081	.520	1	.471	1.060	.904	1.244
Children(1)	.002	1.316	.000	1	.999	1.002	.076	13.220
Know where to get information(1)	1.632	.650	6.301	1	.012	5.116	1.430	18.297
Constant	-8.443	1.790	22.242	1	.000	.000		

**Table I21** continued

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Wald	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Exp( <i>B</i> )	95% CI for Exp( <i>B</i> )	
							<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
<i>Step 2</i>								
Institution			4.853	5	.434			
Institution(1)	-.277	.468	.350	1	.554	.758	.303	1.898
Institution(2)	.503	.403	1.554	1	.213	1.653	.750	3.645
Institution(3)	.069	.581	.014	1	.905	1.071	.343	3.344
Institution(4)	-.188	.646	.085	1	.771	.828	.234	2.937
Institution(5)	-.357	.783	.209	1	.648	.699	.151	3.243
FL_NonFL(1)	-.922	.331	7.741	1	.005	.398	.208	.762
Study Year	.962	.141	46.492	1	.000	2.617	1.985	3.451
Age	.195	.068	8.296	1	.004	1.215	1.064	1.387
Educational background parents	.056	.082	.467	1	.494	1.057	.901	1.241
Children(1)	-.032	1.345	.001	1	.981	.969	.069	13.515
Professional relevance international competences	.350	.175	3.992	1	.046	1.419	1.007	2.000
Know where to get information(1)	1.588	.659	5.799	1	.016	4.893	1.344	17.815
Constant	-10.084	2.013	25.099	1	.000	.000		

*Note.* *n* = 341. BLR = Binary logistic regression. Full item references: see Table 20 in Chapter Methods.



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